A REMARKABLE CHALLENGE FOR DIASPORA: LEVERAGING ETHIOPIA'S TVET PROGRAMS FOR INTEGRATING THE INTERNAL DISPLACED PERSONS INTO THEIR ANCESTRAL HOMES

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ABSTRACT

The 1995 Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia was promulgated with the assumption that the formation of a federal union in Ethiopia would not only enhance the celebration of self-rule and shared-rule, but also rekindle *ethnic autonomy,* diversity, and inclusion, and serve as a framework for resolving ethnic conflict. Nonetheless, due to the lack of the implementation of effective diversity and inclusion awareness programs that could have encouraged open communication and interpersonal dialogue to build mutual respect, it is heart-breaking to see that currently *Ethiopia is embroiled in deep inter-ethnic skirmishes. Put simply,* ethnic animosity in Ethiopia has not drastically altered social structures and disrupted livelihoods, but it has destroyed employment opportunities throughout the country. T*he regions that were predominantly dominated by endogenous (native) ethnic groups are resorting to forcefully chasing away and uprooting the non-native migrants who have lived and intermarried with them for several years. It is sad to see that the non-natives who were involuntarily settled during the Dergue's development-induced displacement (DID) program or were encouraged by the current regime to undertake productive investment have become victims and are ruthlessly uprooted from their homelands and livelihoods. Given that displacement can be a terrible and wrenching life experience, the triple aims of the study were to review the literature and investigate the impact of displacement on: 1) the life, health, and social well-being of the internally displaced persons (IDP); and 2) the socio-economic, infrastructure, and natural environment of the host communities. Finally, the study briefly explored how the existing Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions in the Regional State of Tigrai could be appropriately redesigned and funded by the diaspora and other philanthropic agencies to provide the knowledge and skills necessary to enhance the employment or self-employment capacity of the internally displaced persons and successfully integrate and create sustainable economic development to their ancestral homes.*

Keywords: Displacement, Internal personal displacement (IPD), Integrated, Host communities, TVET institutions, Spillovers effects.

I. INTRODUCTION

Contrary to the centrally or tight unitary system exercised by the Military Junta's (Dergue's) administrative apparatus, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) utilized the 1995 Federal Ethiopian Constitution to partition the Ethiopian state into nine regions (eight were predominantly composed of homogenous ethnic groups and the ninth one was occupied by multi-ethnic groups), and two federally administered city-states.

Underlining that the formation of a federal state would guarantee the celebration of self-rule and shared-rule, and enhance diversity and conflict resolution (Keil, 2012), the 1995

Ethiopian Constitution enshrined the formation of self-government within the larger Ethiopian federal union. More specifically, Article 32 of the 1995 Federal Constitution stipulated that the proportional devolution of power in each region would determine the relative size of ethno-cultural groups (Ethiopia's Constitution of 1995).

Contrary to what is stated in the 1995 Constitution, it has become heart-breaking to notice that some of the federated nine regional states in Ethiopia are currently stoked with ethnic flames of hatred. Some regions in Ethiopia have become battlegrounds for inter-ethnic clashes, resulting in the uprooting and involuntary displacement of a vast magnitude of ethnic minorities from their homes and livelihoods to other regions. Put simply, due to the lack of the implementation of effective diversity and inclusion awareness programs that could have encouraged open communication and interpersonal dialogue to build mutual respect, ethnic conflict has become very volatile. Ethnic animosity has not drastically altered social structures and disrupted livelihoods, but it has destroyed employment opportunities throughout Ethiopia (Maru, 2017, Mamdani, Damodar, 2016, and Bidwell et al, 2007, Desta, 2019).

More specifically, a large part of the endogenous (native) ethnic groups have been daunting their feelings that the settled migrants have been resorting not only to land grabbing but also have caused profound cultural disruption in their communities. Thereby, the natives have been resorting to uprooting the nonnative ethnic groups that were involuntarily settled in their region following the Dergue's Food Security or development-induced displacement (DID) programs, or that were invited by the current regime to be involved in various entrepreneurial businesses ventures.

Consequently, some of those who were forced to desert their homes or habitual residences were able to spire their lives by either squatting or occupying abandoned buildings, or sheltering in church and mosque compounds located either within their residential states. Some were able to flee to the other neighboring states or have managed to flee to their ancestral homes. As stated by Bruce and Keli (2012) those who manage to cross over to internationally recognized neighboring countries are found in limbo or are in an uncertain period of awaiting a decision or resolution to settle down.

As reported by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centers (IDMC), out of 2.9 million Ethiopians, in 2018 alone, about 2,137, 000 were inhumanly devastated by the proliferation of arms and political exploitation that amounted to their ethnic and cultural differences are temporarily housed in internal displacement centers. In the first half of 2019, the IDMC reported that about 522,000 were uprooted from their homes and livelihoods due to inter-ethnic conflict (2019). Of those who were swept up by violent inter-ethnic conflict from Gedeo, the West Guji region, the Jijiga Somali region, Gemant, the Amhara region, Benishangual Gumuz, and the East and West Wellega zone of the Oromia Region, it was found out that about 111,465 were *Tagarus (*Regional State of Tigrai, June 2019*)*. Currently, the displaced *Tagarus* who fled to their original ancestral homes are either found temporarily residing with their families or are sheltering in peripheral and poor areas of the Regional State of Tigrai (ACHPR/Res.429 (LXV), 2019).

As noted by Hannum (1987), if they wished, the displaced persons could return to their states of origin. However, being dehumanized, the displaced *Tagarus* do not anticipate returning to their places of residence because they feel that they are disfavored, their homes were demolished, and their physical wealth and their livelihoods have been severely ravaged.

