STUDY ON UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF NON-STATE EDUCATION PROVIDERS IN SOMALIA

FINAL REPORT

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ACRONYMS

ABE	Alternative Basic Education
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CBO	Community Based Organization
CEC	Community Education Committee
COO	Chief Operating Officer
DCM	Data Collection Manager
DCO	Data Collection Officer
DEO	District Education Officer
DFID	United Kingdom Department for International Development
DG	Director General
EA	Enumeration Area
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESP	Education Sector Plan
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan
EU	European Union
FENPS	Formal Education Network for Private Schools
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FGS	Federal Government of Somalia
FMS	Federal Member State
FPENS	Formal Private Education Network <i>(Note: The name has been changed to UCES, but the umbrella association is still commonly referred to as FPENS.)</i>
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
GPS	Global Positioning System
GTEC	Garowe Teacher Education College
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
(I)NGO	(International) Non-governmental Organization
IQS	Integrated Quranic School
IT	Information Technology
JRES	Joint Education Sector Analysis
KII	Key Informant Interview
LTMMIS	Learning and Teaching Materials Management Information System
M&E	Monitoring & Evaluation
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MoECHE	Federal Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization

OIC	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
PTA	Parent-Teacher Association
REO	Regional Education Officer
SABER	Systems Approach for Better Education Results
SAFE	Schools Association for Formal Education
SEDA	Somali Education Development Association
SMC	School Management Committee
SNU	Somali National University
SOFE	School Organization for Formal Education
SOFEL	Somali Formal Education Link
SOFEN	Somali Formal Education Network
TMIS	Teacher Management and Information System
ToR	Terms of Reference
TVET	Technical and Vocational Training
UCES	Umbrella Community Education in Somalia
Umbrellas	Umbrella associations
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOSOM	United Nations Operation in Somalia
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WFP	World Food Program

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

This document presents the findings of a "**Study on Understanding the Role of Non-State Education Providers in Somalia**" commissioned by the World Bank. The goal of the study was to develop an evidence base for **understanding non-state education providers** in the broader Somali education ecosystem, and to identify opportunities for **cooperation between state and non-state actors**. The report is divided into **three main chapters**: an overview of Somalia's education sector and its implications on study methodology, presentation of the study's findings, and key research implications.

Education Sector Background

Somalia has developed a **fragmented education system** stemming from differences introduced by British and Italian colonialists and compounded by the civil war starting in 1991. The war effectively destroyed the public education system and contributed to **regional differences** as several states claimed greater autonomy. In the absence of a central education authority, **non-state actors became the most prominent** providers of education. This remains the case, although the federal government has been leading a push towards the **reestablishment of public education**.

The study focused on **formal primary and secondary education** which comprises eight years of primary schooling and four years of secondary. According to government data there are 925 primary schools and 372 secondary schools with a total enrolment of 987,108 and 195,804 students, respectively.¹ Due to funding shortages and limited institutional capacity, **outcomes remain poor** with low enrolment (20% in primary gross enrolment ratio) and high drop-out rates (64% survival rate to Grade 5).²

Among key stakeholders, the **Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education (MoECHE)** is responsible for the development of education on federal level while **Ministries of Education (MoE)** operate on the state level. **Umbrella associations**³ are the most important non-state actor in the Somali education landscape. They fulfill a quasi-governmental role by setting minimum standards for member schools, developing curricula, and facilitating teacher training. Finally, **civil society and the international community** are also involved in the education sector. In addition to owning and operating schools, community-based organizations (CBOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and private individuals provide funding and technical assistance.

Study Methodology

A **mixed-method approach** was used combining quantitative and qualitative methods. These included a **quantitative survey of 170** primary and secondary schools across four locations; **27 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)** with students, parents, and teachers; and **15 Key Informant Interviews (KIs)** with government officials, education experts, and private education stakeholders.

Given the limitations induced by the sample size, the need to capture a wide variety of school types and a lack of a comprehensive countrywide sampling frame of primary and secondary schools, the decision was taken to **sample from high-density areas** in three different Federal Member States (FMS). The data collection took place in **four urban and peri-urban locations** across Somalia:

¹ Education Sector Analysis 2018 - 2020

² Ibid

³ Umbrella associations refer to specific networks of non-state schools in Somalia. Many of these 'umbrellas' were originally founded by former teachers to associate schools in the absence of central authority in the 1990s and have grown to incorporate hundreds of schools across the country. Over 1000 schools are either directly managed by an umbrella or more loosely associated with an umbrella network.

Bosasso and **Garowe** (Puntland), **Kismayo** (Jubbaland), and **Mogadishu** (Benadir Regional Administration).

School Typology

In the **absence of a commonly agreed-upon school typology** among local stakeholders, one was developed for this report to allow comparisons between different types of schools. Using **management to differentiate schools**, the survey sample has been divided into four categories:

- ▶ **Government schools** managed solely by the government
- ▶ **Mixed-management schools** managed by the government together with a non-state actor
- ▶ **Umbrella schools** managed solely by an umbrella association
- ▶ **Independent schools** managed by a non-state actor other than an umbrella association

School management, as used in this report, involves responsibility for key **operational decisions** such those related to staffing, curriculum, and fees.

Findings

1. Overview of Survey Sample

Within the sample (N=170), **independent schools are most common (39%** of the sample), closely followed by **umbrella schools (36%)**, then by **government schools (15%)**, and **mixed management schools (10%)**. There is also regional variation as school types are not uniformly distributed across all locations. Most of the surveyed schools (61%) offer both primary and secondary education, are day schools (99%), and operate in two shifts (79%). The median number of students per school is 391, with a **large gender gap** in the student body (median of 156 males per 100 females).

2. Ownership

In Somalia, the definition of **school ownership is contested** between state and non-state actors, as the government tends to claim ownership of schools that it built but that are now privately run. Local communities and the government are involved in the ownership of many schools (25% and 22%, respectively), but **most umbrella-managed schools are privately owned** (85% owned exclusively by private individuals).

3. Funding

Most **schools rely on fees** paid by parents as their principal – and often only – source of funding. The reliance on fees makes schools dependent on parents' ability to pay, and therefore vulnerable to economic shocks. **Government funding is scarce** and appears to be mostly limited to schools managed at least in part by the state. Other sources of funding include NGOs, communities, and umbrella associations but, even when combined with revenue from fees, are often insufficient to cover operating expenses. **Schools operating at a deficit** cannot afford to maintain facilities and equipment or make regular salary payments to teachers.

4. Quality of Education

Most of the surveyed schools have the **basic infrastructure** (access to water, electricity, security wall), **facilities** (recreation area) and **equipment** (chalkboard, chalk, basic stationary). The number of **students per classroom ranges from 10 to 233**, with a median value of 31. Students have to share textbooks in 65% of surveyed schools and **34% of umbrella schools do not use textbooks at all**. Most schools teach a similar variation on the national curriculum. Interviewed students and parents requested more courses in **Information Technology (IT)**, which is taught at **37% of surveyed secondary schools**. Surveyed schools tend to mix three languages of instruction: Somali, English and Arabic, although as of August 2018 primary schools are formally required to teach in Somali.

Both primary and secondary schools are staffed by **teachers with varied levels of education** and training, as MoECHE does not yet regulate teacher qualifications. Independent schools have the best qualified teachers, with 75% in possession of a bachelor's degree, however, overall, **12% of teachers**

do **not have post-secondary education**. The average pay, issued irregularly, tends to range between USD 50 and 350 per month, which is comparable to that of a day laborer or a vegetable vendor.

Consistent measure of educational outcomes is **not** currently **available**. Although MoECHE now issues a universal graduation exam for secondary schools, the results were not available at the time of research. Interviewed headmasters **estimated the exam pass rate** (for both primary and secondary) to be **88%** at surveyed schools.⁴ Nevertheless, **independent schools were found to produce significantly better outcomes**, including the exam pass rate, dropout rate and repeat rate.

5. Accessibility and Inclusivity

Accessibility and inclusivity are limited by financial, geographical, and cultural barriers to education. The prevalence of **school fees** is the **main driver of exclusion**. On average, annual school fees are **USD 99 for primary and USD 149 for secondary**, with the total cost rising to USD 132 and 197, respectively, when additional costs are included. Although limited scholarships are available at some schools, they are insufficient to guarantee universal access to education. The large gender gap (see above) in student enrolment indicates that there are additional **barriers for girls**. Finally, **distance is likely a barrier** in rural areas, although less so in urban areas where the research took place and where the average student at 92% of schools travels less than 30 minutes to get to school.

6. Accountability

Accountability mechanisms are underdeveloped with limited efficacy. **CECs and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs)** interact with school management to voice their concerns and improve quality and outcomes in an ad-hoc manner, while umbrella associations set and monitor standards in response to market pressures with limited and unstructured interaction with government institutions. On the government side, the MoECHE facilitates accountability by collecting data during **school inspections** and collating it within the **Education Management Information System (EMIS)**, to a limited degree of success. Within the survey sample, only **54% of schools were inspected by the government**.

Research Implications

Policy Implications

As demonstrated by the findings, the education sector in Somalia suffers from a number of **weaknesses**. The **education landscape is fragmented**, with a number of state and non-state stakeholders, who engage in a limited and unstructured interaction. The **government agencies lack capacity** for policy planning, standards setting, financing, collaboration with private providers and data collection. The individual **schools are under-funded**, struggle with a **lack of qualified teachers** and are therefore **unable to provide adequate service to all school-aged children** in surveyed areas. Finally, there is a significant **gender gap** in enrolment, as described above. Stakeholders involved in the sector might consider the following interventions:

1. **Induce cooperation between the government institutions (MoECHE and MoEs) and umbrella associations to encourage the spread of common standards and build the FGS capacity.**

The FGS should take a collaborative approach to engaging with the umbrella associations and establish a formal discussion platform. Umbrella schools suffer from the same set of challenges as other school types and umbrellas are therefore likely to be receptive to assistance with funding, textbooks and equipment, and teacher capacity.

2. **Clarify the roles and responsibilities of the MoECHE and the state-level MoEs to reduce stakeholder fragmentation within the education landscape.**

⁴ In the survey, headmasters were asked to provide a pass rate for any final exam that is administered at their school. This includes the government-mandated final secondary exam, as well as final primary exams that tend to take place at individual schools but that are not nationally harmonized.

Establishing a jointly agreed upon and implemented system for school inspections could serve as one of the first building blocks of a constructive relationship between MoECHE and the MoEs.

3. Expand, reinvent and refine the business model for education to improve quality and stimulate expansion of the school network.

To deliver cash support directly to individual schools, consider a grant delivery mechanism managed jointly by the donors and the government that issues grants to individual schools, conditional on fulfilment of a set of criteria. In addition to direct financial support, lessons learnt on sustainable business models should be collected and distributed.

4. Extend access to education for women and children from families that cannot afford education through systemic change.

To address the substantial gender gap, ensure that gender mainstreaming is fully integrated into the teacher training curriculum and that an adequate number of female teachers, on primary and secondary level, is receiving their qualifications. Financial support for vulnerable students could be extended through grant delivery mechanisms mentioned above.

5. Invest in systems that support teacher training and education.

Teacher performance baseline, Teacher Management and Information System (TMIS) and teacher training curriculum should form the basis of improvement to teaching quality. Alternatives to in-service training, including ICT solutions and introduction of mobile tutors should be explored. However, as long as teacher compensation remains minimal, any gains in improving teaching capacity are easily lost.

6. Encourage and stimulate data collection and reporting within umbrella associations and on the level of individual schools.

Strengthen EMIS data collection procedures to compile a more comprehensive audit of primary and secondary schools in Somalia. Lessons from other fragile countries, such as South Sudan and Afghanistan, offer lessons on taking advantage of ICT and adopting a decentralized approach to data collection.

Suggestions for Further Research

To build upon the findings of this study, it is recommended that future research initiatives consider investigating: (1) **rural schools**, including schools catering to nomadic populations; (2) **non-state actors** with special focus on the in-depth study of umbrella associations; (3) the decision-making process on **school leadership** as one of the main determinants of education quality in the current system, where questions of curriculum, teacher hire and overall resource allocation are decided on the school level; (4) **teacher performance baseline** to establish the quality of teaching in the absence of government regulation; and (5) **funding** to obtain more granular data on how schools raise, allocate and spend funds.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In February 2018, Altai Consulting was commissioned by the World Bank's Somalia Education Sector Programmatic Advisory Services and Analytics to conduct a "**Study on Understanding the Role of Non-State Education Providers in Somalia**". The study focuses on formal primary and secondary schools in urban and peri-urban areas across four locations in Somalia: **Mogadishu** (Benadir Regional Administration), **Kismayo** (Jubbaland), and **Garowe** and **Bosasso** (Puntland).

1.2. OBJECTIVES

Overall Objective

The overall **objective** of this study is to help relevant Somali government institutions and the international community in **developing an evidence base** for **understanding non-state education providers** in the broader Somali education ecosystem, and in **identifying opportunities** for **streamlining private initiatives** into federal and state-level education sector development policy.

