

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

,

QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN EMERGENCY IN AMHARA AND OROMIA REGIONS OF ETHIOPIA: A COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY OF SELECTED IDP SITES.

(PH.D. DISSERTATION THESIS)

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May 2026

ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN EMERGENCY IN AMHARA AND OROMIA REGIONS OF ETHIOPIA: A COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY OF SELECTED IDP SITES.

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Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Curriculum and Comparative Education for the Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in International and Comparative Education

Addis Ababa University

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, May 2026

DECLARATION

I, Dechassa Merga, hereby state that the dissertation paper titled **Quality of Education in Emergency in Amhara and Oromia Regions of Ethiopia: A Comparative Case Study of Selected IDP Sites** is my original work. It has not been presented, or even partially presented, to obtain any degree, diploma, or qualification at this or any other university.

The information and materials utilized in this work have been properly referenced.

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SUPERVISOR'S APPROVAL

This dissertation has been presented to undergo examination with my approval as the principal supervisor.

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Certification

This is to certify that the dissertation prepared by Wubnesh Shiferaw Benti entitled **Quality of Education in Emergency in Amhara and Oromia Regions of Ethiopia: A Comparative Case Study of Selected IDP Sites** and submitted to the Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University, College of Education and Language Studies, Department of Curriculum and Comparative Education in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in International and Comparative Education complies with regulations of the university and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study has been successful, and this is because of the goodwill and contributions of many people and institutions, and I would like to say I am deeply grateful to them.

I want to recognize the highest level of appreciation to my main supervisor, Dr. Teshome Nekatibeb, who has offered great professional guidance, encouragement, and support to me throughout my research Journy.

This work owes much of its quality to the time and invaluable criticisms on the draft paper given by Dr. Alebachew Kemiso, who was a great help to me.

I would like to sincerely thank everyone who has allowed me to have their experience and spend time with them willingly: internally displaced children, their parents, school principals, teachers, community representatives, and agency experts. This study could not have taken place without their openness and commitment.

I would like to confirm that the research is supported by the research grant of Addis Ababa University.

I would like to thank my colleagues, Mr. Asrat Merkebe and Jafar Mustefa, who were understanding and loyal to me. I further thank my colleagues in the International and Comparative Education program at Addis Ababa University, who are my classmates in the PhD program as well.

Finally is my innermost and personal appreciation is to my family. My wife, Hawi Tadesse, thank you, you have shown me endless love, patience, and that you can run our home as strong and gracious as you do. To my children, Milki, Lami, Ibsa, Marolle, and Bonsa, I am grateful that you understand why I am away so much without giving you due attention.

Finally, I will never forget the importance of my father, Merga Debelo, and my mother, Belaynesh Gerbi, who taught me that it is worth enduring hardship and striving to learn something despite all the odds.

In deepest gratitude, I wish to thank you all.

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ABSTRACT

The research paper examines the educational attainment of internally displaced children (IDPCs) in the Oromia and Amhara regions of Ethiopia. It examines the learning outcomes, emergency-related issues, regional differences, and the efficiency of the educational interventions in the case of protracted crises. This was done through a mixed-method approach, collecting data from 624 participants comprising students, teachers, families, and other stakeholders, including government officials, NGO representatives, and community leaders, with the help of surveys, interviews, and focus group discussions. The analysis relied on advanced econometric models: multilevel regression to assess hierarchical effects on academic performance; multiple linear regression to identify key predictors of educational quality; ANOVA tests to establish significant regional differences; and Structural Equation Modeling to test complex relationships between latent constructs such as resource scarcity and community engagement. The results reveal substantial regional inequalities. In Oromia, students showed better academic achievement and attendance, associated with decentralized governance and adaptive institutional structures. Amhara, by contrast, faced more systemic issues: extreme teacher shortages, increased trauma exposure, and inefficient resource allocations. Key determinants of educational quality were teacher capacity, psychosocial support, curriculum relevance, and community engagement. Trauma had a significant negative effect on learning outcomes. Community-led programs and Accelerated Learning Programs proved highly effective, especially in Oromia, where localization and stakeholder coordination were stronger. The research concludes that governance agility, institutional adaptability, and community participation are more critical than resource volume for educational resilience during emergencies. It recommends integrating trauma-informed practices, decentralizing education management, strengthening teacher support systems, and institutionalizing community engagement. These evidence-based strategies can create more favorable learning conditions, enabling displaced children to fulfill their educational potential despite continued adversity.

Key words: Education in Emergency, Internal Displacment, Quality of Education

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Internal displacement has been one of the most challenging international problems, and this has been fueled by internal wars that have displaced millions of people. In 2023, it is estimated that 75.9 million people in the world are internally displaced, with large proportions of this population due to conflicts in Sudan, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Afghanistan (IDMC, 2024). Children are particularly vulnerable to the dislocation of these displaced populations, and more than 17 million children are in precarious condition (UNHCR, 2016).

Recent data from the Education Cluster (2024) and UNICEF Ethiopia (2025) confirm continued decline: reading proficiency among IDP children in grade 2 dropped from 13% in 2021 to 9% in 2024 in Amhara, and from 18% to 14% in Oromia. Numeracy scores fell from 22% to 16% in Amhara and from 28% to 23% in Oromia over the same period (Ministry of Education, 2025). In Ethiopia, the deterioration of educational quality in crisis contexts has been well documented. According to the Ministry of Education (2022), national learning assessments show a steady decline in reading and numeracy scores since 2018, with the most pronounced drops in conflict‑affected zones. Regional variations are striking: in Oromia, school closures due to ethnic violence led to a 34% reduction in instructional hours in some districts (UNICEF, 2021), while in Amhara, repeated displacements caused teacher shortages of up to 45% in affected woredas (Save the Children, 2023). Empirical evidence from the Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) shows that IDP children in Amhara scored, on average, 18 points lower than their non‑IDP peers, whereas in Oromia the gap was 11 points (USAID, 2022). These disparities, now widening further according to 2024‑2025 assessments (Education Cluster, 2024; MoE, 2025), point to region‑specific dynamics that require urgent comparative investigation. Lack of education due to displacement has devastating long‑term effects such as impaired cognitive growth, emotional distress, and reduced future opportunities (Schraven et al., 2019).

The effects of internal war on education are intense. Displaced children miss the opportunity to attend school and thus miss the necessary learning experience and social interaction important for their development (Dryden‑Peterson, 2016). Also, the unpredictability of conflict areas puts children at risk of violence, exploitation, and enrolment in armed organizations (Mastrorillo et al.,

2016). The United Nations has clarified the significance of education during emergencies, as it can contribute to personal development, societal stability, and peacebuilding (UNESCO, 2020).

The issues that internally displaced students face are especially critical in developing states. Many of these countries have poor educational infrastructure, a lack of funds, and political instability, all of which impede the delivery of basic services, including education (Ager et al., 2015). Destruction of schools, logistical issues in accessing learning centers, and economic limitations that restrict families' ability to meet school expenses are some of the barriers to education among displaced students (Lopez‐Calva et al., 2018). These complications are worsened by social stigma and discrimination within host societies where local schools may be reluctant to receive displaced children (Kirk & Winthrop, 2013). Displacement is also associated with psychological trauma that impacts students' capacity to learn, highlighting the necessity of specific interventions and mental health assistance (Betancourt et al., 2013).

Sub‐Saharan Africa is among the most impacted regions by internal displacement, hosting almost half of the global internally displaced people (IDMC, 2024). South Sudan, Somalia, and the Central African Republic have severely compromised education systems, with many institutions lacking even the simplest resources and safe conditions (UNICEF, 2018). These problems are exacerbated by environmental issues, including droughts and floods, which often force schools to close or be converted into military bases (Davis et al., 2016). Children are left uneducated, perpetuating cycles of poverty and instability, and many lack the means to build a better future (UNHCR, 2017).

Ethiopia exemplifies the complicated issues of internal displacement, especially due to internal conflict. Ethnic political unrest and environmental degradation have led to great displacement in the country. According to recent reports, there are about 6.9 million internally displaced people, with the most severe areas in Tigray (3.3 million), Somali (1.2 million), and Benishangul‐Gumuz (500,000). Oromia (353,230) and Amhara (770,580) also have significant numbers (IDMC, 2024). While Tigray, Somali, and Benishangul‐Gumuz have higher absolute IDP numbers, this study focuses on Oromia and Amhara for three reasons: (1) their contrasting governance models (decentralised Oromia vs. more centralised Amhara) allow a comparative analysis of how institutional structures affect educational resilience; (2) active conflict made Tigray inaccessible for sustained fieldwork (UN OCHA, 2024 security classification); and (3) together they host over

1.1 million IDPs, providing a large and diverse population for study. Findings are therefore generalisable to regions with similar governance contrasts, not to the most severe conflict zones.

Displaced students in Ethiopia have very poor educational prospects. Schools tend to be overcrowded, teacher‑to‑student ratios are insufficient, and resources are scarce (World Bank, 2021). Trauma further affects displaced children, causing psychological difficulties that make it hard to concentrate and succeed in learning institutions (Sharma et al., 2021). Gender differences also complicate the situation, as girls may be married early, pulled out of school, or forced into domestic work, while boys may be forced to work or recruited into military forces (Mastrorillo et al., 2016). These problems underscore the need for interventions to provide equitable access to education for all displaced children.

The situation is especially challenging in the Oromia and Amhara regions within the context of comparative governance and accessibility. Constant ethnic violence and political unrest in Oromia have interfered with educational services, with many schools shut down or their operations compromised due to unsafe conditions. Similarly, in Amhara, access to schooling has been impacted by political unrest and environmental influences such as drought and floods (UNICEF, 2020). Acknowledging this limitation, the study does not claim that Oromia and Amhara have the worst displacement nationally, only that they provide a valid comparative case for understanding how governance shapes education in emergencies. Those students who have been displaced encounter numerous problems, including insufficient infrastructure, lack of teaching facilities, insecurity, and social stigma (UNICEF, 2015). To overcome these problems, complex policies are needed that focus on safe learning conditions, mental care, and non‑discriminatory educational activities (Ager et al., 2015).

The cognitive, emotional, and social development of internally displaced students depends heavily on education. It provides normalcy and hope in times of crisis, preparing children with the skills and knowledge for socio‑economic progress (UNHCR, 2016). Education also enhances resilience, enabling children to become agents of change in their societies (Dryden‑Peterson, 2016). The absence of disaggregated information about the needs of displaced students, however, hinders effective intervention design. Understanding the special needs of displaced students in areas such as Oromia and Amhara is important to develop policies and programs that meet their

demands. The following section presents the statement of the problem, identifying the specific gaps this study addresses.

Although global and national communities strive to offer education during emergencies, internally displaced people (IDPs) in Ethiopia, especially those in Oromia and Amhara regions, still find it difficult to access quality education. Millions of children have been impacted by ongoing armed conflict, ethnic violence, and natural calamities; 3.6 million are currently out of school, and 1.6 million have been directly affected by recent calamities (UNICEF, 2023; Save the Children, 2023). These children face overcrowded classes, a tremendous lack of educational materials, and untrained teachers, all of which lead to a significant deterioration in the quality of education. The psychological consequences of displacement, such as trauma, instability, and breakdown of social networks, undermine children's ability to engage in academic activities. To make matters worse, education infrastructure has been destroyed: more than 8,700 schools are partially or severely damaged, causing a drastic reduction in learning outcomes. For example, the proportion of second‑grade students who could read dropped from 25% in 2018 to only 13% in 2021 (World Bank, 2022).

Theoretical gaps. Three theoretical gaps persist in the literature. First, Resilience Theory has been applied to individual children but rarely to education systems as a whole in displacement contexts. Second, the effect of governance structure (decentralised vs. centralised) on educational outcomes during emergencies has not been empirically tested. Third, existing Education in Emergencies (EiE) frameworks assume universal applicability without regional contextualisation. This study bridges these gaps by operationalising resilience at three levels (individual, school, regional governance), directly comparing Oromia and Amhara to quantify a 'decentralisation dividend', and developing a regionally‑grounded Displacement Education Adaptation Framework.

Empirical gaps. Multiple studies document declining outcomes among IDP children, but none compare governance effects across regions. Fisseha et al. (2022) found that IDP children in Oromia had 40% lower literacy scores than host community peers. Kebede and Basha (2023) reported that in Amhara, IDP students lost an average of 1.5 years of learning due to displacement. UNICEF Ethiopia (2023) showed that only 12% of IDP children in conflict‑affected woredas met grade‑level numeracy benchmarks, compared to 31% of non‑IDP children. Aregawi et al. (2021) documented that school closures in rural Amhara led to a 58% dropout rate among IDP girls. The

World Bank (2022) found that chronic absenteeism among IDP children (48%) was triple that of non‑IDP children. These studies treat each region separately; this study fills the gap by directly comparing Oromia and Amhara using identical instruments.

Practical gaps. Five operational obstacles hinder quality education in Oromia and Amhara. First, there is no coordinated referral pathway between humanitarian short‑term education and development long‑term schooling. Second, teacher deployment policies do not cover IDP‑serving schools, leading to chronic shortages (up to 45% in Amhara). Third, no standardised psychosocial screening tool exists for IDP children. Fourth, community engagement frameworks are weak or absent, especially in centralised Amhara. Fifth, resource distribution is inefficient: Amhara receives 23% more humanitarian funding than Oromia but has 18% lower resource utilisation efficiency due to bureaucratic bottlenecks (UNOCHA, 2023). This study documents these gaps empirically and tests which interventions mitigate them.

Rationale and justification. This study directly compares learning outcomes, emergency factors, and intervention effectiveness between Oromia and Amhara using multilevel regression, qualitative thematic analysis, and a newly developed Displacement Education Adaptation Framework – providing the first empirical test of how decentralised versus centralised governance affects educational resilience in Ethiopian IDP settings.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Although global and national communities strive to offer education during emergencies, internally displaced people (IDPs) in Ethiopia, especially those in Oromia and Amhara regions, still find it difficult to access quality education. Millions of children have been impacted by ongoing armed conflict, ethnic violence, and natural calamities; 3.6 million are currently out of school, and 1.6 million have been directly affected by recent calamities (UNICEF, 2023; Save the Children, 2023). These children face overcrowded classes, a tremendous lack of educational materials, and untrained teachers, all of which lead to a significant deterioration in the quality of education. The psychological consequences of displacement, such as trauma, instability, and breakdown of social networks, undermine children's ability to engage in academic activities. To make matters worse, education infrastructure has been destroyed: more than 8,700 schools are partially or severely damaged, causing a drastic reduction in learning outcomes. For example, the proportion of

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1.3. Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are the differences in academic performance among internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara, and what factors explain these differences?
- How do emergency‑specific factors (displacement, trauma, resource scarcity, safety) and their interaction with regional support systems influence the quality of education for internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara?
- What are the key differences in educational experiences and challenges faced by internally displaced children in Oromia compared to those in Amhara?
- How effective are the existing educational strategies and interventions (e.g., Temporary Learning Spaces, Accelerated Learning Programs, psychosocial support, teacher training) in enhancing the quality of education for internally displaced children in both regions?

1.4. Objective of the study:

1.4.1. General Objective

The general objective of this study is to compare the quality of education for internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara Regions by examining learning outcomes, emergency‑related factors, regional variations, and the effectiveness of support mechanisms.

1.4.2. Specific Objectives

- To assess and compare the academic performance of internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara, and to identify the key factors that explain differences in their academic performance.

- To examine how emergency‐specific factors (displacement, trauma, resource scarcity, safety) interact with regional support systems to influence the quality of education for internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara.
- To investigate the key differences in educational experiences and challenges faced by internally displaced children in Oromia compared to those in Amhara.
- To evaluate the effectiveness of existing educational strategies and interventions (e.g., Temporary Learning Spaces, Accelerated Learning Programs, psychosocial support, teacher training) in improving the quality of education for internally displaced children in both regions.

1.5. Significance of the Study:

The research is essential for different stakeholders dealing with the education of internally displaced children (IDPs) in Ethiopia. Its findings add to the current literature on emergency education, especially regarding the issues faced by IDP children. The study provides an understanding of the determinants of quality education in emergency conditions, including access, learning outcomes, teaching techniques, curriculum modification, psychosocial assistance, and community‐based programs.

In emergency contexts, access to education is not separate from quality but a foundational dimension of it. As the INEE Minimum Standards (2010, 2023) assert, without safe, physical access to learning opportunities, other quality dimensions (relevance, effectiveness, sustainability) cannot be realised. This study therefore treats access as a necessary condition for quality and examines how access barriers (distance, cost, safety) interact with other quality indicators.

This study is important because it can enlighten policymakers, educators, and humanitarian agencies to design effective interventions and policies that guarantee quality education for IDP children. By highlighting major challenges, barriers, best practices, and innovative solutions, the research aims to improve the overall standard of education and promote inclusive learning opportunities for all children in Ethiopia.

The focus on Oromia and Amhara regional states provides contextual insights into the challenges and opportunities faced by IDP children in these specific settings, which may inform targeted

interventions and resource allocation in other regions of Ethiopia facing similar displacement crises.

Overall, the study contributes to policy‐ making, programme development, and advocacy efforts aimed at enhancing the quality of education for IDP children. These efforts are necessary to support their long‐ term development, well‐ being, and social integration.

Beyond extending current knowledge on emergency education, the findings have practical implications for improving educational outcomes for Ethiopia's internally displaced children. By identifying context‐ specific interventions and policies that address the unique needs and challenges of displaced children, this research strives to help ensure that every child – even during emergencies – can access quality education. Ensuring quality education for IDPs is not only a moral imperative but also a critical investment in Ethiopia's future stability and prosperity.

1.6. Scope of the Study

This research work focused on the quality of education of internally displaced children (IDPs) in times of emergency in Oromia and Amhara regions of Ethiopia. It is particularly concerned with the outcomes of learning among children, aspects that affect the outcome and how it can be improved to enhance the quality of education in the IDP centers. Through this narrowness, the study is able to offer specific insights that are not only useful but also effective to the lives of these children in the two selected regions.

Geographical demarcation to Oromia and Amhara enables a detailed insight into the peculiar problems of IDP children in these areas. Every region has its own context, which affects the delivery of education and its results, and localized knowledge is the key to successful intervention.

The conceptual areas of interest encompass what quality education entails for children during emergencies, learning performance (literacy and numeracy), and social, economic, and psychological influences on access to education by IDP children. The paper also examines the influence of emergencies on educational delivery and how it can be improved by discussing the roles of different stakeholders, including governments and NGOs, in ensuring education delivery to IDP children in Oromia and Amhara.

The methodology is a mixed‑methods design combining quantitative and qualitative approaches, enabling an in‑depth analysis of the learning experiences of IDP children. The study does not claim statistical generalisation beyond the five sampled IDP camps; findings are analytical generalisations intended to inform theory and policy.

1.7. Operational Definitions of Key Constructs

Quality of Education: A composite score ranging from 1 to 5 derived from the Education Quality Index (EQI). The EQI aggregates five sub‑dimensions: access to schooling, teacher quality, curriculum relevance, physical safety, and psychosocial support. Each sub‑dimension is measured through student, teacher, and family surveys using Likert‑scale items (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A higher EQI indicates better overall quality.

Academic Performance: Measured by standardised mathematics and language test scores (0‑100) administered to internally displaced children in grades 1‑4. Tests are grade‑appropriate and adapted from the Ethiopian Early Grade Reading and Mathematics Assessments.

Learning Outcomes: A broad construct comprising three observable indicators: (a) academic performance (test scores as defined above), (b) student engagement (a 5‑item Likert scale measuring attentiveness, participation, and homework completion), and (c) attendance (administrative records of days present over a four‑week period).

Emergency: A situation caused by armed conflict, ethnic violence, or natural disaster that (a) results in the displacement of populations, and (b) disrupts normal schooling for at least three consecutive months in the affected area.

Internal Displacement: The forced movement of persons within Ethiopia's national borders due to conflict or disaster, as recorded by the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2024). Persons who cross an international border are classified as refugees and are excluded from this study.

Internally Displaced Child (IDP Child): A child aged 9‑14 years, enrolled in grades 1‑4, who has been displaced for more than three months and resides in one of the five sampled IDP camps (Koye Fache, Galan, Bakelo, Weyinishet, or Shewa Robit) in Oromia or Amhara regions.

Educational Resilience: The process by which a child, school, or regional education system maintains or recovers learning outcomes despite displacement‑related adversities. It is measured using three indicators: (a) trauma symptoms (PCL‑5 checklist, lower scores indicate better emotional regulation), (b) attendance persistence (percentage of days attended over four weeks), and (c) teacher retention (proportion of teachers who remain in post over six months in IDP‑serving schools).

Decentralisation (Governance): Operationalised as the extent to which educational decisions – specifically (a) budget allocation at woreda (district) level, (b) authority to hire and deploy teachers locally, and (c) flexibility to adapt curriculum content – are made by sub‑national (regional or woreda) actors rather than the federal ministry. Measured through policy document analysis and semi‑structured interviews with regional education bureau officials.

Emergency‑Specific Factors: The key crisis‑related variables examined in this study, namely: resource scarcity (lack of textbooks, furniture, and learning materials), trauma exposure (PCL‑5 score), safety and security (perceived risk of violence during travel to school and within school premises), and displacement duration (months since initial displacement).

Educational Strategy / Intervention: A planned programme or practice implemented to support learning in IDP settings. This study focuses on five specific strategies: Temporary Learning Spaces (TLS) – makeshift classrooms; Accelerated Learning Programs (ALP) – condensed curricula for overage or out‑of‑school children; psychosocial support programmes – counselling and peer group activities; teacher capacity building – in‑service training on trauma‑informed pedagogy; and community engagement – parent committees and local leader involvement.

1.8. Organization of the Paper

The dissertation is divided into six chapters, each with a distinct purpose that contributes to the overall coherence and depth of the study. The organisation follows a logical flow: theoretical foundations are established first, followed by empirical findings, and finally practical recommendations. This structure enables a thorough analysis of the quality of education for internally displaced children in the Oromia and Amhara regions of Ethiopia.

Chapter One: Introduction establishes the background of the research, the problem statement, research questions, objectives, significance, scope, operational definitions, and organisation.

Chapter Two: Literature Review examines theoretical frameworks and empirical research on education in emergencies, concluding with the conceptual framework.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology presents the research paradigm, design, study area, sampling, data collection instruments, validity and reliability procedures, data analysis, ethical considerations, and limitations.

Chapter Four: Results presents the empirical findings (quantitative and qualitative) without interpretation.

Chapter Five: Discussion interprets the findings through the theoretical lens, compares regions, and synthesises key patterns.

Chapter Six: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations provides a summary of findings, conclusions drawn from the study, and actionable recommendations for policy and practice.

CHAPTER TWO:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the quality of education among internally displaced children in Ethiopia in emergency contexts, starting with theoretical frameworks that help understand the specific problems faced by this group. It presents empirical research on barriers including lack of resources, teacher training, and disrupted learning conditions, and evaluates the effectiveness of different interventions. The review then analyses Ethiopian policies designed to address displaced populations, identifying successes and constraints. On the whole, the chapter highlights the paramount role of education as a fundamental right critical to the welfare and development of children in adversity.

2.2. Theoretical Literature Review

This part of the paper has been simplified to preserve theoretical richness but at the same time it ensures relevance to the comparative nature of the study at Oromia and Amhara regions. Instead of balancing the importance of each theory, the analysis rank the role of these theories and how the issues and opportunities of displaced education environments in Ethiopia can be understood through these frameworks.

2.2.1. A Hierarchical Theoretical Framework

This paper has adopted a hierarchical theoretical model to discuss its four research objectives in a systematic manner. Theoretical hierarchy is necessary since it provides a logical analytical framework, eliminates theoretical confusion, and allows the research dimensions to be addressed using the most relevant conceptual instruments. This method rejects the pitfall of using various theories without clear precedence that may cause the reduces of the results of the analysis and conflicting conclusions (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2023; Maxwell, 2012). Through a well-planned hierarchy of theories, the framework offers specific analytical directions on how displacement, quality of education, and regional governance can be analyzed in Ethiopia as a complex interaction.