Given these assertations, it is very reasonable to assume that the internally displaced *Tagarus* are protracted and hardly feel reluctant to return to their domicile places.

Intrigued by all these instances of the displacement of *Tagarus*, the Regional State of Tigrai is taking this as a major challenge and is in the process of reviewing Article 32 of Ethiopia's 1995 Constitution to use it as a leverage to negotiate with the Federal Government in order to help it undertake adequate measures to protect and settle the internally displaced persons in their original regional states. In addition, the regional state of Tigrai is stepping up and demanding the implementation of the declaration of the UN Commission on Human Rights of 1998 and the Kampala Convention (October 23, 2009) that champions a rights-based approach to provide protection and assistance to the IDPs and the affected communities.

Given the intensity and urgency of the matter, and to rightfully mitigate the negative impacts of displacement on the affected communities, the Regional Government of Tigrai is tactfully attempting to take ad hoc and reactive responses to balance state sovereignty with humanitarian *core values* (UN, 1998). For example, to give relief to the displaced returnees, the Regional Government of Tigrai has been seeking a concerted assistance of Non-Government Organizations, philanthropic organizations, and other volunteers.

The goal of the study is to review the literature and bring to bear insights associated with the impact of displacement on the internally displaced persons (IDP) and the host communities. It then reviews contextually if Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Tigrai could be redesigned and strategized to function in a demand-driven fashion and improve the productivity of the enterprises and enhance the displaced persons to acquire sustainable employability skills and settle down productively in their ancestral communities.
More specifically, the study: 1) investigates the impact of displacement on the life, health, and social well-being of the internally displaced persons (IDP); 2) reviews the socio-economic, infrastructure, and natural environment impacts of displacement on the host communities; and then 3) propose how TVET institutions subsidized by Ethiopian diasporas could be strategized to serve as sustainable employment and self-employment intervention programs that could merit the integration of the displaced persons (i.e. who have become reluctant to voluntarily return to their former residence places) to settle down in their ancestral homes.

To address the above raised issues, the study is structured in the following manner. Section II reviews the literature of the major hotspot factors that have contributed to internal displacement and identify the impact of displacement on the internally displaced persons and on their communities. Section III distills TVET as a potentially productive employment strategy that could assist the internally displaced persons to settle in their ancestral home—the regional state of Tigrai. Finally, section IV concludes and draws some broad policy implications.

2. Review of the Literature

With the new wave of conflicts, worldwide, over 45 million persons per year have been forcibly displaced from their home area due to violence and ethnic conflict that have precipitated within their country (IDMC, 2017/18). As narrated by Swing (2017), though very few personal tragedies are worse than having to flee for one's life, except the broad analysis undertaken by Chamber's (1979 and 1986), there is an overarching absence of systematic and comprehensive methodologies that identifies the impacts of displacement on

the marginalized displaced individuals and its potential threats and/or burdens on the host communities (Swing, 2017, IDMC, 2019, University of Oxford, 2011).

For example, it is certain that internal displacement generates devastating effects on the lives of displaced people, their dependents, their hosts, and those who are left behind in their community of origin. The first part of the study deals with literature review that focuses on the impacts of displacement on the displaced. The second part focuses on the effects of the displaced on their host communities. Section three explores ways and means of redesigning TVET institutions to facilitate for the retraining of displaced persons so that they are incorporated sustainably into their ancestral homes.

2.1: Impact of Displacement on Displaced Individuals: Some anecdotal studies indicate that as the displaced minority ethnic groups are forcibly pushed by other predominantly ethnic groups out of their area of domicile (residence before initial forced displacement), they become homeless (loss of their houses), lose their productive systems and commercial activities (homeless), and get separated from friends and referred others.

Subsequently, during the initial displacement phase, the displaced face loss of assets and belongings, and are unable to secure decent work in the places where they settled. As the displacement phase prolongs, it is unfortunate that the protracted individuals resort to less secure and sometimes even dangerous income-generating activities (IDMC, 2018). For example, the average annual economic impact associated with internal displacement on 14 sub-Saharan African countries ranged from 0.1 to 11 percent of their pre-crisis GDP. The cumulative economic impacts associated with internal displacement conflict in Ethiopia account for 1.1 per cent of its pre-crisis 2015 GDP. That is, as documented by IDMC (November 2019), Ethiopia's economic impact of internal displacement cost 20.5 percent on housing (i.e., shelter, subsidies for rents, food items, and non-food items such as water, sanitation, and hygiene services); 35 percent on livelihood (loss of income from work); 0.8 percent on providing education for children and health services; and 41.7 percent on food assistance. Additionally, 1.9 percent of the cost was associated with security in host areas (such as protection of elderly people and those with disabilities, or victims of gender-based violence).

As the families of displaced individuals live in substandard camps, overcrowded collective shelters, or informal urban settlements, they get exposed to pollution and, subsequently, overcrowdings and lack of sanitation, which can increase the prevalence of communicable diseases (IDMC, 2018). More particularly, women are more vulnerable and do not sleep peacefully in their beds because, as documented by Bruce and Kelli (2012), rough men stand ready to attack and commit sexual abuse and violence against them, resulting in sexually transmitted infectious diseases.

Displaced families with financial difficulties may relegate their children to work or arrange for them to enter early marriage instead of sending their school-aged children to schools. If by chance the children of the displaced parents attend schools, they are generally less attentive in class because they suffer from malnutrition and face mental health problems (IDMC, 2018).