Specific Objectives

More **specifically**, the study aims at:

- a) Developing an in-depth understanding of the **characteristics** and **role of non-state education providers** in primary and secondary education in Somalia;
- b) Analyzing their **operating environment** and identifying its **constraints**;
- c) Identifying areas and approaches for **public-private partnership**; and
- d) Delivering recommendations for the government that can feed into **a possible regulatory policy framework** supporting non-state education service providers.

1.3. STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

The report is structured in the following way:

- ▶ The second chapter gives a **brief overview** of the Somali education sector and outlines the study's **methodology**.
- ▶ The third chapter presents findings related to objectives a) and b) listed above. Separate sections within this chapter present findings on school **management**; school **ownership**; school **funding**; education **quality**; **accessibility and inclusivity**; and **accountability**.
- ▶ The final chapter relates to objectives c) and d), providing **recommendations** for governmental stakeholders and identifying areas of opportunity for public-private partnerships.

2. EDUCATION SECTOR BACKGROUND

2.1. BRIEF HISTORY OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Somalia's **education system** has been **fragmented** by the country's tumultuous past. British and Italian influences, the absence of a central education authority between 1991 and 2006, and the subsequent emergence of non-state education providers are at the heart of this fragmentation. The following sub-section will briefly outline the **evolution of education** in Somalia.

In **pre-colonial Somalia**, education was dispensed through **informal systems of communal interaction**, and pastoralist parents taught their children orally in flexible sessions, relevant to their basic needs.⁵ Additionally, **Quranic schools** were among the first educational institutions in Somalia, teaching basic literacy skills and the Quran in the Arabic language. The importance of religion grew in the **14th century** as Islamic religious groups including Sufi religious orders spread prayers, practices, and Arabic religious writing among the Somali population. The mixture of Islamic scholarship and Western ideas introduced by Somali travelers fueled debates on education and religious reform, even prior to European colonization.⁶

In the **late 19th century**, Somalia was divided between the United Kingdom and Italy. **British Somaliland** was established in 1884 in the northwest while the eastern coast became **Italian Somaliland** in 1890. Both colonial powers sought to **formalize education** through an elitist approach focusing on **urban schools** and **higher education** institutions that primarily served the colonial population and local elites. Consequently, English and Italian were the main **languages of instruction**. In addition, **limited financial support** was extended to **existing Islamic schools** and Quranic teachers who taught literacy, numeracy, Arabic, and English alongside religion in a moderate attempt to reach the rural nomadic population. However, it was the emphasis on urban and higher education that continued to define the Somali education system into the modern era.

The origin of the **modern Somali education system** can be traced to the unification of the British and Italian colonies and the creation of an independent Somali state in 1960. All **schools were consolidated** into a single system of around **1400 primary schools and 50 secondary schools**, with the assistance of international donors including the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Additionally, several vocational-technical institutes, a National Teacher Education Center, and a National University were created. The **Somali written language** was introduced in 1972 under the military regime of Siad Barre and literacy campaigns were launched aiming to bring education to the masses. In the same year, the Somali language was promoted as the **official language** in public administration and the formal education system, leading to a steep increase in enrolment and a struggle to develop Somali-language textbooks. In **1975, education was made free and compulsory** for children up to 14 years old.

The **education system** built in the 1960s and 1970s was effectively **destroyed during the civil war** that erupted in 1991. The displacement of large segments of population, including many teachers, led to the closure of schools and the premises being used for alternative purposes.⁷ According to estimates,

⁵ Abdi, A., Education in Somalia: History, Destruction, and Calls for Reconstruction, in: Comparative Education 34(3), 327-340, 1998; UNICEF, Despite All Odds, n.d. URL: https://www.unicef.org/somalia/SOM_NewDawndoc.pdf

⁶ For more information on history of education in Somalia, see Cassanelli, L. and Abdikadir, F., 2007. Somalia Education in Transition, in: Bildhaan, 7 (1), 91-125; Abdinur A., 2008. Community Assumes the Role of State in Education in Stateless Somalia, in: International Education, 37(2), 43-61

⁷ Cummings, K., 2003. Basic Education and Policy Support Activity, Somalia Education Sector Assessment: with Special Attention to the Northwest Zone.

90% of school infrastructure and materials were destroyed.⁸ Once the United Nations Operation in Somalia (UNOSOM) troops withdrew in 1994, most **initiatives to rehabilitate schools failed** as a result of the absence of a central authority and lack of coordination among key stakeholders.

In the absence of a public education system, private **umbrella associations** were formed to fill the void left by the government. These education umbrellas – along with international donors, local communities, and the Somali diaspora – assumed key roles in reconstructing schools, education service delivery, and regulation. The following sections will describe the role of the government, umbrella associations and other actors in the education sector in more detail.

2.2. CURRENT EDUCATION SYSTEM

OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

The **current Somali education system emerged in 2012** with the establishment of the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS). The new government established free primary and secondary education as the basic right of all Somali citizens⁹ and has taken steps to standardize education across the country. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education (MoECHE) manages the education system although non-state actors maintain their influential roles.

Education begins with early childhood education (including pre-schools and kindergartens), then progresses to primary and secondary schooling, and finally to post-secondary education.¹⁰ This **report focuses on primary and secondary education**, which generally comprises eight years of primary (Grades 1-8) followed by four years of secondary (Forms 1-4).¹¹ In Mogadishu and Garowe schools are officially supposed to be open 10 months a year, while in Kismayo and Bosasso schools run for nine months a year, in part to avoid the heat of summer. As a result of overcrowding, many schools operate in two shifts – one in the morning and one in the afternoon.¹² Although the education sector is undergoing reforms, it remains underdeveloped and educational outcomes remain poor, especially for girls and in rural areas. Key indicators characterizing the current state of the education system are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Current state of the education system¹³

Indicator	Urban	Rural	Male	Female	Total
Number of schools *					
Primary	—	—	—	—	925
Secondary	—	—	—	—	372
Alternative basic education	—	—	—	—	11

⁸ Barakat et al., 2014. Beyond Fragility: Conflict and Education Analysis of the Somali Context; Cummings, K., 2003. Basic Education and Policy Support Activity, Somalia Education Sector Assessment: with Special Attention to the Northwest Zone.

⁹ The Federal Republic of Somalia, 2012. Provisional Constitution.

¹⁰ MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

¹¹ A 9-3 structure is also used in some private Arabic institutions but informants indicated that the 8-4 system is most prevalent in the survey locations and is therefore used throughout the report. Additionally, there are plans to begin using 4-4-4 system with an intermediate school level in August 2018 (UNSOM, 2018).

¹² MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

¹³ All data is from the Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022. Integrated Quranic schools are included with primaries in government data.

Quranic schools	—	—	—	—	2,967
Number of teachers					
Primary	12,366	5,275	15,509	2,132	17,641
Secondary	5,015	412	5,265	162	5,427
Number of students					
Primary	638,538	348,570	563,680	426,385	987,108
Secondary	184,955	10,849	119,593	76,211	195,804
Gross enrolment ratio *					
Primary	48.2	4.4	22.2	19.8	20.1
Secondary	36.6	0.3	15.5	10.9	13.3
Survival rate to Grade 5¹⁴					
Total	70.8	47.9	65.9	61.7	64.0
Exam pass rate (2016) *					
Grade 8	—	—	—	—	92%
Form 4	—	—	—	—	87%

* Excludes Somaliland and Puntland

— Indicates data either unavailable or not applicable

Based on the information presented in this chapter and the results of the survey presented in the chapter 3 'Findings', it is possible to create a picture of the **typical school and student in Somalia** (Focus Box 1).

Focus Box 1. The typical Somali school and student¹⁵

Typical School	Typical Student
A typical Somali school would be a primary school located in an urban center, running 232 days (or about 9 months) a year. It would be managed by a non-state actor such as the local community, or an umbrella association, and owned by private individuals. There would be around 400 students, 13 teachers, and 12 classrooms. Subjects would include Arabic, Math, English, Somali, Islamic studies, and	A typical Somali student would be between 8 and 10 years old and enrolled in the first years of primary (Grades 1-3). He would be a boy living in an urban center and would travel between 10 to 30 minutes to get to a typical non-state school such as the one described on the left. His parents would work at the local market or as day laborers. Although they might struggle to pay his school fees, the boy would be

¹⁴ Percentage of a cohort enrolled in Grade 1 expected to reach Grade 5

¹⁵ The analysis presented in the Focus Box draws on the 2016 EMIS report that indicates that three quarters of primary and secondary enrolment is located in urban areas and on findings from the survey implemented predominantly in urban areas for this report. In both cases of a 'typical school' and a 'typical student', the most common characteristics were used to construct the example. Note that the descriptions of both the school and the student refer to the formal education system, which is the focus of the report.

Science and would be taught in a mix of Somali and English. School fees would be charged but would not fully cover running costs. Consequently, facilities and learning materials are limited to the basics such as water, electricity, and a few textbooks.

fortunate to be part of the population that can afford to go to school. Drought, conflict, and economic uncertainty would likely prevent him from completing his studies. However, if he does manage to stay in school, he would likely pass his final exams.

Religious education is highly valued in Somalia with many children attending informal Quranic schools, sometimes in addition to attending a formal primary or secondary school.¹⁶ These institutes teach students to read, write, and recite the Quran. In addition, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) introduced **integrated Quranic schools** (IQS) that employ qualified teachers who teach both the secular and religious curricula.¹⁷ Unlike traditional Quranic schools, IQS are considered part of the formal education system. More information on the characteristics of the IQS visited for the purpose of this research can be found in Focus Box 5.

Alternative Basic Education (ABE) schools and centers operate in parallel to formal schools to **provide education to out-of-school children**, especially marginalized groups such as nomads, orphans, and displaced people. ABE schools provide a condensed and accelerated form of the formal primary education program for children 7-14 years old,¹⁸ with the aim of transferring learners to the formal system or adult literacy programs. Government sources acknowledge that their record of 11 ABE schools is likely outdated;¹⁹ in comparison, USAID's initiative to provide education to pastoralists has recently opened 93 ABE centers.²⁰ ABE is considered part of the formal education system aimed at school-aged children by the FGS, although non-formal basic education programs are also being promoted as a means of reaching uneducated youth and adults.

Post-secondary education in Somalia has been developing quickly over the past 20 years. Prior to the collapse of the education system in 1990, the **Somali National University** (SNU), a government institution founded in Mogadishu in 1954, was the only post-secondary institution in the country. The SNU remains prominent but has been joined by over 50 – mostly private – registered universities, the majority of which are located in Mogadishu.²¹ The MoECHE oversees universities but its ability to monitor them is limited. Education quality is further limited by the lack of available funding. Technical and Vocational Education and Training (**TVET**) **institutes are also proliferating** as young Somalis seek to acquire employable skills. However, TVET institutes also face funding shortages and the system is fragmented and largely unregulated.

Post-secondary institutions are crucial to the education sector as the source of new teachers. The government supports teacher training through the **SNU** while government teacher training institutes²²

¹⁶ Available data indicate that there are more informal Quranic schools than formal schools (2,967 and 1,297, respectively, excluding Puntland and Somaliland - Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022).

¹⁷ The first IQS was initiated in a pilot project together with the government in Somaliland in 2006. The concept was expanded within the Strategic Partnership for the Recovery and Development of Education in Somalia that UNICEF, UNESCO and DfID formed (UNICEF, Evaluation Report. The Integrated Quranic Schools Pilot Project, 2011).

¹⁸ Ministry of Human Development and Public Services, Programme Implementation Grant Global Partnership for Education, Programme Document 2014-2016.

¹⁹ MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

²⁰ USAID, 2018. https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1860/Fact_Sheet_-_Somalia_ABE_January_2018.pdf

²¹ MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

²² In addition to government institutes, private teacher training institutes have also been set up. These include Mogadishu University, Benadir University, SIMAD University, the University of Somalia, and the umbrella-owned Benadir Teacher Training Institute. There is currently no unified teacher training curriculum, therefore the syllabus tends to vary between institutions.

also exist in Garowe and Hargeisa. However, the SNU's teacher training department lacks funding and trainers. It was only in 2017 that the SNU's College of Education hired an external advisor to start developing an undergraduate degree specific to early childhood and primary school teaching.²³ Although SNU representatives claim the teacher training department does not receive any funds from the government, government stakeholders suggest this is a consequence of ineffective internal resource allocation.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATION

Strong regional differences have emerged as the education sector has been shaped by the civil war and subsequent political turmoil. In the aftermath of the war, the country's administration became decentralized as several autonomous regions, including Somaliland, Puntland and Galmudug, emerged. The turn of the century marked a shift back towards federalism as the Transitional National Government was established in 2000 and was subsequently succeeded by the Transitional Federal Government in 2004. The current national administration, the **Federal Government of Somalia (FGS)**, was established in 2012. Under the Federal Republic of Somalia, state governments, recognized as **Federal Member States (FMS)**, retain some degree of autonomy over regional affairs.