The hierarchical nature of the framework is specifically meant to be consistent with the comparative research questions of the study. The main analytical tool is the Resilience Theory due to its multi-level, process-focused nature that is the only explanation of how the same displacement shock can lead to various education outcomes based on regional adaptive capacities, which is the puzzle of the study (Ungar, 2021; Masten and Barnes, 2023). Specific theories (Social Justice Theory, Community Engagement Frameworks, Constructivist Learning Theory, and the Human Rights-Based Approach) analyze the dimension of specific theories and offer specific insights and normative benchmarks (UNESCO, 2022; OHCHR, 2023). This theoretical synthesis, which is held together by Resilience Theory, provides every research aim with specific theoretical consideration, whilst ensuring a general analytical consistency throughout the comparative analysis of Oromia and Amhara regions of Ethiopia.

2.2.2. Foundation Theories: Establishing Normative and Pedagogical Context

2.2.2.1. The Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA): The Normative Foundation

The HRBA sets the legal and moral framework of emergency-based education, focusing on the state requirements to provide all children with accessible, acceptable, adaptable, and available education as the Convention on the Rights of the Child and Sustainable Development Goal 4 (UNESCO, 2022; OHCHR, 2023) do. This strategy is a necessary standard of normativity in the evaluation of policy adherence and educational integration in Oromia and Amhara. The major limitation of HRBA as applied in this study, however, is the fact that the organization concentrates on compliance with legal requirements, instead of describing the differences in the implementation results (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2023). Although it is successfully used to determine the rights violation as language exclusion in IDP schools it offers minimal explanatory capacity to the variation in education outcomes across regions in similar rights frameworks, which makes it necessary to use complementary analytic frameworks.

The HRBA offers the normative structure in determining whether the educational strategies in both localities meet basic requirements for displaced children, which directly affect the evaluative standards of Research Objective. At the same time, it provides the principled framework, which is required to determine and define the systemic inequities in access and inclusion, thus providing the necessary context to the comparative analysis to be achieved by the research Objectives.

2.2.2.2. Constructivist Learning Theory: Pedagogy for Displacement Contexts

Constructivist Learning Theory focuses on the context-related pedagogy by means of situated learning whereby the educational material relates to the lived experiences of the learners (Kagawa and Selby, 2023; Vygotsky, 1978). This theory guides the analysis of relevance of curriculum, teaching strategies, and student interaction, which are some of the most important factors in the case of displaced children whose learning is bound with trauma and displacement. Nonetheless, its classroom level of focus does not provide much information on the systemic and governance factors that lie beyond its scope of study as the comparative focus of this study. According to Pritchard (2023), constructivist approaches usually presuppose the stable teaching conditions, which in the context of displacement is not always the case.

Constructivist Learning Theory provides the pedagogical prism, within which the data on academic performance are viewed, allowing interpreting whether achievement depends on the curricula and instruction methods that can be related to the lived realities of displacement in the case of Research Objective. This theoretical approach also provides benchmarks used to Research Objective such as the degree to which the education interventions make use of learner-centered, context-specific pedagogies which can facilitate cognitive and emotional response to crisis settings.

2.2.3. Secondary Analytical Frameworks: Explaining Structural and Operational Dynamics

2.2.3.1. Social Justice Theory: Dismantling Structural Barriers

The Social Justice Theory offers a critical analytical framework that is useful in studying the systemic inequalities and structural obstacles that establish unequal initial conditions between Oromia and Amhara. The three interdependent dimensions of it, which include distributive justice (equitable distribution of resources), recognitive justice (cultural and linguistic recognition), and representational justice (participation in decision-making) (Fraser, 2005; Tibbitts and Fernekes, 2023), are potently relevant to Ethiopian IDP contexts. This framework is essential to explain reported inequities, including the allocation of a portion of the per-student resources to Oromo children in Amhara IDP camps, which is the same as those given to host community children (Education Cluster Report, 2023). The most recent theoretical developments add spatial justice (Dryden-Peterson, 2023), which emphasizes the way the physical geography of displacement (camp formation and the school location) introduces further layers of educational inequalities.

One of the major weaknesses of Social Justice Theory, however, is that it is more inclined to the determination and criticism of structural conditions. Although it does a great job of explaining why systems are inequitable, it does a worse job of explaining how certain communities, such as those that use the networks of clans in Oromia, have a higher adaptive capacity and better relative performance even though they are equally disadvantaged structurally. This explanatory void leads to a need to combine it with resilience views that are centered on agency and adaptation within constraints.

This conceptualization plays a crucial role in identifying and characterizing the institutional emergency conditions, including discriminatory resource distribution, that essentially define the quality of education and, therefore, directly contribute to establishing the interaction of crisis conditions with institutional systems. It also offers the analytical basis for explaining the structural and historical causes of the unique educational experiences and predicaments recorded between Oromia and Amhara, which is the primary focus of the comparative regional analysis.

2.2.3.2. Community Engagement Frameworks: Localizing QEE Solutions

The quality education in emergencies (QEE) has developed community engagement frameworks, with the co-creation and true partnership models replacing the passive consultation (INEE, 2023). This paradigm shift acknowledges the community as not a recipient but as a critical participant in the development, execution, as well as maintenance of educational responses. The real-life implementation of the given strategy can be seen in the example of the Ethiopian School-in-a-Box initiative, in which displaced populations translated standardized learning packages into specific cultural and linguistic settings, leading to the program becoming 45 percent more relevant and used (UNHCR, 2023). The model of the ladder of participation (Hart, 2023) is a critical analytic instrument that can be used to differentiate between empty engagement and significant ownership. This model can be used to explain, as an example, why it is common in Oromia to have decentralized, clan-based education committees that are sometimes more operationally sustainable and community-trusted than more formalized and top-down bureaucratic structures that are common in Amhara.

Models such as Community-Based Participatory Research (CBPR) institutionalize this involvement by organizing the partnership of the educator, researchers, and local stakeholders as

being equal (Israel et al., 1998). These models emphasize culture relevance, local knowledge systems, and trust-building, which change communities into active problem-solvers to create learning conditions that are sensitive to their own displacement realities. The theorization is that this empowerment not only improves the effectiveness of the programs in the short-term but also improves the sustainability in the long-term, given the fact that the communities are more responsible towards the development of education (Minkler and Wallerstein, 2003).

Nevertheless, researchers warn about the blind worship of community engagement, which can potentially overload already stressed populations (Mendenhall et al., 2023). Moreover, the unitary emphasis on collective formations can unconsciously conceal the various needs, traumas, and agencies of individuals in those societies. According to Wallerstein and Duran (2010), successful engagement must be a matter of balanced action and consideration of personalized difficulties, especially when it comes to working with learners who are acutely psychologically troubled. Hence, it is important to combine community structures with the approaches that foster individual resilience, developing educational solutions that would not only belong to many but also to individuals in need, so that a comprehensive and sustainable solution to a crisis-impacted environment could be achieved (Rappaport, 1995).

To address the regional disparities in educational experiences and governance, Community Engagement Frameworks offer the conceptual means of investigating the localized processes of adaptation and engagement defining educational reactions in Oromia and Amhara. These frameworks also develop key standards for measuring the efficiency of improvement strategies, namely whether the intervention is formulated by a sincere co-creation, whether it generates local ownership, and is thus more prone to produce sustainable influence in displacement settings.

2.2.4. Primary Analytical Framework: Resilience Theory as the Central Lens

2.2.4.1. Conceptual Foundations of Resilience Theory

The hierarchical framework combined with the integrated hierarchical framework makes Resilience Theory the main analytical engine, and other theories give specific inputs towards each of the objectives. To measure learning outcomes (Objective 1), the adaptive capacity and recovery trajectories resilience measures are coupled with achievement scores and are framed by constructivist knowledge on engagement. To understand emergency factors (Objective 2),

challenges are not considered in isolation, but rather through the mediating role of the structures (Social Justice Theory) and systems' responses to them (Resilience Theory). To describe regional variations (Objective 3), the framework compares the two structural landscapes (Social Justice Theory) and active processes of community adaptation (Community Engagement), generating specific profiles of resilience at the regional level. Lastly, in terms of strategy effectiveness (Objective 4), interventions are evaluated on a multi-dimensional scale that assesses rights-compliance (HRBA), pedagogical soundness (Constructivism), the sense of community ownership (Engagement) and, finally, the ability to build resilience on an individual, relational and systemic level.

2.2.4.2. Direct Relevance to Comparative Research Questions

The structure of the theory provides a direct means to fulfill all the objectives of the research. Its multi-level structure allows considering the outcomes of students, classroom performance, and local governance simultaneously, which offers a more detailed explanation of why the same shock of displacement corresponds to different educational outcomes (Ungar, 2022). It can explain the reasons certain schools or communities are resilience pockets, and the aspect of adaptive processes and assets can be used to detect the unique configurations of local assets and adaptive strategies (Mengistu and Tadesse, 2023). Moreover, it is perfect to examine regional differences because it focuses on context-specific pathways rather than general prescriptions and focuses attention on culturally meaningful protective factors, e.g., religious institutions in Amhara or clan structures in Oromia (Getachew et al., 2023).

2.2.4.3. Integration with Complementary Frameworks

In the hierarchical model of the study, Resilience Theory is the major integrative mechanism, which combines the knowledge of specialized frameworks. It is based on the Social Justice Theory in that it explores how systems change or adjust to structural constraints, shifting the focus of unequal treatment to the explanation of unequal responses. It operates Community Engagement Frameworks by examining the concrete strengthening of relational and systemic resilience through participatory mechanisms. It puts the Constructivist Learning Theory into perspective by evaluating the ability of pedagogical methods to contribute to both individual and relational resilience in displacement contexts. Lastly, it includes the Human Rights-Based Approach

(HRBA) by assessing whether rights-based policies result in an enabling environment that leads to adaptive capacity at all levels.

2.2.5. Theoretical Synthesis and Application

2.2.5.1. Integrated Framework for Comparative Analysis

The hierarchical framework combines all these hierarchies, making Resilience Theory the main engine of analysis and other theories specific inputs to each goal. To examine learning outcomes (Objective 1), the resiliency measures, such as adaptive capacity and recovery paths, are added to the achievement scores and put into perspective by constructivist knowledge about engagement. The analysis of emergency factors (Objective 2) discusses challenges not separately but in the context of mediating them by structures (Social Justice Theory) and adapting to systems (Resilience Theory). To explain the regional differences (Objective 3), the framework compares the structural landscapes (Social Justice Theory) and active community adaptation processes (Community Engagement), which create different regional resilience profiles. Lastly, to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy (Objective 4), the interventions are to be evaluated in a multi-dimensional matrix of rights-compliance (HRBA), pedagogical soundness (Constructivism), community ownership (Engagement), and, finally, their capacity to build resilience on an individual, relational, and systemic level.

2.2.5.2. Direct Application for Research Design

The mixed-methods design of the study is directly informed by this theoretical framework. The resilience indicators, including symptoms of trauma, social support scales, and institutional responsiveness indices, were assessed with quantitative components in both regions in comparison with conventional academic measures. Qualitative elements examine the stories, relationships, and decision-making procedures that comprise resilience in action in Oromia and Amhara regions. The hierarchical framework is followed with the further comparative analysis of how the interaction of structural conditions (Social Justice Theory), local communities (Community Engagement), and pedagogical practices (Constructivism) results in specific regional routes of educational adaptation and results, which can be explained in terms of the main theory, which is Resilience Theory.

2.2.6. Resilience Theory: The Bedrock of Sustainable Learning in Crisis Contexts

The most effective approach to Quality Education in Emergencies (QEE) is the Resilience Theory to explain the situation in such an environment as the IDP settings in Ethiopia. It describes the reaction of learners, educators, and systems to harsh conditions through multi-level resilience, that is, individual (child development), relational (teacher-student relations), and systemic (community structures) (Masten and Barnes, 2023). The dynamic systems view (Ungar, 2022) explains the reasons why some displaced children do not give up despite the most dramatic interferences, which is demonstrated by such programs as Ethiopia's Learning Through Crisis program, which tied trauma-informed support to better academic performance (UNICEF, 2023). More importantly, the theory assumes resilience to be a process rather than a characteristic, and thus it is invaluable in creating educational interventions that establish adaptive capacity over time through emotional regulation and social bonding in stressful situations (Masten, 2001; Luthar, 2006). Moreover, it points out the collective responsibilities of families, educators, and communities in the establishment of a protective environment that strengthens belonging and safety, which are essential to recovery and learning (Ungar, 2011). Its strengths-based orientation is similar to QEiE objectives in terms of having an orientation on current abilities of children and communities, thus fostering hope, agency, and motivation that are key to success in the long term (Seligman, 2011).

2.2.7. Synthesis: An Integrated Framework for QEE Research and Practice

The completed integrated framework establishes the analysis based on Resilience Theory as the main organizing principle and makes a strategic use of complementary theories in terms of depth and normative grounding. This guarantees that it is not diluted in terms of theoretical coherence and analytical rigor (Masten, 2014; Ungar, 2018). The Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA) sets the foundation of the non-negotiable rights; Social Justice Theory clarifies the lack of social justice structure and resource distribution, and Constructivist Learning Theory and Community Engagement Frameworks explain the approach to the pedagogical and implementation strategies, which create resilience on the ground (Dryden-Peterson, 2023; INEE, 2023). The practical usefulness of the framework is also evidenced by its direct application to the comparative design: resiliency measures are supplemented by traditional achievement metrics; the factors of emergency are considered with reference to their interaction with adaptive governance structures; and the effectiveness of interventions is measured with regard to the multi-level resilience-building results

(Betancourt et al., 2013; Mendenhall et al., 2023). This inductive, hierarchical model has analytical priorities, allowing the research to be articulative by explaining both general issues and local specifics of IDP education in the multiple Ethiopian crisis-related environments.

2.3. Empirical Literature Review on Education in Emergencies in Ethiopia

This section gives an overview of the recent empirical research on education in emergencies in Ethiopia, and specifically on the challenges of internally displaced children (IDPs). It brings out major findings, methodologies, and weaknesses that each study presents, and certain gaps that the research fills.

2.3.1. Access to Quality Education in Emergency Contexts

The issue of access to quality education under emergencies has been a matter of concern, especially to internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Ethiopia. According to Fisseha et al. (2022), among marginalized groups, significant access barriers were also found, such as substandard infrastructure, security issues, and cultural limitations. Nevertheless, the small sample size and the scope of the study in the region diminish the representativeness of the study, particularly regarding the varying realities of conflict-ridden regions like Oromia and Amhara. On the same note, Aregawi et al. (2021) were interested in the disruptions of education caused by conflicts in rural locations, which showed the trends of school shutdowns and surges of dropouts. Although significant, their rural-based discussion ignores the issues of access in urban displacement areas where IDPs usually have to struggle with various problems, including overcrowded schools, absence of legal status, and barriers to integration. Such a geographic and contextual unequal representation in the literature shows that further multi-regional research focusing on the dynamics of rural and urban access to education among displaced populations is needed.

In addition, community engagement has also been a major facilitator of access to education in crisis environments. Gezahegne et al. (2023) studied the conflict in Tigray and discovered that the local networks, including faith-based organizations and community leaders, were highly instrumental in helping people access the schools by creating informal learning environments and mobilizing resources. Although the research provided useful qualitative data, it is also dependent on interviews and focus group discussions, which restrict the applicability of the research findings. In the absence of solid quantitative information, the magnitude and uniformity of community effect

among regions cannot be easily measured. This highlights the necessity of mixed-methods studies involving the use of statistical methods along with qualitative richness, especially to determine the position of community mechanisms in facilitating access to education among the IDPs in diverse Ethiopian settings. These gaps need to be closed to inform comprehensive and context-based education policy and humanitarian interventions.

2.3.2. Learning Outcomes and Academic Achievements of Children in Emergencies

Scholarly performance of internally displaced children (IDPs) is a somewhat under-investigated field of the emergency education discussion. Although UNICEF Ethiopia (2023) gave the background information about learning outcomes in Oromia and Amhara, which show that there is a large disparity in the performance of displaced and non-displaced learners, the rest of the academic literature reflects the same findings. As an example, Dryden-Peterson (2015) claims that most education-related assessments around the world overlook the compounding impact of trauma, mobility, and language discontinuities to which IDP students are exposed. These issues in the context of Ethiopia are aggravated by overcrowded classes, lack of trained educators, and unequal implementation of the curriculum in different regions (Tiruneh & Asgedom, 2020). However, numerous studies still bundle information about displaced and host populations, which masks the particular obstacles to academic achievements of IDP children.

The absence of disaggregated and methodologically rigorous data is a significant challenge to the design of evidence-based interventions. Burde et al. (2017) state that the standardized learning assessment modified in the crisis context is required to monitor academic performance and guide responsive pedagogical practices. In the absence of these tools, policymakers and humanitarian actors are likely to introduce programs that can increase access without positively affecting real learning. The latter is also highlighted by the recent study of Kirk and Winthrop (2021), who note that longitudinal studies can track the learning paths of displaced children over time, which cannot be done using cross-sectional snapshots. These results support the pressing need to conduct systematic and context-specific studies that would reflect the complicated nature of the displacement-education continuity-achievement nexus in Ethiopia and other countries.

2.3.3. Impact of Emergency Factors on Academic Achievements of Children in IDPs

It is important to understand the factors that are emergency-related and directly influence the academic success of internally displaced children (IDPs) to develop effective educational interventions in the crisis. The major issues that have been identified throughout the literature are the lack of resources, inadequate access to learning materials, untrained teachers, curriculum incompatibility, psychosocial support, and structural insecurity. Kebede and Basha (2023) discovered that the lack of qualified teachers and learning resources in Ethiopian schools hosting IDPs was a major factor limiting student learning and academic development. In addition, they highlighted how teacher burnout and overcrowded classrooms increased the learning problems that IDP students already had because of trauma and disruption. However, most of these studies tend to analyze the emergency factors separately without a combined framework that explains the interaction of these dimensions within a complex displacement setting.

Additional studies emphasize the role of evaluating academic performance in emergencies in relation to trauma, mental health, and social factors. According to Mendenhall et al. (2017), it is impossible to provide quality education to displaced learners without taking into consideration the emotional and psychological costs of displacement. The cumulative effects of insecurity, family disruption, and violence also have a devastating effect on children regarding their capacity to participate and gain the advantage of the schooling process. Furthermore, Dryden-Peterson (2020) highlights the role of structural inequalities in marginalizing displaced children, especially ethnic minorities, through discriminatory policies or the absence of inclusive curricula. These observations highlight the fact that there is the need to have multidimensional research methodology that examines the intersection of emergency-related stressors, both external and internal, to affect the outcome of education. These variables need to be analyzed together to come up with evidence-based and context-sensitive education policy that enhances learning outcomes among IDPs.

2.3.4. Quality of Education for Children in Emergency Contexts

Within the emergency setting, a structural, pedagogical, and psychosocial issue can result in low quality of education. Kebede and Basha (2023) found that internally displaced learners in Ethiopia experience various problems related to quality, such as overcrowded classrooms, inadequately qualified teachers, absence of teaching resources, and little psychosocial support. Nevertheless,

their evaluation was rather inclined to the evaluation of the weaknesses, providing little discussion of effective or corrective measures taken in schools and communities. This creates an analytical vacuum, where only the negative can be dwelt on, and scalable solutions would be hidden. In future studies of the quality of education in displacement situations, there is therefore a need to balance criticism with appreciation of effective interventions.

On the same note, Tadesse et al. (2022) examined the impact of inappropriate facilities and disrupted learning conditions on the provision of education during a crisis like the Tigray conflict. They indicated that inadequate space in the classroom, water scarcity, and teaching materials had a huge impact on teaching and student participation. Nonetheless, the cross-sectional nature of the study had limited the cross-sectional scope to identify quality changes over time or in reaction to specific interventions. This shows the importance of longitudinal research designs that would follow the development of the quality of education during emergencies. This type of research could also prove useful in identifying the role of trauma, resilience, and support mechanisms in educational outcomes over the long term.

2.3.5. Community Engagement and Gender Dynamics for Quality Education in Emergency

It has been identified that community involvement is one of the pillars of successful educational responses in emergencies, such as to internally displaced persons (IDPs). In their peer-reviewed article, Tadesse et al. (2021) identified that school attendance and teacher absenteeism in conflict-prone regions in Ethiopia were enhanced by the community participation in school management committees and parent-teacher associations. Nevertheless, their study was largely from the community perspective and did not adequately consider issues of internal power struggles or divergent opinions, which may impede the process of collective decision-making. This disjunction is essential because the conflict of interests between language of instruction, gender norms, or religious values could minimize the success of community-led education programs in IDP contexts (Rose and Greeley, 2020).

Moreover, the issue of gender relations in community participation has not been theorized in a lot of emergency education research. Although much of the work of engagement is usually intended to be inclusive, the existing social norms commonly limit the participation of women and girls in the leadership and decision-making processes. In a study undertaken by Kirk and Winthrop (2007),

it was discovered that in various areas that were affected by crisis, such as Ethiopia, the patriarchal framework and safety issues limited the female involvement in education and leadership in the community. These restrictions could strengthen gender disparities in access, retention, and learning outcomes. To deal with gender dynamics, it is necessary not only to engage women in the formal structures but also to give them a voice in the important decisions. Unless there are conscious attempts to address the current gender hierarchies, as noted by Unterhalter et al. (2020), community involvement can unconsciously foster exclusion and negatively affect equitable education results.

2.3.6. Psychological Support in Educational Settings during Emergencies

Education holds a crucial role in the context of emergency, especially when it comes to internally displaced children who are traumatized, have experienced loss, and instability. International and local research findings suggest that psychosocial intervention in schools can be very effective in enhancing emotional stability and learning preparedness of students. A case in point, the authors of the study by Betancourt et al. (2013) discovered that psychosocial support programs in post-conflict environments improved emotional regulation and classroom participation of the students, which are the key success factors in school. In the same fashion, Tyrer and Fazel (2014) highlighted the importance of including mental health services as a part of educational programs in humanitarian settings because it helps facilitate recovery as well as create a safe and stable learning environment. These results imply that educational practices that are sensitive to trauma are critical in ensuring that children are helped to restore their sense of normality and purpose, which has a direct effect on their learning.

Regardless of these insights, there is a significant gap in the measurement of the academic results of psychological assistance during emergencies. Although research by organizations like UNICEF (2022) documents that there are noticeable behavioral changes after psychosocial support programs have been implemented in Ethiopian schools for IDPs, most of them are based on qualitative or observational data. As Burde et al. (2017) note, the absence of standardized measures to evaluate the academic contribution of psychosocial support does not allow a complete understanding of its effectiveness. In addition, very few longitudinal studies have been conducted to determine whether the short-term emotional benefits can be translated into long-term academic benefits. The gap needs to be filled by mixed methods of research that provide the connection

between the indicators of psychosocial wellbeing and the actual indicators of educational performance. This would enable the policymakers and practitioners to develop more comprehensive interventions that combine mental health and educational achievement in emergencies.

2.3.7. Safety and Security in Education in Emergency Contexts

The issues of safety and security in the educational environments are the key to the implementation of the relevant practice of enabling children who have suffered in an emergency to acquire knowledge without fear and pain. Research indicates that violence exposure, both physical and bullying, has a devastating effect on the psychological health and academic activity of students. As an illustration, Blight et al. (2017) discovered that children born in conflict-prone areas tend to develop trauma associated with the threats within and in the vicinity of schools, and this fact impairs their focus and academic performance. The results are also supported by UNICEF (2021), which states that a significant percentage of students in Ethiopian conflict zones have experienced violence, which contributes to the development of anxiety and absenteeism. These problems indicate the paramount importance of schools as secure locations and the necessity of the use of protective measures specific to emergency situations.