In general, though informative, the methodology used to assess the impact of internal displacement focuses only on the costs and losses associated with internal displacement. It fails to address longer-term effects that relate to future reduction of income, income-related

taxes, and consumption. For instance, a review by the University of Oxford (2011) indicates that the impact of ethnic displacement on the displaced population also needs to take into consideration socioeconomic factors (i.e., loss of capital, education and training); environmental variables (such as loss of land and biodiversity); biological and health well-being impacts (such as physical and mental stress, infant diseases, multiple deaths); biosocial factors (family separation, rape); and psychological factors, including distress, torture/rape, trauma, uncertainty, and despair. Moreover, as argued by Cernea (March 1999), since unsafe water supply and waste disposal tend to proliferate infectious diseases and are more risky for the weakest population segments (i.e. infants, children, and the elderly), they need to be systematically explored.

2.2: Impact of Displaced Settlement on Host Communities: A comprehensive conceptual framework that analyzes the impacts of displacement on the receiving communities is lacking. Except using proxy indicators for measuring country's capacity, well-designed impact assessment studies are very rare (Czaika, January 2005). However, some anecdotal reports indicate that most of the retuned internally displaced persons who returned to their homelands of origin like to live with host families because they feel that they are warmly welcomed and treated with kindness and respect rather than being confined to camps or having to stay in private accommodation centers.

Studies conducted by the World Bank (2011) also indicate that the internally displaced persons contribute to economic activity by providing a new labor force and facilitating welfare effects to the receiving communities. Regarding local economic activity, the arrival of the displaced entrepreneur may contribute to a relatively thriving economy and has the potential to prompt economic expansion, innovation, and dynamism within the regional economy.

Though negligible, local laborers may face fierce competition from displaced people, and it needs to be underlined that displaced individuals could contribute as a vital source of cheap labor for agricultural producers, allowing for increased cultivation and production. Consequently, changes in welfare could arise when host producers' households benefit from higher prices in agricultural goods and invest the extra income in durable goods. Moreover, as argued by Maystadt and Vermimp (2014), the displaced individuals get material remittance from foreign sources. Thereby, the presence of displaced individuals in a community not only increases real household consumption, but whatever is invested can additionally promote financial intermediation.

If effective policies are put in place to take advantage of displaced persons, the presence of a displaced population can increase economic activity at the local level, contributing to diversification, changes in the labor market, and enhancing household welfare. Local females living nearby a camp compared to females in communities farther away have a higher occurrence of self-employment in business, both in primary and secondary activities. Therefore, except for the poorer people in a host population that might be impoverished, the proximity to a camp positively influences the host community's overall household economic situation (Loschmann, Bilgili and Siegel 2019).

Although host communities may initially react favorably to the arrival of displaced people, serious conflict may arise as increased demands are placed on water, water, services, etc. (Cernea 1988). Stated differently, due to the limited carrying capacity of the host

communities, the settlement of the displaced people could very likely contribute to the breakdown of social cohesion and environmental deterioration.

With the influx of innumerable displaced persons, the capacity of the host economy to increases pressure on the environment and infrastructure and increases tension on agricultural resources. Lumber and water could become scarce in the nearby camps that are inhabited by displaced settlers. For instance, to cook their food and keep themselves warm, some displaced individuals generally end up destroying the biological diversity and tropical forests. As a result, the quality and stability of climate and local weather is negatively affected. The scarcity of water also endangers people, and threatens other species (IDMC, 2018).

Taking both major challenges and opportunities into account in an overview of the literature pertaining to the impact of displacement on the host economy, Black (1994, 258) suggests that host economies would be affected by a) increased population, b) increased supply of labor, c) increased demand for goods and services, d) increased pressure on local resources, e) increased prices of local products, f) competition for natural resources, g) increased availability of imported goods, and h) increased foreign exchange remittance.

2.3: Integrating Internally Displaced Persons to Their Ancestral Homes

Let alone for family members who have gone through precarious life circumstance and have been forcefully displaced from their habitual homes because of their ethnicity, it is within the African tradition to welcome visitors and treat them with kindness and respect. Thereby, as some of the forcefully displaced persons who were forced to relinquish their assets and income-generating jobs arrive safely to their ancestral homes, they are warmly welcomed by members of their families and the entire community.

However, over a protracted period, the displaced persons may sense that there is no fundamental resolution to ethnic animosity in their former local homes. Given this trend, the displaced individuals may perceive that their safety is going to be at risk if they return to their places of residence from where they were involuntarily displaced. Consequently, faced with the scarcity of local resources and the reluctance of the displaced persons to voluntarily return to their habitual residences, the host government or resettlement operations have no choice but to deliberately resort to soliciting additional tangible assistance and funds from humanitarian, developmental, financial, and private agencies (donors), and then design settlement road map to sustainably integrate the displaced settlers to their ancestral homes.

Sustainably integrating the displaced people into their ancestral homes is not that easy. It contributes to a traumatic process in the lives of the affected and could be found to be a formidable challenge for the host government. As stated by Cernea (1988), the host governments have to minimize administrative tutelage and lower dependency relationships when attempting to incorporate displaced settlers to their ancestral homes. However, a possible way of settling the displaced people in their ancestral homes can be effectively handled through the reorganization of the curricula of the existing Technical and Vocational Educational and Training (TVET) institutions. The displaced people could be enrolled in non-formal TVET educational institutions and made to undergo the process of learning by doing and acquire personal skills needed for achieving productive and sustainable livelihoods (Hanni, 2019).