Somaliland, the northwest portion of Somalia and former British colony, declared its independence in 1991. Its independence has not been officially recognized by the majority of the international community or the FGS, which considers Somaliland to be part of the federal state. To the present day, relations with the FGS remain strained and border disputes with the neighboring state of Puntland are ongoing. Consequently, Somaliland's education sector is managed by the regional administration, which has allocated a greater percentage of its budget to education than other FMSs.²⁴ This, along with the relative peace and stability in the region, have allowed the development of a **more centralized and regulated education system**. Free primary education was introduced in 2011 but the success of the initiative has been limited by a lack of government capacity and resources.²⁵

The **situation is similar in the state of Puntland**, which was established as a semi-autonomous state in 1998 but, unlike Somaliland, does not seek full independence. Compared to the southern FMSs, Puntland has been relatively secure, enabling a stable regional administration with a greater capacity for service delivery. The Puntland Ministry of Education (MoE) has been actively working towards the goal of achieving universal primary education.

The **remainder of Somalia has been most affected by the civil war** and ongoing Al-Shabaab insurgency which have fostered political instability. Prior to the establishment of the FGS, public institutions were weak and lacked the capacity to deliver services to the population. Consequently, there are much **fewer government-run schools** as non-state actors, especially umbrella associations, were relied upon to provide education. Despite the progress towards the reestablishment of a public education system, the **sector remains fragmented** as schools are mostly unregulated.

EDUCATION POLICY FRAMEWORK

Since the establishment of the FGS, **several policy initiatives have been developed** to strengthen the education sector. In 2012, the first **Joint Education Sector Analysis (JRES)** was completed to evaluate the state of the education sector and inform an **Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP)** for 2013/14-2015/16. The MoECHE has also collaborated with national and international stakeholders to develop **Education Sector Plans (ESP)**, the current of which covers 2018-2020. **Somaliland and**

²³ Despite campaigning efforts for more students to apply, the dropout rates are high: out of 60 students that enrolled in the new bachelor for primary education, in May 2018, only 12 students remain.

²⁴ MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

²⁵ IRIN, 25.01.2011

Puntland have developed their own policy documents, including JRESs and ESSPs. Puntland has signed a memorandum of understanding (MoU) with the FGS to define responsibilities and align strategic objectives.

Policy plans aim to engage non-state actors in order to **standardize education and regulate schools**. **Existing documents** outline plans for the development of a unified national curriculum, administration of national exams, and regulation of teacher qualifications. **Planned policies** will further these objectives by supporting the development of Somali textbooks, establishing a standardized teacher training curriculum, and further regulating non-state schools. **For more information on existing and anticipated policy plans, please refer to Annex 3 ‘Literature’.**

2.3. MAIN EDUCATION STAKEHOLDERS

GOVERNMENT

On the federal level, the **MoECHE** is **responsible for the overall education policy framework**, as discussed in the previous section. It oversees the unified national graduation exams for the secondary school students and is currently in the process of designing a unified national curriculum. Additionally, the MoECHE also **directly manages** a relatively **small number of schools** where teachers are at least partially paid with MoECHE funds. These schools are identified as ‘government schools’ throughout this report. The main divisions of the MoECHE are outlined in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. Structure of the MoECHE

- **Funding:** According to a government official, **90% of the MoECHE’s funding** comes from **the international community**.²⁶ The **MoECHE contributes around 4%** to the education sector’s overall funding,²⁷ which mostly goes towards covering its own running costs, national examinations, and incentives for teachers teaching at government schools.
- **Coordination:** The **MoECHE** and the **MoE of the FMS** are in **regular communication** with each other. The Education Minister and the Director General (DG) of the FGS MoECHE meet with the ministers and the DGs of the FMS ministries every three months. At monthly **Education Sector Coordination** meetings that the MoECHE chairs and UNICEF co-chairs all governmental and non-governmental stakeholders come together for discussions regarding the education sector.

²⁶ Major donors include GPE, UNICEF, EU, and USAID.

²⁷ Interview with a government official in Mogadishu in April 2018

The **Department for Umbrella and Private Education** was created within the MoECHE for the purpose of coordinating with private education stakeholders and umbrella associations. The department director together with the DG of the MoECHE hold frequent **ad-hoc meetings with umbrella association** representatives. Thus far, the interaction between the MoECHE and umbrella associations has not been formalized or regulated. However, the MoECHE does register umbrellas and their affiliated schools.

Representatives of the federal-level MoECHE and state-level MoEs both operate on the sub-national level, often with little coordination. On the side of the MoECHE, the **Regional Education Officers (REOs)** and the **District Education Officers (DEOs)** work in their region of deployment during the school year and report back to the MoECHE during school holidays. According to the Director of the MoECHE Department for Umbrella and Private Education, the REOs report to him, although their responsibilities go beyond private and umbrella education.

The **primary role of the REOs** is to support the MoECHE in the running and **delivery of education programs** in the regions, and to establish an institutional framework for the effective delivery of education services. They serve as the **direct link between the MoECHE and the schools** in the region and are expected to keep a comprehensive record. They are also in charge of human resources in the region, including deployment and discipline of teachers and head teachers, and of quality assurance including inspections. Together with representatives of the MoECHE and the National Examination Board, they coordinate national exams in the secondary schools. The **DEOs support** and report directly to the REOs.

In practice, the **REOs** receive a salary but **are not allocated a budget** to cover, for example, the cost of transportation to the schools they are expected to inspect, which limits the extent to which they can fulfill their responsibilities.²⁸ Similarly, due to the lack of funds, **most districts** in the southern states **do not have a DEO present**.²⁹ Even where the REOs and the DEOs are present and able to work, a criticism frequently heard in the course of research was that the REO reports to the MoECHE only rarely trigger a reaction from the central Ministry staff.

Each state has its own MoE, with their **own budget** allocated by the state government.³⁰ The more proactive and well-funded MoEs, in states like Puntland or Somaliland, generate their **own education policies**, as described in the previous section³¹ and have their own teacher training institutions. The Puntland MoE has also issued its own Terms of Reference (ToR) for the REOs, requiring them to report to the DG of the Puntland MoE.³² The ESSP 2018-2020 leaves the respective **roles and relationship between the MoECHE, its staff and the state-level MoEs undefined**, however, a number of the interviewed officials criticized the role of the REO as outdated and designed for a centrally funded and managed education system, which has now become obsolete in the context of the Somali federation.

UMBRELLA ASSOCIATIONS

Umbrella associations were formed by former teachers now leading the associations, with an interest in re-establishing education **after the civil war** had left the education system destroyed, and students and teachers scattered. The founders did not contribute significant funding to the umbrellas but turned to the diaspora and international organizations for initial investments. Now, the umbrella associations and their schools run off school fees and smaller contributions from international

²⁸ Interview with a government official in Mogadishu in April 2018

²⁹ Ibid

³⁰ Puntland, for example, allocated 8% of the state's budget to the education sector, about USD 70 million, according to the Director General of the Puntland Ministry of Education.

³¹ For example, the Puntland Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012-2016

³² Puntland State, Job description for Regional Education Officer, n.d.

organizations.

Despite the government restoring its role in the education sector, the **position of umbrella associations remains strong** as important providers of education and guarantors of minimal education quality. However, the **MoECHE is reclaiming core responsibilities** such as regulating the education sector, developing curricula and textbooks, and administering national exams that had originally been assumed by umbrella associations in the absence of a central government.

Currently, there are **14 different umbrella associations**, which vary greatly in size and reach. While umbrellas have a particularly strong presence in the Benadir administrative region, they operate across all FMSs. Government data indicate that there are over **1,000 umbrella-affiliated schools** in Somalia providing education to over 250,000 students. To put the umbrella enrolment rates in perspective, **the MoECHE**, according to its own records, **manages a total of 93 schools**, with 31,856 enrolled students, and 1,059 teachers across the country. Focus Box 2 provides details on the two largest umbrella associations while information on other umbrellas can be found in Annex 1 'Background Information'.

Focus Box 2. Origins of umbrella associations

Umbrella associations: "education warlords"³³ or useful regulators?

The Formal Private Education Network (FPENS) is the largest umbrella association in Somalia with 1080 schools. It was founded in 1993 by a group of teachers in an effort to introduce more regulation into a sector devastated by the civil war and thus improve the quality of the service delivered to the Somali population. An additional motivation was the recognized need for a body that could issue secondary school graduation certificates recognized outside of Somalia, so that Somali students could continue their education even in the absence of formal government certification, which was at the time missing in Somalia.³⁴

The Schools Association for Formal Education (SAFE), the second largest umbrella with 300 schools, was founded in 1998. The association started with five schools and quickly expanded by working with schools to introduce standardized certification and curriculums. Since most textbooks had been destroyed during the war, the founders of SAFE worked to reconstruct the syllabus taught by the government schools before the war and used it to provide member schools with lists of topics and lesson outlines.³⁵

- **Role:** The role of an umbrella is to **secure minimum standards** at the school level, to provide management **guidance** to schools and to organize **teacher training**,³⁶ to connect schools to donors and to a larger network more generally, and to provide a platform for schools to express their concerns to the government.³⁷ Over the years, umbrellas have grown in size and importance, exercising significant influence on the education sector. One of the most significant examples of this influence was observed in 2013, when **several umbrella**

³³ A term used by a government official to describe umbrellas according to an interviewed representative of an umbrella.

³⁴ Interview with an umbrella representative in Mogadishu in April 2018

³⁵ Interview with an umbrella representative in Mogadishu in April 2018

³⁶ The Benadir Teacher Training Institute is owned by an umbrella

³⁷ Umbrellas used to provide secondary school graduation exams that the government certified. Since 2016 the government only issues exam certificates if the students sit government-approved national exam. Now, the umbrella associations are tasked to gather information and fees necessary for the government in preparation for the exam.

associations³⁸ agreed on a unified syllabus, introducing a degree of syllabus standardization for the first time since the end of the civil war.

- ▶ **Membership:** For a school to join an umbrella, it has to **register with the government**, pay a **registration fee** and commit to **comply with the standards** set by the association. Once a member, the school pays a small monthly fee per class.³⁹ If a school does not wish to be directly managed by an umbrella, there is an **option of a looser association**. Associated schools pay a registration and a monthly fee in return for a range of services including the right to use the umbrella association branding. While schools that are directly managed by an umbrella association have been found only in Mogadishu, associated schools were found in all survey locations. Within the survey sample, 66% of schools claimed to be associated with an umbrella while the MoECHE estimates this figure to be 81% overall. The differences between schools associated with umbrellas and those that are not are explored at the end of Section 3.5.
- ▶ **Structure:** Each larger umbrella association has a regular **general assembly gathering**, which brings together the member school headmasters and the executive committee, often comprised of the founding members of the association. The **executive committee** elects a **Board Chairman** as well as a **Chief Operating Officer (COO)**, who works with the board on strategic development and policy decisions. The frequency with which a general assembly convenes varies among the umbrellas, in the case of FPENS it is every two years.
- ▶ **Regulation and oversight:** In the **absence of formalized communication**, ad-hoc informal meetings take place between the MoECHE staff and umbrella representatives. Umbrella associations are also regularly asked to **provide information** on the schools they manage, including data necessary in preparation for the government-organized secondary-level final exams. Additionally, umbrella associations **require a certificate from the MoECHE** and the Ministry of Interior and Federal Affairs that is to be renewed every two years and schools must be registered with the Government.
- ▶ **Relationship with the government:** The relationship between the umbrella associations and the government is characterized by frequent **tension** even as **cooperation** between the two does take place. Although interviewed government officials acknowledged the umbrellas' importance, there is a tendency among high-level **government officials to see umbrellas as competition**. Some umbrella representatives also hold government positions, thus further complicating the relationship. This relationship, however, varies by region. For example, in Puntland the state-level MoE has tasked the umbrellas with implementing the national secondary school exams, while the government continues to issue the certificates. On the other hand, there is a concern among interviewed umbrella officials that the 14 associations do not speak to the government as one voice.⁴⁰

CIVIL SOCIETY

The most commonly encountered community-based organizations (CBOs) active in education are **Community Education Committees (CEC)**, community-based oversight bodies that assists the school

³⁸ The following umbrella associations agreed to implement unified syllabus: FPENS, SAFE, FENPS, SOFE, SOFEN, SOFEL, and SEDA.

³⁹ The monthly fee varies between different umbrella associations but can be estimated at around USD2 per class. The one-off registration fee is between USD100 and 200. Some smaller umbrella associations do not ask for fees.

⁴⁰ An umbrella association advocacy board for private education was mentioned as option during an interview with an umbrella representative.

administration. Introduced to Somalia by UNICEF,⁴¹ CECs were designed to fulfill a role comparable to School Management Committees⁴² (SMCs). However, in practice, they are not effectively involved in school management and operational decision-making. Instead, they often **only facilitate communication between school management and the community** and help with fundraising.