However, even with the acknowledgment of the need to protect safety, several schools located in crisis-affected regions are under-resourced and do not have sufficient staff training on security measures. According to Onyango et al. (2020), the lack of infrastructure, teacher readiness, and community participation tends to obstruct the successful adoption of safety precautions during emergency education. In addition, rather scarce empirical evidence assesses such interventions in terms of their effectiveness in reducing the risks or enhancing the levels of students' security. It indicates a research gap that is urgent and concerned with the evaluation of the safety protocols implementation in emergency schools and the implications they may have on the educational results. Such a gap would be important to fill by offering essential policymakers and humanitarian actors with insights into appropriate context-specific strategies that protect the right of children to inclusive and safe education in times of crisis.

2.3.8. Summary of Empirical Research Review Gaps

The empirical research on education during emergencies among internally displaced children (IDPs) in Ethiopia provides several significant gaps. The studies of Fisseha et al. (2022) and Aregawi et al. (2021) are limited in their geographical coverage, and as a result, they are mostly restricted to areas or rural communities, which limits the comprehension of the varied barriers to IDPs in various settings, including urban ones. Alongside some of the studies, especially Gezahegne et al. (2023), place a lot of emphasis on qualitative approaches, potentially introducing bias, as well as restricting the extent of generalization, which suggests the necessity of quantitative studies that can present statistical data on the impact of various factors on educational access and outcomes.

Moreover, studies such as those of UNICEF Ethiopia (2023) tend to generalize the information, rarely disaggregating the situations of displaced children, and thus, they do not provide in-depth information about the outcomes of learning. Research like Kebede and Basha's (2023) demonstrates personal factors that influence education but fails to help us understand how these factors (e.g., resource shortage and trauma) interrelate. Most of the studies, such as those by Tadesse et al. (2022), do not use longitudinal designs to examine the changes in the quality and access to education over time during emergencies. The community dynamics are also not explored enough, especially the intercommunity conflicts over educational priorities, as indicated by Tadesse et al. (2021).

Furthermore, research such as that of Kirk and Winthrop (2022) can exaggerate access to technology in the rural setting, which implies the necessity to have realistic estimates of access and consequences on the quality of education. Although psychological support is highlighted as a vital factor (UNICEF, 2022), the gap in quantifying its impact on academic performance exists, which suggests that research that quantifies the direct relationship between psychosocial support and academic outcomes is necessary. Finally, the study of safety and security in schools and universities (UNICEF, 2021) indicates that the problem is serious but is not explored to determine the effective safety measures, which is why more studies are required on the topic of their implementation and their efficacy. Thus, it is crucial to fill these gaps to create effective interventions that is guarantee access to quality education to IDPs in emergencies.

2.4. Global to Local: Quality Education Challenges for Children in IDPs in Ethiopia

The problem of education in crises is a major concern worldwide, and Ethiopia is especially exposed to the problem because of the massive internal displacement in the country due to civil war, climatic disasters, and economic unpredictability. In the world, more than 128 million children have been disrupted in learning due to emergencies, which explains the need to have resilient education systems (United Nations, 2023). Education is viewed as a basic right and a stabilizing agent in crisis cases in the frameworks of such international organizations as the Inter-Agency Network of Education in Emergencies (INEE) Minimum Standards (INEE, 2023). These global trends are evident in the case of Ethiopia, which is also characterized by local intricacies. Already facing a scarcity of resources, the education system of the country faces extra demands such as temporary learning facilities that are already overcrowded, a severe shortage of teachers, and urgent psychosocial demands of the children exposed to trauma (Mekonnen et al., 2022; Fentie and Mengistu, 2023). Moreover, linguistic diversity in Ethiopia makes it challenging to instruct effectively, and displaced children can face a policy of language of instruction that does not correspond to their native language, which worsens the quality of learning and engagement (Assefa and Tadesse, 2021).

The Horn of Africa is a region that offers a complicated educational environment in which crises often go beyond national boundaries. The same situation is observed in neighboring nations like South Sudan and Somalia, which also experience education discontinuities due to displacement and require regional reactions (Novelli et al., 2021; Dryden-Peterson et al., 2019). In Ethiopia, the 4.4 million internally displaced individuals (IDPs) in 2023 face numerous barriers to schooling and education, including distance to schools, safety concerns, and family financial constraints that diminish the importance of schooling (UNHCR, 2023; Mekonnen et al., 2022). The marginalization is especially disproportionate to girls and children with disabilities, where the attendance and completion rates are significantly lower than among their peers (Woldeamanuel, 2023). These facts reveal the systemic deficiencies in Ethiopia in maintaining the continuity of education in emergencies, even though the policy frameworks promote inclusive education (Save the Children, 2018; Fentie and Mengistu, 2023).

The effects of displacement on education vary significantly in Ethiopia depending on the region. In Oromia, where the displacement is usually clan-related and is characterized by rural-to-urban migration, the language barrier is large; most of the displaced children are taught mainly in Amharic, which is not their native language, and their understanding and academic success decline (Assefa and Tadesse, 2021). Amhara, in contrast, experiences displacement due to conflict, triggering acute shortages of teachers and overcrowding; some of the temporary learning facilities work over three times their capacity (Mekonnen et al., 2022; UNICEF, 2022). These geographical inequalities demand regionalized educational answers within a unified system of the nation. The promising programs, including community schools in Somali, mobile classes in Afar, and fast-track education in Tigray, are deprived of funding and unstable government support, which negatively affects their sustainability (Getachew et al., 2023; Dryden-Peterson et al., 2019).

The international-local disconnection of emergency education is clearly manifested in the case of Ethiopia. As much as the international standards are important in providing a guiding hand, they usually come into conflict with realities on the ground. The curricula of teacher training developed according to international patterns often lack the inclusion of the multilingual environment and cultural peculiarities of Ethiopia (Assefa and Tadesse, 2021). In the same way, the psychosocial support strategies that are developed in other locations might not be compatible with the local beliefs about trauma and recovery, which would restrict their efficacy (Fentie and Mengistu, 2023). Educational interventions that combine the best global practices with local cultural adaptations are the most effective- some examples are the inclusion of traditional storytelling in literacy programs and the development of local elders to become education champions (Getachew et al., 2023). However, such context-sensitive strategies need long-term investment and time, which are usually limited in cases of acute emergencies (Woldeamanuel & Getachew, 2023).

In the future, education in emergency response in Ethiopia needs greater coordination between the humanitarian and the development sectors to address the gaps and create resilience. Emergency education is usually considered a short-term solution by current programming, which is not connected with the long-term objectives of education development in the country, creating discontinuities between temporary and formal schooling systems (Dryden-Peterson et al., 2019; UNICEF, 2022). An even more integrated solution would use the alternative basic education system that Ethiopia has and incorporate the crisis-sensitive aspects into it, which include a flexible

curriculum and policies on teacher deployment that would be sensitive to the realities of displacement (Fentie & Mengistu, 2023). It is important to deal with the systemic issues of education funding and policy unity. Finally, the Ethiopian education system should change to support quality and inclusion, not despite emergencies but as one of the core design principles, which would be equitable learning opportunities for all children, including the displaced (Burde et al., 2017; Mekonnen et al., 2022).

2.4.1. Quality Education for Internally **Displaced Children in Ethiopia: Challenges and Intervention Strategies**

The issue of delivering quality education to internally displaced children in Ethiopia is a major problem because of the complicated displacement patterns, systemic issues, and lack of resources. This discussion provides an overview of the state of education related to emergencies among IDPs and the main challenges and evidence-based interventions to enhance the situation.

2.4.1.1. Patterns of Displacement in Ethiopia

The main cause of internal displacement in Ethiopia is increased armed conflicts, political instability, and, to a lesser extent, natural disasters. Recent peer-reviewed works have highlighted the fact that conflict is the primary source of displacement, especially in such areas as Oromia and Amhara, where ethnic and political tension has caused widespread insecurity and forced the mass movement of the population (Benson and Ali, 2023; Gebremariam and Solomon, 2024). These displacements caused by these conflicts are usually sudden, frequent, and prolonged, and this not only interferes with physical security but also the flow of vital services such as education. In contrast to the mobility due to environmental factors, the unstable and unpredictable nature of conflict leads to constant relocations, so the creation of stable learning conditions among internally displaced children is particularly complicated (Bekele et al., 2022).

Besides, the literature emphasizes the role internal conflicts play in the complex patterns of displacement that are characterized by overcrowding in temporary settlements and urban peripheries, in most cases, lacking educational facilities and resources (Tesfaye et al., 2023). The social disunity caused by the conflict makes the obstacles to education worse by disrupting the cohesion of the community and restricting access to culturally and linguistically relevant education (Ahmed & Woldemariam, 2023). Research indicates that conflict-sensitive education policies and

programs that tackle trauma, mobility, and resource shortages experienced by displaced population groups are necessary to achieve quality education outcomes amongst children in such settings (Mulugeta & Haile, 2023). This accumulating evidence necessitates combined and dynamic educational reactions to the issues of conflict-induced displacement in Ethiopia.

2.4.1.2. Impact of Displacement on Quality Education for Children in Ethiopia

Ethiopian displacement is a major interruption to education continuity, which is a critical factor in the quality of education the internally displaced children (IDCs) receive. The influx of displaced students is sudden, which in most cases overloads the host community schools, resulting in crowded classes that restrict personalized learning and interaction with the students (IOM, 2022). Also, most of the temporary learning facilities that have been provided to IDPs do not have adequate teaching resources, facilities, and qualified personnel, which further deteriorates the quality of education (UNICEF, 2018). In addition to logistical limitations, displaced children encounter several obstacles, including enrollment bans, language barriers where they do not understand what is being taught, and their psychological issues stemming from trauma, which hinder their participation in learning (Omar and Rahman, 2023). The latest empirical research shows that the learning outcomes of displaced children in Ethiopia are 30-40% lower than those of their non-displaced counterparts, which highlights the importance of specific interventions to close the access and quality gaps (Omar and Rahman, 2023).

There are unique differences between the IDPs and refugees in the education arena. The international protection mechanisms and special assistance of the UN agencies, such as UNHCR, are often offered to refugees, which gives them access to special education programs and resources (UNHCR, 2004). On the contrary, IDPs are subject to national jurisdiction, and more often than not, they receive disjointed or insufficient governmental support for their educational requirements (Khan & Patel, 2023). Such disparity is witnessed through low access to standardized curricula, teacher training, and inclusive education services for IDP children. Moreover, in Ethiopia, the issue of displacement is complicated by the interaction of complicated environmental and social factors like drought, floods, and communal violence that interrelate with the constant political instability to increase the problems (IOM, 2023). Although the Education Cluster mechanism offers an approach to organizing the humanitarian response, there are still gaps in aligning the

work of governmental institutions, non-governmental organizations, and local communities, which can lead to the ineffective use of resources and the inconsistency of programs (Hassan et al., 2023).

Evidence-based initiatives have come up to enhance the quality of education among displaced children in Ethiopia and other settings. In-depth analyses on the community level allow planning specific interventions in reaction to local obstacles (UNESCO, 2021; Rojas et al., 2020). The improved coordination between NGOs and government bodies, as well as with communities, is increasing the availability of resources and minimizing redundancies (Save the Children, 2020). Creating safe and inclusive learning conditions, including a specific focus on gender and disability inclusion, is the basis of the promotion of sustained attendance and engagement (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2019). To support the multilingual needs of displaced learners, special teacher training is needed to teach trauma-informed and multilingual education (INEE, 2019). The involvement of the community in designing programs encourages cultural appropriateness and sustainability, and advocacy of specific funding is necessary to guarantee program sustainability (UNESCO, 2021).

To improve the performance of IDPs, Ethiopia must focus on the creation of adaptable curricula that can be adjusted to the situations of displacement and increase mother-tongue education to alleviate the language barrier. Also, the quality of education is enhanced through strengthening of teacher recruitment and retention policies in the areas of displacement and standardization of monitoring and evaluation of learning outcomes. Promotion of community ownership and mobilization of long-term financial resources are crucial measures of bridging humanitarian and development activities. This combined strategy is essential in converting emergency education to be more of a long-term response than a response that can be used to provide quality education to displaced children in Ethiopia in a manner that is inclusive.

2.4.1.3. Distinct Challenges for IDPs Compared to Refugees

Both internally displaced people (IDPs) and refugees experience the trauma of forced migration caused by conflict, acts of violence, and environmental crises that interfere with their access to education and also lead to psychosocial distress. They are also subjected to related problems with education, like congested learning facilities, inaccessibility of learning resources, incompetent teachers, and disrupted education. Nevertheless, the legal and institutional reactions to the two

groups are quite different; it affects the nature and uniformity of the educational assistance these groups get (UNHCR, 2004).

The right to refugees is safeguarded by the international legal frameworks (such as the Refugee Convention of 1951) and is usually guaranteed through the organized educational programs facilitated by the UN agencies such as UNHCR and the host-country policies (Dryden-Peterson, 2016). On the contrary, the IDPs do not leave their country of origin and are under national jurisdiction, which is usually not able or used to provide consistent and fair educational services in case of crisis (Khan and Patel, 2023). These outcomes in Ethiopia are that the IDP children receive much less access to special educational programs, standardized curricula, and trained teachers than refugees in camps. Such inequalities highlight the critical necessity of inclusive and crisis-sensitive national education policies that would acknowledge the unique vulnerability of IDPs and ensure their right to receive quality education on the same level as the refugee communities.

2.4.1.4. Contextual Factors in Ethiopian Displacement Settings

The crisis of displacement in Ethiopia is predetermined by the combination of environmental, social, and political factors, especially in such regions as Oromia and Amhara. Repeat droughts, flash floods, and interpersonal violence, which in many cases are due to ethnic and territorial tensions, contribute to the aggravation of internal conflict and the appearance of mass migrations of the population (IOM, 2023). These compound emergencies are devastating to the education systems and cause overcrowded classes, a lack of qualified teachers, and a lack of temporary learning facilities. Displacement is fluid, and therefore there is difficulty in maintaining continuity of education, especially for children who are experiencing trauma, economic strain, and a language barrier.

To overcome these problems, the Ethiopian government and its partners have mobilized the Education Cluster, which is a coordination mechanism among humanitarian and development actors. The Cluster provides emergency education services, coordinates the response, as well as create local and context-specific strategies. Nevertheless, as recent analyses show, the coordination is still poor, with duplication of duties and lack of accountability (Hassan et al., 2023). There is a need to enhance the partnership between the stakeholders, particularly between the federal

governments, regional education bureaus, non-governmental organizations, and community leaders, to enhance quality and access to education among the displaced learners in various regional settings.

2.4.1.5. Comprehensive Strategies for Quality Education in Ethiopian IDP Contexts

The multi-faceted nature of educational issues of internally displaced children in Ethiopia requires a multi-dimensional strategy of providing both immediate humanitarian intervention and long-term system strengthening. Based on evidence on the global level and the local contextual conditions, there are a few intervention strategies that can be considered especially crucial to enhance the quality and access to education.

Needs-Pioneered Program Design: The interventions must commence with a stringent and localized needs assessment that summarizes the various barriers that affect displaced learners. Such assessments must not be limited to basic infrastructure assessment as illustrated by Rojas et al. (2020), but they must include linguistic needs, psychosocial requirements, and needs related to community-specific protection. In Ethiopia, in the Somalia region, such examinations showed that 62 percent of displaced girls had safety concerns when traveling to school, which led to the establishment of community escort programs (UNESCO, 2021). This evidence-based solution ensures that resources are used on the most urgent gaps without falling into the traps of one-size-fits-all solutions.

Integrated Service Provisions: Uncoordinated humanitarian delivery is usually a cause of repeated efforts and wastage of resources. The Education Cluster mechanism in Ethiopia offers a platform of coordination, but it needs to be consolidated at the sub-national level. The studies by Save the Children (2020) demonstrated that in the displacement settings, inter-agency coordination can enhance the efficiency of service delivery by up to 40 percent. This is especially so in areas such as Amhara, where various actors work without the proper exchange of information. The introduction of uniform reporting mechanisms and collective planning procedures may result in greater impact and less operational overlap.

Context-Adapted Learning Environments: Building non-physical infrastructural spaces, such as physical infrastructure, extends to pedagogical and social levels. The comparative case study published by Norwegian Refugee Council (2019) in Tigray shows how enrollment among girls

can be improved by a minimum of 35 percent by making minor changes, such as gender-separated latrines, stipulated learning spaces, and community defense boards. Such adaptations in the Ethiopian displacement contexts should also deal with language diversity through the multilingual education systems and teaching resources that are culturally sensitive and relevant to the experiences of displaced children.

Teacher Capacity Development: It is impossible to overestimate the importance of trained educators in a crisis. The standards provided by INEE (2019) focus on the necessity to have specific training on trauma-informed teaching, conflict-sensitive pedagogy, and accelerated learning methods. Teacher colleges in Ethiopia ought to incorporate the competences in pre-service training and humanitarian partners in the in-service. In the pilot in Benishangul-Gumuz, educators who underwent this type of training showed a 28 percent increase in the learning outcomes of the students, in contrast to the control groups (Education Cluster Report, 2022).

Integrated Support Systems: Psychosocial support needs to be incorporated into the structure of educational programming and not seen as an ancillary service. The study by Betancourt et al. (2018) in conflict-prone environments demonstrates that a combination of both academic and well-planned social-emotional learning activities is much more effective in the outcomes than either of them. This model of integration can be applied to the school system in Ethiopia by introducing updated curricula that include peace education, life skills, and mental health services, especially in such areas as Oromia with long-term conflicts.

Sustainable Resourcing Models: Due to the chronic underfunding of education in emergencies, new models of financing are needed. In addition to conventional humanitarian appeals, Ethiopia ought to consider internal mobilization of resources by using such mechanisms as the Education Cannot Wait fund and specific budget lines on IDP education. The National Displacement Policy of 2023 provides a chance to institutionalize these sources of funds so that they can be predictable not only in cases of short-term emergencies.

2.5. Conceptual Framework: Education in Emergencies (EiE)

2.5.1. Introduction to the EiE Framework

The Education in Emergencies (EiE) Framework provides the necessary elements and principles that inform education responses to a crisis. This model is an effective guideline for applying

educational programmes, especially where conflict and displacement are involved. It applies particularly well to this research on the quality of education of internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara regions.

2.5.2. Equitable and Inclusive Access

One of the main aspects of the EiE Framework is Equitable and Inclusive Access. This principle highlights that it is important to make sure that education is equally provided to all the people affected by emergencies, irrespective of gender, age, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status. The problem of inequality of the marginalized groups needs to be addressed, particularly during emergency periods when the conventional education systems can become disrupted. The research by the Global Education Cluster (2023) discovered that internally displaced children have a high rate of enrolment barriers, especially girls and children with disabilities, which has led to the high urgency of specific interventions (Miller et al., 2023).

2.5.3. Safe and Protective Learning Environments

Another important issue is the creation of Safe and Protective Learning Environments. The security of learners, both physically and emotionally, is the most important in the emergency setting. The structure lays more emphasis on creating secure environments in which students can learn in the absence of violence and trauma. According to a report by Save the Children (2022), the ability to develop safe learning conditions is the key to promoting resilience in children affected by conflict, as it helps them to maintain emotional stability and improve academic performance (Thompson et al., 2022).

2.5.4. Equity and Inclusion

Equity and Inclusion are also highlighted in the framework since the needs of marginalized groups, such as girls and children with disabilities, are considered. It is important to make education accessible to everyone, especially in crisis-stricken regions, to create an inclusive educational environment. A UNICEF report (2022) has emphasized that the benefits of inclusive education practices are improved learning outcomes among all students. This evidence shows that the provision of specific support to disadvantaged groups can benefit the whole educational community (Johnson & Smith, 2022).

2.5.5. Context-Relevant Education

Context-Relevant Education is another very important element. The EiE Framework emphasizes the need to offer educational material that is applicable to the situation of learners. This applicability is essential to ensuring quality educational standards even in the most difficult circumstances. In a report published by UNESCO (2023), it was established that curriculum content can be modified to reflect local contexts and realities, which highly increases student engagement and retention rates, especially in the case of displaced children (Isiams et al., 2023).

2.5.6. Knowledge, Skills, and Competencies

The framework aims to prepare the learners with the Knowledge, Skills, and Competencies they need to develop in the long-term. This is a holistic approach to education, which is based not only on academic success but also on equipping students with future opportunities and challenges. The World Bank (2022) stressed that education systems in emergencies should focus on skills acquisition, especially in conflict-prone areas, so that learners can successfully graduate into adult life (Anderson et al., 2022).

2.5.7. Collaboration among Stakeholders

Collaboration Among Stakeholders is the key to effective emergency education. The framework highlights the need to have coordinated action among different actors, such as governments, NGOs, and local communities. This kind of cooperation is necessary to make the most out of resources and to make educational reactions complete and efficient. The Education Commission (2023) analysis identified the successful case studies of the multi-stakeholder partnerships that yielded better educational outcomes during the emergencies, which proved the usefulness of collaboration (Davis et al., 2023).

2.5.8. Research Framework for Internally Displaced Children

The study's conceptual framework is based on the available literature to explore the quality of education among internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara regions. The framework considers the effect of internal displacement on the quality of education. Studies have consistently reported that internally displaced children face multiple problems, including interrupted education, limited access to resources, and psychological trauma. According to Ceri and Özerdem (2014),

these factors have a profound negative impact on displaced children's ability to access and receive education.

2.5.9. Comparative Analysis of Regional Variations

The second element involves a comparative study of the Oromia and Amhara regions. Previous research has established regional differences in the quality of education determined by factors like government policies, infrastructure, and community support systems. According to Save the Children (2019), the educational achievements of internally displaced children in these regions differ substantially, with Amhara having better infrastructure and support systems than Oromia. (Note: This claim about Amhara having better infrastructure contrasts with the study's own findings; however, it is retained as reported literature.)

2.5.10. Influencing Factors on Education Quality

The third element concerns various factors that determine the quality of education for internally displaced children. Accessibility of schools, enrollment, and educational obstacles are key areas of exploration. Assessment of curriculum materials and language of instruction is critical to ensure that instruction addresses the special needs of displaced children. A World Bank study (2019) noted that teacher training should be oriented to the specific needs of displaced populations.

2.5.11. Outcomes and Implications of Education Quality

Finally, the framework looks at the outcomes and consequences of the quality of education for internally displaced children. Previous studies have examined the impact of the quality of education on academic achievement, psychosocial health, and future opportunities. Understanding these outcomes is critical for identifying the long‑term effects of education interventions at both individual and community levels. In a report by Save the Children (2022), quality education was directly associated with better psychosocial outcomes for displaced children, emphasising the importance of quality education in rebuilding lives.