Put simply, instead of making the displaced persons depend on handouts, the existing TVET institutions in Tigrai Region need to reform and redesign their curricula—foregrounded on

solid human capital knowledge and skills that lead to employment, entrepreneurship, and self-employment to help the displaced persons productively settle down in their aspired settlement regions. That is, unlike the existing Vocational Training (TV) Programs that are owned and managed by different institutions to give short-term skill-training programs mainly designed to meet immediate employment, the now found dispersed and disjointed vocational training institutions formally run by different government ministries need to be systematically integrated into both formal and non-formal TVET programs and run by one TVET institution. In addition to achieving economies of scale, the merged TVET institutions could be designed to offer ongoing academic knowledge with practical training skills internship programs and ensure tracer studies to nurture sustainable employment and self-employment for the displaced individuals.

Nonetheless, it must be fully ascertained that before they got uprooted from their habitual residential place, most of the displaced persons were actively engaged in various productive endeavors. Thereby, to make the displaced persons at ease with the exiting economic and labor market condition changes and improve their prospects for sustainable livelihood, the knowledge of displaced individuals needs to be contextual and retrained to make their skills current to the new realities. In short, the new format of the TVETs needs to: a) be demand-oriented—subscribing to occupational standards (duties and tasks), b) focus on a competence-based curriculum (fulfill the requirements of the workplace), c) be cooperative in designing the curriculum; and d) follow a modular, flexible delivery approach (a combination of short and long courses) and outcome-based learning (Ministry of Education, 2008; and Geressu, 2017).

Contrary to the existing regular track of TVET institutions that are supply-oriented and mainly tailored to serve as pro-employment; the study proposes that such institutons need to not only provide full-time learners but also retrain individuals who have lost jobs such as the displaced persons and those who wish to switch careers (Krishnan and Shaorshadze, 2013). That is, to fully operate, reintegrate those who plan to switch careers, and integrate the displaced persons, the TVET institutions that are going to operate within the regional state of Tigrai need to: a) review the local economy performance and map out future investment trends of the regional state; b) coordinate the linkages between the demand and supply of labor; and c) redesign and update the existing TVET curriculum to fit the industry's current and future manpower demands.

Put simply, to fully address and redesign an alternative model for TVETs in Tigrai, the following three basic questions need to be addressed: 1) where are Tigrai's TVET institutions now? (review local economic status, quantitative and qualitative competitiveness analysis, and resource assessment); 2) where are Tigrai's TVET institutions heading? (laying the foundation and establishing measurable milestones to achieve economic targets), and 3) what are strategies for how to get there? (mapping out action steps to achieve both short-term and long-term goals) following (Weisbrod, Lynch, Collins (2004, Bidwell et al, (2008).

2.3.1: An Overview of Local Economic status: In collaboration with the central economic developers and policy makers, the TVET institutions need to map out employment targets for each *woreda.* An assessment of economic analysis could provide profile economic baseline analysis, mapping out trends and growth projections. Put simply, local economic assessment methods need to include an assessment of economic performance, identify potential opportunities for targeting future business growth and attraction, and evaluate policy options to enhance local economic development that include: 1) economic analysis (use tools to rate

current economic performance and trends), 2) targeting diagnostics ((use diagnostic tools to target prospective industries for further growth and attraction), and 3) provide policy analysis and points analysis tools needed to assess the consequences of future scenarios and public action (Weisbrod, Lynch, and Collins, 2004).

2.3.2: Labor Market Demand and Employment Linkages: Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions can achieve transformation and promote resilience provided their intended missions are subsequently reformed and clearly articulated with the needs of the job market. That is, TVET institutions need to combine their academic subjects (including psychosocial training that enhances self-awareness, empathy, and civic engagement) with internships and that could have access to microcredit, necessary for establishing sustainable businesses or farms and could become positive actors in the settled community.

In addition, TVET-employment linkage can be harmonious when there is equal power-sharing between education-based programs (influence on curriculum content, program delivery, and curriculum updating) and the labor market demand of the counterparts in the employment systems. In reverse to education-to-employment trajectory, it is essential that the representatives from industry are given the role to influence on equal footing the functions, processes, and dimensions of the TVET curriculum value chain (Caves, Ghisletta, Kemper, and Renold, August 2019).

As discovered by Geressu (2017), most TVET institutions in the Oromia State of Ethiopia are predominantly knowledge-based. There is hardly any articulation between providers (suppliers) and prospective employers of the trained work force. The TVET curriculum hardly include smarket conditions and labor market information. Furthermore, Geressu (2017) underscores that the TVET training delivery strategies are not student centered, nor do the trainees spend much time in their industry. That is, TVETs do not regularly assign trainees to visit industries before and during cooperative training. Consequently, since the graduates lack adequate skills in their training that are appropriate for the job market, there is a gross mismatch between the demand for the supply of a middle-level skilled labor force (Geressu, 2017). Thereby, Geressu (2017), argues that TVET institutions have desperately slumbered to produce competent graduates who have the required employability skill, knowledge and ability. Geressu (2017) posits that after graduation, the graduates face a longer job search time or end up either unemployed or, if lucky, employed outside their fields of study at a lower pay. Therefore, to meet the current and future market labor demands, TVET institutions need to tune-up and redesign their curricula to ensure that there is linkage now and in the future between the needs of prospective enterprises (employers) and the qualification of incumbents. If the local economy reinvigorates, the displaced people would end up being either formally employed or self-employed and with a substitutional improvement in their livelihoods. From the review of the literature, the most important take-away policy imperative is that the TVET institutions in Ethiopia need to be redesigned to be dynamic and relevant to sustainably settle, and improve the livelihoods, self-esteem, and employment opportunities for the displaced persons.