By providing a forum for parents and community **stakeholders to voice their concerns** to the school management, CECs help **hold school management accountable**. CEC members may also visit schools to assess quality. On their end, the teachers and headmasters use CECs to **communicate with parents**, for example to address the issue of students dropping out of school. Additionally, CECs are sometimes involved in teacher recruitment processes and the management of teacher payroll.

The **CECs tend to comprise parents, members of the local community**, and can also include **local elders, teachers, education authorities**, or other community members with management experience. Members are often selected from parents of current students based on their social standing in the community and their abilities. Interviews with umbrella associations and the chair of a CEC also suggest that it is often **school founders** who become CEC members. The CEC members tend to be elected or appointed and their precise role tends to differ from school to school.

Interviews with government officials of the MoECHE suggest that **CECs are not integrated into institutional structures or policies** but are rather seen as way for parents to have a say in education at the school-level, independently of the government. However, government – especially at the local level – provides capacity-building and support services to CECs.⁴³

According to government officials, **about half of the schools have a CEC**. Across the locations surveyed for this report, CECs were found at the majority of schools in Bosasso, Garowe and Kismayo, but only 26% of surveyed schools in Mogadishu. The difference in Mogadishu appears to be driven by a high number of schools managed by non-state actors, including umbrella associations, that do not have CECs.

Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) are school-based organizations comprised of parents and teachers, intended to facilitate parental participation at the school level. The **roles of PTAs tend to overlap with those of CECs** and include the monitoring of student performance; conflict resolution between parents, students and teachers; and organizing volunteer activities to the benefit of schools or the wider community. The main distinction is their composition, as CECs tend to include members of the community while PTAs do not. One government official, however, reported that both names are often used interchangeably.

Local NGOs play a role in funding education including the teacher payrolls at individual schools, building and maintaining school infrastructure, providing teacher training and general capacity training, as well as emergency education.

Finally, **private individuals play an important role** in the education system as founders and owners of schools. Of the schools surveyed for this study, 65% were owned by private individuals. In many

⁴¹ UNICEF, 2011. Evaluation Report Impact Evaluation of the Community Education Committee Mobiliser Programme in Somaliland, Puntland and South/Central Somalia.

UNICEF has supported the Ministry-led Mobilisers' Programmes since its inception in 2004 in Somaliland and Puntland. In Central and Southern Somalia, Regional Education Umbrellas work through local organizations to support teachers and CECs in a similar way.

⁴² SMCs are active across the world and serve to increase accountability by involving parents and the community at large in school management.

⁴³ UNICEF, 2011. Evaluation Report Impact Evaluation of the Community Education Committee Mobiliser Programme in Somaliland, Puntland and South/Central Somalia.

instances, these individuals were members of the diaspora who then left the school's management to the umbrella associations or local communities.

INTERNATIONAL ACTORS

Key international stakeholders include bilateral and multilateral donors, national development agencies and international non-governmental organizations (INGOs). Multilateral agencies such as the European Union (EU), the World Bank, and the United Nations' (UN) constituent agencies – especially UNICEF – tend to provide **financial support, capacity-building, and strategic direction**. INGOs, the two most active of which are CARE International and Save the Children, often serve as implementing partners for grants to the education sector.

The multi-stakeholder funded **Global Partnership for Education (GPE)**, which has contributed over USD 32 million to the education sector since 2012, is among the key sources of international assistance. Examples of specific programs include the '**Go-2-School**' initiative to increase primary enrolment, the British-led '**Girls Education Challenge**' to promote female education, and the Qatari '**Educate a Child**' program to increase access to and quality of education. More information on international stakeholders and programs can be found in Annex 1 'Background Information'.

2.4. STUDY METHODOLOGY

This section presents a **brief overview** of the methodology employed to collect, process, and analyze data presented in this report. For additional details, please refer to Annex 2 'Methodology'. The list of literature consulted for this report can be found in Annex 3 'Literature'.

A **mixed-method approach** was used combining quantitative and qualitative methods (Table 2). This approach allowed information to be collected from various sources and triangulate findings.

Table 2. Methods used during study on non-state education in Somalia

Method	Description	Sample Size
Quantitative survey	Structured interviews with headmasters of schools employing a close-ended tool to gather information at the school level. Major themes covered in the questionnaire include school management and ownership, cooperation with the government, school finances, quality of education, and infrastructure and learning materials.	170 schools
Focus group discussions (FGDs)	Semi-structured discussions with parents, teachers and students at schools in each of the surveyed locations. FGDs served to gather qualitative insights and triangulate findings from the quantitative survey.	27 FGDs
Key informant interviews (KIIs)	Semi-structured interviews with government officials, education experts, and private education stakeholders. KIIs served to gather information on the structure and state of Somalia's education system.	15 KIIs (+ 2 formative interviews)

The **design of the sampling approach** was driven by the objectives of the study, as listed above, but also by the need to accommodate and compensate for the overall lack of reliable school-level data in Somalia. During the inception period, it became clear that **existing school-level data**, provided by the government and the dominant non-state actors, was **not sufficiently comprehensive on its own to furnish a sampling frame** on either the countrywide or local level. To generate an adequate sampling

frame and ensure the representativeness of the survey results, enumerators were therefore required to **verify the location and basic characteristics of each school** in the surveyed area.

In light of these challenges and the relatively small sample of 170 schools, the decision was taken to focus the survey on **high-density areas** where a diverse representation of schools could be found. As seen in Figure 2, **four urban and peri-urban locations** were chosen across Somalia: **Bosasso** and **Garowe** (Puntland), **Kismayo** (Jubbaland), and **Mogadishu** (Benadir Regional Administration). Information on each of the surveyed locations is presented below:

Figure 2. Surveyed locations

- ▶ **Mogadishu is the capital and most populous city of Somalia** with a diverse population of 1,280,939 inhabitants.⁴⁴ It is predominantly urbanized with many informal settlements. As major economic hub, it attracts large numbers of IDPs from the regions in southern and central Somalia,⁴⁵ as well as returning members of the diaspora. The security situation is poor, with violence carried out by Al-Shabaab on a regular basis. Although the extremist group officially withdrew from the city in 2011, they maintain strongholds in at least two neighborhoods. Despite this, the economy is booming, with elites focusing on the service sector, on trade (charcoal especially), telecommunications, and money transfer services.⁴⁶
- ▶ **Kismayo is the largest city of Jubbaland** with 172,861 inhabitants. The city used to be a hub for Al-Shabaab, until a military offensive by Somali National Army (SNA) and troops of the African Union took the town in 2012.⁴⁷ The regional government is not yet fully established, and the city suffers from a lack of law enforcement.⁴⁸ Many more rural parts of Jubbaland are either under Al-Shabaab control or managed through the federal government. The MoECHE

⁴⁴ All population estimates in this section are drawn for the 2014 UNFPA Population Estimation Survey.

⁴⁵ Rift Valley Institute, 2017. Land Matters in Mogadishu: Settlement, ownership and displacement in a contested city.

⁴⁶ World Bank. 2017. Somali Economic Update. Mobilizing Domestic Revenue to Rebuild Somalia.

⁴⁷ AMISOM, 2013. Sector II Profile: Kismayo.

⁴⁸ OCPV, 2015. Kismayo District Conflict and Security Assessment Report - 2015. The source of violence is tied to land disputes, revenge killings, power struggles and family disputes (ibid.).

coordinates and implements education delivery in the parts of Jubbaland that it has access to. Kismayo's economy relies on agricultural and charcoal production, livestock, and fishery.

- **Both Bosasso and Garowe are cities in Puntland**, which claimed semi-autonomous status in 1998, breaking with the unstable transitional government in Somalia, before being integrated as a federal member state of the newly forming Somali federal state in 2014.⁴⁹ Although, in comparison to southern Somalia, Puntland has experienced relative stability, the lack of law enforcement and governmental capacity remain a major issue.⁵⁰ **Bosasso is the coastal commercial capital** of Puntland, with an estimated population of 471,785 inhabitants. Its economy is based on livestock, small-scale farming, fishing, and imports and exports through the port.⁵¹ **Garowe is the administrative capital** of Puntland, with an estimated population of 138,929 people with a security apparatus that is described as sufficiently operational.⁵² Its economy concentrates on livestock, telecommunication services, *khat*, and small-scale enterprises.

As the chosen sampling approach focuses on high-density areas, rural schools are not equally represented in the study. Nevertheless, the results of this research bear high relevance to the Somali education sector: government statistics indicate that 75% of students in Somalia are enrolled at urban schools.⁵³ In addition, a total of **14 schools located in rural and peri-urban areas** around the surveyed cities were also sampled to provide a comparison group. Findings on rural/urban differences are presented in the Focus Box 5 at the end of Section 3.5.

2.5. SCHOOL TYPOLOGY

LACK OF ACCEPTED TYPOLOGY

Schools in Somalia are **managed** and **funded** in **complex ways** that often involve more than one stakeholder, and multiple bodies can claim ownership over a school.⁵⁴ So far, this highly fragmented environment has **failed to produce a school typology** unanimously accepted by all key state and non-state stakeholders. The current policy framework does not offer a school typology reflective of the current education landscape and, even among stakeholders within the MoECHE, there is **minimal consensus** regarding basic distinctions between what classifies as a private or as a public school.⁵⁵

The **distinction** between **public** and **private** is **key** to the issue of school typology in Somalia. Government officials are likely to maximize the number of 'public' schools in the country by claiming schools housed in buildings constructed by the government before the civil war, in buildings or on the land owned by the government, or schools that receive any financial contribution from the government irrespective of its size. This tendency on behalf of the government to claim wide ownership of schools currently managed or funded by others is disputed by many, including umbrella associations and other actors, who feel they are the rightful owners of schools they manage and fund.

⁴⁹ IGAD, 2014. Agreement between the Federal Government of Somalia and Puntland State of Somalia.

⁵⁰ The source of violence is mainly tied to land disputes, youth-based violence, clan-related conflicts and gender-based violence (OCVP, 2015, Garowe District. Conflict and Security Assessment Report - 2015), as well as piracy that is feared to spike again after no incident recorded in recent years (Hassan, 2017. Somali regional anti-piracy chief says sacked over illegal fishing comments, *Reuters*; Craze, 2017. Only a strong state can put a stop to piracy in Somalia, *The Wire*).

⁵¹ Ministry of Planning and Statistics (Puntland State of Somalia), 2003. Puntland Facts and Figures.

⁵² OCVP, Garowe District. Conflict and Security Assessment Report, 2015

⁵³ MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

⁵⁴ Among many others, see MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

⁵⁵ Interviews with government officials in Mogadishu, April 2018

The second interpretation of the word ‘public’ sometimes encountered among government officials is that of any school that is ‘**open to public**’, i.e. that is **free** and is **accessible** to all irrespective of their socio-economic (or other) background. Not only does this interpretation not account for who owns, manages or funds the school; there also appear to be relatively few such schools in the country.

In addition to the government and umbrella (non-state) officials interviewed for this study, **headmasters** of the surveyed schools were asked what makes a school ‘public’. Their responses are shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Reasons headmasters consider their school to be public (n = 43, multiple response)

The lack of a clear consensus on what differentiates state and non-state schools, and more importantly, what rights and responsibilities building or land ownership, as well as running the day-to-day management implies, has led to substantial **tensions between the state and non-state** stakeholders. According to some of the interviewed key respondents, the current tendency of the government to seek involvement in the management of schools housed in government buildings but not otherwise supported, is symptomatic of the growing effort to return to the **pre-war education** system.⁵⁶ Umbrella associations and other private entities feel that this new direction neglects the important roles and successes they have had in managing and supporting schools across the country.

PROPOSED TYPOLOGY

Although the initial typology proposed in this study’s inception report was useful in ensuring the diversity of the survey sample (see Annex 4 ‘Additional Information’), it did not adequately match how headmasters and key informants **defined** schools, especially with respect to the **role of the government**. Therefore, the **initial typology** has been **amended** to more accurately capture the Somali educational ecosystem in its current state.

As management tends to be less disputed than ownership and more directly impacts the overall school environment and performance, **management** was taken as the **basis for the school typology** used in this report. There appears to be **consensus** among key stakeholders **on what defines school**

⁵⁶ In some cases, this has resulted in the government insisting that schools change their current name back to the name the given by the government before the Somali civil war, despite private education providers having managed and funded the schools for 20 years. This decision was taken by the Ministers of Education and the DGs of the MoEs of all states without consulting non-state education providers. (Communiqué issued in April 2018, based on a MoU between FGS and FMS, signed in September 2016)

management. Consequently, and for the purpose of this report, any actor that takes on the following responsibilities is defined as participating in **management**.⁵⁷

- 1) Teaching and administrative **staffing** decisions
- 2) Decisions that dictate the day-to-day **operations** of the school
- 3) Decisions related to the school **curriculum** at the primary school level⁵⁸
- 4) Determining the amount of school **fees** charged

Four categories of schools based on school management have been proposed as shown in Table 3. **‘Public’** was dropped in favor of **‘government’** as surveyed headmasters showed varying levels of understanding of what is considered ‘public’ in Somalia.⁵⁹ In order to differentiate between schools managed solely by the government and those managed by both state and non-state actors, a new category **‘mixed-management school’** was added. Additionally, a new category of **‘umbrella schools’** was added to represent the significant role of umbrella associations in directly managing schools. Finally, **‘independent schools’** consist of all schools that are managed independently of both the government and umbrella associations.