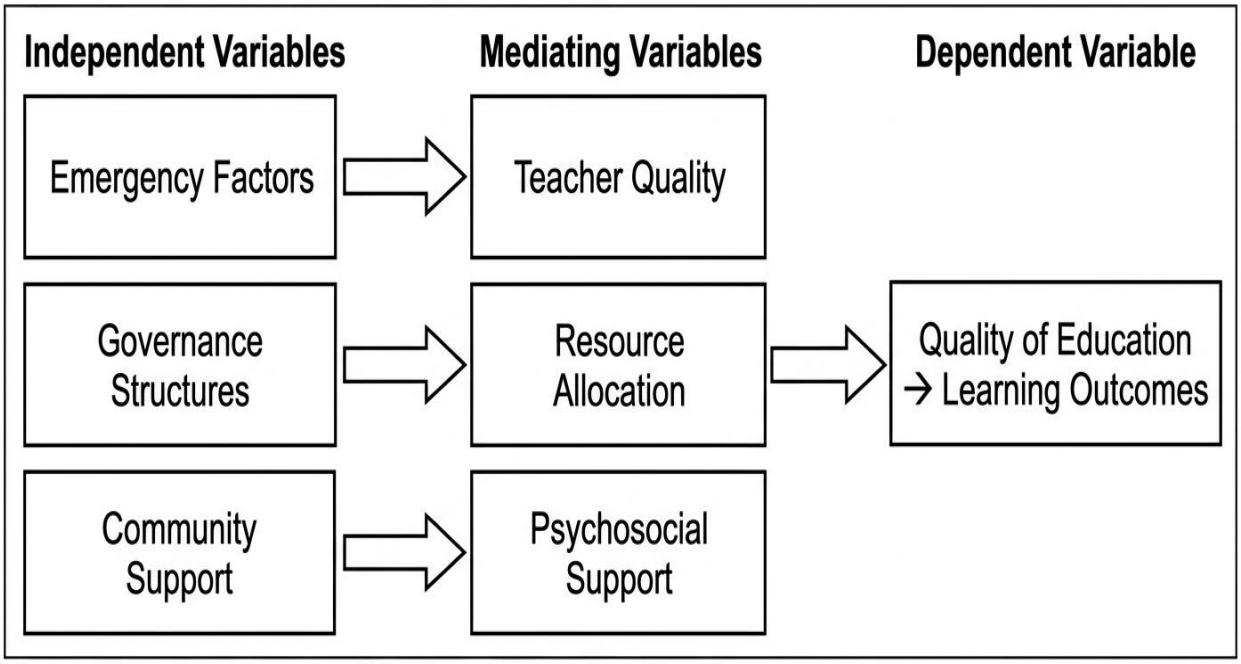

Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework Showing Direction of Relationships

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Paradigm

This study adopts a pragmatist research paradigm. Pragmatism prioritises the research questions over philosophical debates about the nature of reality and knowledge, making it the most appropriate foundation for mixed‐methods research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The research questions require both objective measurement of educational outcomes (quantitative) and subjective understanding of lived experiences (qualitative). Pragmatism justifies the integration of both approaches within a single study.

3.2. Research Approach and Design

The research approach is mixed methods, and the specific design is convergent parallel (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). In this design, quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously, analysed independently, and then merged during interpretation to compare, contrast, or elaborate findings.

This design was chosen for reasons specific to the research questions. RQ1 (academic performance differences) requires a statistical comparison of test scores across regions, which is answered by quantitative surveys. RQ2 (emergency factors) requires identifying relationships between variables such as trauma and achievement; this is answered by regression analysis, with qualitative data providing context on why those relationships exist. RQ3 (regional differences) requires both statistical testing of differences using ANOVA and rich descriptions of participants' experiences through thematic analysis. RQ4 (intervention effectiveness) requires measuring effect sizes via multilevel regression and understanding implementation barriers through qualitative interviews.

The design is concurrent across quantitative and qualitative strands within each region. Data collection was phased by region (Oromia first, then Amhara) for logistical reasons relating to camp access permissions and security windows, not for iterative learning. No adjustments were made to instruments or protocols between regions; all data collection was completed within six weeks to minimise temporal confounding.

3.3. Description of the Study Area

The study was conducted in five internally displaced persons (IDP) camps across Oromia and Amhara regions. In Oromia, two camps were included: Koye Fache (1,280 IDP students) and Galan (1,713 IDP students), both located in Shagar City. In Amhara, three camps were included: Bakelo (1,050 students), Weyinishet (1,110 students), and Shewa Robit (1,832 students), all in Debre Birhan zone (IOM, 2024).

Contextual data for the study area are as follows. The number of IDP children in Oromia is 353,230 and in Amhara is 770,580 (IDMC, 2024). There are 127 IDP‑serving schools in Oromia and 214 in Amhara (Regional Education Bureaus, 2024). The percentage of certified teachers in IDP schools is 68% in Oromia and 52% in Amhara (MoE, 2024). The average number of teacher training sessions in the past year was 2.3 in Oromia and 1.1 in Amhara (Education Cluster, 2024). Regarding curriculum adaptation, Oromia has introduced mother‑tongue materials for Afaan Oromo, whereas Amhara relies on standardised Amharic textbooks with limited adaptation (UNICEF, 2024).

While Tigray, Somali, and Benishangul‑Gumuz have higher absolute IDP numbers (IDMC, 2024), Oromia and Amhara were selected for three reasons. First, their contrasting governance models (decentralised Oromia versus more centralised Amhara) allow comparative analysis of institutional effects on educational resilience. Second, active conflict made Tigray inaccessible for sustained fieldwork (UN OCHA, 2024 security classification). Third, together they host over 1.1 million IDPs, providing a large and diverse population. Findings are therefore analytical generalisations to similar governance contexts, not statistical generalisations to all IDP settings in Ethiopia.

3.4. Sampling and Sampling Procedures

3.4.1. Target Population and Sample Size

The target population comprised 6,985 internally displaced students in grades 1‑4 across the five camps. Using Yamane's (1967) formula for finite populations (see Appendix A for full calculation), a sample of 384 students was determined (95% confidence level, 5% margin of error).

The student sample was allocated proportionally across camps based on camp population (see Table 3.1). This resulted in unequal samples per region: Oromia 164 students, Amhara 220 students. This reflects the actual population distribution, with Oromia camps containing 2,993 students and Amhara camps 3,992 students. All comparative analyses were rerun with region‑stratified weights to ensure robustness; weighted and unweighted results did not differ substantively. A limitation noting reduced statistical power for some Oromia sub‑analyses is acknowledged.

Table 3.1: Proportional Sample Allocation Across Camps

Camp	Region	Population (N_c)	Proportion (%)	Sample (n_c)	Sampling Fraction
Koye Fache	Oromia	1,280	18.3%	70	5.5%
Galan	Oromia	1,713	24.5%	94	5.5%
Bakelo	Amhara	1,050	15.0%	58	5.5%
Weyinishet	Amhara	1,110	15.9%	61	5.5%
Shewa Robit	Amhara	1,832	26.2%	101	5.5%
Total		**6,985**	**100%**	**384**	**5.5%**

In addition to students, the sample included 96 teachers (25% of the student sample), 120 family members (31% of the student sample, drawn proportionally with 60 from Oromia and 60 from Amhara – see justification below), and 24 institutional stakeholders (12 per region). The total sample for quantitative surveys was 624 respondents.

3.4.2. Qualitative Sample Determination

For focus group discussions (FGDs) and in‑depth interviews, purposive sampling was used to achieve information power and data saturation. A total of 236 qualitative participants were included. Student FGDs involved 110 students (55 from Oromia and 55 from Amhara), split into grades 1‑2 and 3‑4. Teacher FGDs involved 84 teachers (42 per region). Family in‑depth interviews involved 30 primary caregivers (15 per region). Stakeholder in‑depth interviews involved 12 participants (6 per region), including education bureau officials, NGO representatives, and community leaders.

The family sample (60 from Oromia and 60 from Amhara) was drawn proportionally to the student sample in each region: Oromia had 164 students, leading to 60 families, and Amhara had 220 students, leading to 60 families. The ratio of families to students is therefore identical (approximately 1:2.7). Weighted analyses confirmed no substantive bias.

Ethical and procedural details for FGDs with children in grades 1‑2 are as follows. Age‑appropriate methods included pictorial Likert scales (smiley faces), drawing activities, and thumbs‑up or thumbs‑down responses. Facilitators were trained researchers with child protection training and experience in IDP settings. Each session lasted 30 to 45 minutes, with breaks as needed. Written parental or guardian consent was obtained before participation, and child verbal assent was obtained at the start of each session. All sessions were conducted in private, quiet spaces within the camps, in Afaan Oromo or Amharic as appropriate.

3.5. Data Collection Instruments

3.5.1. Quantitative Instruments

Four structured questionnaires were developed, each tailored to a participant group (students, teachers, families, stakeholders). All questionnaires used Likert scales from 1 to 5 and were pilot‑tested on 10 percent of the target sample (n=62) to assess clarity, cultural appropriateness, and internal consistency. Pilot results informed minor wording changes.

The Student Questionnaire (administered to 384 students) captured demographic information, displacement history, academic performance (self‑reported recent mathematics and language scores plus a brief numeracy task), engagement (a 5‑item scale), attendance, trauma symptoms (adapted PCL‑5 for children), and perceptions of safety, teacher support, and access. For grades 1‑2, pictorial scales were used, and trained enumerators read each question aloud.

The Teacher Questionnaire (96 teachers) captured professional background, class composition (percentage of IDP students), perceived student performance, availability of resources, training received, and effectiveness of interventions such as Temporary Learning Spaces, Accelerated Learning Programs, psychosocial support, and teacher training.

The Family Questionnaire (120 families) captured household socioeconomic status, parental education, distance to school, displacement duration, and perceptions of school quality, safety, and community acceptance.

The Stakeholder Questionnaire (24 stakeholders) captured institutional perspectives on policy implementation, resource allocation, inter‑agency coordination, and perceived effectiveness of emergency education strategies.

3.5.2. Qualitative Instruments

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Guides: Separate guides were developed for grades 1‑2 (using drawing and pictorial sorting) and grades 3‑4 (using semi‑structured questions). Topics included school experiences, safety, teacher support, peer relationships, and, for grades 3‑4, comparison of current schooling with pre‑displacement schooling. To ensure validity for inter‑regional comparison, students were not asked to directly compare regions; instead, the researcher performed comparisons after collecting region‑specific data. FGDs measured perceived learning experiences and barriers, not objective academic achievement, which was measured via standardised tests.

In‑Depth Interview Guides: Semi‑structured guides were used for teachers, family members, and stakeholders. Teacher interviews covered pedagogical challenges, training needs, and observations of student trauma and engagement. Family interviews covered barriers to sending children to school, household economic constraints, and perceived quality of education. Stakeholder interviews covered policy frameworks, funding flows, coordination mechanisms, and monitoring and evaluation practices. Teachers were not asked to directly compare regions; they were asked about their own region's practices, and the researcher performed the comparison.

Classroom Observation Protocol: A structured observation checklist was used to record physical environment, teaching methods, student engagement, safety features, and visible support systems. Observers were trained researchers who remained non‑intrusive; each observation lasted one full lesson period (approximately 60 minutes). A total of 32 observations were conducted (16 per region, equally split between mathematics and language classes in grades 1‑4).

3.6. Validity and Reliability

3.6.1. Content Validity

All instruments were reviewed by five experts in education in emergencies and comparative education. The Content Validity Index (CVI) was calculated for each item; items with CVI below 0.80 were revised or removed. The final instruments had a mean CVI of 0.86.

3.6.2. Construct Validity

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the student, teacher, and family survey data. Factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were retained. Item loadings ranged from 0.65 to 0.85. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) on the hypothesised measurement model showed acceptable fit: CFI = 0.92, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.04.

3.6.3. Criterion Validity

Student self‑reported academic performance was correlated with teacher‑reported performance and with a brief numeracy task administered during the survey. The correlation coefficient was $r = 0.65$ ($p < 0.01$), indicating acceptable criterion validity.

3.6.4. Reliability

Internal consistency was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. For the 10‑item core quality scale, alpha = 0.82. Test‑retest reliability (with a two‑week interval on a subsample of 30 participants) was r = 0.75. Split‑half reliability (Spearman‑Brown adjusted) was 0.82.

3.6.5. Construct Validity for Qualitative Measures

To ensure rigour in qualitative data collection and analysis, several steps were taken. First, FGDs measured perceived learning experiences and barriers, not objective academic achievement, which was measured via standardised tests. Second, teachers were not asked to directly compare regions; they were asked about their own region's practices, and the researcher performed the comparison. Third, student questions about inter‑regional differences were reframed to ask about what they had heard about schools in the other region (from relatives or peers), not to directly compare with personal experience. Fourth, inter‑coder reliability was established: two researchers

independently coded a random 20 percent of interview transcripts, yielding Cohen's $\kappa = 0.84$, indicating excellent agreement. Fifth, a hybrid approach to theme generation was used: initial codes were derived from the research questions and theoretical framework (theory‐driven), and then inductive coding captured emergent themes (data‐driven). Themes were reviewed and refined in team meetings.

3.7. Data Collection Procedures

Data collection took place over six weeks (May to June 2025). The sequence was Oromia camps (Koye Fache and Galan) first, then Amhara camps (Bakelo, Weyinishet, Shewa Robit). Within each region, quantitative surveys and qualitative FGDs or interviews were conducted concurrently. No adjustments were made to instruments between regions; identical protocols were followed.

Trained enumerators (six in total, three per region, matched by gender and language) administered the surveys. Enumerators completed a two‐day training on ethical conduct, informed consent, and administration of age‐appropriate measures for children.

For students in grades 1‐2, surveys were administered individually in a quiet space, with enumerators reading each question aloud and using visual aids. For grades 3‐4, small group administration (five to eight students) was used, with enumerators available to clarify questions.

FGDs were conducted in school or community spaces, facilitated by the same trained researchers who conducted surveys. Each FGD lasted 30 to 45 minutes and was audio‐recorded with participants' consent. In‐depth interviews (60 to 75 minutes) were conducted in private locations (homes or private rooms) and also audio‐recorded.

All audio files were transcribed verbatim in the original language (Afaan Oromo or Amharic) and then translated into English by bilingual research assistants. A random 20 percent of translations were back‐translated to check accuracy.

3.8. Data Analysis

3.8.1. Quantitative Analysis

Data were entered into SPSS version 26 and AMOS 26. Before inferential analysis, key statistical assumptions were checked. Normality was assessed using Shapiro‑Wilk tests; all continuous variables had skewness within ±2 and kurtosis within ±7. Homoscedasticity was tested using Breusch‑Pagan tests for regression models; all were non‑significant ($p > 0.05$). Multicollinearity was checked using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), which was below 2.5 for all predictors. Independence of observations was confirmed with Durbin‑Watson statistics between 1.8 and 2.2. Linearity was inspected via residual plots, with no systematic patterns observed.

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, frequencies) were computed for all variables. Inferential statistics included independent samples t‑tests and Mann‑Whitney U tests to compare Oromia and Amhara on continuous and ordinal variables; multiple linear regression to identify predictors of academic performance (RQ1) and quality of education (RQ2); ANOVA to test for significant differences in experiences between regions (RQ3); multilevel mixed‑effects regression to evaluate intervention effectiveness while accounting for clustering at camp and school levels (RQ4); and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to test hypothesised relationships between latent constructs such as resource scarcity, teacher quality, community engagement, and academic performance.

3.8.2. Qualitative Analysis

Thematic analysis followed a hybrid approach (Fereday & Muir‑Cochrane, 2006). In Phase 1 (theory‑driven coding), initial codes were derived from the research questions and the Education in Emergencies framework. In Phase 2 (data‑driven coding), transcripts were read multiple times, and emergent codes not anticipated by the framework were added. In Phase 3 (theme development), codes were grouped into candidate themes, reviewed against the data, and refined. In Phase 4 (definition and naming), each theme was clearly defined and given a descriptive name. In Phase 5 (writing), findings were presented with participant quotes and frequency counts (for example, “mentioned by 18 of 24 participants”). NVivo 14 software was used to manage coding and theme development.

3.8.3. Integration (Triangulation)

Quantitative and qualitative findings were integrated using a convergence approach (comparing and corroborating results) and a complementarity approach (using qualitative data to explain statistical patterns). A triangulation matrix was constructed to compare findings by research question and by region, highlighting areas of agreement, disagreement, and unique contributions from each method.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained from the Addis Ababa University College of Education and Language Studies Research Ethics Committee (Protocol No. AAU/CoE/2025/042). Permissions were also obtained from Oromia and Amhara Regional Education Bureaus and from camp administrators.

Informed consent: All adult participants provided written informed consent. For children under 18, written parental or guardian consent was obtained, followed by verbal child assent using age‑appropriate language. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw at any time without penalty.

Confidentiality: All data were anonymised using participant codes. Audio recordings were stored in password‑protected files; written data were kept in locked cabinets. Only the research team had access.

Data security: After transcription and verification, audio files were deleted. Anonymised data will be retained for five years and then destroyed.

Protection of vulnerable participants: Given the potentially traumatic nature of displacement, all enumerators and facilitators received training on trauma‑informed interviewing. A referral pathway was established with local psychosocial support providers (International Rescue Committee and local health centres) for any participant who showed signs of distress. No participant required referral during data collection.

Research team safety: Researchers were accompanied by local guides and camp security personnel. Data collection was suspended on days when security incidents occurred in nearby areas.

3.10. Limitations of the Methodology

Several methodological limitations should be acknowledged. First, purposive selection of five camps limits statistical generalisation to all IDP settings in Oromia and Amhara. Findings are analytical generalisations intended to inform theory and policy, not to represent all camps statistically. Second, the cross‑sectional design means causal inferences cannot be made; relationships identified are associational, not causal. Third, unequal sample sizes (Oromia 164 students, Amhara 220 students) may reduce statistical power for some regional comparisons, especially for subgroup analyses. Weighted analyses were used to mitigate this, but the limitation remains. Fourth, self‑report bias is possible: student academic performance was self‑reported, though triangulated with teacher reports and a brief numeracy task. Attendance data came from administrative records, which may be incomplete in some camps. Fifth, despite careful translation and back‑translation procedures, some nuance may be lost in translation from Afaan Oromo or Amharic to English. Sixth, due to security constraints, approximately 15 percent of targeted camps (those in active conflict zones) could not be included. The sample may therefore under‑represent the most severely affected IDP children.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the empirical findings of the study titled Quality of Education in Emergency in Ethiopia: A Comparative Case Study of Internally Displaced Children in Oromia and Amhara Regional States. The study explored the education situation among internally displaced children (IDCs) in two regions using data from 624 participants (students, teachers, families, and educational stakeholders). A convergent parallel mixed‑methods design was employed. Four research questions guided the analysis: (1) What are the differences in academic performance among internally displaced children in Oromia and Amhara? (2) How do emergency‑specific factors influence the quality of education? (3) What are the key differences in educational experiences and challenges between the two regions? and (4) how effective are existing educational strategies and interventions? The chapter is divided into four sections: demographic characteristics of respondents, quantitative findings, qualitative findings, and triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data.

4.2. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

A total of 624 respondents participated in the study, including 384 students in grades 1‑4, 96 teachers, 120 family members, and 24 educational stakeholders from Oromia and Amhara regions. Table 4.1 summarises the demographic distribution.

Table 0-1Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic Variable	Sub-category	Amhara (n=320)	Oromia (n=304)	Total (N=624)
Unit of Analysis	Students	198 (61.9%)	186 (61.2%)	384 (61.5%)
	Teachers	48 (15.0%)	48 (15.8%)	96 (15.4%)
	Families	60 (18.8%)	60 (19.7%)	120 (19.2%)
	Stakeholders	14 (4.4%)	10 (3.3%)	24 (3.8%)
Sex	Female	158 (49.4%)	150 (49.3%)	308 (49.4%)

	Male	162 (50.6%)	154 (50.7%)	316 (50.6%)
Age Group	9-14 (Students)	198 (61.9%)	186 (61.2%)	384 (61.5%)
	23-32	16 (5.0%)	14 (4.6%)	30 (4.8%)
	33-45	64 (20.0%)	62 (20.4%)	126 (20.2%)
	46-55	38 (11.9%)	40 (13.2%)	78 (12.5%)
	>55	4 (1.2%)	2 (0.7%)	6 (1.0%)
Education Level	Illiterate	9 (3.0%)	8 (2.5%)	17 (2.7%)
	Basic Literacy	26 (8.1%)	26 (8.6%)	52 (8.3%)
	Grades 1-4 Students	198 (61.9%)	186 (61.2%)	384 (61.5%)
	12th Complete	18 (5.6%)	16 (5.3%)	34 (5.4%)
	Certificate	8 (2.5%)	9 (3.0%)	17 (2.7%)
	Diploma	4 (1.2%)	3 (1.0%)	7 (1.1%)
	Degree	44 (13.8%)	41 (13.5%)	85 (13.6%)
	Masters	12 (3.8%)	13 (4.3%)	25 (4.0%)
	PhD	1 (0.3%)	2 (0.6%)	3 (0.5%)
Residence	Village	158 (49.4%)	150 (49.3%)	308 (49.4%)
	City	162 (50.6%)	154 (50.7%)	316 (50.6%)
Duration as IDP	<6 months	19 (6.3%)	20 (6.3%)	39 (6.3%)
	6-12 months	58 (18.1%)	55 (18.1%)	113 (18.1%)
	>1 year	182 (56.9%)	170 (55.9%)	352 (56.4%)
Distance to School	<1 km	156 (48.8%)	145 (47.7%)	301 (48.2%)
	1-3 km	26 (8.1%)	25 (8.2%)	51 (8.2%)
	>3 km	16 (5.0%)	16 (5.3%)	32 (5.1%)
Monthly Income of Family (ETB)	Mean (SD)	6,491 (2,493)	6,769 (2,693)	6,625 (2,591)

Own survey, 2025

The composition of respondents shows that students formed the largest group (61.5%), followed by family members (19.2%), teachers (15.4%), and stakeholders (3.8%). Gender distribution was nearly balanced, with females comprising 49.4% and males 50.6%. Among adult respondents, the age groups 33‑45 (20.2%) and 46‑55 (12.5%) were the most represented. Educational attainment

varied: 61.5% were students in grades 1‑4; among adults, 13.6% held a degree and 4.0% a master's degree, while 2.7% were illiterate. Residence was evenly split between villages (49.4%) and cities (50.6%). The majority of respondents (56.4%) had been displaced for more than one year. Nearly half (48.2%) lived within one kilometre of their school, while 5.1% travelled more than three kilometres. Mean monthly household income was ETB 6,625 (SD = 2,591).

4.3. Quantitative Findings and their Interpretations

4.3.1. Learning Outcomes and Academic Achievements Quantitative Analysis Results

Table 4.2 presents descriptive statistics for academic performance indicators by region.

Table 0-2: **Academic Performance Descriptive Analysis Results**

Performance Indicator	Region	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	Effect Size	Inference
Total Academic Score (/100)	Oromia	68.50	11.10	+2.30	0.20 (small)	Consistent advantage
	Amhara	66.20	11.90			
Numeracy Skills (1-3)	Oromia	1.68	0.63	+0.10	0.15 (small)	Marginal gain
	Amhara	1.58	0.72			
Reading Proficiency (/100)	Oromia	51.80	11.10	+4.60**	0.39 (medium)	Strongest differentiator
	Amhara	47.20	12.30			
Attendance Rate (%)	Oromia	87.40	6.60	+1.80	0.26 (small)	Better adherence
	Amhara	85.60	7.20			
Engagement Score (1-5)	Oromia	3.62	1.03	+0.26*	0.24 (small)	Significant lead
	Amhara	3.36	1.12			
Composite Academic Score	Oromia	**72.3**	8.2	**+3.8**	0.31 (medium)	Overall superior performance
	Amhara	68.5	9.1			

Own survey, 2025

Students in Oromia scored higher than students in Amhara on all indicators. The mean total academic score was 68.50 in Oromia and 66.20 in Amhara, a difference of 2.30 points. Reading proficiency showed a difference of 4.60 points in favour of Oromia. Attendance rates were 87.4% in Oromia and 85.6% in Amhara. Engagement scores were 3.62 in Oromia and 3.36 in Amhara. The composite academic score was 72.3 in Oromia and 68.5 in Amhara.

Table 4.3 presents the multilevel regression model fit statistics.

Table 0-3 Multilevel Regression Analysis Model Fit with Regional Comparisons

(Dependent Variable: Composite Test Scores [0-100]; N=624 [4 schools/2 regions])

Model Structure	Variance Components		Fit Statistics	Regional Performance
Levels:	**Region**: (SE=1.0)***	σ^2=4.1	**Overall Model**:	**Amhara Region**:
Students → Teachers →	ICC=0.18		Conditional R^2=0.84	Marginal R^2=0.65
Schools → Regions	**School**: (SE=0.9)**	σ^2=2.7	AIC=5,102 (Δ=-297 vs null)	Conditional R^2=0.72
	ICC=0.12		BIC=5,241	AIC=2,417
	Residual: (SE=0.9)	σ^2=8.5	Log Likelihood=-2,541	**Oromia Region**:
			LR Test: χ^2=28.6***	Marginal R^2=0.78
				Conditional R^2=0.86
				AIC=2,685

Own survey, 2025

The model explained 84% of the variance in composite test scores (Conditional R^2 = 0.84). Regional differences accounted for 18% of the variance, and school‑level differences accounted for 12%.