2.4: **Redesigning TVET Curricula for Sustainable Integration**

As the then comprehensive high schools in Ethiopia were collapsing, failing to meet the expectations and demands of economic sector, the Ministry of Education initiated a paradigm shift in 2002 to replace the then comprehensive high school educational institutions with full-fledged Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programs tailored mainly

to produce highly skilled workers needed to propel the economic growth of the nation. As stated in the preamble of the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to end Poverty (PASDEP), the newly established TVET programs were deliberately structured to provide the necessary "relevant and demand-driven education and training that corresponds to the needs of economic and social sectors for employment, build a culture of entrepreneurship and prepare people for self-employment" (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Though envisaged to be demand driven and expected to prepare employable individuals, the TVET institutions in Ethiopia have encountered far more challenges than just producing employable individuals. Briefly stated, the TVETs in Ethiopia are faced with the following challenges. Ethiopia's TVET institutions: 1) are predominantly supply-driven; 2) lack TVET-enterprise cooperation; 3) face budgetary constraints; 4) are predominantly staffed with underqualified and inappropriately practically skilled teachers/instructors; 5) fail to facilitate their learners' access to internships, information, and microcredit facilities that are indispensable for establishing post graduate businesses; 6) face insufficient quality of employment of their graduates; and 7) lack robust tracer evidence for providing information about the trained people.

1. Supply-driven: TVET schools in Ethiopia lack agility because they are mainly designed as pro-employment vocational institutions to prepare the learners for initial entry into employment. Being supply driven and theoretically-oriented, the curricula have pathetically failed to address the industry's current and future manpower demand.

2. TVET-enterprise cooperation: To remain competitive and be innovative, Ethiopia's TVET institutions should have been both supply-oriented and demand driven (taking into account the needs of both the learners and the industry). There is an obvious mismatch between the needs of the enterprises and the output of the TVET institutions, because TVET institutions are regarded as inferior. The few quality enterprises available in the country don't have the desire to participate in the planning of the curricula or the training period. Thus, to reach higher standards, Ethiopia's TVETs must build strong partnerships.

3. Budgetary constraints: The main financial contribution for TVET programs originates from government funds from tax revenues. They range from 1 to 12 percent of the GDP. Being scarce, because of government economic fluctuations, government budget allocations to TVET programs in Ethiopia have ranged around 0.9% of the Gross Domestic Product (Kingombe, 2011 and Uhder 2017). In addition, since a large portion of the TVET funds allocated by the government are spent on employee salaries, the remaining funds become sub-optimal and have not been functional in terms of coincididing with and being applicable for the emerging technologies and new business models.

4. Inadequate teaching force: To contribute correspondence between labor market needs and the supply of vocational education institutes, TVET instituteions need to depend on the quality of their teachers and trainers, and by extension, the quality of the teacher training programs (Axmann, Rhoades and Nordstrum (2015). In addition to being insufficient, the TVET institutions in Ethiopia are inappropriately staffed with practically skilled teachers/ instructors. Though most of the vocational teachers are university-educated or have an equivalent degree in a subject area, the teaching staff seem to be inadequate academically and lack professional practical experience. Given that the existing TVET institutions in Ethiopia, without scrapping outdated irrelevant material, are still operating with the TVET curricula that lack innovation and are not technology-driven, the existing TVET institutes need to design and change new classroom and workshop learning through the assistance of diasporas. If effectively utilized, the diasporas would, "supply teachers and trainers with the skills necessary to be classroom leaders, innovative pedagogues, partners in policy reform, and adaptive curricula designers and implementers" (Axmann, Rhoades and Nordstrum, 2015).

That is, with the assistance of the national TVET center, Ethiopian Diasporas (who live abroad) could sporadically give in-service teacher training to promote the 1) linkage between training and enterprises, 2) integration of entrepreneurship education into training, 3) adaptation of emerging technologies and innovations between TVET schools and industries, 4) development of networks for knowledge-sharing among teachers, trainers and enterprises, and 5) promotion of fund-raising, job guidance and tracer studies.

5. Participation in apprenticeship and access to information and microcredit facilities. Because of the risks involved and the need to be supervised while working on some machines, Ethiopia's TVET students were not given the chance to participate in the apprenticeship before graduation. Instead of working as interns and probably being recruited by the enterprises, TVET students are generally referred to look for jobs in some of the enterprises after graduation. The policy option is that TVET institution need to look for in advanced enterprises that could provide internship training.

6. Insufficient quality of graduate employment: As mentioned above, TVET institutions in Ethiopia don't seem to be attractive, and their social recognition is very low. As mentioned by Geressu ((2017), the employment rate for TVET graduates is poor and their starting salaries and working conditions provide low employment stability and lack avenues for professional development. Thus, if TVET institutions are to institutionalize career guidance, their curricula framework must be demand driven. A company-based training model ensures a closer alignment between training and the skills need by the labor market.

7. Lacked robust tracer evidence: The key objective of institutional tracer studies is to identify the relevance of education/training for transition to a job and trace their job opportunities after graduating from vocational programs. Though untenable in Ethiopia, TVET institutions should have tracer studies because they may be needed for accountability and quality management. More specially, TVET institutions require tracer studies because they are vital for accreditation and necessary for policy and decision making, and donor agencies need them to demonstrate the relevance of the education/training they sponsor. For example, the TVET institutes in Khartoum State have attempted to trace the whereabouts of graduates from three different types of TVET institutes and assess how successful the graduates have been in terms of being able to integrate into the labor market after completing their learning programs (ILO, December 2016).