Table 3. Proposed new school typology

School type	Description
Government schools	Schools managed exclusively by the government, as represented by the MoECHE or the state-level MoE.
Mixed-management schools	Schools managed by the government in cooperation with a non-state actor. Non-state actors include local community, religious groups, (I)NGOs, umbrella associations or private individuals.
Umbrella schools	Schools managed exclusively by an umbrella association.
Independent schools	Schools managed by a non-state actor other than an umbrella association. ⁶⁰ Non-state actors include local community, religious groups, (I)NGOs or private individuals.

The following characteristics were assessed as **not suitable** for the purpose of developing a typology:

- ▶ **Ownership:** as mentioned above, the definition of what constitutes ownership is contested between state and non-state stakeholders. See Section 3.3 for more details.
- ▶ **Funding:** nearly all schools rely predominantly on tuition fees, including government schools.
- ▶ **Curriculum:** according to the survey findings, most schools at least claim to be following the government-issued curriculum. This includes the **IQSs** that teach the secular curriculum in one shift, and Quranic studies in the other. Majority of schools include Islamic studies in their curriculum.

Although the proposed typology is judged to be the best fit for the current education landscape from the available options, it has the following **limitations**:

⁵⁷ According to interviews with government officials, CEC, and teachers

⁵⁸ At secondary level, the curriculum is regulated by the MoECHE

⁵⁹ In future policy documents, action plans, or research, it should not be assumed that the label ‘public’ is synonymous with ‘government’. It is recommended that the label ‘government school’ be used when referring to schools affiliated with the government, as it more closely reflects the Somali term ‘dowladda’.

⁶⁰ Note that independent schools can still be associated with umbrellas. For details, see Section 2.3.

- ▶ As specified above, the **IQSs** are not included as a separate category, as it would make them the only school distinguished by a module added to the curriculum. However, differences between IQS and secular schools are explored at the end of Section 3.5.
- ▶ The typology does not differentiate between **primary** and **secondary** schools. Since most surveyed schools combine both primary and secondary levels this was not judged to present a serious obstacle.
- ▶ The proposed typology presents, by definition, a **simplified** version of the current Somali educational landscape.

3. FINDINGS

3.1. OVERVIEW OF SURVEY SAMPLE

Key Takeaways

- Most schools are **combined primaries and secondaries**.
- Based on the proposed typology, **Mogadishu** is dominated by **umbrella schools** (59%), **Kismayo** by **government schools** (60%), and **Bosasso** by **independent schools** (91%). In **Garowe**, all types except umbrella schools are present, but **mixed management schools** are most common (35%).
- The median gender ratio is 156 boys per 100 girls, indicating a **large gender gap**.

SCHOOL TYPES

Most schools included in the sample **offer both primary and secondary education** (61%). The remainder are separate primaries (31%) and secondaries (8%). **Nearly all are day schools**, with only a single boarding school being surveyed, and most operate in two shifts (79%). A geographic breakdown of **surveyed schools according to the proposed typology** is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Regional distribution of survey sample according to new typology (n = 170)

- Overall, **independent schools** (39% of the sample) and **umbrella schools** (36%) are **most common**. Government schools (15%) and mixed-management schools (10%) make up the remainder of the sample.
- Umbrella-managed** schools were only found in **Mogadishu** where they accounted for 59% of the sample. However, schools that are not directly managed by the umbrellas but only **associated** with them, are found in every location.
- Government** schools are most common in **Kismayo** where they represent 60% of the sample.
- Mixed-management schools** are most common in **Garowe** (35%), another state-level administrative center.
- Bosasso**, the fast-growing commercial center of Puntland that is nevertheless far removed from the state capital, showed the highest proportion of **independent schools** (91%).

The **regional differences** shown in Figure 4 appear to be genuine and **not driven by the sampling approach** adopted for this research. As described in the chapter on methodology, verification was conducted in every location where schools were either physically visited and mapped (Mogadishu) or contacted (remaining locations). All headmasters contacted during **verification** were asked to list other schools in their vicinity to ensure completeness of the sampling frame, and to avoid the risk of the Education Management Information System (EMIS) or umbrella-issued lists of schools dominating the sample frame and skewing the sample composition.

STUDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

The **median school size** across all school types is **391 students**. The surveyed schools are all **relatively similar in size**, with most school types having between 300 and 400 students, as displayed in Table 4 below. **Umbrella schools tend to be the largest** in size, and **government schools the smallest**. However, **schools are often overcrowded** and do not have the facilities to accommodate the large number of students. This is discussed later in in Section 3.5 'Education Quality'.

Table 4. School size and student gender ratio by school type

	Overall statistics				Median by school type			
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Government schools	Mixed-management schools	Umbrella schools	Independent schools
Number of students (n = 162)	541	56	2905	391	301	358	400	380
Males per 100 females (n = 149)	198	0	1850	156	133	167	184	138

Also seen in Table 4, **there is a large gender gap at all school types** with a median gender ratio of 156 male students per 100 females. All schools in the sample are co-ed with the exception of two girls' schools. Geographically, the **gender gap is smallest in Garowe** (with a median of gender ratio of 117:100), and **largest in Mogadishu** (184:100). In both Bosasso and Kismayo the ratio is 135:100. The reasons for and implications of this gender gap are discussed later in Section 3.6 'Accessibility & Inclusivity'.

At 90% of schools, the most common **professions** among the **parents** are **day laborer** and **vendor**. These professions are common among parents at all school types. The remainder of schools are mostly attended by children of farmers (2%), government staff (1%), NGO staff (1%), or a mixture of professions (6%).

3.2. SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

Key Takeaways

- **Umbrella** associations, local **communities**, and the **government** are the most common managers of schools.
- The proposed typology reflects **regional differences** in management.

Since the proposed typology is based on management, it reflects the management structure of surveyed schools (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Management by school type (n = 170, multiple response)

By definition **government and umbrella schools** are managed exclusively by their eponymous stakeholder. **Mixed-management schools are managed jointly** by the government and the local community (in 47% of the cases), the government and an umbrella (47%) or the government, the local community and an (I)NGO (6%). **Independent schools** are mostly managed by the **local community** and **(I)NGOs**. This may be the result of individual community members either founding a school directly or setting up an NGO to do so.

The data show **significant differences in school management by location**:⁶¹ in Mogadishu the majority of schools are managed by an umbrella association (59%); in Bosasso by the local community (77%); in Garowe by the local community (35%) or the government (29%); in Kismayo by the government (60%).

Schools managed by the **government** are less prevalent in **Bosasso** than in other survey locations – the only one that is not a regional administration center. **88% of (I)NGO-managed schools are in Mogadishu**, representing 20% of the city's schools, possibly because Mogadishu is more easily accessible to international stakeholders. Only two schools are **managed by religious groups** (both of which are in Bosasso), which instead concentrate on **Quranic schools** that do not have a secular curriculum and are not part of the formal education system.

Overall, the **umbrella associations** are involved in the management of the greatest number of schools (41%), but schools managed exclusively by umbrella associations are only located in Mogadishu. As discussed in Section 2.3, other schools can however **associate** themselves with an umbrella while keeping their management arrangements separate. Such associated schools comprise 66% of the overall sample, across all school types and locations.

3.3. SCHOOL OWNERSHIP

Key Takeaways

⁶¹ $\chi^2 (33, N = 170) = 210.11, p < 0.001$

- **Ownership of schools is contested** between state and non-state stakeholders. The government is likely to claim ownership based on construction or ownership of the school building, even if the school is privately operated.
- Within the survey sample, **private individuals are the most common** school owners (ownership stake in 65% of schools) while 20% of schools have multiple owners.
- In 53% of cases, **different actors own and manage** the school. This is especially common for umbrella schools, which are usually privately owned.

DEFINITION OF SCHOOL OWNERSHIP IN THE CURRENT SOMALI CONTEXT

The **definition of school ownership** remains **contested** in the education sector in Somalia. While most interviewed stakeholders agreed that an active role in **school management** and a contribution to the **school funding** give an actor right to claim at least **partial ownership**, there is a tendency among the government officials to also emphasize the relevance of ownership of the **school building or the land** upon which it is built. The umbrella representatives, on the other hand, tend to speak less of infrastructure and more of the **design and regulation of the school**, as well as of the school **brand**, all of which are areas through which umbrella associations exercise influence among their own schools. As explained in the previous section, this can lead to **tensions** between the government and non-government education stakeholders.

To gain further insight into the issue of ownership, headmasters of surveyed schools were asked to identify who owns their school and on what grounds. Figure 6 shows that **headmasters prioritized cost-coverage** over building and land ownership when assigning school ownership.⁶²

Figure 6. Features of school ownership according to headmasters (n = 170, multiple response)

OVERVIEW OF OWNERSHIP

- ▶ **Most schools** are owned by **private individuals** (65%), according to the interviewed headmasters.
- ▶ **50% of schools** are owned **exclusively by private individuals**, and an additional 15% include private individuals as part owners in combination with other owners.
- ▶ **20% of schools have multiple owners**. The three most common combinations of hybrid ownership found through the quantitative survey are:

⁶² Management was not offered as one of the responses to this close-ended question posed to the headmasters, however interviews with stakeholders indicate that an active role in management also plays a role in assigning ownership.

- Community and private individuals
 - Private individuals and umbrellas
 - Government and community
- Many schools are **not managed and owned by the same actor(s)**. This is the case for just over half of the schools surveyed (53%). In most of these cases (64%) the school is managed by an umbrella association and owned by private individuals.

OWNERSHIP BY SCHOOL TYPE

Figure 7 shows the **breakdown of school ownership**, as identified by the headmasters, **by school type** based on the typology presented in the previous chapter. As explained in the previous section, the proposed school typology is based on management rather than ownership, in part due to the lack of consensus on the definition of ownership. As headmasters were given the opportunity to identify multiple owners, the figure reflects the **overall frequency** with which different owner categories were **identified** and a number of responses that is therefore larger than the number of surveyed schools.

Figure 7. School ownership by school type (n = 170, multiple response)

- All schools **managed by the government** (and therefore defined as ‘government schools’) were also described as **owned by the government**, most of them exclusively (92%). The remaining 8% were identified as partially owned by the local community.
- The ownership structure of **mixed-management schools** most frequently **includes the government** (in 47% of surveyed schools) and/or **private individuals** (also 47%). Only 12% of mixed-management schools have a hybrid ownership structure.
- The majority of **umbrella schools** were described as **owned by private individuals** exclusively (85%). Although the operations of the umbrella schools tend to be managed directly by the association, including the appointment of key staff, only a few were described as being owned by the umbrella (3%). For more on how umbrellas are structured and operate, see Section 2.3.
- **Independent schools** are mostly **owned by private individuals** exclusively (37%), the **local community** exclusively (25%), or a **hybrid** combination of both (25%). A very limited number of schools were described as independently managed but with partial government ownership, as a result of the government ownership of the school building (1.8%).

OWNERSHIP BY LOCATION

Figure 8 shows the **breakdown** of school ownership **by survey location**. Similar to the breakdown of ownership by school type above, Figure 8 is based on a multiple response question and therefore reflects the **overall frequency** with which the headmasters have **identified** a particular type of ownership rather than the total number of schools surveyed.

Figure 8. School ownership by location (n = 170, multiple response)

- ▶ In **Mogadishu**, the large majority of schools are reportedly owned by **private individuals exclusively** (85%); the remaining schools have a hybrid ownership.
- ▶ In **Bosasso**, just under half of the schools have a **hybrid ownership** comprised of both the **local community** and **private individuals**. An additional 31% are owned exclusively by the community; the remaining schools have hybrid ownership of government and community, community, private individuals and (I)NGOs, and community and (I)NGOs.
- ▶ In **Garowe**, most schools are owned by the **government** exclusively (59%); 24% are owned by the local community exclusively; the remaining schools have hybrid ownership.

In **Kismayo**, most schools are owned exclusively by the **government** (53%). 20% are owned exclusively by the local community, and 20% by private individuals. The remaining schools have hybrid ownerships by the government and the community (7%).

3.4. SCHOOL FUNDING

Key Takeaways

- **School fees are the most important source of funding** for schools in Somalia. Within the survey sample, 89% of schools rely on school fees as a source of funding.
- **Government funding is limited**, and generally restricted to government-managed schools.
- Most of the MoECHE's funding is provided by the international community.

- Revenue from school fees is often insufficient to cover expenses, the largest of which is payroll, meaning that **many schools operate at a deficit**.