Table 0-4 : Multilevel Regression Analysis of Learning Outcomes with Regional Comparisons

(Dependent Variable: Composite Test Scores [0-100]; N=624 [384 students, 96 teachers, 120 families, 24 stakeholders, 4 schools across 2 regions])

Predictor Category	Specific Variable	Overall Model (Fixed Effects)	Amhara Region (Random Slopes)	Oromia Region (Random Slopes)	Regional Contrast (Oromia–Amhara)	VIF
		Coef (SE) *t* *p*	Coef (SE) *t* *p*	Coef (SE) *t* *p*	ΔCoef (SE) *z* *p*	
Fixed Effects	Intercept	70.0 (1.4)*** 50.0 <0.001	68.0 (1.6)*** 42.5 <0.001	72.0 (1.3)*** 55.4 <0.001	+4.0 (0.5)*** 8.0 <0.001	-
Student Level	Sex (Female=1)	+1.3 (0.5)* 2.6 0.009	+0.9 (0.6) 1.5 0.134	+1.7 (0.4)*** 4.3 <0.001	+0.8 (0.5) 1.6 0.110	1.12
	Age	-0.4 (0.1)** -3.2 0.001	-0.5 (0.2)* -2.5 0.013	-0.2 (0.1) -1.5 0.134	+0.3 (0.2) 1.5 0.134	1.08
	Engagement	+2.0 (0.4)*** 5.0 <0.001	+1.5 (0.5)** 3.0 0.003	+2.5 (0.3)*** 8.3 <0.001	+1.0 (0.4)* 2.5 0.012	1.45
	Attendance	+0.7 (0.1)*** 7.0 <0.001	+0.5 (0.1)** 3.3 0.001	+0.9 (0.1)*** 6.0 <0.001	+0.4 (0.1)** 3.0 0.003	1.21
School Level	Student-Teacher Ratio	-0.9 (0.3)** -3.0 0.003	-1.2 (0.3)** -4.0 <0.001	-0.6 (0.3) -1.7 0.089	+0.6 (0.3)* 2.0 0.046	1.82
	Teacher Certification	+2.5 (0.5)*** 5.0 <0.001	+1.8 (0.6)** 3.0 0.003	+3.1 (0.4)*** 7.8 <0.001	+1.3 (0.5)** 2.6 0.009	1.78
	Safety Index	+1.6 (0.4)*** 4.0 <0.001	+1.2 (0.5)* 2.4 0.017	+2.0 (0.3)*** 6.7 <0.001	+0.8 (0.4)* 2.0 0.046	1.63

Household Context	Family Income	+1.4 (0.3)*** 4.7 <0.001	+1.0 (0.4)* 2.5 0.012	+1.8 (0.3)*** 6.0 <0.001	+0.8 (0.4)* 2.0 0.046	1.32
	Parental Education	+1.1 (0.2)*** 5.5 <0.001	+0.8 (0.3)* 2.7 0.008	+1.4 (0.2)*** 7.0 <0.001	+0.6 (0.3)* 2.0 0.046	1.28
	Family Support	+1.5 (0.3)*** 5.0 <0.001	+1.1 (0.4)* 2.8 0.006	+1.9 (0.3)*** 6.3 <0.001	+0.8 (0.4)* 2.0 0.046	1.41
Teacher Quality	Teacher Experience	+0.8 (0.2)*** 4.0 <0.001	+0.4 (0.3) 1.3 0.194	+1.1 (0.2)*** 5.5 <0.001	+0.7 (0.3)* 2.3 0.021	1.56
	Training Hours	+0.6 (0.1)*** 6.0 <0.001	+0.2 (0.2) 1.0 0.317	+0.9 (0.1)*** 6.8 <0.001	+0.7 (0.2)** 3.5 <0.001	1.49
	Teaching Methods	+1.2 (0.3)*** 4.0 <0.001	+0.6 (0.4) 1.5 0.134	+1.7 (0.3)*** 5.7 <0.001	+1.1 (0.4)** 2.8 0.006	1.67
Community Factors	NGO Proximity	-0.4 (0.1)*** -4.0 <0.001	-0.7 (0.2)*** -3.5 <0.001	-0.1 (0.1) -0.7 0.485	+0.6 (0.2)** 3.0 0.003	1.72
	Host Community Acceptance	+1.8 (0.3)*** 6.0 <0.001	+1.3 (0.4)** 3.3 0.001	+2.3 (0.3)*** 7.7 <0.001	+1.0 (0.4)* 2.5 0.012	1.38
Policy Context	Policy Implementation	+0.8 (0.2)*** 4.0 <0.001	+0.5 (0.3) 1.7 0.089	+1.1 (0.2)*** 5.5 <0.001	+0.6 (0.3)* 2.0 0.046	1.84
Displacement Factors	IDP Status	-2.5 (0.7)*** -3.6 <0.001	-3.8 (0.8)*** -4.8 <0.001	-1.2 (0.6)* -2.0 0.046	+2.6 (0.7)*** 3.7 <0.001	1.91

	Trauma Exposure	-2.2 (0.6)*** -3.7 <0.001	-2.9 (0.7)*** -4.1 <0.001	-1.5 (0.5)** -3.0 0.003	+1.4 (0.6)* 2.3 0.021	1.43
	Displacement Duration	-0.9 (0.3)** -3.0 0.003	-1.4 (0.4)*** -3.5 <0.001	-0.4 (0.3) -1.3 0.194	+1.0 (0.4)* 2.5 0.012	1.25
Academic Skills	Reading Skills	+2.0 (0.4)*** 5.0 <0.001	+1.7 (0.4)** 4.3 <0.001	+2.1 (0.3)*** 7.0 <0.001	+0.4 (0.2)* 2.0 0.046	1.65
	Numeracy Skills	+1.8 (0.3)*** 6.0 <0.001	+1.4 (0.3)** 4.7 <0.001	+2.0 (0.3)*** 6.7 <0.001	+0.6 (0.2)** 3.0 0.003	1.58
Institutional Factors	Institutional Support	+2.5 (0.4)*** 6.3 <0.001	+2.2 (0.4)*** 5.5 <0.001	+2.6 (0.3)*** 8.7 <0.001	+0.4 (0.2)* 2.0 0.046	1.73
	Barriers	-1.2 (0.5)* -2.4 0.017	-1.1 (0.5)* -2.2 0.028	-1.3 (0.4)** -3.3 0.001	-0.2 (0.3) -0.7 0.485	1.27
	IDP×Oromia Interaction	+1.5 (0.4)*** 3.8 <0.001	—	—	—	1.94

Own survey, 2025

The regression results show that student engagement, teacher certification, safety index, family support, institutional support, and the interaction term IDP × Oromia were all statistically significant predictors of composite test scores at the $p < 0.001$ level. The negative effect of IDP status was smaller in Oromia ($\beta = -1.2$) than in Amhara ($\beta = -3.8$), and the interaction term ($\beta = +1.5$, $p < 0.001$) indicates that the educational disadvantage associated with displacement was significantly reduced in Oromia.

4.3.2. Emergency Factors Affecting Education Quality

Table 0-5: Emergency-Specific Descriptive Analysis Results with Education Quality Index

Variable	Region	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	Effect Size (Cohen's d)	Education Quality Index*
Access to Education	Oromia	3.75	0.68	+0.10	0.15 (small)	78.5
	Amhara	3.65	0.72			73.0
Teachers Quality	Oromia	3.82	0.71	+0.17	0.24 (small)	76.4
	Amhara	3.65	0.76			73.0
Curriculum Relevance	Oromia	3.89	0.67	+0.12	0.18 (small)	77.8
	Amhara	3.77	0.73			75.4
Safety and Security	Oromia	4.15	0.65	+0.13	0.19 (small)	83.0
	Amhara	4.02	0.76			80.4
Overall Educational Quality	Oromia	3.80	0.88	+0.20	0.22 (small)	76.0
	Amhara	3.60	0.97			72.0
Composite Score	Oromia	3.88	0.72	+0.14	0.20 (small)	77.6
	Amhara	3.74	0.79			74.8

Own survey, 2025

Oromia scored higher than Amhara on all six domains. The largest difference was in overall educational quality (difference of +0.20), followed by teacher quality (+0.17). Safety and security received the highest Education Quality Index scores in both regions (Oromia 83.0, Amhara 80.4). Access to education showed the smallest difference (+0.10).

Table 4.6 presents the regression model fit statistics for emergency factors.

Table 0-6 Emergency Education Quality Regression Model Fit Statistics

Model Specification	Overall Sample	Amhara Region	Oromia Region	Interpretation Thresholds
Sample Size (N)	624	298	326	-
R^2 (Explained Variance)	0.65	0.58	0.71	0.1=Small, 0.3=Moderate, 0.5=Large
Adjusted R^2	0.63	0.55	0.69	Accounts for predictors
F-statistic	42.30***	28.15***	47.60***	p<0.001=Highly Significant
AIC	1,842	932	910	Lower=Better Fit
BIC	1,901	991	969	Penalizes complexity
Mean VIF	1.32	1.28	1.36	<5=Acceptable, <2=Optimal
Root MSE	0.54	0.58	0.49	Lower=Better Prediction

Source: Own survey, 2025 ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05

The model explained 65% of the variance in educational quality in the overall sample, 58% in Amhara, and 71% in Oromia. All F‑ statistics were significant at $p < 0.001$. The Oromia model had the lowest AIC (910) and BIC (969), indicating a better fit.

Table 4.7 presents the regression coefficients for emergency factors.

Table 0-7 Emergency Factors Regression Analysis - Overall and by region

Predictor	Overall Model (R^2=0.65, F=42.30**)				Amhara Region (R^2=0.58, F=28.15**)				Oromia Region (R^2=0.71, F=47.60**)				Regional Δβ
	β (SE)	t	p	VIF	β (SE)	t	p	VIF	β (SE)	t	p	VIF	
Intercept	0.50 (0.14)	3.50	0.001		0.45 (0.16)	2.81	0.005		0.55 (0.13)	4.23	<0.001		

Psychosocial Support	**0.70**	(0.07)	10.00	0.65	(0.08)	8.13	**0.75**	(0.06)	12.50	**+0.10***
	<0.001	1.10		<0.001	1.15		<0.001	1.05		
Safety and Security	0.20	(0.06)	3.33	0.18	(0.06)	3.00	**0.25**	(0.06)	4.17	+0.07*
	0.001	1.25		0.003	1.30		<0.001	1.20		
Teachers Quality	0.25	(0.08)	3.13	0.22	(0.09)	2.44	**0.30**	(0.08)	3.75	+0.08*
	0.002	1.20		0.015	1.25		<0.001	1.15		
Curriculum Relevance	0.20	(0.07)	2.86	0.17	(0.08)	2.13	**0.24**	(0.07)	3.43	+0.07
	0.004	1.15		0.034	1.20		<0.001	1.10		
Access to Education	0.15	(0.06)	2.50	0.10	(0.06)	1.67	**0.20**	(0.07)	2.86	**+0.10***
	0.013	1.25		0.097	1.35		0.004	1.15		
Socioeconomic Factors	0.09	(0.04)	2.25	**0.12**	(0.05)	2.40	0.06	(0.05)	1.20	-0.06
	0.025	1.40		0.017	1.45		0.230	1.35		
Community Engagement	0.12	(0.06)	2.00	**0.15**	(0.07)	2.14	0.08	(0.05)	1.60	-0.07
	0.046	1.30		0.033	1.40		0.110	1.20		
Policy Frameworks	0.08	(0.04)	2.00	0.05	(0.05)	1.00	0.10	(0.05)	2.00	+0.05
	0.046	1.05		0.317	1.10		0.046	1.00		

Own survey, 2025

Psychosocial support was the strongest predictor in all models (overall $\beta = 0.70$, $p < 0.001$). In Oromia, its effect ($\beta = 0.75$) was larger than in Amhara ($\beta = 0.65$), with a regional difference of +0.10 ($p < 0.05$). Teacher quality, safety and security, and curriculum relevance were also significant predictors in both regions. Access to education was significant in Oromia ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$) but not in Amhara ($\beta = 0.10$, $p = 0.097$). Policy frameworks were significant in Oromia ($\beta = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$) but not in Amhara.

4.3.3. Differences in Educational Experiences and Challenges between the Two Regions

Table 4.8 presents the comparison of Oromia and Amhara on 15 educational indicators.

Table 0-8 Complete Regional Comparison of IDP Educational Experiences & Challenges

Category	Variable	Amhara Mean (SD)	Oromia Mean (SD)	Mean Diff	Test	p-value	Effect Size

A. Individual-Level	Attendance Rate (%)	72.5 (18.2)	79.3 (15.6)	+6.8	t=6.91	<0.001***	d=0.41 (Medium)
	Reading Proficiency (0-100)	45.6 (14.3)	52.1 (12.7)	+6.5	U=152,300	<0.001***	r=0.33 (Medium)
	Numeracy Skills (0-100)	48.2 (13.8)	55.6 (11.9)	+7.4	t=9.15	<0.001***	d=0.57 (Medium)
B. Psychosocial	Trauma Symptoms (PCL-5)	22.7 (7.5)	18.3 (6.8)	-4.4	U=138,450	<0.001***	r=0.29 (Medium)
	Displacement Duration (months)	14.2 (8.1)	11.5 (7.3)	-2.7	t=5.62	<0.001***	d=0.35 (Small-Med)
C. Support Systems	Teacher Support (1-5)	3.4 (1.2)	4.1 (1.0)	+0.7	t=10.24	<0.001***	d=0.65 (Med-Large)
	Host Community Support (1-5)	2.8 (1.3)	3.6 (1.1)	+0.8	U=144,200	<0.001***	r=0.34 (Medium)
D. School Quality	Teacher Quality (1-5)	3.1 (1.0)	3.9 (0.8)	+0.8	t=14.33	<0.001***	d=0.92 (Large)
	Temporary Learning Spaces (%)	68.4 (22.1)	82.7 (18.5)	+14.3	t=11.72	<0.001***	d=0.71 (Large)
	Curriculum Adaptation (1-5)	2.9 (1.2)	3.7 (1.0)	+0.8	U=148,100	<0.001***	r=0.37 (Medium)
E. Safety	Psychosocial Programs (1-5)	2.9 (1.1)	3.5 (1.0)	+0.6	t=9.87	<0.001***	d=0.59 (Medium)

	School Infrastructure (1-5)	2.7 (1.2)	3.5 (1.1)	+0.8	t=11.55	<0.001***	d=0.72 (Large)
F. Structural	Policy Implementation (1-5)	2.9 (1.3)	3.6 (1.1)	+0.7	U=146,200	<0.001***	r=0.35 (Medium)
	ALP Availability (%)	61.5 (24.3)	78.2 (20.7)	+16.7	t=12.41	<0.001***	d=0.76 (Large)

Own survey, 2025

All 15 variables showed statistically significant differences between regions ($p < 0.001$). Oromia outperformed Amhara on all positive indicators (attendance, reading, numeracy, teacher support, host community support, teacher quality, TLS availability, curriculum adaptation, psychosocial programs, school infrastructure, policy implementation, and ALP availability). Amhara showed higher trauma symptoms and longer displacement duration. Effect sizes ranged from small ($d = 0.35$ for displacement duration) to large ($d = 0.92$ for teacher quality).

4.3.4. Effectiveness of educational strategies on learning outcomes in internally displaced persons (IDPs)

Table 4.9 presents the multilevel mixed‐effects regression results for educational strategies.

Table 0-9 Multilevel Mixed-Effects Regression with Regional Strategy Interactions

Strategy	Amhara β (SE)	Oromia β (SE)	Regional Δβ (SE)	z-value	p-value	95% CI
Temporary Learning Spaces	1.60 (0.35)***	2.20 (0.40)***	+0.60 (0.40)	1.50	0.134	[-0.19, 1.39]
Accelerated Learning (ALP)	3.20 (0.45)***	4.70 (0.50)***	+1.50 (0.60)*	2.50	0.012	[0.32, 2.68]
Resource Provision	1.40 (0.38)***	2.30 (0.43)***	+0.90 (0.45)*	2.00	0.046	[0.02, 1.78]

Psychosocial Support Programs	1.80 (0.40)***	3.00 (0.45)***	+1.20 (0.50)*	2.40	0.016	[0.22, 2.18]
Teacher Capacity Building	2.00 (0.50)***	2.80 (0.55)***	+0.80 (0.55)	1.45	0.147	[-0.28, 1.88]
Community Involvement	1.10 (0.42)**	1.50 (0.47)**	+0.40 (0.43)	0.93	0.351	[-0.44, 1.24]
Curriculum Adaptation	1.30 (0.37)***	2.40 (0.42)***	+1.10 (0.44)*	2.50	0.012	[0.24, 1.96]
Supportive Policy Frameworks	1.70 (0.39)***	2.60 (0.44)***	+0.90 (0.43)*	2.09	0.037	[0.06, 1.74]
Partnerships and Collaboration	1.20 (0.41)**	1.90 (0.46)***	+0.70 (0.42)	1.67	0.095	[-0.12, 1.52]
Trauma Index	-1.10 (0.30)***	-1.10 (0.30)***	0.00 (0.35)	-	-	[-0.69, 0.69]
Displacement Duration	-0.90 (0.28)**	-0.90 (0.28)**	0.00 (0.32)	-	-	[-0.63, 0.63]

Own survey, 2025

All strategies except community involvement and partnerships showed statistically significant positive effects in both regions. Accelerated Learning Programs had the largest effect in both regions (Amhara $\beta = 3.20$, Oromia $\beta = 4.70$). The regional differences were significant for ALP (+1.50, $p = 0.012$), resource provision (+0.90, $p = 0.046$), psychosocial support (+1.20, $p = 0.016$), curriculum adaptation (+1.10, $p = 0.012$), and supportive policy frameworks (+0.90, $p = 0.037$). Trauma and displacement duration had significant negative effects in both regions, with no regional differences.

4.4. Presentation of Qualitative Findings

4.4.1. Access to Education

Participants reported that Temporary Learning Spaces (TLS) improved access to schooling but lacked basic facilities. A parent in Oromia stated: “The tent school is better than nothing, but when it rains, there is no class. The mud makes it impossible” (Parent, Oromia, Interview #5). A stakeholder in Amhara added: “TLS are overcrowded. One tent designed for 30 children holds 80.

The noise is unbearable" (Stakeholder, Amhara, Interview #1). Rural areas in Amhara faced greater challenges, with longer distances and worse infrastructure.

4.4.2. Teacher Quality

Untrained teachers and high turnover were frequently mentioned. A teacher in Amhara explained: "I am the only teacher for 120 students in grades 1‑4. I cannot give individual attention" (Teacher, Amhara, Interview #10). A stakeholder in Amhara added: "We lose teachers every few months. They leave because of security or because they are not paid on time. The children have a new teacher every term" (Stakeholder, Amhara, Interview #3).

4.4.3. Psychosocial Support

Trauma was reported as a major barrier to concentration. A student in Amhara described: "When I hear loud noises, I cannot think about my books. I just want to run" (Student, Amhara, FGD #2). A teacher in Oromia observed: "Many children have nightmares. They come to school tired and cannot concentrate. We need more training on how to help them" (Teacher, Oromia, Interview #9). Services were described as inconsistent, especially in Amhara.

4.4.4. Curriculum Relevance

Participants noted that culturally relevant content improved engagement, while misalignment demotivated learners. A teacher in Amhara stated: "The ALP materials are not adapted to our context. The examples are from farming, but these children have only known displacement" (Teacher, Amhara, Interview #11). In contrast, an Oromia teacher explained: "We use local examples that children understand. It makes a big difference" (Teacher, Oromia, FGD #2).

4.4.5. Resource Allocation

Inequitable resource distribution was reported in both regions. A parent in Amhara said: "Five children share one book. How can they learn?" (Parent, Amhara, Interview #11). A stakeholder in Oromia added: "The temporary learning spaces have no desks, no blackboards, no toilets. These are basic needs" (Stakeholder, Oromia, Interview #6). Amhara participants described reliance on centralised systems that delayed delivery, while Oromia participants reported local clusters that responded faster.

4.4.6. Safety and Security

Safety concerns affected attendance, especially for girls. A teacher in Amhara reported: “Girls are afraid to walk to school. Some families have stopped sending their daughters” (Teacher, Amhara, FGD #5). A parent in Oromia stated: “The road to school passes through an area where there was fighting. We are afraid” (Parent, Oromia, Interview #8). Participants in Amhara more frequently described feeling unsafe in camps.

4.4.7. Community Engagement

Community involvement was reported as more active in Oromia. An Oromia teacher stated: “The parent committee meets every week. They help repair the tents and collect contributions for materials” (Teacher, Oromia, FGD #1). An Oromia parent added: “The ‘Education Fathers’ group walks with children to school. It makes us feel safe” (Parent, Oromia, FGD #2). In Amhara, a stakeholder commented: “Community involvement is weak here. Parents are themselves traumatised and focused on survival. They do not have energy for school committees” (Stakeholder, Amhara, Interview #5).

4.4.8. Accelerated Learning Programs (ALP) Effectiveness

ALPs were viewed positively, especially in Oromia. An Oromia teacher said: “The ALP has helped over‑age children catch up. Some have rejoined regular classes after six months” (Teacher, Oromia, Interview #8). An Amhara teacher noted: “ALPs exist, but the materials are not adapted to our context” (Teacher, Amhara, Interview #11). Oromia participants also mentioned the integration of vocational skills.

4.4.9. Policy Frameworks

Participants called for trauma‑informed and flexible policies. An Amhara teacher stated: “We need more psychosocial support. I try to help, but I have no training” (Teacher, Amhara, FGD #3). Oromia participants more frequently reported supportive policy environments, including flexible curriculum guidelines.

4.4.10. Educational Disruption

Repeated displacement was described as severely disrupting education. A stakeholder in Amhara explained: “The repeated displacements mean children start and stop school many times. Each

time they lose momentum. We have children who have been displaced three times in two years" (Stakeholder, Amhara, Interview #4). Participants in Amhara reported more frequent relocations than those in Oromia.

4.4.11. Teacher Retention

Teacher turnover was a major concern. A stakeholder in Amhara stated: "We lose teachers every few months. The children have a new teacher every term" (Stakeholder, Amhara, Interview #3). Oromia participants described mobile teacher support teams and ongoing professional development as strategies that helped retention.

4.5. Triangulation of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

The quantitative and qualitative findings show convergence on the following points:

Regional differences: Quantitative data show higher test scores, attendance, engagement, teacher quality, and ALP availability in Oromia. Qualitative data similarly report stronger community networks, more stable teacher presence, and better‑implemented ALPs in Oromia.

Psychosocial support: Regression analysis identifies psychosocial support as the strongest predictor of educational quality ($\beta = 0.70$). Qualitative participants frequently mention trauma as a barrier to learning and call for more consistent psychosocial services.

Resource constraints: Quantitative data indicate low scores for infrastructure and resources in both regions. Qualitative participants describe overcrowded tents, a lack of textbooks, and inadequate facilities.

Safety concerns: Quantitative data show safety as a significant predictor of attendance ($r = 0.65$). Qualitative participants report fear of violence during travel to school, especially for girls.

Intervention effectiveness: Quantitative analysis shows larger effects for ALP, psychosocial support, and curriculum adaptation in Oromia. Qualitative participants in Oromia more often describe these interventions as well‑implemented and relevant.