Given that the TVET intuitions in Ethiopia don't seem to focus on providing competence-based education, as they stand now, they are unlikely to provide leverage on attracting and accommodating the needs and aspirations of the displaced persons. As suggested by UNESCO (2018) and the Brookings Institution (2010), to meet the needs of the displaced person, they need to be exposed to both knowledge-based, on-going, on-campus training and on-site practical internship needed for formal, non-formal and informal programs. Therefore, it is very vital that TVET programs need to be reformed to accommodate the needs of the displaced persons

As mentioned before, before displacement, the displaced persons had a well-established experience with working in different projects. Therefore, it is proposed that in addition to providing to academic programs, the on-going learning TVET packages could be made to accommodate the needs of the displaced persons in the Regional states of Tigrai. As a life-long learning process, the existing TVET programs need to be designed to "… undergird the social and economic well-being of the economy, in as much as it is a key force for human capital formation, resulting a substantial government and donor agency's funding commitments" (Hanni, 2019).

3.0: Modalities for Financing TVET Programs for the Internal Displaced Persons

To make the TVET programs be supply driven and matched with the skill needs of the market (Ziderman, 2016), the funding and budget allocations of the TVET programs (formal, non-formal and in-formal) must remain relevant for today's innovative global climate. Thereby, governments must be diligent and search for alternative mechanisms to supplement the funding of the existing TVET programs (Bolina, 1996, Palmer, 2016) to be fruitful for retraining of displaced persons so that they can be integrated into their natural homes.

Since financing TVET institutions is very expensive compared to financing general education programs, it might be possible to develop and reform TVET programs by soliciting loans from multilateral and bilateral donor institutions. As stated by Atchoarena (2009a) and Ziderman (2016), diversified sources of funds for TVET programs could be obtained by tapping possible funds from businesses, local governments, nongovernmental sources, individuals, and the diaspora.

Specifically, to sustainably increase the quality of TVET, new funding mechanisms for the reformed TVET institutions need to be designed. As illustrated below, some of the well-known mechanisms of funding for Ethiopia's TVET programs could originate from: a) public financing, b) enterprise financing, c) establishing income generation from production or services, d) international donor assistance; and e) engagement of Ethiopian Diaspora to finance TVET Schools (for example, see Boina 1996).

3.1: Public or Government Financing: In developing countries, the main financial contribution for TVET programs originates from government funds from tax revenues for TVET programs range from 1 to 12 percent of the GDP. Because of government economic fluctuations, government budget allocation to TVET programs in Ethiopia and Gabon for a decade has ranged from 0.9% to 12.7% respectively (Kingombe, 2011 and Uhder 2017). However, since a large portion of the TVET funds allocated by the government are spent on employee salaries, the remaining funds become sub-optimal and cannot functionally coincide with and be applicable for the emerging technologies and new business models.

3.2. Enterprise Financing: Companies that recruit fresh graduates or get continuing training services for their employees donate funds to the TVET training institutions. Depending on the number of employees they have, companies also get tax rebates from the government for recruiting prospective employees and/or providing continuing training to current employees (Bolina, 1996). For instance, in Zimbabwe, in the form of vocational training funds, tax contributions from the employers are collected through payroll levies, or some subsidies from government are directly transferred for the Training Fund that is managed by the Ministry of Education (Zimbabwe's Manpower Development Fund) (Bolina, 1996). That is, to raise the skills of workers or the development of skills in the informal sectors, levies collected are used to finance pre-employment training, work-based training such as apprenticeships, and continuing training (Uhder 2017).

3.3: Income-Generating Activities and Services: To leverage curriculum reform of TVET institutions, they need to be market-oriented and at the same time diversify funding sources by combining training with production. That is, to bolster training during the learning process, TVET institutions can hire, on a part-time basis, adjunct instructors from the industries to train the learners to produce goods and services that could be sold to the local market and generate income that could be used to finance the training units. In addition, as a means of bolstering their financial conditions, TVET institutions could rent tools and equipment, and provide consulting services to local enterprises (Uhder, 2017, Ziderman, 2016).The taxes collected by the government from sales of products by the training institution would be returned to the TVET institutions in the form of rebates.

3.4: International donor assistance: Though they are capital intensive and not based on long-term commitment, several developing countries would not have been able to establish TVETs without donor support. Put simply, in many developing countries, TVET institutional infrastructure and facilities were established, staff were trained, and instructional systems were implemented on a sizeable contribution from bilateral, multilateral, non-government, and philanthropists. However, as stated by Bolina (1996), projects that started with good intentions may start malfunctioning because adequate recurrent expenditure is not maintained by host nations. Realizing that governments in developing countries can no longer assume alone the financial burden of TVETS, governments need to diversify and search for donors that provide additional stable long-term capital and recurrent funds for financing their new non-formal training strategies needed for the retraining of the internally displaced persons using the newly designed TVET institutions.

The most appropriate avenues that could provide quality non-formal training programs and be applicable for the settlement of internally displaced persons in their natural homes in developing countries include: 1) incentivizing TVETs to raise their internal sources of finance through the sale of gods and services; 2) the extension of tax benefits or tax rebates to firms that denote funds but also to the firms to be involved in the curriculum design of training programs; 3) the application of the German type of dual training systems; and 4) soliciting .

Merely copying than making adjustment is less fruitful. Nonetheless, a Inspired by the German dual model, for example, the Industrial and Vocational Training Board (IVTB) in Mauritius has been designed to promote and coordinate financing and providing vocational training to school leavers, as well as to the existing workforce (Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013)). Nonetheless, several firms, mostly in developing countries, resist the German dual model of arrangement because they argue that the training program is regarded to be expensive, as trainees must be supervised by senior staff while operating expensive equipment. In addition, they extend their argument by saying that graduates could be poached by other employers after they have completed their formal studies and training programs (Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013). It should be noted that when the Dual Track System is applied in developing countries, the governments take an intermediary role to facilitate cooperation between TVET institutions, local chambers industries, and business.