MAJOR FUNDING STREAMS

According to the MoECHE, **school fees account for 70%** of the overall education **funding** to primary and secondary schools in Somalia, while **government funding** accounts for only **4%**. Additionally, **(I)NGOs** are said to contribute **10 – 20%**, **communities 5%**, and the **diaspora** another **5%**.

Five major funding streams supporting primary and secondary schools in Somalia were identified in the course of this research:

- ▶ Student fees
- ▶ Government funds
- ▶ (I)NGOs
- ▶ Local community
- ▶ Bilateral/multilateral funding

Less important sources of funding include umbrella associations, private individuals, and religious groups. Sources of funding are disaggregated by school type in Table 5 and by location in Table 6.

Table 5. Percentage of schools receiving funding from each source, by school type (n = 170)

Funding source	All schools	School type			
		Government	Mixed-management	Umbrella	Independent
School fees	89%	52%	94%	100%	93%
Government	13%	60%	12%	2%	6%
INGO	10%	20%	24%	0%	12%
Local community	9%	12%	18%	2%	12%
Umbrella	7%	0%	0%	16%	3%
Local NGO	4%	8%	0%	0%	7%
Private Individual(s)	3%	4%	0%	5%	1%
Religious organization	1%	0%	6%	0%	0%

Table 6. Percentage of schools receiving funding from each source, by location (n = 170)

Funding source	All schools	Location			
		Bosasso	Garowe	Mogadishu	Kismayo
School fees	89%	91%	94%	90%	73%
Government	13%	6%	18%	13%	27%
INGO	10%	23%	18%	0%	40%
Local community	9%	17%	18%	1%	33%
Umbrella	7%	0%	0%	12%	0%
Local NGO	4%	0%	0%	5%	13%
Private Individual(s)	3%	0%	0%	5%	0%
Religious organization	1%	0%	0%	1%	0%

School fees are the most common source of funding for schools in Somalia, with 89% of surveyed schools being at least partially funded by fees. All school types may charge school fees, although

government-managed schools are less likely to do so: 52% of government schools charge fees, compared to 94% of other schools. Although it is unclear why certain government schools charge fees and others do not, there are indications from non-state actors that this is related to the demographics of the school's location. Fees tend to be lower in poorer neighborhoods and may be reduced during times of economic hardship, conflict or drought.

The average annual **volume of funding from school fees** is approximately USD 56,600 per school at the surveyed schools⁶³. This figure ranges from nothing at schools that do not charge fees to USD 755,300 at a large independent school in Garowe. Since fees are charged per student, the amount of funding from fees varies as a function of school size. Schools are highly **dependent on** school fees for funding, and therefore dependent on the **parents' financial capacity** as well.

Only a relatively **small number** of surveyed schools receive **financial support** from the government (**13%**), with only **4%** receiving funding **exclusively** from the government. Government support tends to cover or contribute towards the school's **running costs, teacher salaries, and equipment**. However, a large portion of the government funds do not reach the individual schools directly, as they are used to cover the MoECHE's operational costs, school supervision, certificate exams, and pay teacher incentives at government schools.

The **government's inability to provide** a stable and significant source of **funding** limits its influence over the schools, although influence may be exercised in other ways such as regulation. Most (90%) of the MoECHE funding comes from the **international community**⁶⁴.

The **European Union (EU)** is the largest donor, spending **USD 71.5 million** for the period 2014-2020. EU funding supports the **strengthening of public systems for education service delivery**, mainly in form of capacity development of the education sector, the development of curriculum framework, and the implementation of centralized exams.⁶⁵ The EU funds are not disbursed to the individual schools.⁶⁶

According to the interviewed government officials, (I)NGOs fund mainly the **construction and maintenance of infrastructure**, make contributions towards **teacher salaries**, and fund **emergency and special needs**.

In spite of their status as key stakeholders in the education sector, **umbrella associations do not offer substantial funding** towards school operating budgets. They may however provide scholarships and discounted fees for certain students. This implies that their status is based on their roles as important providers and regulators of education rather than as funders of schools.

Also of note, the **average** surveyed school relies on **1.3 funding sources**. **Lack of diversity** in funding sources and **dependence** on parents makes schools more **vulnerable** to disruptions in funding streams and to economic shocks in general. **Government schools** are more likely to have diverse funding sources: **76%** of government schools **receive funds** from sources **other than fees**, while only 47% of mixed-management schools and 33% of independent schools do. This shows that **diversity in ownership and management** does **not** necessarily translate into **diversity in funding**.

⁶³ The overall projected yearly volume of student fees is USD 97,723,692 for primary, and USD 24,475,500 for secondary schools, a total of USD 122,199,192. This is calculated using enrolment figures of primary and secondary students published in the Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022 (tables 55 and 84) and multiplying them by the average school fee charged to primary and respectively secondary students of the 170 schools surveyed for this study.

⁶⁴ Interviews with government stakeholders in Mogadishu, April 2018

⁶⁵ European Union External Action, press release, 03.06.2016, URL: https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/20160603_en.pdf [18.5.2017]

⁶⁶ UNICEF's education cluster received over USD 5.8 million in 2017 for projects in Somalia (UNICEF, Somalia Humanitarian Situation Report, 16.11.2017, URL: https://www.unicef.org/somalia/SOM_sitrep18_15Nov2017.pdf).

Additionally, data was collected on **sources of funding** for the **teacher payrolls**, the main expense for schools. Figure 9 presents the relative importance of each source of funding by school type.

Figure 9. Sources of funding for teacher salaries by school type (n = 170, average per school type)

- ▶ **School fees cover at least 67%** of the teacher payroll for each school type, an average of 87% across all school types.
- ▶ On average, **school fees** contribute the **largest amount** to teacher payroll for **umbrella schools** (95%), and the **smallest amount** of the teacher payroll for **government schools** (67%).
- ▶ **Local communities** contribute **most at the government-managed** schools (6% of the teacher payroll), mixed-management schools (4%) and very little in the case of umbrella schools (1%).
- ▶ **(I)NGO support** also appears to be concentrated on **government-managed schools** (8% of teacher payroll) and mixed-management schools (7%). Independent schools also receive support from NGOs with 4% of teacher payrolls being funded by INGOs and 3% by local NGOs.
- ▶ **Government schools** are the only school type **benefiting** from government funding of the teacher payroll (19%). Additionally, most government schools (60% across all locations)⁶⁷ report receiving any form of funding from the government. Although it is unclear how government funding is allocated, government schools that charge fees are less likely to receive funding than those that do not.⁶⁸ According to respondents, government funding is irregular, leaving schools vulnerable to funding shortages.

EXPENDITURE AND FUNDING GAPS

Figure 10 presents the **expenses**, disaggregated by school type, as reported by the headmasters.

⁶⁷ Government schools in all locations reported government funding, with the exception of the one government school in Bosasso. The small number of government schools within the overall sample should also be noted when considering these findings.

⁶⁸ $\chi^2(1, N = 25) = 9.64, p < 0.01$

Figure 10. Main expenses by school type⁶⁹ (n = 169)

The main cost driver is by far the **payroll**, making up at least **50% of the expenses** across all school types, followed by recurring expenses, such as rent, learning materials, maintenance expenses and utilities. At the **school level, funding for adequate infrastructure is often lacking**. Respondents notably identified major **funding gaps** in terms of **infrastructure**, with many schools lacking sufficient classrooms, chairs, and tables as well as more advanced facilities such as a library or a laboratory. Teachers are paid poorly, if at all,⁷⁰ and funding for adequate and sufficient learning materials, especially textbooks, is often lacking. For details, please refer to Section 3.5.

Significant funding gaps exist across all school types since the main revenue source, **school fees**, is **insufficient** to cover all expenses. Figure 11 contrasts the annual revenue from school fees against the annual overall expenditure, as reported by the headmasters, and thus presents the **gap** that **funding other than fees** must fill in order to avoid a budgetary deficit.⁷¹ On average, school fees cover **74% of school expenditures**. On average, schools spend USD 203 per child annually. Mixed management schools spend the most at USD 302, followed by government and independent schools at USD 228 and 224, respectively, while umbrella schools spend the least (USD 140).

⁶⁹ These expenses exclude rent for the school building, if applicable.

⁷⁰ Interviews with government officials and umbrella associations, as well as discussions with teachers

⁷¹ The revenue from school fees was determined calculating the average primary school fee using information given by the headmasters, then multiplying the average by the total number of primary students per school as reported by the headmasters and multiplying the average secondary school fee by the total number of secondary students per school as reported by the headmasters, and then averaging the result by school type. The expenditure is as reported by headmasters, then averaged by school type.

Figure 11. Average reported annual funding from fees and expenditure by school type (n = 134)

In order **to overcome budget shortfalls**, schools leverage community support, reach out to local and international NGOs working in education, and contact individual businessmen. Some schools also establish their own enterprises to help with funding, for example selling food at canteens, or providing printing and photocopying services. One of the schools under the FENPS umbrella generates additional funding through beekeeping, selling honey to school neighbors, and using the excess money for maintenance of the school's infrastructure. Since this activity proved successful, FENPS plans to extend the business model to more schools in the future. Driven by the chronic lack of funding, **REOs** and **CECs** spend much of their time **fundraising** instead of fulfilling their regular functions and duties,⁷² weakening accountability mechanisms.

3.5. EDUCATION QUALITY

Key Takeaways

- Quality index score-based analysis did not reveal clear differences in quality among school types, although a regression model showed **independent schools** to be **more likely to produce positive educational outcomes**.
- **Teacher** training and **qualifications are not regulated by the government**, with 12% of teachers who have not pursued post-secondary education.
- In addition, teacher performance is affected by **low and inconsistent payment**.
- Although steps have been taken to standardize educational content, schools continue to use a **mix of curricula** and teach in several **different languages**.

EVALUATING QUALITY PERFORMANCE

The overall approach taken to **evaluate education quality** within the scope of this report is centered around **three main criteria**:

- ▶ **Key staff** qualifications, availability and performance

⁷² Interviews with government officials

- **Educational content and outcomes**
- Availability and condition of **physical infrastructure** and **learning materials**

Indicators from each of the components of quality are examined in detail in the following sub-sections.

Additionally, select indicators⁷³ from each category were used to generate a **simple index of overall quality**. For each indicator, schools were awarded between 1 and 3 points based on relative performance. The final index is scored out of 100 to facilitate comparisons between school types. Although the results of **this analysis did not reveal any clear differences between school types** (Figure 12), there nonetheless exists a **wide range in quality between individual schools** as index scores ranged from 44 to 89.

Figure 12. Average education quality index score by school type (n = 170)

To assess the **factors affecting educational outcomes**, outcome indicators (such as the dropout rate) were regressed against a set of indicators of quality and several control variables. School type, location, and gender ratio were among the control factors while the indicators of quality included the student-teacher ratio, presence of a library, and teacher salaries. Using **stepwise regression**⁷⁴, models were refined by dropping variables that did not significantly explain differences in outcomes. In several models, **location and school type were found to be significant** determinants of educational outcomes. Based on this analysis, outcomes appear to be **best at independent schools**. Regionally, there is limited evidence that schools in Puntland produce better outcomes. A larger sample size would be helpful in confirming the significance of these findings. Further details on the results of this analysis are available in Annex 4 'Additional Information'.

KEY STAFF QUALIFICATIONS, AVAILABILITY AND PERFORMANCE

Information on Headmasters

Nearly all headmasters interviewed **completed some form of post-secondary education** (98%), including 83% with a university degree. Many also received **additional training** to fulfill their administrative roles (61%). This training commonly focused on management, administration, and leadership skills. Finally, the profession appears to be **male-dominated** as only 3 of the 170 headmasters interviewed during the survey were women.

⁷³ The list of indicators used can be found in Annex 4 'Additional Information'.

⁷⁴ Additional details on this analysis, including variables used in the model, can be found in Annex 2 'Methodology'.

Teacher Availability and Characteristics

Across all schools the **median student-teacher ratio is 28:1** and the average of 37:1 is in line with the FGS's national estimate of 33:1⁷⁵ (Table 7). Although the median is fairly low and in line with what is recommended for emergency recovery contexts;⁷⁶ it should be approached with caution. Parents, students, and teachers often expressed that **there are too few teachers** and in some cases the student-teacher ratio reaches 250:1.

Furthermore, despite the number of teachers being significantly related to the number of students at the school,⁷⁷ the number of students increases faster than the number of teachers. This means that **larger schools are more likely to be understaffed**.⁷⁸ In addition to affecting the quality of education, this creates a more challenging working environment for teachers themselves.