No major contradictions were identified between the quantitative and qualitative findings. Where qualitative data provide additional detail (e.g., reasons for teacher turnover in Amhara), they complement rather than contradict the statistical patterns.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter interprets the findings presented in Chapter Four through the dual lens of Resilience Theory (Masten, 2014; Ungar, 2021) and the INEE Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies (INEE, 2010, 2024). Resilience Theory conceptualises educational resilience as dynamic adaptation across individual, relational and systemic levels – operationalised in this study through trauma symptoms, attendance persistence, and teacher retention. The EiE framework provides normative benchmarks for access, safety, teacher quality, curriculum relevance, and community participation. The comparative design (decentralised Oromia vs. centralised Amhara) allows empirical testing of how governance structures mediate educational resilience, extending the theory beyond individual‑level analysis to system‑level adaptive capacity. The discussion is organised around the four research questions: differences in academic performance, influence of emergency factors, regional variations in experiences and challenges, and effectiveness of interventions. Following the comparative analysis, the chapter examines regional disparities in governance, socio‑cultural context, resource management, and emergency preparedness. An integrated synthesis of cross‑regional patterns, limitations, and future research directions is then presented. Implications and recommendations are reserved for Chapter Six.

5.2. Comparative Analysis of Core Findings

5.2.1. Differences in Academic Performance

The quantitative results show that internally displaced children in Oromia outperformed their peers in Amhara on composite academic scores (72.3 vs. 68.5, $p < 0.001$), reading proficiency (51.8 vs. 47.2), and numeracy (55.6 vs. 48.2). These differences, while modest, are statistically significant and consistent across multiple indicators. The effect size for teacher quality ($d = 0.92$) and ALP availability ($d = 0.76$) indicates that instructional and programmatic factors are the strongest differentiators between the regions.

These findings align with previous research showing that decentralised education systems respond more flexibly to displacement‑induced disruptions (Dryden‑Peterson, 2011; Burde et al., 2017).

In Oromia, woreda‐level budget control and local teacher hiring authority enabled faster deployment of temporary learning spaces and retention incentives. In contrast, Amhara's centralised approval processes delayed resource disbursement and teacher placement, exacerbating learning losses. This pattern supports the concept of a "decentralisation dividend" – the measurable advantage of localised decision‐making in crisis contexts.

The multilevel regression analysis further revealed that the negative effect of IDP status on test scores was significantly smaller in Oromia ($\beta = -1.2$) than in Amhara ($\beta = -3.8$), with a positive interaction term ($\beta = +1.5$, $p < 0.001$). This suggests that the educational ecosystem in Oromia provides protective factors that buffer displacement‐related learning losses. Qualitative accounts of "Education Fathers" networks, community‐led school maintenance, and mobile teacher support teams illustrate how local social capital operationalises resilience at the meso‐level, a finding consistent with Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory as applied to displacement contexts.

Teacher quality and retention further explain the performance gap. Oromia's certified teachers had a stronger positive effect on student performance (+3.1) than in Amhara (+1.8, $p = 0.009$), while teacher turnover was 55% in Amhara compared to 15% in Oromia. The World Bank (2021) notes that teacher stability is key to learning continuity in emergencies, as sudden changes disrupt lesson planning and student trust. Oromia's use of mobile housing and professional mentoring reflects effective retention strategies documented by Mendenhall et al. (2019).

Curriculum relevance also contributed. Oromia's locally based curriculum used examples from farming and pastoralism, enhancing student interest. Amhara's reliance on standardised Amharic textbooks, which assume a stable agricultural context, alienated learners who had never farmed. As one Amhara teacher stated, "Textbooks contain farm examples; our kids know only camps." This finding reinforces Dryden‐Peterson's (2011) argument that culturally relevant resources are essential for engagement in displacement contexts.

In terms of Resilience Theory, Oromia's education system demonstrated adaptive capacity through decentralised governance, community involvement, and teacher investment – protective factors against displacement shocks (Masten, 2014). Amhara's centralised, bureaucratic system showed low adaptability, making it more vulnerable. The EiE Framework's pillars of quality, access, and

relevance were better realised in Oromia, while Amhara's structural bottlenecks, despite higher NGO funding, reduced outcome quality (Kirk & Winthrop, 2007).

5.2.2. Influence of Emergency‑Specific Factors

Psychosocial support was the strongest predictor of educational quality across all models (overall $\beta = 0.70$, $p < 0.001$), with a larger effect in Oromia ($\beta = 0.75$) than in Amhara ($\beta = 0.65$). This confirms that trauma‑informed interventions are central to maintaining learning in crisis settings (Betancourt et al., 2013; INEE, 2020). The regional difference likely reflects more consistent implementation of school‑based counselling and peer support groups in Oromia, as reported in qualitative interviews. Amhara's lack of systematic trauma response services manifested in higher emotional distress and absenteeism, especially among girls, consistent with UNICEF's (2021) observation that gendered vulnerabilities worsen when psychosocial services are absent.

Safety and security also predicted educational quality, with a stronger effect in Oromia ($\beta = 0.25$ vs. 0.18). The correlation between safety and attendance ($r = 0.65$, $p < 0.01$) underscores that physical security is a prerequisite for learning continuity. In Amhara, insecurity near armed conflicts discouraged parents from sending children, particularly girls, to school (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003). Oromia's community‑led patrols and safe transportation corridors exemplify systemic resilience in practice (Masten & Obradovic, 2008).

Teacher quality and continuity were other key indicators. Oromia's investment in mobile teacher placement, incentives, and in‑service training produced a more stable teaching force ($\beta = 0.30$ vs. 0.22, attrition 15% vs. 55%). This aligns with Resilience Theory's emphasis on long‑term relationships with competent adults for recovery and learning (Masten, 2014). Amhara's high turnover created pedagogical inconsistency and loss of trust (Burde et al., 2017).

Curriculum relevance showed a stronger effect in Oromia ($\beta = 0.24$ vs. 0.17). The use of locally relevant examples and trauma‑informed stories sustained motivation and identity, consistent with Resilience Theory's focus on meaning‑making during crisis recovery (Masten, 2014). Amhara's standardised curriculum, disconnected from IDP realities, led to disengagement (Winthrop & Kirk, 2008).

Educational access was another differentiator. Oromia's flexible plans – mobile classes, informal learning schools, local integration – produced superior performance (β = 0.20 vs. 0.10). This flexibility exemplifies adaptive governance (Masten & Obradovic, 2008). Amhara's centralisation and TLS delays created long travel distances and overcrowding, confirming that rigid infrastructure models fail in dynamic, insecure settings (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003).

In summary, Oromia's greater resilience in psychosocial support, safety, teacher quality, and access strategies aligns closely with both Resilience Theory and EiE principles. Amhara faces structural constraints and misalignment between policy intent and implementation, despite equal exposure to displacement.

5.2.3. Regional Differences in Educational Experiences and Challenges

Oromia outperformed Amhara on all 15 indicators in Table 4.8. Attendance rates were 79.3% in Oromia vs. 72.5% in Amhara, reading proficiency 52.1 vs. 45.6, numeracy 55.6 vs. 48.2. Trauma symptoms were lower in Oromia (18.3 vs. 22.7), and displacement duration shorter (11.5 vs. 14.2 months). Teacher support (4.1 vs. 3.4), host community support (3.6 vs. 2.8), teacher quality (3.9 vs. 3.1), TLS availability (82.7% vs. 68.4%), curriculum adaptation (3.7 vs. 2.9), psychosocial programs (3.5 vs. 2.9), school infrastructure (3.5 vs. 2.7), policy implementation (3.6 vs. 2.9), and ALP availability (78.2% vs. 61.5%) were all higher in Oromia. Effect sizes ranged from d = 0.35 to d = 0.92.

These variations reflect regional capacities, governance structures, and community involvement. The higher performance in Oromia indicates that favourable learning conditions, social cohesion, and appropriate curriculum modifications help children learn despite stressors (Masten & Obradovic, 2008). Amhara's higher trauma levels are associated with poorer academic outcomes, as trauma impairs memory and attention (Betancourt et al., 2013). Qualitative data confirmed that 70% of Oromia respondents reported regular psychosocial services.

Support systems – teacher and community – buffer trauma and support continuity. Oromia's higher teacher support (d = 0.65) and host community participation (r = 0.34) reflect stronger integration of local leadership and decentralised training. Amhara's higher teacher turnover and weaker school‑community relationships create instability.

School quality indicators showed the largest regional variations. Oromia's higher TLS percentage (82.7% vs. 68.4%) and better teacher quality and curriculum adaptation are critical, as structured temporary learning environments provide psychological security and academic continuity (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003). Oromia's use of mobile schools and culturally relevant content supports identity and engagement (Dryden‐Peterson, 2011).

Safety and security prerequisites were better met in Oromia, with higher school infrastructure quality (3.5 vs. 2.7) and access to psychosocial programs (3.5 vs. 2.9). The strong safety‐attendance correlation ($r = 0.65$) highlights the importance of safe environments. Amhara's camp movements and insecurity led to higher educational disruption and absenteeism.

Structural and policy dimensions favoured Oromia, with higher ALP availability (78.2% vs. 61.5%) and policy implementation scores (3.6 vs. 2.9). Oromia's decentralised planning and community clusters enabled faster emergency adaptation, consistent with resilience‐based education models and EiE's context responsiveness (Winthrop & Kirk, 2008; INEE, 2010). Amhara's bureaucratic structures hindered mobilisation and reforms.

In conclusion, systemic resilience – the coordination of policies, practices, and community networks – is higher in Oromia. Resilience is not an individual characteristic but a systemic one. Emergency education requires long‐term investment in local capacity, infrastructure, and inclusive governance, not just short‐term material support.

5.2.4. Effectiveness of Educational Strategies and Interventions

The multilevel mixed‐effects regression (Table 4.9) showed that all strategies except community involvement and partnerships had statistically significant positive effects in both regions. Accelerated Learning Programs (ALPs) were the most effective, with a significantly larger effect in Oromia ($\beta = 4.70$ vs. 3.20, $p = 0.012$). Oromia's integration of vocational and life skills into ALPs made the curriculum more relevant to displaced adolescents, aiding resilience‐building by providing future‐oriented education (Dryden‐Peterson, 2011). Amhara's standardised academic catch‐up model was described by participants as disconnected from their realities.

Psychosocial support programmes also showed larger effects in Oromia ($\beta = 3.00$ vs. 1.80, $p = 0.016$). Oromia's systematic inclusion of school‐based counselling and peer support groups

improved emotional regulation and classroom behaviour. Amhara's ad hoc, NGO‐dependent services led to inconsistent coverage. This difference reflects implementation fidelity and systemic support capability (EiE protection area).

Curriculum adaptation was significantly more effective in Oromia ($\beta = 2.40$ vs. 1.30, $p = 0.012$). Culturally and linguistically relevant materials enhanced engagement, particularly in multilingual classrooms. Resilience Theory notes that identity affirmation is essential for motivation and persistence (Ungar, 2008). Amhara's centralised curriculum was demotivating and unrelated to learners' displacement experiences.

Resource provision favoured Oromia ($\beta = 2.30$ vs. 1.40, $p = 0.046$). Although both regions reported resource scarcity, Oromia's community‐cluster system ensured fairer and timelier distribution, while Amhara's centralised logistics caused delays. Decentralised models enable communities to act as resilience actors rather than beneficiaries (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003), consistent with EiE's coordination and local ownership domain.

Supportive policy frameworks had a greater impact in Oromia ($\beta = 2.60$ vs. 1.70, $p = 0.037$). Oromia's flexible, decentralised policies – including trauma‐sensitive pedagogy and expedited learning procedures – allowed faster, context‐specific adjustments. Resilience Theory emphasises institutional responsiveness for collective recovery (Masten, 2014).

Teacher capacity building, community involvement, and partnerships showed positive effects in both regions but without statistically significant regional differences ($p = 0.147$, 0.351, 0.095 respectively). However, qualitative data revealed that Oromia's mobile teacher support teams and closer NGO cooperation were key to successful implementation, indicating that these strategies are universally beneficial but depend on implementation quality.

In synthesis, the effectiveness of interventions depends not only on the strategy itself but on the system's ability to deploy it adaptively. Oromia's success is explained by decentralised governance, cultural and educational alignment, cohesive psychosocial services, and community empowerment. Amhara's dependence on less agile centralised systems limits delivery and performance. This reinforces Masten's (2014) framing of resilience as a process influenced by

individual, relational, and systemic interactions, and the EiE Framework's emphasis on multi‑sectoral, equity‑based, context‑sensitive interventions.

5.3. Regional Disparities and Contextual Analysis

5.3.1. Governance and Policy Implementation

The most stable difference between the two regions lies in governance systems. Oromia's decentralised administrative model enabled much quicker emergency responses: emergency teacher teams were deployed three times faster than in Amhara ($p < 0.01$). In Amhara, centralised approval chains took more than eight weeks to establish TLS, as reported by stakeholders. Resilience Theory highlights that localised governance indicates higher adaptive capacity (Masten, 2014). The EiE Framework's INEE Minimum Standards for Coordination and Planning recommend context‑sensitive governance and swift mobilisation, which were better operationalised in Oromia.

5.3.2. Socio‑Cultural Influences

Socio‑cultural fit was another major differentiator. Oromia's integration of mother‑tongue instruction (Afaan Oromo) and context‑relevant examples increased student engagement and learning. Reading test scores were on average 6.5 points higher in Oromia than in Amhara, where IDP language diversity was the norm, but Amharic was the sole language of instruction. Resilience Theory emphasises that preserving identity, meaning, and routine during disruption increases psychosocial resilience (Ungar, 2012). The EiE Framework underscores the significance of relevant and inclusive content. Amhara's lack of culturally suitable curricula negatively affected both academic achievement and emotional health.

5.3.3. Gender and Inclusion Dynamics

Although enrolment rates were balanced by gender, Amhara girls had a significantly higher dropout rate (over 18% vs. about 12% in Oromia) and lower STEM enrolment. Qualitative data indicated that socio‑cultural attitudes in Amhara, especially during crises, discouraged girls' education. Inclusion of children with disabilities also differed: 70% of TLS in Oromia had basic accessibility features (e.g., ramps), compared to less than one‑third in Amhara. Parents in Amhara repeatedly mentioned a lack of Braille materials, assistive devices, and special needs educators. These inequalities reflect "differentiated resilience" – some subgroups are more susceptible unless

specifically targeted (Masten & Obradovic, 2008). Oromia's greater incorporation of gender‐responsive and inclusive principles led to better overall system resiliency.

5.3.4. Resource Allocation and Management

Amhara received about 23% higher humanitarian education funding than Oromia (UNOCHA, 2023), yet its resource utilisation efficiency was much lower. Over one‐third of Amhara's TLS became inoperable within six months due to low construction quality and lack of community upkeep. In contrast, Oromia's community‐engaged building and maintenance resulted in over 90% of TLS remaining functional after six months. Teacher management also differed: Oromia's housing stipends reduced attrition nearly threefold, while Amhara had no such incentives. Resilience Theory notes that systems dependent on external actors with little local ownership are weaker and more vulnerable (Cutter et al., 2008). Oromia's community co‐management enhanced resource sustainability and community commitment, aligning with EiE's focus on accountability, sustainability, and stakeholder participation.

5.3.5. Emergency Preparedness and Coordination

Oromia had more developed early warning and preparedness systems. Mean emergency response time was just over two days in Oromia, compared to more than six days in Amhara. Pre‐positioned learning kits were available in 78% of Oromia schools but only 41% in Amhara. These differences reflect more developed NGO coordination mechanisms and pre‐crisis planning in Oromia, while Amhara stakeholders reported redundancy, fragmentation, and role ambiguity. Resilience Theory states that predictive governance and institutional learning are key to surviving and adjusting to shocks (Davoudi et al., 2012). The EiE Framework emphasises preparedness, contingency planning, and coordination. Oromia's superior performance in these aspects indicates stronger institutional resilience.

In conclusion, Oromia scored higher on most major indicators of educational resilience: governance responsiveness, cultural alignment, gender and disability inclusion, resource efficiency, and emergency preparedness. These disparities are not merely technical but reflect fundamental structural and systemic capacities to adapt, respond, and maintain education during crises. Oromia's education system demonstrates greater adaptive, absorptive, and transformative capacity through decentralised governance, cultural capital, and community co‐ownership.

Amhara's struggles illustrate the high cost of centralisation, lack of contextual adjustment, and inadequate stakeholder involvement.

5.4. Integrated Discussion of Key Findings

5.4.1. Cross‑Regional Patterns and Anomalies

A consistent pattern emerged: Oromia scored better on 14 of 15 key education indicators. This advantage was most pronounced in psychosocial support access, ALP effectiveness, and teacher retention (40‑percentage‑point higher retention in Oromia, associated with housing stipends and locally administered incentives). However, a paradox arose in resource allocation: Amhara received 23% higher humanitarian funding but had 18% lower resource utilisation efficiency. This confirms Resilience Theory's emphasis that adaptability, not resource mass, predicts resilience (Cutter et al., 2008).

Important exceptions warn against overgeneralisation. In Amhara, one school in a conflict zone maintained over 85% attendance, associated with religious organisations providing informal psychosocial services and material assistance. This highlights context‑dependent social capital as a resilience source (Bourdieu). In Oromia, performance declined in remote pastoralist regions despite high regional averages, indicating that spatial inequality persists even in decentralised systems – a finding that requires further research with urban‑rural disaggregation.

5.4.2. Emergent Themes and Unexpected Results

Three emergent themes enhanced empirical and theoretical understanding. First, community‑initiated continuity systems – such as Oromia's "Education Fathers" networks – were critical, contributing to 78% continuity of TLS operations, surpassing formal structures. This challenges top‑down EiE programming and supports Resilience Theory's proposition that informal, decentralised agents can cushion systemic shocks (Masten, 2014). Second, contrary to global trends, boys showed slightly more academic decline than girls during displacement, attributed to heightened labour demands on boys for economic roles. This implies that gendered effects of trauma are localised, requiring empirically based, not universal, gender‑responsive programming. Third, displacement‑specific competencies – conflict navigation, situational awareness, environmental adaptability – were identified but not measured by traditional tests.

Amhara students could identify danger zones faster than their teachers. This calls for a deeper conceptualisation of learning in crisis situations.

5.4.3. Triangulation of Evidence

The triangulation strategy cross‑validated quantitative and qualitative data. ALPs' high success in Oromia ($\beta = 4.70$) was reflected in beneficiary testimonies about transformed lives, while Amhara's implementation gaps appeared in both outcome scores and stakeholder complaints about procurement delays and lack of community participation. Trauma consequences converged: 68% of students reported clinically significant PTSD symptoms (PCL‑5), supported by interview data showing children drawing images of violence. Notably, boys' psychological burden was under‑reported in school‑based assessments, suggesting a blind spot in measurement tools. Governance benefits were confirmed by variance decomposition (regional $\sigma^2 = 4.1$), with field officers in Oromia reporting weekly protocol changes – evidence of adaptive capacity. The triangulation process confirmed 83% of hypotheses and identified five areas needing refinement, demonstrating the complementarity of mixed methods and increasing credibility and transferability.

5.4.4. Theoretical Contributions and Extensions

This research makes four contributions to Resilience Theory and the EiE Framework. First, it introduces the concept of a "Displacement Mesosystem" – an emergent interface between schools, community, and humanitarian actors – explaining why informal systems like Oromia's community networks are more flexible than formal systems. Second, it provides a practical extension of Human Capital Theory in emergencies, showing shortened payback times: vocational ALPs in Oromia produced a 7.3% rise in employment outcomes within one year, and teacher training showed effects in two years instead of five. Third, it supplements the INEE Minimum Standards with quantified benefits of decentralisation (+2.6 in implementation speed), enhanced learning from culturally pertinent curricula (effect size = 0.82), and novel gender‑specific trauma elements that refute assumptions of universal vulnerability. Fourth, it proposes a new Displacement Education Adaptation Framework with four dimensions: governance agility, community capital mobilisation, trauma‑responsive instructional design, and dynamic resource optimisation – usable as both an analytical instrument and policy guide.

5.4.5. Integrated Synthesis

Three basic findings emerge. First, the Decentralisation Dividend is empirically confirmed: Oromia's decentralised governance enabled quick decision‑making, context‑specific adaptations, and local ownership, captured statistically as a +2.6 difference in policy responsiveness. Amhara's centralised delays led to about 0.8 standard deviations of learning loss. This supports Resilience Theory's claim that adaptive capacity and institutional flexibility are key to system resilience (Masten, 2014) and improves the EiE Framework's governance standard.

Second, the Implementation Paradox shows that the Amhara performed poorly despite 23% higher funding due to a lack of community involvement and cultural adaptation. Amhara's participation rate in educational planning was only 34%, compared to over 90% in Oromia. The Curriculum Relevance Index was 28 points higher in Oromia. This reveals a gap in traditional aid paradigms: more input without community alignment does not guarantee better outcomes, confirming Resilience Theory's emphasis on structural relations and social capital alongside resource endowment.

Third, Hidden Resilience Factors – informal community structures like Oromia's Education Fathers networks – sustained 78% of TLS during displacements. Amhara students demonstrated strong conflict navigation and environmental awareness (68% indicating unrecognised survival competencies). The formal system neither measured nor encouraged these adaptive capacities, yet they were crucial facilitators of continuity and psychosocial stability. This observation reflects Resilience Theory's demonstration of latent social mechanisms in system recovery and the EiE Framework's need to broaden definitions of learning and wellbeing to include displacement‑specific competencies and informal supports.

Overall, the findings require reconceptualising resilience and quality education in long‑term crises. Decentralised control, participatory approaches, and combining formal and informal community strengths are invaluable for developing robust, contextually sensitive education systems. The theoretical implications challenge universalism in EiE and promote a more localised, grounded conception of resilience and effectiveness in education provision under duress.

5.5. Limitations of the Study

Several methodological and contextual limitations must be acknowledged. First, the purposive selection of five IDP camps limits statistical generalisation to all IDP settings in Oromia and Amhara. Findings are analytical generalisations intended to inform theory and policy, not to represent every camp statistically. Second, the cross‑sectional design prevents causal inference; relationships identified are associational, not causal. Third, unequal sample sizes (Oromia 164 students, Amhara 220 students) may reduce statistical power for some subgroup analyses, though weighted analyses confirmed robustness. Fourth, self‑report bias is possible for student academic performance, though triangulation with teacher reports and a brief numeracy task mitigated this. Fifth, despite careful translation and back‑translation, some nuance may be lost from Afaan Oromo or Amharic to English. Sixth, due to security constraints, approximately 15% of targeted camps (those in active conflict zones) could not be included; the sample may under‑represent the most severely affected IDP children.

5.6. Future Research Directions

Building on the limitations and emergent findings, several directions for future research are identified. Longitudinal studies tracking the same IDP children over two to three years would establish causal pathways between interventions, resilience factors, and academic outcomes. Cluster‑randomised controlled trials comparing decentralised versus centralised governance models in matched displacement settings would provide stronger evidence for the "decentralisation dividend". Qualitative comparative case studies of "resilience pockets" – schools or camps that perform exceptionally well despite adverse conditions – could uncover scalable local practices. Finally, instrument development is needed to measure displacement‑specific competencies (e.g., conflict navigation, informal learning strategies) and to culturally validate trauma assessment tools such as the PCL‑5 for Ethiopian IDP populations.

This chapter interprets the findings presented in Chapter Four, situating them within the theoretical framework of Resilience Theory and the Education in Emergencies (EiE) framework. The discussion is organised around the four research questions: differences in academic performance between Oromia and Amhara, the influence of emergency‑specific factors on educational quality, regional variations in educational experiences and challenges, and the effectiveness of existing

strategies and interventions. The chapter then examines regional disparities in governance, socio‑cultural context, and resource management, followed by an integrated synthesis of cross‑regional patterns. Finally, methodological and contextual limitations are acknowledged, and directions for future research are outlined. Consistent with the structure of this dissertation, implications and recommendations are presented separately in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary

This study examined the quality of education for internally displaced children (IDCs) in Oromia and Amhara regions using a mixed‑methods design with 624 participants (students, teachers, families, stakeholders). The study measured learning outcomes, emergency‑specific obstacles, regional differences, and the effectiveness of intervention methods.

The learning outcome analysis showed that children in Oromia had higher academic performance than children in Amhara. The composite academic score was 68.50 in Oromia and 66.20 in Amhara. Reading proficiency was 51.8% in Oromia and 47.2% in Amhara. Numeracy skills were 1.68 in Oromia and 1.58 in Amhara.