3.5: Financing TVET Through Diasporas: Through pull and push factors and /or globalization trends and/or family reunifications, currently, many Ethiopians are living abroad. Consequently, as a positive externality of the "brain drain," remittances from abroad have become an important source of external funding for Ethiopia. For example, Gelan (2018) reports that while the influx of remittance to Ethiopia was only US$345 million in 2010, it sharply rose to $1.796 billion in 2014 and then plummeted to $816 million in 2017. Citing evidence as given by the governor of the National Bank of Ethiopia, Towett reports that in 2019, the Ethiopian diasporas sent back $3.82 billion in remittances to their country.

Given the trend of remittance or direct transfer of cash to their families that Ethiopia's diaspora has shown over the years, the formation of an association of Ethiopian diaspore *Tegarus* could effectively use as a powerful rallying point for fundraising purposes and designing a strategy that could be used to solicit or raise funds from philanthropic giving agencies and others in their communities to be used for the revitalization of TVET institutions in the Regional State of Tigrai. Stated differently, efforts need to made to organize the Ethiopian *Tegaru* diaspores not only for TVET's fundraising purposes but also because the diaspores could be lured to return to their revered ancestral communities of origin

at least once a year to be engaged in research, learning and sharing knowledge, and forging practical-oriented TVET teaching methodologies. Furthermore, the *Tegaru* diasporas and networks could be made to raise funds and mobilize philanthropical giving. In tandem with host communities, the *Tegaru* diasporas could attempt to tackle mainstream pedagogical challenges and have an impact on delivering a training of trainers (TOT) of technical trainers in order to develop projects ideas that are relevant to local needs, offer professional mentorship, and provide networking opportunities for the learners in the newly designed TVET institutions (CAF, 2017, and United Nations, Rwanda, July 29, 2019).

However, as suggested by Charities Aid Foundation of America (2015), before attempting to raise funds, the *Tegaru* diaspora needs to know in detail "what causes speak to the diaspora" and "who the beneficiaries are." They are interested in transferring their skills and knowledge to support the TVET institutions. Given the major aim of the fund-raising venture organized by the Ethiopian *Tegaru* diaspora is to revitalize the TVET institutions in Tigrai so that they could effectively rehabilitate and accord employable skills to the displaced *Tegarus*, now found mainly settling in downtrodden houses and dependent on government handouts.

In short, as suggested by Charities Aid Foundation of America (2015), the most common and simplest way of soliciting donation from philanthropic giving and the diaspora community is first to develop a good relationship with the donors by making crystal clear that under Internal Revenue Code Section 170, donors are entitled to an income tax deduction for their contributions. Furthermore, donors need to be made confident that their funds will be going toward the revitalization of the TVET project that they support. After gifts are made, it is very vital that donors get updates on the progress of the project, because feedback is important so that the donors stay connected with the project moving forward.

To summarize, a review of the literature indicates that public sector expenditures (i.e. government expenditures driven mostly from property and pay-roll taxes) allocated by the government to finance TVET programs in several developing countries have remained very meager and static. Over the years, assessment of the educational outputs of the existing TVETs has remained at a suboptimal level. Therefore, to reform TVET institutions to serve as the basis for providing displaced persons and diversify the funding, TVET s institutions need to acquire other sources of funds from philanthropic giving institutions. The *Tagaru* diasporas and networks could raise funds and have an impact. In addition, in tandem with host communities, the *Tegaru* diasporas could attempt to tackle mainstream pedagogical challenges, offer professional mentorship, and provide networking opportunities for the proposed TVET organizations. This strategy would substantially change the operational management of the TVET institutions to produce positive effect on the learning institutions and foster spillover effects on the entire community (Atchoarena, 1996).

4.0: **Conclusion and Policy implications**

Enshrined in the 1995 Ethiopian Constitution, the formation of the Federal Republic of Ethiopia guaranteed not only the formation of regional self-governments to independently rule themselves but also accentuated the prominence of self-rule, shared-rule, enhanced diversity and conflict resolution.

Due to current administrative obsolescence, lack of dialogue, and effective implementation of diversity and inclusion initiatives, the social structures and the livelihoods of the federal peoples are drastically disrupted.

Feeling daunted by land grab and seeing that the natives of some regions were constantly pushed yonder into the dry peripheral areas, some of the disenchanted endogenous (native) ethnic groups are taking the initiative to organize themselves and have decided to chase away the non-native migrants who have lived and remained intermarried with them for many years. Consequently, the displaced nonnative ethnic groups who were forced out of their homes or habitual residences are now found either squatting, sheltering in, or occupying abandoned church and mosque compounds. In addition, while some have crossed border lines to neighboring countries, the remaining displaced persons have managed to flee and settle down in their respective ancestral homes.

The displaced *Tegarus* don't anticipate returning to their places of residence because they feel that they are disfavored. Their homes were demolished, and their physical wealth and livelihoods severely ravaged. Having gone through these traumatic experience, the internally displaced *Tegarus* are reluctant to return to their domicile places. To balance state sovereignty with the humanitarian *core values (United Nations* 1998), though ad hoc, the Regional State Government of Tigrai, Ethiopia is in the process of soliciting concerted assistance from Non-Government Organizations, philanthropic organizations, and other volunteers to help the displaced *Tegarus* settle down within their ancestral homes.