Table 7. Availability and gender ratio of teachers

	Overall statistics				Median by school type			
	Mean	Min	Max	Median	Government schools	Mixed-management schools	Umbrella schools	Independent schools
Number of teachers (n = 169)	17	4	101	13	15	15	12	12
Student-teacher ratio (n = 153)	37	10	252	28	32	24	31	28
Males per 100 females (n = 116)	677	117	5900	471	370	358	400	633

As with the student body, **there is also a gender disparity among staff**. On average, **schools employ 6.8 times more male teachers** than females. The **imbalance is greater in secondary schools** since older students may show less respect to female teachers,⁷⁹ causing women to gravitate towards primary schools. Conversely, men may find it more difficult to handle young children so are more likely to opt to teach secondary. According to a teacher trainer at the SNU:

"Many female students at our university decide to take the path of primary school teaching, even though it is less well remunerated. This is because female teachers find it hard to get secondary students to listen to them and respect them."

Female teachers can be important role models for girls and inspire them to complete their studies.⁸⁰ The scarcity of female teachers in Somalia could therefore impact educational outcomes for girls.

⁷⁵ MoECHE, 2017, Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022

⁷⁶ The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (2010) suggests a ratio of 30-40 students per teacher to be appropriate for chronic crisis or recovery contexts. https://www.unicef.org/eapro/Minimum_Standards_English_2010.pdf

⁷⁷ Linear regression ($F_{1,160} = 38.58$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.19$)

⁷⁸ The coefficient of correlation between the student-teacher ratio and the number of students is 0.70

⁷⁹ Interview with a member of the SNU teacher training department

⁸⁰ UNESCO. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001459/145990e.pdf>

Teacher Training and Qualifications

Teachers in Somalia may receive pre-service and in-service training. **Pre-service training** can cover lesson planning, teaching methods, and classroom management, as well as helping teachers develop knowledge of subject matter. **In-service training** allows teachers to receive feedback on their performance and advance their professional development.

Figure 13 shows the pre-service qualifications of teachers across school types. Overall, **12% of teachers have not pursued any post-secondary studies**. On average, **mixed-management schools have the least qualified teachers**: 30% have no post-secondary education and only 36% have a bachelor's degree. **Independent schools have the highest qualified teachers** with 75% of teachers having the highest qualification, a bachelor's degree, a further 15% with a college degree, and less than 10% with no post-secondary education.

Figure 13. Teacher qualifications by school type (n = 130)

As exemplified by the employment of unqualified teachers, the **qualifications necessary to work as a teacher are not regulated by the government**.⁸¹ In theory, the Curriculum and Quality Assurance Department within the MoECHE can withdraw teaching licenses received from training institutions but, in practice, this is not done due to the shortage of teachers and a lack of funding needed for enforcement. Additionally, **no unified teacher training curriculum** exists at pre-service training institutions.⁸²

Nevertheless, parents and students perceive **quality of education** to be **linked to the qualifications of teachers**, as described by a student in Bosasso:

“This school delivers good education because the teachers of the school are qualified and very hardworking - most of them have master’s degrees and even those with only a diploma are capable of teaching the students well.”

A parent in Garowe stressed the importance of subject matter expertise:

“Knowledge of subject matter is important. This may seem obvious, but it is sometimes overlooked. The teachers of this school have incredible knowledge of and enthusiasm for the

⁸¹ Interviews with MoECHE and SNU representatives

⁸² MoU between Faculty of Education at the University of Helsinki and SNU in April 2017 to re-develop and update the current programme for teacher training, including developing a shared curriculum, but so far not been put forward.

subject matter they are teaching. They are prepared to answer questions and keep the material interesting for the students.”

In-service training is offered irregularly at some schools during school holidays, depending on funds available; about half of the schools reported that an in-service training session had taken place in the past year (54% overall). These appear to be more common in Puntland than in the southern FMSs. As described by a teacher in Bosasso:

“During the holidays, the Ministry of Education calls upon teachers from various subjects and offers trainings that are beneficial to them and to the students. These include leadership skills, class management, practicals, and written skills.”

There is a **lack of sufficient** and adequately resourced **pre-service and in-service teacher training institutions** across the federal states. **Limited institutional capacity contributes to a shortage of teachers** exemplified by the high student-teacher ratios recorded at many schools. According to informants, **top-performing teaching applicants tend to be recruited to the secondary level**, leaving the remainder to teach primary. **The federal government is building new training centers** that are to be managed and supervised by the existing ones, rather than increasing the capacity of existing facilities.⁸³ Although this option may be costlier, it has the potential of improving access to training across the country.

Teacher Recruitment, Contracting, and Remuneration

Most schools have **an internally defined teacher recruitment process** during which the applicant’s qualifications and knowledge are considered, according to key informants. **The degree of formality of the process varies** from a simple review of applicants’ CVs to standardized testing. Additionally, some schools require proof that the applicant has received a teaching certification. **At some schools, CECs and parents are involved in the recruitment process** – usually if there is a practical assessment of teaching capability.

The recruitment process is more regulated in government schools. At schools where the government is not a primary manager, owners and managers hire teachers at their own discretion. **Only a few schools indicated that they do not have a formal recruitment process**, instead accepting any willing applicant. As previously discussed, the selection process at teacher training institutions results in the less qualified candidates teaching primary and the better-qualified candidates becoming secondary school teachers.

Focus Box 3 below presents the perspectives of teachers on the recruitment process.

Focus Box 3. The path to becoming a teacher in Somalia

The path to becoming a teacher in Somalia

Although there is no clear path to becoming a teacher in Somalia, it may begin with form of post-secondary training. Teacher training programs are still being developed in the southern and central states but are better established in Puntland:

“Like teachers throughout the country, teachers in Puntland are licensed by the institution they graduated from. Most receive training and professional development through Garowe Technical College known as GTECH and East Africa University in Bosasso.” – Former Puntland government official

⁸³ Interview with a representative of the SNU

The next step is to find a teaching job. Some applicants are fortunate and use their connections to land a job.

“I graduated from this school, and one day management called me and told me that they wanted to hire me as teacher.” – Teacher in Mogadishu

For most, however, becoming a teacher requires applying to a vacancy and successfully completing a selection process.

“When the school needs teachers, they advertise on the radio. Teachers send their CV to the management office and are interviewed. If they have enough experience, they are hired. The school managers mostly like to hire Lafole graduates.”⁸⁴ – Teacher in Mogadishu

In addition to reviewing candidates’ experience and interviews, the recruitment process often includes a practical assessment of teaching skills.

“During my recruitment, I was taken to teach several classes of the same level. After the lesson students commented on my techniques, and finally I got employed.” – Teacher in Bosasso

In Puntland, the government may be involved in the hiring process.

“I was interviewed by a panel from the Ministry during my hiring process.” – Teacher in Garowe

This is also the case for public schools in Kismayo.

“Advertisements, shortlisting, and interviews are done by a commission of civil servants and the Ministry of Education, but only for public schools.” – Teacher in Kismayo

“[...] for private schools, every school has its own way of employing teachers - you submit your CV to school managers and they decide whether or not to call you for an interview.” – Teacher in Kismayo

Figures 14 and 15 show the average teacher salary by school type. Teachers who have a teaching certificate or diploma earn between USD 50 and 350 a month. **Teacher salaries vary significantly both by teacher qualification and school type.**⁸⁵ **Teachers with diplomas or teaching certificates tend to earn more** than teachers without a certificate. The average **salary of teachers at mixed-management schools is significantly higher** compared to other school types at both the primary and secondary level. In group discussions, the **teachers from government schools indicated that they earned less** than teachers working at private schools.

⁸⁴ Lafole University is a well-respected teacher training institute in Afgoye District.

⁸⁵ Two-way ANOVA: Main effect of school type ($F_{3,430} = 12.23$, $p < 0.001$); Main effect of teacher qualification ($F_{3,430} = 11.74$, $p < 0.05$); post-hoc Tukey test ($p < 0.05$ for all pairwise comparisons involving mixed management schools)

Figure 14. Average monthly salary of primary teachers by school type (n = 123)

Figure 15. Average monthly salary of secondary teachers by school type (n = 96)

Teacher salaries are often referred to as 'incentives' since **they are well below subsistence level**. The interviews also indicated that the **salary payments to teachers are irregular** and that some teachers go for several months without payment. In an attempt to increase compensation, **some schools offer monetary incentives to high-performing and motivated teachers**. School management may also assist teachers in times of need as a repayment for their loyalty.⁸⁶ Additionally, **most teachers at the schools surveyed were on long-term contracts** (only 22% of teachers were on short-term contracts). This does not vary significantly between different school types.

Nonetheless, **low teacher salaries** affect the appeal of the profession. As seen in Table 8, remuneration is comparable to unskilled professions such as a day laborer or market vendor. In addition, the unpaid years required to become a qualified teacher present a major **opportunity cost** to young Somalis and therefore greatly diminish the allure of teaching.

⁸⁶ Discussions with teachers

Table 8. Remuneration of teacher compared to other professions⁸⁷

Position	Monthly salary
Teacher with diploma	USD 50-350
Medical doctor	USD 1500-2500
Civil servant (higher level)	USD 500-2000
Civil servant (lower level)	USD 150-450
Nurse	USD 250-450
Day laborer	USD 210-600
Vegetable vendor	USD 100-450
Livestock vendor	USD 300-400

Teacher Performance

Low pay is a challenge for working teachers and **affects morale, motivation, and performance**. Consequently, **teacher absenteeism** is a **widespread issue** in Somalia.⁸⁸ One responsibility of **CECs**, if they are in place, is to **monitor teacher absenteeism**. However, since teachers are paid poorly, if at all, the **school management has little leverage over the teachers' presence** other than appealing to their morale.

According to the headmasters, **most schools (91%) provide some sort of supervision for teachers**. This can entail classroom observations where teachers are assessed and given feedback on their performance. Teachers can also be provided guidance on class management, lesson planning, and teaching methods. However, **in group discussions many teachers claimed they do not receive supervision or guidance**. In Puntland, graduates from the Garowe Teacher Education College (GTEC) are visited to provide guidance when they start their work.⁸⁹ Focus Box 4 presents teachers' perspectives on the challenges of being a teacher in Somalia.

Focus Box 4. Life as a teacher in Somalia

Life as a teacher in Somalia

Across Somalia, teaching is a challenging profession. The education system is still recovering from the effects of the civil war and remains highly under resourced, creating difficult working conditions for teachers:

"The lack of teaching materials, textbooks, and mathematical instruments, as well as the school environment and working conditions, diminish teachers' effectiveness, their growth and development, and efforts to improve student achievement." – Teacher in Bosasso

In addition to having to work with insufficient resources, attitudes towards the value of education can complicate the jobs of teachers. Students may be unmotivated, either due to general disinterest or because of problems at home, and parents are often indifferent to their child's education.

"If parents do not hold high aspirations for their child's educational attainment, their child will not see the purpose of staying in or doing well in school. If parents are engaged early in the

⁸⁷ The remuneration of professions was assessed qualitatively by asking several trusted individuals in different regions for their estimation.

⁸⁸ GPE Education Programme Document 2014-2016, Somalia Federal Republic, South Central Somalia, 2014

⁸⁹ Interview with a representative of GTEC

child's educational career, the child is more likely to be successful in school.” – Teacher in Kismayo

Finally, teachers in Somalia tend to be poorly remunerated – arguably the greatest challenge faced by the profession. Low salaries take a toll on motivation, contribute to absenteeism, and reduce the appeal of becoming teacher – all likely having profound effects on teaching quality.

“The compensation teachers receive is appalling. [...] Teaching comes with no additional benefits, unlike most careers. Teachers are NOT entitled to sick days and may go for three months without pay.” – Teacher in Mogadishu

EDUCATIONAL CONTENT AND OUTCOMES

Educational Content

Nearly all headmasters (99%) indicated that they **follow the unified national curriculum**. However, the **situation as presented by key informants was less clear**, as they indicated that **fewer secondary schools tend to follow the national curriculum**, whereas **primary schools use a mix of curricula** including the Kenyan curriculum, the pre-war Somali curriculum, Egyptian curriculum, and combinations thereof. A teacher in Bosasso commented on the curriculum:

“The surrounding schools are taught in the same way though there are differences in the curriculum. For example, some use the Arabic curriculum, others the Somali curriculum developed by UNESCO, and some use the Kenyan Curriculum. These differences in curriculum leave an impact on students’ educations since they cannot transfer from one school to another.”

Nonetheless, schools consistently offered the same set of core subjects,⁹⁰ defined as being offered at more than 80% of schools overall.

- ▶ **Core primary subjects:** Arabic, math, English, Somali, Islamic Studies, and science.
- ▶ **Core secondary subjects:** math, biology, chemistry, Arabic, history and geography, physics, Somali, and Islamic Studies.

Although most schools have computers, the small number of schools teaching information technology (IT) indicates that **they are not being used for educational purposes**. Only 17% of primary schools and 37% of secondary schools offer IT courses.

Most schools offer Islamic studies, although the method of delivery is different than at the IQSs. Whereas formal schools offer Islamic studies as a regular subject, **IQSs teach Islam** in a more **intensive** manner. Often, half the school day is dedicated to studying the Quran while the other is for regular courses. Parents reported that **access to religious education is important** regardless of whether it was at a religious or formal school.