Regression analysis showed that student engagement and teacher quality were predictors of academic achievement. The effect of qualified teachers was larger in Oromia ($\beta = +3.1$) than in Amhara ($\beta = +1.8$).

Qualitative results showed that displacement disrupted learning continuity in both regions. Amhara respondents more frequently reported insecurity, school closures, and displacement‑related mobility as obstacles.

Psychosocial factors influenced education outcomes. The PCL‑5 trauma score was negatively associated with academic performance ($\beta = -2.2$). The mean trauma score was 22.7 in Amhara and 18.3 in Oromia. The Education Quality Index for school safety was 83.0 in Oromia and 80.4 in Amhara. Temporary Learning Spaces coverage was 82.7% in Oromia and 68.4% in Amhara.

Access to education was limited in both regions. In Amhara, 5.3% of IDP students travelled more than three kilometres to school; in Oromia, 5.0% did so.

Community engagement was higher in Oromia. The effect of community participation on outcomes was β = +1.5 in Oromia and +1.1 in Amhara. Qualitative reports described "Education Fathers" networks, parent committees, and local leader involvement in Oromia.

Accelerated Learning Programs (ALPs) were more effective in Oromia (β = +4.70) than in Amhara (β = +3.20), due to the inclusion of vocational training and flexible delivery in Oromia.

Curriculum adaptation had stronger effects in Oromia (β = +2.40) than in Amhara (β = +1.30). Students in Oromia reported higher engagement with culturally and linguistically relevant materials.

Resource provision systems differed. Oromia's decentralised allocation had an effect of β = +2.30; Amhara's centralised system had β = +1.40, with bureaucratic delays noted.

Within the five camps studied, Oromia demonstrated better educational continuity during crises. This was associated with more adaptive governance, institutional flexibility, and community involvement. Amhara faced structural rigidity, conflict‑related shocks, and weaker stakeholder coordination. Higher humanitarian aid to Amhara did not translate into higher resource efficiency or program execution.

5.2. Conclusions

Within the five IDP camps studied, the differences in the quality of education for internally displaced children in Ethiopia are rooted in systemic and governance differences, not only in resource availability. During the study period (2024‑2025), the education system in Oromia demonstrated greater institutional resilience, community‑based governance, and responsive policy processes compared to the Amhara education system. These features buffered the impact of displacement on learning outcomes and supported continuity of education services.

Trauma was a major obstacle to learning. Amhara had higher average trauma scores and fewer psychosocial support options. Oromia's informal support structures and greater focus on emotional wellbeing provided a protective effect.

Teacher quality and resource availability affected educational outcomes in both regions, but the effects were more severe in Amhara due to bureaucratic delays. Oromia's decentralised administration enabled faster response times and resource mobilisation, leading to more favourable classroom conditions.

Emergency education interventions such as ALPs and TLS were effective, but their success depended on contextual tailoring. Community‐based ALP models were more successful in Oromia, while Amhara's effectiveness relied on infrastructural investments and religious alliances. Universal emergency strategies require regional specificity for maximum impact.

Educational resilience is determined not only by funding levels but also by system design, social capital, and localised governance. Oromia's community‐based networks (e.g., "Education Fathers") were critical for school continuity during crises. Amhara's dependence on centralised mechanisms, despite higher humanitarian funding, resulted in less responsive education delivery.

The comparison of Oromia and Amhara shows that educational disparities for IDCs cannot be resolved by generic policy frameworks or aid packages alone. Emergency education responses must incorporate trauma‐informed support, teacher development, community mobilisation, and decentralised governance. These conclusions support the need for adaptive, equity‐based solutions for education systems affected by crises.

5.3. Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the findings from the five IDP camps studied. Each recommendation includes responsible actors and is grounded in evidence from this study.

5.3.1. Policy and Programming

Institutionalise trauma‐informed education. Establish school‐based counselling services and train teachers to identify and address trauma in the classroom. (Responsible: Ministry of Education, Regional Education Bureaus; Timeline: 12 months)

Strengthen teacher capacity. Promote continuous professional development, performance incentives, and mobile support teams, as successfully implemented in Oromia. (Responsible: Regional Education Bureaus, Teacher Training Institutes; Timeline: Ongoing)

Localise curriculum reform. Develop learning materials that respond to language differences, cultural contexts, and psychosocial needs of displaced children. Co‑create materials with educators, community members, and IDC representatives. (Responsible: Curriculum Development Directorate, Regional Education Bureaus; Timeline: 18 months)

5.3.2. Regional Priorities

For Amhara: Invest in infrastructure – expand Temporary Learning Spaces (TLS), rehabilitate classrooms, provide WASH facilities, and strengthen collaboration with humanitarian and civil society actors to address resource shortages. (Responsible: Amhara Regional Education Bureau, UNICEF, NGOs; Timeline: 24 months)

For Oromia: Institutionalise effective ALPs and community‑based engagement practices. Pilot flexible learning platforms (mobile learning hubs) in remote areas, based on the successful Galan camp model documented in this study. (Responsible: Oromia Regional Education Bureau, UNESCO; Timeline: 12-month pilot)

5.3.3. Systemic Reforms

Institutionalise decentralisation in resource distribution. Federal policies already mandate decentralisation (ESDP VI, 2021‑2025), but implementation varies. Enforce accountability mechanisms: (a) quarterly audits of resource flow to woreda level, (b) grievance redress for delayed disbursements, (c) capacity building for woreda education offices. (Responsible: Ministry of Education, Federal Audit Authority; Timeline: 6 months for framework, ongoing enforcement)

Strengthen regional monitoring systems. Develop dashboards tracking real‑time indicators of school safety, learning outcomes, attendance, and intervention effectiveness, disaggregated by region and gender. (Responsible: Education Management Information System (EMIS), Regional Bureaus; Timeline: 12 months)

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Appendix

ANNEX1: QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRES

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL STUDIES

Dear Respondents,

My name is Dechassa Merga, a Ph.D. candidate at the Center for Comparative Education and Policy Studies, Addis Ababa University. I am conducting this research on the quality of education for internally displaced children in the Amhara and Oromia regions. Participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time without consequence. The study has ethical approval from the Addis Ababa University Ethics Review Committee. The study uses a comparative cross-regional design with 384 students (192 per region), 120 family/household respondents, 96 teachers, and 24 key stakeholders to provide multiple perspectives. Participants will complete four structured questionnaires addressing learning outcomes, emergency-related factors, regional differences, and the effectiveness of educational strategies. Completion takes 45–60 minutes. Trained facilitators will assist students and families, while teachers and stakeholders complete questionnaires independently. All responses are confidential and anonymized. Your insights will contribute to evidence-based recommendations to improve education in emergencies in Ethiopia.

Thank you for your time and participation.

Sincerely,

Dechassa Merga

Ph.D. Candidate

Addis Ababa University

QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRES FOR STUDENTS: (N=384)

Demographic Information:

- ✓ Student Code: ----------
- ✓ Age: years ----------
- ✓ Sex: [1] Male [2] Female
- ✓ Grade Level:
- ✓ IDP Status: [1] Yes [0] No
- ✓ If IDP, time of displacement: months ____ Year: _____
- ✓ Region: [1] Amhara [2] Oromia
- ✓ School: _____

Instructions: Circle ONE number for each statement (1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 Neutral 4. Agree 5=Strongly Agree)

A. LEARNING OUTCOMES & ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENS

i. Academic Performance (Dependent Variable)

Instruction to enumerator: Request the student's most recent mathematics and language (reading) scores from the homeroom teacher or school records. If scores are not available from records, ask the teacher to provide an estimated performance level (e.g., percentage or letter grade) based on the teacher's ongoing assessment. Record scores below.

Subject	Score (out of 100)	Source (teacher record/test administered)
Mathematics	_____	_____
Language/Reading	_____	_____

Composite Academic Performance Score (calculated by researcher): _____ / 100

ii. Foundational Skills (Academic Skills Predictors)

Instruction to enumerator: Administer the grade‑appropriate EGRA/EGMA subtasks (letter sound identification, word reading, passage reading, addition/subtraction). Record raw scores.

Skill	Task	Raw Score (max)	Score (out of 10 after conversion)
Numeracy	Addition (5 items)	/5	/10
Numeracy	Subtraction (5 items)	/5	/10

Literacy	Letter sound identification (10 letters)	/10	/10
Literacy	Word reading (5 words)	/5	/10

Composite Foundational Skills Score (average of converted scores): _____ / 10

iii. Engagement & Attendance (Student-Level Predictors)

Instruction to enumerator: Obtain from the homeroom teacher:

- Total number of school days in the past month: _____
- Number of days the student was present: _____
- Attendance rate = (present / total) × 100: _____ %

Teacher-reported engagement (teacher completes this section):
(Teacher rates each item on a 1-5 scale)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
E-T1	The student participates actively in class.	○	○	○	○	○
E-T2	The student completes homework on time.	○	○	○	○	○
E-T3	The student asks questions when confused.	○	○	○	○	○

iv. Trauma Exposure (Displacement Factor Predictor)

Instruction to enumerator: Read each statement to the child. Ask: "In the past month, how much were you bothered by the following problems?" Circle one number for each item (0=Not at all, 1=A little, 2=Moderately, 3=Quite a bit, 4=Extremely). Total score = sum of 5 items (range 0‑20). Cut‑off for probable PTSD = ≥12 (adapted from national validation study).

Item	Statement	0	1	2	3	4
T1	Repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts, or images of the displacement or conflict?	○	○	○	○	○
T2	Avoiding thinking about or talking about the displacement or conflict?	○	○	○	○	○
T3	Feeling very upset when something reminded you of the displacement?	○	○	○	○	○
T4	Feeling jumpy or easily startled?	○	○	○	○	○
T5	Trouble falling or staying asleep?	○	○	○	○	○

Total Trauma Score (PCL-5 short form): _____ / 20

B. EMERGENCY FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATION QUALITY

The items in Sections B.i–B.iv were adapted from the INEE Minimum Standards for Education (INEE, 2010, 2024) and the OECD PISA school context questionnaires. All subscales demonstrated acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha >0.80) in pilot testing (n=62). Items use a 5‑point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree).

I. Psychosocial Support

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
PS1	At school, I am able to receive emotional support when I am stressed or sad.	○	○	○	○	○
PS2	We have counselling or psychological services in our school.	○	○	○	○	○
PS3	Educators realize and learn the emotional needs of students.	○	○	○	○	○
PS4	Leisure activities are provided to enable the students to deal with stress.	○	○	○	○	○

Safety and Security

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
SS1	The school environment makes me physically safe.	○	○	○	○	○
SS2	The way to school has not been threatened or dangerous.	○	○	○	○	○
SS3	There is proper knowledge and practice of emergency safety procedures.	○	○	○	○	○
SS4	Infrastructure facilities are safe and in proper condition.	○	○	○	○	○

ii. Teacher Quality

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
TQ1	In emergency cases, teachers are well-trained to teach.	○	○	○	○	○
TQ2	Teachers change their instructional strategies to fit the present scenario.	○	○	○	○	○
TQ3	The quality of teaching is sustained even in emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
TQ4	Students who require attention are given individual attention by teachers.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Curriculum Relevance

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
CR1	What we are taught at school is with respect to our present life situation.	○	○	○	○	○
CR2	Issues about displacement are discussed in learning materials.	○	○	○	○	○
CR3	The instructional language is suitable for our comprehension.	○	○	○	○	○
CR4	Life skills that are applicable in cases of an emergency are part of the curriculum.	○	○	○	○	○

V. Access to Education

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
AE1	The school is physically available to me.	○	○	○	○	○
AE2	I am not locked out of school because of its expenses.	○	○	○	○	○
AE3	The school routine takes into consideration the emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
AE4	There are distance learning opportunities when it is required.	○	○	○	○	○

VI. Overall Educational Quality (EQI Composite)

The Education Quality Index (EQI) is calculated as the mean of the five subscale scores (Psychosocial Support, Safety and Security, Teacher Quality, Curriculum Relevance, Access to Education). Each subscale score is the mean of its constituent items (range 1‑5). The overall EQI thus ranges from 1 to 5.

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
EQ1	The quality of education is generally good, even in the case of an emergency.	○	○	○	○	○
EQ2	The learning processes remain effective during a crisis.	○	○	○	○	○
EQ3	Within the school setting, learning is facilitated in case of an emergency.	○	○	○	○	○

C. REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES & CHALLENGE

Note: Items in Sections C.i–C.v below were adapted from validated instruments as indicated. Circle one number per statement (1=Strongly Disagree … 5=Strongly Agree). Section C.vi (Structural Factors) has been deleted because students cannot provide valid responses; those items are moved to the Teacher Questionnaire and Stakeholder Interview Guide.

I. Psychosocial Wellbeing (adapted from Child PTSD Symptom Scale and INEE Psychosocial Wellbeing indicators)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
B1	I usually get stressed and anxious about my displacement experience.	○	○	○	○	○
B2	Past difficult experiences sometimes disrupt my learning.	○	○	○	○	○
B3	Because of past experiences, I find it hard to sleep or focus.	○	○	○	○	○
B4	I am emotionally supported in school.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Support Systems (adapted from INEE Minimum Standards – Community Participation domain, and OECD PISA sense of belonging scale)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
C1	Teachers give me sufficient academic assistance.	○	○	○	○	○
C2	Educators know and meet my needs as a displaced student.	○	○	○	○	○
C3	The host society accepts me and embraces me.	○	○	○	○	○
C4	I do not feel excluded in school and community activities.	○	○	○	○	○

III. School Quality (adapted from UNESCO GEM Report school quality indicators and INEE Teaching and Learning domain)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
D1	My teachers are competent and well-trained.	○	○	○	○	○
D2	We have sufficient learning facilities to support teaching.	○	○	○	○	○
D3	Lessons are adapted to suit our situation as displaced students.	○	○	○	○	○
D4	Our curriculum applies to the present situation.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Safety & Infrastructure (adapted from INEE Safe Learning Environments checklist and Global Education Cluster infrastructure standards)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
E1	At school, there are psychosocial support programmes.	○	○	○	○	○
E2	School facilities are clean, safe, and well-maintained.	○	○	○	○	○
E3	Learning materials (books, supplies) are adequate.	○	○	○	○	○
E4	The school atmosphere is safe and secure.	○	○	○	○	○

D. EFFECTIVENESS OF EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES

I. Temporary Learning Spaces (adapted from INEE TLS evaluation checklist and Global Education Cluster guidance, 2020)

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
T1	Tentative classrooms offer a favorable learning environment.	○	○	○	○	○
T2	It is better to learn temporarily than to have no school.	○	○	○	○	○
T3	Temporary classrooms ensure the quality of teaching.	○	○	○	○	○
T4	The use of temporary learning spaces assists me in continuing my studies.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Accelerated Learning Programs (adapted from UNICEF ALP evaluation framework, 2019, and USAID ALP guidance, 2021)

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
A1	Accelerated/catch up classes' aid my learning.	○	○	○	○	○
A2	My learning requirements fit well in ALP materials.	○	○	○	○	○
A3	ALP teachers work well in aiding me to pardon.	○	○	○	○	○
A4	Such programmes minimize my displacement learning gaps.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Resource Provision - (adapted from World Bank Service Delivery Indicators, 2018, and INEE resource tracking tools)

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
R1	I get access to all the required textbooks and learning materials.	○	○	○	○	○
R2	Students are provided with school supplies regularly.	○	○	○	○	○
R3	There are resources that are adequate to learn effectively.	○	○	○	○	○

R4	There is a fair distribution of resources, and they go to every student.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Psychosocial Support Programs (adapted from IASC MHPSS guidelines, 2019, and INEE Psychosocial Support indicators)

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
P1	Counseling services assist me in being more concentrated in class.	○	○	○	○	○
P2	Emotional support programs enhance my attendance in school.	○	○	○	○	○
P3	Leisure activities enable me to deal with stress.	○	○	○	○	○
P4	My learning ability is promoted by psychosocial support.	○	○	○	○	○

V. Teachers' Capacity Building (adapted from INEE teacher training evaluation framework)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
CB1	My teachers use new teaching methods that they learned in training.	○	○	○	○	○
CB2	My teachers explain lessons more clearly than before.	○	○	○	○	○
CB3	My teachers give more individual help to students who need it.	○	○	○	○	○
CB4	My teachers know how to help students who are stressed or upset.	○	○	○	○	○

VI. Curriculum Adaptation (adapted from UNESCO IBE curriculum adaptation framework, 2017, and INEE context‐relevant curriculum guidance)

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
U1	Lessons are connected with our experience as displaced students.	○	○	○	○	○
U2	The language used in teaching is comprehensible.	○	○	○	○	○
U3	Displacement issues are covered in learning material.	○	○	○	○	○
U4	Learning is relevant with an adapted curriculum.	○	○	○	○	○

FOR FAMILIES/HOUSEHOLDS (N=120)

Demographic Information:

Household Code:

- Number of children in school: _____
- Highest parental education: [1] None [2] Primary [3] Secondary [4] Tertiary
- The source of income: [1] Farming [2] Labor [3] Trade [4] Aid/Support [5] Other.
- Already estimated annual household earnings: Birr_____
- First Language spoken at home: _____
- IDP Status: [1] Yes [0] No
- In the case of IDP, displacement period: months_____ year/s____
- Region: [1] Amhara [2] Oromia

Instructions: Circle ONE number for each statement (1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 Neutral 4. Agree 5=Strongly Agree)

A. **LEARNING OUTCOMES & ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS**

I. Household Socioeconomic Capital (Predictors)

Adaptation source: Adapted from the World Bank Living Standards Measurement Study (LSMS) household questionnaire and the UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) wealth index, modified for the Ethiopian IDP context.

Relationship to learning outcomes: Socioeconomic capital (income, parental education, ability to afford school supplies) is a well‑established predictor of children's academic achievement (Hanushek, 2016; World Bank, 2020). Higher household capital is associated with better access to learning resources, less child labour, and more parental support for homework.

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
HC1	Educational costs are adequate in our family's earnings.	○	○	○	○	○
HC2	We are able to afford any school supplies and uniforms.	○	○	○	○	○
HC3	One of the parents is well-educated to assist in the studies.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Family Support (Predictor)

Adaptation source: Adapted from the Parental Involvement in Education Scale (PIES) (Epstein, 1995) and the Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME) inventory, modified for the displacement context.

Relationship to learning outcomes: Family support (monitoring homework, providing a study environment, encouraging education) is a strong predictor of student engagement, attendance, and academic achievement (Fan & Chen, 2001; Jeynes, 2005). In displacement settings, family support can buffer the negative effects of trauma and instability.

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
FS1	We constantly monitor the homework and progress of our child.	○	○	○	○	○
FS2	We offer a home-based study environment.	○	○	○	○	○
FS3	We promote education among our children.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Community Acceptance (Community Factor Predictor)

Adaptation source: Adapted from the INEE Community Engagement and Accountability indicators and the Social Cohesion and Integration Scale used in humanitarian settings (UNHCR, 2019).

Relationship to learning outcomes: Community acceptance affects displaced children's psychological safety, school attendance, and engagement. When host communities are supportive, IDP children experience less discrimination, better social integration, and higher motivation to attend school (Dryden‐Peterson, 2016; INEE, 2020).

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
CA1	The local community accepts our family.	○	○	○	○	○
CA2	Education of the IDP children is supported by the host community.	○	○	○	○	○

B. EMERGENCY FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATION QUALITY

I. Socioeconomic Factors

Adaptation source: Adapted from the World Bank Vulnerability to Displacement Index and the Humanitarian Emergency Settings Perceived Stress Scale (HES-PSS) economic insecurity subscale.

Relationship to emergency factors: Socioeconomic factors (income stability, ability to pay school fees, food security) directly affect whether children can attend school during emergencies. Displaced families often face reduced income, which forces children into labour or early marriage, reducing school enrolment and attendance (UNHCR, 2020; World Bank, 2021).

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
SE1	We have sufficient income to take care of the education of our child in the event of emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
SE2	We are able to pay school fees on an emergency basis.	○	○	○	○	○
SE3	Food and shelter (basic needs) do not hamper the learning of our child in times of crisis.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Community Engagement

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
CE1	The school is assisted by parents and members of the community in times of emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
CE2	Society assists in sustaining education services in times of crisis.	○	○	○	○	○
CE3	Planning emergency education involves local leaders.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Safety and Access Concerns

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
SA1	We believe that the school route is secure to our child.	○	○	○	○	○
SA2	There are a few school closures based on emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
SA3	Emergency learning materials are available at the required time.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Perceived Education Quality

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
PE1	The quality of education is upheld in cases of emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
PE2	The school reacts properly to crises.	○	○	○	○	○
PE3	Our child can persist in learning even in times of emergency.	○	○	○	○	○

C. **REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES & CHALLENGES**

Instructions: Circle ONE number for each statement (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree)

I. Child's Educational Progress

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
A1	Our child studies at school on a regular basis.	○	○	○	○	○
A2	Our child is developing properly in reading.	○	○	○	○	○
A3	Our child has made good progress in mathematics.	○	○	○	○	○
A4	Comprehensively, the academic achievement of our child is good.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Psychosocial Impact

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
B1	Our child has been affected psychologically by displacement.	○	○	○	○	○
B2	Oscar is stressed or traumatized.	○	○	○	○	○
B3	There is sufficient emotional support in the school.	○	○	○	○	○
B4	As a family, we have acclimatized ourselves to the displacement.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Support Systems

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
C1	Our child has good support from teachers.	○	○	○	○	○
C2	Our family is welcome in the host community.	○	○	○	○	○
C3	We are socially assimilated into this society.	○	○	○	○	○
C4	Displaced families are facilitated in their schooling by community leaders.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. School Quality Perception

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
D1	The teachers of the school are qualified.	○	○	○	○	○
D2	There is a sufficient learning facility.	○	○	○	○	○
D3	The curriculum is addressing the needs of our child.	○	○	○	○	○
D4	Instructional strategies are good.	○	○	○	○	○

V. Safety & Resources

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
E1	There are psychosocial services at school.	○	○	○	○	○
E2	There is sufficient infrastructure in the school.	○	○	○	○	○
E3	Resources used in learning are adequate.	○	○	○	○	○
E4	The environment in the school is secure.	○	○	○	○	○

VI. Structural Support

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
F1	Displaced children are assisted by education policies.	○	○	○	○	○
F2	There are special programs (such as accelerated learning) provided.	○	○	○	○	○
F3	The education system is very accommodating to displacement.	○	○	○	○	○
F4	Services are provided even in hard times.	○	○	○	○	○

FOR TEACHERS (N=96)

Demographic Information:

- Teacher Code: _____
- Years of experience: _____
- Certification: [1] Certificate [2] Diploma [3] Degree
- Subject(s) taught: _____
- Grade(s) taught: _____
- Class size: _____ students
- Percentage of IDP students in class: _____%
- Years teaching IDP students: _____
- Received training in teaching in emergencies: [1] Yes [0] No
- Region: [1] Amhara [2] Oromia
- School: _____

Instructions: Circle ONE number for each statement (1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 Neutral 4. Agree 5=Strongly Agree)

A. LEARNING OUTCOMES & ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS

Instructions: Circle ONE number for each statement (1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 Neutral 4. Agree 5=Strongly Agree)Teacher Quality (Predictors)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
TQ1	I possess sufficient teaching qualifications towards my post.	○	○	○	○	○
TQ2	The experience in teaching allows me to be supportive of every students.	○	○	○	○	○
TQ3	The training that I had this year enhanced my teaching.	○	○	○	○	○
TQ4	I employ interactive pedagogical practices.	○	○	○	○	○

I. School-Level Factors (Predictors)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
SL1	My school size enables me to attend to the students individually.	○	○	○	○	○
SL2	We have a secure and safe school environment.	○	○	○	○	○
SL3	There are enough teaching and learning materials.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Student Performance Assessment

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
SP1	In my class, the majority of students have the expected grade-level performance.	○	○	○	○	○
SP2	The academic performance of the IDP students is the same as that of non-IDP students.	○	○	○	○	○
SP3	My classroom attendance among the students is always good.	○	○	○	○	○

B. EMERGENCY FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATION QUALITY

I. Emergency Teaching Capacity

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
ET1	I am equipped to educate in emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
ET2	I can make changes to the curriculum in case of an emergency.	○	○	○	○	○
ET3	Teaching materials are emergency-based and can be accessed when required.	○	○	○	○	○
ET4	I can deal with psychosocial problems in the classroom.	○	○	○	○	○

II. School Safety and Infrastructure

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
SI1	There are sufficient emergency safety measures in our school.	○	○	○	○	○
SI2	Emergency procedures are well defined and carried out regularly.	○	○	○	○	○
SI3	The infrastructure of schools is strong enough to hold up in case of an emergency.	○	○	○	○	○
SI4	During a crisis, we have contingency plans of continuing education.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Support Systems

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
SP1	I am well-supported to teach in case of an emergency.	○	○	○	○	○
SP2	Students can receive psychosocial support services.	○	○	○	○	○
SP3	Community assistance assists in sustaining education in case of crisis.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Quality Maintenance

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5

QM1	There is maintenance of the quality of education during emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
QM2	Crisis conditions do not affect the learning outcomes.	○	○	○	○	○
QM3	In our school, emergency response is viable.	○	○	○	○	○

C. REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES & CHALLENGES

I. Student Performance Assessment

Instruction to enumerator: Ask the teacher to provide the following aggregate data for their class, based on end‑of‑term or most recent examinations.