If the displaced people are to be part of the diversified workforce, foster entrepreneurship, and eventually contribute to the leverage of the local economy and sustainably settle down in their ancestral homes, the training centers need to integrate the previous experience of the displaced people. The study proposes that the existing TVET institutions need to be re-oriented and redesigned to systematically incorporate both supply-oriented and demand-driven strategies. Furthermore, assuming that if the professional vocational teachers and trainers are retrained, they are likely to enjoy training the displaced learners, and thereby the learners would be exposed not only to knowledge-based, on-going, on-campus training but also be trained in on-site practical internship (Desta, 2017).

To generate competence-based training, it remains tantamount for the TVET institutions to integrate the previous experience of the displaced people and further integrate it with the theoretical employability knowledge and practical skills and entrepreneurial capacities to which would improve the productivity of the enterprises. In other words, the non-formal "competency-based training" offered to the internally displaced persons needs to be relevant to the labor market, serve the enhancement capabilities, and make the displaced people achieve effective, durable and environmentally-sensitive capabilities necessary to integrate into their ancestral homes (see Axmann, Rhoades, and Nordstrum, 2015).

In simple terms, to pursue sustainable settlement for the displaced persons, it is axiomatic that the now-existing TVET institutions in the regional state of Tigrai have to be revamped to be incubators or serve as catalytic tools both for the displaced persons and regional economic development. That is, the existing TVET curricula need to be redesigned to be dynamic and accommodate the previous knowledge, skills, attitudes and experiences of the displaced persons. The existing TVET teachers and trainers have to be retrained and effectively socialized to acquire working pedagogic knowledge that includes new skills and approaches.
Given this framework, the most important policy imperative that could be suggested is that the current curriculum-centered TVET institutions in Tigrai need be redesigned to incorporate the needs of the labor market subject to creating the possibility of career progression and continuation of learning. Consequentially, the output of the reformed TVET would increasingly become a very important pillar to improve livelihoods, achieve self-

esteem, and accomplish value-added employment opportunities that would contribute to personal empowerment relevant to all the learners.

Compared to general education programs, financing TVET institutions in Ethiopia is very expensive. As it stands now, the federal government is the sole provider of funds for the TVET institutions. To reform the existing TVET institutions within the regional state of Tigrai calls for a diligent search for an alternative mechanism for financial modality. Underpinning Atchoarena (2009) and Ziderman's (2016), suggestion, the regional state of Tigrai could diversify the sources of funds for TVET programs by tapping possible funds from enterprises, establish within TVET's income generation from production or services, and also generate funds from Ethiopian diasporas.

Concerning enterprise financing, Ethiopia's TVET institutions could get fruitful lessons from the German type of dual training programs used to finance Germany's newly designed TVET institutions. For example, according to the German Dual Track Model, enterprises provide the initial financing for the training. That is, the learners are required to attend TVET centers for about one-and-a-half days per week, and the rest of the time is devoted to on-the-job training with the apprenticeship supervised by enterprises. To protect the enterprises from facing poaching, the learners are preconditional made to sign agreements that they are going to work for a given number of years and are going to be compensated at lower wages when they become full-time workers.

Additionally, to leverage curriculum reform, the reformed TVET institutions are made to be market-oriented and at the same time generate income and diversify their sources of funds by combining training with production. To bolster training during the learning process, TVET institutions can hire, on a part-time basis, adjunct instructors from the industries to train the learners to produce goods and services that could be sold to the local market. Furthermore, as suggested by Uhder (2017) and Ziderman (2016), to bolster their financial conditions and generate income that could be used to finance the training units, TVET institutions could rent tools and equipment, and provide consulting services to local enterprises.

Though the above funding strategies are viable, the most powerful rallying point of financial fundraising modalities needed for the revitalization of TVET institutions located in the Regional State of Tigrai TVET could emerge by the *Tegaru* diasporas either by soliciting or raising funds from their communities or philanthropic giving agencies. However, as suggested by Charities Aid Foundation of America (CAF), 2017), before attempting to raise funds, the *Tegaru* diaspora needs to know in detail "what causes speak to the diaspora" and "who the beneficiaries are."

Following this innovative theoretical framework, we can propose that the major aim of the fundraising venture to be organized by the Ethiopian *Tegarus* diaspora needs to be fundamentally revitalizing the TVET institutions in Tigrai. The underlying purpose of the funds raised by the Tegaru diasporas is to rehabilitate and accord employable skills—very vital for resettling the displaced *Tegarus* who unfortunately are now existing on government handouts and are either temporarily residing with their ancestry families, sheltering in over-crowded urban areas, or residing in peripheral zones. It is to minimize the suffering of the displaced individuals and establish sustainable living conditions that we propose that the existing TVET institutions need to be reformed. Thereby, for the reformation of the existing TVETs, donations from philanthropic giving and contributions from the diaspora community need to be solicited—subject to effective accountability and transparency.

In addition, the governing committee of *Tegaru* diaspora have to fully realize that they have to abide by the following obligations. They have to: 1) develop a good relationship with the donors by making it clear that donors are entitled to an income tax deduction (under Internal Revenue Code Section 170) for their contributions; 2) make donors confident that their funds will be used for the revitalization of the TVET project that they support; and 3) after a gift is made, make sure that the committee stay connected and are also given progress reports on project and raised resources.

In addition to the suggested fundraising strategies, what is invitingly challenging is designing ways and means of luring the *Tegaru* diaspores to assert a moral commitment that the diaspores will be returned, at least once a year, to their revered ancestral communities of origin and get involved either to conduct empirical research or learning and sharing knowledge with the community, and if possible, to forge practically oriented TVET teaching methodologies. In tandem with their host communities and other stockholders, it would be remarkable if the *Tegaru* diasporas could attempt not only to tackle mainstream pedagogical challenges, but also offer professional mentorship, and provide networking opportunities to rekindle their financially supported TVET institutions and their ripple effect on the communities.

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