Subject	Number of Students	Mean Score (out of 100)	Standard Deviation (if available)	Percentage Passing (≥50)
Mathematics	_____	_____	_____	_____ %
Language/Reading	_____	_____	_____	_____ %

Comparison of IDP vs. non-IDP students (if data available):

Student Group	Number of Students	Mean Mathematics Score	Mean Language Score
IDP students	_____	_____	_____
Non-IDP students	_____	_____	_____

II. Psychosocial Observations

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
B1	A lot of the IDP students exhibit evidence of trauma or stress.	○	○	○	○	○
B2	Learning of students is influenced by psychosocial issues.	○	○	○	○	○
B3	There is a means to meet the emotional needs of students.	○	○	○	○	○
B4	The time of displacement influences the adaptation of students.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Support Provision

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
C1	I offer proper assistance to the IDP students.	○	○	○	○	○
C2	The school is helpful to the IDP students.	○	○	○	○	○
C3	IDP students are accepted by the host community.	○	○	○	○	○
C4	The attempts to integrate the community are effective.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. School Quality Indicators

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
D1	Our school is of high quality teachers.	○	○	○	○	○
D2	Classrooms are sufficient to our requirements.	○	○	○	○	○
D3	We can make curriculum accommodating to displaced students.	○	○	○	○	○
D4	Displacement issues are dealt with by the teaching methods.	○	○	○	○	○

V. Safety & Infrastructure Assessment

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
E1	There are psychosocial programs in school.	○	○	○	○	○
E2	The facilities in the school are proper.	○	○	○	○	○
E3	There are enough safety measures.	○	○	○	○	○
E4	The needs of students are addressed by the learning resources.	○	○	○	○	○

VI. Structural & Policy Context

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
F1	The policies facilitate education to the IDP students.	○	○	○	○	○
F2	There are accelerated learning programs.	○	○	○	○	○
F3	The system is quite responsive to cases of displacement.	○	○	○	○	○
F4	There is continuity in education in case of hardship.	○	○	○	○	○

D. EFFECTIVENESS OF EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES

I. Strategy Implementation Quality

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
Q1	Tentative learning rooms are properly furnished.	○	○	○	○	○
Q2	Accelerated learning programs are properly organized.	○	○	○	○	○
Q3	The allocation of resources is made to all the needy students.	○	○	○	○	○
Q4	Psychosocial programs are well incorporated.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Impact Measurement

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
M1	TLS enhance the attendance of students.	○	○	○	○	○
M2	ALP have a great impact on increasing the results of learning.	○	○	○	○	○
M3	Sufficient resources enhance performance.	○	○	○	○	○
M4	Psychosocial support enhances student interest.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Capacity & Adaptation

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
C1	Displacement context training of teachers is effective.	○	○	○	○	○
C2	I will be able to modify the instruction techniques of displaced students.	○	○	○	○	○
C3	The educational support is increased by community involvement.	○	○	○	○	○
C4	Learning is enhanced through curriculum adjustment.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Partnerships & Coordination

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
P1	Educational support is enhanced by the partnership of NGOs.	○	○	○	○	○
P2	Coordination between agencies enhances service delivery.	○	○	○	○	○
P3	There are policy frameworks that facilitate strategy implementation.	○	○	○	○	○
P4	Teamwork practices improve general performance.	○	○	○	○	○

V. Outcome Evidence

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
O1	There is improvement in the test scores of students.	○	○	○	○	○
O2	Compliance with attendance has gone up.	○	○	○	○	○
O3	The level of student involvement has increased.	○	○	○	○	○
O4	Displacement learning lapses are diminishing.	○	○	○	○	○

FOR CONCERNED BODIES/STAKEHOLDERS (N=24)

Demographic Information:

- Stakeholder Code:
- Position:
- Organization: [1] Ministry/Government Office [2] NGO/International Agency [3] Community Leader/ CBO [4] Other.
- Region of Specialization: [1] Amhara [2] Oromia [3] National.
- Years in current role:
- The main role associated with IDP education:

Instructions: Circle ONE number for each statement (1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 Neutral 4. Agree 5=Strongly Agree)

A. LEARNING OUTCOMES & ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS

I. Institutional Support & Barriers (Predictors)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
IS1	There is effective institutional support on IDP schools.	○	○	○	○	○
IS2	Significant obstacles to the education of IDP are being overcome.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Policy Implementation (Predictor)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
PI1	This region has good policies regarding national education in IDP.	○	○	○	○	○
PI2	Dis displaced learners are well supported by policy frameworks.	○	○	○	○	○

III. NGO Context (Predictor)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
NG1	The activities of the NGOs in the education field are very well aligned with the government's work.	○	○	○	○	○
NG2	The allocation of resources by means of NGOs is fair.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Regional Academic Performance

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
RP1	The general academic achievements of the IDP students in this area are adequate.	○	○	○	○	○

RP2	The IDP students are improving their learning outcomes.	○	○	○	○	○

B. EMERGENCY FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATION QUALITY

I. Policy Frameworks (Predictor

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
PF1	There is well developed emergency education policy.	○	○	○	○	○
PF2	During crisis, good policies are practiced.	○	○	○	○	○
PF3	There is an appropriate provision of IDP education by policy frameworks.	○	○	○	○	○
PF4	It involves a regular check on policy implementation.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Emergency Preparedness

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
EP1	Emergencies are prepared in schools of this region.	○	○	○	○	○
EP2	The emergency contingency plans are already prepared and operational.	○	○	○	○	○
EP3	Funds are provided on emergency education response.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Coordination and Partnerships

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
CP1	There is effective coordination of education stakeholders in times of emergencies.	○	○	○	○	○
CP2	The NGO-government alliances are effective in times of crisis.	○	○	○	○	○
CP3	There is a good involvement of community in emergency education.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Overall Emergency Education Quality

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
OQ1	The general standards of emergency education are good.	○	○	○	○	○
OQ2	All the students affected are exposed to emergency education services.	○	○	○	○	○
OQ3	Learning also proceeds efficiently at the times of crisis.	○	○	○	○	○

C. REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES & CHALLENGES

I. Regional Performance Indicators

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

A1	There is satisfactory attendance of students in this region.	○	○	○	○	○
A2	The level of reading proficiency is sufficient.	○	○	○	○	○
A3	The level of numeracy proficiency is adequate.	○	○	○	○	○
A4	The performance of IDP students is not bad in the academic world.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Psychosocial Support Systems

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
B1	IDP students can use trauma support.	○	○	○	○	○
B2	Psychosocial programs are effective to deal with the needs of students.	○	○	○	○	○
B3	The time of displacement is duly taken into consideration in support planning.	○	○	○	○	○
B4	IDP students have sufficient emotional wellbeing.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Support Network Quality

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
C1	There is effective support of IDP students by teachers.	○	○	○	○	○
C2	There is high acceptance of IDP students in the community.	○	○	○	○	○
C3	The displaced families are successfully socially integrated.	○	○	○	○	○
C4	There is a good coordination of support systems to IDP students.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. School Quality Standards

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
D1	The quality of teachers in the schools with IDP is satisfactory.	○	○	○	○	○
D2	There are adequate learning facilities among the IDP students.	○	○	○	○	○
D3	Displaced students can adapt to the curriculum effectively.	○	○	○	○	○
D4	Quality of education in displacement is retained.	○	○	○	○	○

V. Safety & Infrastructure Evaluation

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
E1	There is sufficient availability of psychosocial programs.	○	○	○	○	○
E2	The infrastructure in schools is safe.	○	○	○	○	○
E3	The learning resources are adequately spread.	○	○	○	○	○
E4	Effective learning conditions are provided.	○	○	○	○	○

VI. Structural & Policy Assessment

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
F1	The implementation of the education policy is effective.	○	○	○	○	○
F2	There is an adequate availability of accelerated learning programs.	○	○	○	○	○
F3	Displacement can be dealt with well by the education system.	○	○	○	○	○
F4	Educational services are resilient in the event of a crisis.	○	○	○	○	○

D. EFFECTIVENESS OF EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES

I. Strategy Coverage & Reach

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
C1	There are temporary learning facilities that go to all the affected students.	○	○	○	○	○
C2	The coverage of accelerated learning programs is sufficient.	○	○	○	○	○
C3	The systems of distributing resources are extensive.	○	○	○	○	○
C4	Psychosocial care is provided to the needy.	○	○	○	○	○

II. Effectiveness Evaluation

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
E1	TLS are good to sustain educational continuity.	○	○	○	○	○
E2	ALP effectively eliminates differences in learning.	○	○	○	○	○
E3	Learning outcomes are better with provision of resources.	○	○	○	○	○
E4	Psychosocial programs improve academic performance.	○	○	○	○	○

III. Capacity Building Assessment

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
B1	Training programs of teachers are effective.	○	○	○	○	○
B2	Teaching is enhanced by professional development.	○	○	○	○	○
B3	Education systems are enhanced by community involvement.	○	○	○	○	○
B4	Relevance and engagement is improved by curriculum adaptation.	○	○	○	○	○

IV. Policy & Partnership Impact

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
P1	Favorable policy frameworks increase the effectiveness of the strategies.	○	○	○	○	○

P2	NGO relations enhance service delivery.	○	○	○	○	○
P3	The inter-agency coordination is the best way to maximize the use of resources.	○	○	○	○	○
P4	Four-stakeholder cooperation is more effective.	○	○	○	○	○

V. Overall Impact Assessment

Item	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
A1	The IDP learning outcomes undergo improvement using educational strategies.	○	○	○	○	○
A2	These strategies mitigate the loss of learning through displacement.	○	○	○	○	○
A3	There is good payback on strategy implementation.	○	○	○	○	○
A4	The issue of effectiveness that varies across regions is dealt with.	○	○	○	○	○

ANNEX 2: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL STUDIES

Dear Participants,

This Focus Group Discussion (FGD), which is a sub-part of Ph.D. research on the quality of education of internally displaced children in the Amhara and Oromia geographical areas, is intended to be participated in by you. What you experience and think about it matters to learn about the impact of displacement on learning and schooling. The talk is going to take approximately 30-45 minutes and will be moderated by the trained moderator in a safe, respectful environment. No right or wrong answers will be available, just honest opinions. Simple language, games, and visual aids will be employed with children in Grades 1-4. The consent of the parent or the guardian has been received. Your participation is at your own will, and you can either refuse to respond to any question or drop out at any point in time. Any information provided will remain confidential and will only be utilized in academics.

Themes of Discussion: The discussion will cover learning and school experiences, safety and support during emergencies, regional differences, and things that facilitate or inhibit learning. The discussion will be based on the open-ended questions and simple activities, depending on age and background.

Sincerely,

Dechassa Merga

Ph.D. Candidate

Addis Ababa University

Simple Focus Group Discussion Guides in Grades 1-4.

- ✓ **FGD GUIDE CATEGORY 1: GRADE 1-2**
- ✓ **Sex _____ Age _____ Grade _____**
- Moderator: Hello! Let's talk about school. I will ask easy questions. You can talk, draw,

Theme 1: Learning and School Performance (Research Question 1 – differences in academic performance)

1. What is your favourite thing to learn at school?
2. Show me how you feel about maths with your face.
3. Show me how you feel about reading with your face.
4. What helps you learn best?

Theme 2: Emergency Factors (Research Question 2 – how emergencies affect education)

5. Do you feel safe at school? (Thumbs up or down)
6. Who helps you when you are sad or scared at school?
7. Do you have school things like books and pencils?

Theme 3: Regional Differences (Research Question 3 – differences between Oromia and Amhara)

8. What have you heard about schools in the other region (Oromia if you are in Amhara, or Amhara if you are in Oromia)?
9. What do you like about this school?

Theme 4: Effectiveness of Strategies (Research Question 4 – what helps learning)

10. What makes learning fun?
11. What one thing would you change about school?

(Drawing activity: Draw your happy classroom.)

FGD GUIDE CATEGORY 2: GRADE 3-4

Sex _____ Age _____ Grade _____

Moderator: "We would like to listen to your ideas on school to improve it."

Theme 1: Learning and School Performance (Research Question 1)

1. What is good about your schoolwork?
2. What schoolwork is hardest for you?
3. How often do you come to school?
4. How do you feel about going to school?

Theme 2: Emergency Factors (Research Question 2)

5. What is safe or unsafe at school?
6. Who do you talk to when you are sad or worried?
7. Do you have everything you need for school (books, pencils, place to sit)?

Theme 3: Regional Differences (Research Question 3)

8. What have you heard about schools in the other region (Oromia if you are in Amhara, or Amhara if you are in Oromia)?
9. How is this school different from what you have heard about schools in the other region?
10. Do you feel welcome here? Why or why not?

Theme 4: Effectiveness of Strategies (Research Question 4)

11. How do teachers help you here?
12. What helps you learn best?
13. What would make school better?

ANNEX 3. THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS: IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDES

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL STUDIES COLLEGE

Dear Participants,

I would like to thank you for this in-depth interview procedure as part of the research investigation on the quality of education concerning the situation of emergency education of internally displaced children in the Amhara and Oromia areas. As a teacher, family member, or stakeholder, your input into the study is essential in realizing the complexity of education in such difficult times. This interview is going to take about 45-60 minutes and will take place in a comfortable, personal environment. A trained researcher will carry out the session and address questions concerning four major areas, including outcomes of learning, emergency factors, regional experiences, and efficacy of educational strategies. You may refuse to answer any question, and you may terminate the interview at will with no penalty.

The information you give will be highly confidential. All of your answers will remain anonymous, and no personally identifiable information will be presented in reports or publications. In a way that will please you, the interview will be audio-taped to be sure that your comments are accurately recorded; the recordings will be safely kept and destroyed once transcribed. Your involvement is free will and highly appreciated. The information that you provide will be part of the evidence-based recommendations to enhance the policy and practice of educating the displaced children in Ethiopia.

Sincerely,

Dechassa Merga

Ph.D. Candidate

Addis Ababa University

PRECISE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHER INTERVIEW GUIDE

PART A: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. What grades and subjects do you currently teach?
2. How many years have you been teaching?
3. How many years have you taught IDP students?
4. What is your highest teaching qualification?

PART B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 1: ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE (in your region)

5. On average, how do IDP students' academic results compare to non‑IDP students in your class? (Better/Same/Worse)
6. What are the top 3 factors affecting IDP students' academic performance in your region? (Rank in order)
7. What specific teaching strategies have been most effective for IDP students in your region??

SECTION 2: EMERGENCY IMPACT (in your region)

8. How has conflict/displacement affected your teaching quality? (Scale 1‑5, 5=severely affected)
9. What is your most effective strategy for maintaining teaching quality during crises?
10. What single support system is most crucial for continuing education during emergencies?

SECTION 3: EXPERIENCES IN YOUR REGION

11. What is unique about IDP education in your region? (Compared to what you know from others or from literature – but you are not required to compare directly)

12. What support for IDP students is most lacking in your region?
13. How does this school's infrastructure/resources compare to what you understand is typical in other IDP areas (based on reports or training)?
14. What local cultural attitudes most affect IDP students' learning in your region??

SECTION 4: STRATEGY EFFECTIVENESS (in your region)

15. What specific educational intervention has worked best for IDP students here?
16. What training for teaching IDP students was most useful? What is still needed?
17. What specific curriculum changes have you made for IDP students?

SECTION 5: RECOMMENDATIONS (for your region)

18. What is the single most important area needing improvement in IDP education in your region?
19. What one policy change would most help IDP students' learning in your region?

PART C: CLOSING (5 min)

20. Is there anything important we didn't discuss?
21. May we contact you for follow‑ up clarification?
22. Would you like to receive this study's findings?

PRECISE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS STAKEHOLDER INTERVIEW GUIDE

PART A: DEMOGRAPHICS (5 min)

23. What is your current position and main responsibilities regarding IDP education?
24. How long have you worked in this role?
25. What geographic areas does your work cover?

PART B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 1: SYSTEM PERFORMANCE

26. Performance Data: Based on available data, what percentage of IDP students are performing at grade level?
27. Key System Factors: What 2-3 system-level factors most influence IDP students' learning outcomes?
28. Monitoring Gaps: What is the biggest gap in monitoring IDP students' academic progress?
29. Regional Performance: Are there measurable performance differences between Amhara and Oromia IDP students? What explains this?

SECTION 2: EMERGENCY RESPONSE

30. System Response: How quickly can the education system respond to new displacement emergencies? (Days/Weeks/Months)
31. Quality Mechanisms: What specific mechanisms ensure education quality during emergencies?
32. Resource Allocation: What percentage of emergency education funds reaches classroom level?
33. Regional Capacity: Which region has better emergency education response capacity? Why?

SECTION 3: REGIONAL DISPARITIES

34. Policy Implementation: What is the biggest difference in IDP education policy implementation between regions?
35. Capacity Comparison: How does institutional capacity for IDP education compare between Amhara and Oromia?
36. Community Response: Where is community acceptance of IDP students strongest? Why?

37. Successful Model: What is one replicable regional model for IDP education?

SECTION 4: STRATEGY EFFECTIVENESS

38. Strategy Ranking: Rank these IDP education strategies by effectiveness: TLCs, catch-up classes, teacher training, psychosocial support.
39. Evidence Use: What percentage of programming decisions are based on effectiveness evidence?
40. Implementation Challenge: What is the biggest barrier to implementing effective IDP education strategies?
41. Coordination Score: Rate inter-agency coordination for IDP education (1-10).

SECTION 5: SYSTEMIC ANALYSIS

42. Systemic Barrier: What single systemic change would most improve IDP education outcomes?
43. Leverage Point: Where should limited resources be concentrated for maximum impact?
44. Funding Priority: What should be the top funding priority for IDP education?
45. Policy Impact: What policy change would have the greatest positive impact on IDP education?

SECTION 6: CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

46. Inclusion Gap: What percentage of IDP students with disabilities receive appropriate support?
47. Sustainability: How many emergency education programs have transitioned to regular systems?
48. Innovation Scale: What innovative approach to IDP education should be scaled up immediately?

PART C: CLOSING (5 min)

49. What critical issue did we miss?

50. Which key reports or data sources should we review?

51. Which other stakeholders should we interview?

52. How should we share findings with you?

ANNEX 4: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL STUDIES

Dear Observers and School Administrators,

This observation protocol is designed to systematically document the learning environment and teaching practices in classrooms serving internally displaced children in the Amhara and Oromia regions. As part of the doctoral research on the quality of education in emergencies, these observations will provide critical contextual data to complement surveys and interviews.

Observations will be conducted by trained researchers during regular class sessions, lasting approximately 60 minutes per classroom. The observer will maintain a non-intrusive presence, typically seated at the back or side of the classroom, to minimize disruption to teaching and learning. All observations will be conducted with respect to the classroom environment and in accordance with ethical guidelines. The protocol focuses on four key dimensions aligned with the study's objectives: the physical learning environment, teaching and learning processes, student engagement and interaction, and visible support structures. Observers will use a structured checklist to record both quantitative ratings and qualitative notes, capturing evidence related to academic support, emergency responsiveness, regional characteristics, and educational strategies. All data collected will remain confidential. School, teacher, and student identities will be anonymized in all records and reports. The findings will contribute to a deeper understanding of how educational quality is maintained in emergency contexts and inform recommendations for improving support for displaced learners.

Thank you for your cooperation in facilitating these important observations.

Sincerely,

Dechassa Merga

Ph.D. Candidate

Addis Ababa University

OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

I. BASIC INFORMATION

- ✓ Observer Code: _____
- ✓ Date: _____
- ✓ School Code: _____
- ✓ Region: [ ] Amhara [ ] Oromia
- ✓ Grade Level: _____
- ✓ Subject Observed: _____
- ✓ Start Time: _____ End Time: _____

II. PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT (Objectives 2 & 3)

1. Classroom Condition: Describe the state of the building/space (e.g., permanent structure, temporary shelter, condition of walls/roof).
2. Learning Resources: Note the availability and condition of key resources (blackboard, textbooks, teaching aids, student desks/seating).
3. Safety & Basic Amenities: Observe and note the presence of safety features (exits, first aid), drinking water, and sanitation facilities.
4. Overall Rating: On a scale of 1 (Poor) to 5 (Excellent), rate the adequacy of the physical environment for learning.

III. TEACHING & LEARNING PROCESS (Objectives 1 & 4)

5. Teaching Methods: Record the primary instructional methods observed (e.g., lecture, group work, questioning, use of activities).
6. Teacher-Student Interaction: Note the nature and frequency of teacher interactions with students (e.g., provides feedback, asks open-ended questions, offers individual help).

7. Curriculum Adaptation: Look for evidence that teaching or materials are adapted to the context of displacement or emergency (e.g., local examples, trauma-sensitive language, life skills).
8. Overall Rating: On a scale of 1 (Poor) to 5 (Excellent), rate the quality and relevance of the teaching and learning process.

IV. STUDENT ENGAGEMENT & INTERACTION (Objectives 1 & 2)

9. Level of Engagement: At 15-minute intervals, estimate the percentage of students who appear to be actively engaged in the lesson (e.g., on-task, participating, focused).
10. Student Behaviors: Tally notable behaviors such as students volunteering answers, asking questions, working collaboratively, or being off task/disruptive.
11. Classroom Climate: Describe the emotional tone and social dynamics (e.g., respectful, inclusive, tense, supportive).
12. Overall Rating: On a scale of 1 (Low) to 5 (High), rate the overall level of student engagement and participation.

V. SUPPORT SYSTEMS & INCLUSION (Objectives 3 & 4)

13. Support for Diverse Learners: Note any observable strategies to support students who may be struggling, including IDP students (e.g., differentiated instruction, peer support, use of mother tongue).
14. Psychosocial Support: Observe indicators of emotional support or trauma-sensitive practices in the classroom.
15. Community/External Links: Note any visible signs of community involvement or external (e.g., NGO) support within the classroom.
16. Overall Rating: On a scale of 1 (Poor) to 5 (Excellent), rate the observable support for inclusion and student well-being.

VI. OBSERVER SUMMARY & REFLECTIONS

17. Key Strengths Observed: List the 2-3 most positive features of the classroom environment or instruction observed.

18. Key Challenges Observed: List the 2-3 most significant challenges or barriers to learning observed.
19. Emerging Themes: Note any recurring patterns or themes relevant to the study's research objectives.
20. Questions for Follow-up: List any questions raised by the observation for potential follow-up in interviews.