Other less commonly taught subjects at the primary level include environmental education (6% of primaries/25% of secondaries), physical education (3%/16%), and business studies (3%/44%). There are **concerns that the curriculum does not focus enough on employable skills**.⁹¹ Similarly, several stakeholders stated that **more attention should be given to technical and vocational training**.

In the pre-colonial era, **Arabic was most commonly used** as a language of instruction. **During the colonialization** of Somalia, both **English and Italian** were used. **English** was then **endorsed after**

⁹⁰ According to a recent report the new national curriculum will be implemented in August 2018, comprising 7 core subjects: mathematics, science, social studies, Islamic studies, Arabic, English and Somali (UNSOM, 2018).

⁹¹ Interview with representative from FPENS

the war in order to strengthen the English skills and internationality of the students. Finally, the liberation of Somalia led to the **desire to move towards Somali as the main language** of instruction, especially for the primary school level. This is significant because, according to UNESCO, **learning in one's mother tongue is more effective**, meaning that receiving **education in English may compromise knowledge transfer**.⁹²

Starting in August 2018, the **government aims to regulate and standardize the language of instruction** in classrooms, prescribing Somali as the language of instruction in primary while secondary courses will be taught in English and Arabic.⁹³ Currently, **primary courses are taught in a mixture of Somali and English**, depending on the school and the teacher's English skills. **In secondary, courses are often taught in English**, especially science subjects (math, biology, chemistry, physics). **The exceptions are history and geography, and Islamic studies**, which are usually taught **in Arabic**.

Additionally, **Somali textbooks are being developed** by a government-led working group of stakeholders. **However, most textbooks are still in English**, and some are in Arabic; the **language of the textbook and the language of instruction are not always the same**. Often, the textbooks are in English and the teachers explain the content in Somali.

Educational outcomes

The **rate of students passing their final exams**, both primary and secondary, **was reported as fairly high by the school headmasters** at 88% across all school types. This figure is **lowest for mixed-management schools** (78%) and **highest for independent schools** (91%). However, of 27,600 secondary students taking the government exam in 2018, only 97 were from government schools according to an interviewed MoECHE official.⁹⁴ A government official working for MoECHE explained this as a consequence of the poor quality of education at government schools.

The **rate of students repeating a grade** is **low**, ranging from 2 to 4% for all school types with an overall average of 3%. **Dropout rates are slightly higher** than the repeat rate, at 6% overall. This rate is slightly **higher at government schools** (9%) and **lowest at mixed management schools** (4%). As government schools are less likely to charge school fees, it could indicate that education offered at these schools is less valued by the students. **According to parents and teachers, common reasons for dropping out are the inability to pay school fees, the need to help at home or to work to sustain the family**, and students **voluntarily choosing not to attend school**. **Delayed entry to primary is a common issue** in Somalia; 50% of students enrolled in primary are over the age of 13.⁹⁵ Figure 16 compares the exam pass rate, dropout rate and repeat rate across the school types as reported by the headmasters at surveyed schools.

⁹² <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0016/001611/161121e.pdf>

⁹³ UNSOM, 2018. A new way to education in Somali schools starts in August.

⁹⁴ This low number of government students participating in the secondary graduation exams could, at least partially, also reflect the relatively low number of government-managed secondary schools. Out of the 170 schools in the sample, 12 were government-managed schools that combined primary and secondary instruction and only one was a government secondary school with no primary component. It is unlikely that a significant number of government secondary schools would be present in rural areas not covered by the survey.

⁹⁵ Situation analysis in National Education Sector Policy draft, 2016

Figure 16. Selected educational outcomes by school type

AVAILABILITY AND CONDITION OF PHYSICAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND LEARNING MATERIALS

In both the qualitative and quantitative portions of the survey, **infrastructure and learning materials** were **often mentioned as key indicators of education quality**. The presence or absence of certain infrastructure and equipment, as well as their relative condition, determine the perceived quality of a school.

Infrastructure

As shown in Figure 17, **nearly all surveyed schools (99%) had access to water**, and in most cases (97%) to an improved source – **most commonly piped water**.⁹⁶ The only two schools that did not have access to water were both located in Garowe. The availability of water may be related to the fact that surveyed schools are located in urban and peri-urban areas and therefore have access to more developed infrastructure. Although improved water sources are generally present, **there are still concerns over water quality**, and distribution systems such as taps may be inadequate.⁹⁷

⁹⁶ WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (JMP) defines improved water sources as “those that have the potential to deliver safe water by nature of their design and construction, and include: piped water, boreholes or tube wells, protected dug wells, protected springs, rainwater, and packaged or delivered water”.

⁹⁷ Discussions with parents in Bosasso and Kismayo

Figure 17. Access to water by source and school type (n = 170)

As seen in Table 9, **most schools have basic facilities** such as electricity, a wall for security, and a recreation area. On the other hand, canteens and libraries are less common. Additionally, DCOs were asked to observe and rate the condition of various school facilities on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 indicating very poor condition, 5 indicating excellent condition) during their interview visit. **Facilities appear to be in acceptable condition** as the average rating was above 3.5 for all facilities with no significant differences between school types.⁹⁸ However, **parents and students during FGDs complained about the poor state of infrastructure**. According to a parent in Mogadishu:

“This school needs better infrastructure because when it rains it’s affected by the floods and it is dangerous for the lives of the students”.

Table 9. Percentage of schools that have select facilities by school type (n = 170)

Indicator	All schools	Government schools	Mixed-management schools	Umbrella schools	Independent schools
Electricity	94%	84%	88%	100%	93%
Security wall	93%	86%	94%	95%	93%
Recreation area	90%	84%	82%	98%	87%
Separate latrines for girls	86%	92%	100%	84%	82%
One chair per student	59%	68%	53%	70%	46%
Canteen	32%	40%	24%	48%	18%
Library	19%	24%	35%	23%	9%

The majority of schools have basic sanitation facilities, with all but one school having at least one latrine. Although **most schools have separate latrines for girls**, the **absence of separate latrines in some schools is especially detrimental to girls** who may feel uncomfortable using shared facilities.⁹⁹ Furthermore, **schools generally have too few latrines** with a median student-latrine ratio of 97:1.¹⁰⁰ This ratio varies between school types as shown in Table 10. The **student to latrine ratio is**

⁹⁸ $p > 0.05$ for all one-way ANOVAs on condition of facilities

⁹⁹ Discussion with secondary school students in Bosasso

¹⁰⁰ Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (Wash) Programmes recommend a student latrine ratio of 25:1 for girls and 30:1 for boys. See Wash in schools, URL: <http://washinschoolsmapping.com/projects/kenya.html> [18.5.2018]

significantly higher at umbrella schools¹⁰¹ and lowest at mixed management schools. Although **larger schools tend to have more latrines** to accommodate the greater number of students¹⁰² but the number of latrines does not scale to the number of students,¹⁰³ indicating that **larger schools may have more unhygienic conditions.**

Table 10. Student-latrine and student-classroom ratios by school type

	Overall statistics				Median by school type			
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Government schools	Mixed-management schools	Umbrella schools	Independent schools
Students per latrine (n = 159)	138	13	800	97	74	78	130	80
Students per classroom (n = 155)	44	10	233	33	40	30	31	35

Access to electricity contributes to higher quality education by providing a more effective learning environment through lighting, ventilation, and the use of technology. Although electricity is usually available, the **hot Somali climate can still be an issue.** According to a student in Mogadishu: “Classrooms are very hot, so we come outside for air, and classes are very boring due to the heat”. **All umbrella schools have access to electricity**, possibly due to their concentration in Mogadishu, while only 84% of **government schools** do.

The presence of a security feature (wall or fence) is valued for both students and parents who reported that **it is important to feel safe at school.** However, many students and parents stated that **the greatest danger is in getting to school**, as road traffic and explosions are tangible threats. Additionally, students indicated that **walls can help eliminate distracting noise** from outside the school.

The **absence of libraries** at most schools **can negatively impact quality** since they provide students opportunities to learn independently and develop literacy skills. **Most schools (90%) have a recreation area**, which can be an important center for social interaction. Their presence or size may be limited in part by land issues at some schools.¹⁰⁴

Although basic facilities are available, the needs of the student body are often inadequately met. As seen in Table 9, **students must often share chairs** when the school cannot provide enough. At some schools, up to 5 students can share one desk.¹⁰⁵ There is **a significant difference between school types:**¹⁰⁶ government and umbrella schools are more likely to have one seat per student than other schools.

Similarly, the **number of students per classroom** was often reported to be **too high.** Although the median value of 31 is in line with other countries in the region, students, parents, and teachers all listed **large class sizes as a major challenge to learning.** Smaller class sizes allow more opportunities for

¹⁰¹ One-way ANOVA ($F_{3, 160} = 4.73$, $p < 0.01$); post-hoc Tukey test ($p < 0.05$ for all pairwise comparisons except with government schools)

¹⁰² Linear regression ($F_{1, 161} = 30.64$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.16$)

¹⁰³ Linear regression ($F_{1, 162} = 94.27$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.37$)

¹⁰⁴ Discussions with parents and students

¹⁰⁵ Discussion with teachers at a secondary school in Kismayo

¹⁰⁶ χ^2 (3, $N = 170$) = 8.90, $p < 0.05$

engagement and personal interaction with teachers. Furthermore, **classrooms are often physically too small** to accommodate the large number of students:

- ▶ Teacher in Kismayo: “*The biggest challenge I face in my job is overcrowded classrooms*”.
- ▶ Student in Kismayo: “*Classrooms are very small and congested because of the lack of space*”.
- ▶ Parent in Garowe: “*The inadequate number of classrooms available in the school causes congestion*”.

Overall, there is **no significant difference**¹⁰⁷ **between school types**. Regionally, the median ratio is **highest in Kismayo** (61:1) and **lowest in Mogadishu** (30:1).

Learning materials and equipment: Access to computers and Internet

Figure 18 shows the availability of the Internet and computers across school types. The **majority of schools have an Internet connection (61%) and at least one operational computer (73%)**, which is mostly used for administrative tasks. The percentage of schools having both is lower at 55%. Parents, students and teachers often expressed a **need to expand the use of technology** in schools:

- ▶ Teacher in Mogadishu: “*There is a need for more equipment in order to help teachers teach. For example, computers, projectors, and other tools that help the students for practicing the theories that they have learnt*”.
- ▶ Parent in Garowe: “*The school doesn’t have a computer laboratory with an Internet connection. This is an essential facility especially in this information age to help the students enhance their learning in subjects they are interested in.*”

Figure 18. Availability of computers and Internet by school type

Learning materials and equipment: Textbooks

Textbooks are in circulation for most subjects taught but are not universally available. **They are available at most schools** for commonly taught subjects including math, sciences and languages. Umbrella schools have fewer textbooks available than other school types; **34% of umbrella schools do not work with any textbooks**. This is notable given that umbrella schools often have other facilities and equipment, but they likely prefer to work with their own materials, substituting textbooks for

¹⁰⁷ One-way ANOVA ($F_{3,161} = 0.47$, $p = 0.70$)

handouts. Schools that do have textbooks tend to have them for many different subjects: schools that work with textbooks have the texts for no fewer than four major subjects.

Although textbooks exist, there are not enough copies – **students must share textbooks in most schools** (65%). Usually there are fewer than five students sharing a book but this ranges to over 250, indicating that there may be only one book per grade level. Textbook availability appears to be highest at independent schools, where there is one book per student at 80% of schools, and lowest at mixed-management schools where this the case at 29% of schools.

Parents, students, and teachers often complained about the shortage of textbooks, which can also add to the cost of education if they must be purchased from the market.

The **condition of textbooks**, which could be an indicator of funding availability and education quality, **varies greatly**. Some schools have new editions while others have old photocopies.

Using a five-point scale (1 indicating poor condition, 5 indicating excellent condition), DCOs rated the condition of textbooks during the quantitative survey. Overall, **textbook condition was highest at government schools** (3.9) and **lowest at independent schools** (2.9), with an average rating of 3.3 across all schools.

The photographs in Figure 19 give an impression of the different levels of availability and condition of textbooks at two of the surveyed schools.

Basic educational materials such as chalkboards, chalk, and stationary **are available at most schools**. Teachers and students therefore generally have the fundamental resources necessary to deliver and receive education. However, there is still a **need to increase the availability of learning materials**. For instance, science lessons can be limited solely to theory due to the lack of laboratories and equipment.¹⁰⁸ Figure 20 below presents a word cloud regarding infrastructure and learning material components and how they are perceived by parents, teachers, and students.¹⁰⁹ Additional data on infrastructure and learning materials can be found in Annex 4 'Additional Information'.

Figure 19. Textbooks at two independent schools in Bosasso

¹⁰⁸ Discussions with parents, students and teachers

¹⁰⁹ This word cloud was generated from words mentioned when FGDs explored the topic of infrastructure. The relative size of each word is based on how frequently it was mentioned.

[illegible]

As described in the previous section, the typology of schools used in this report is based on management and therefore does not capture **other important factors that might differentiate schools**. These are briefly explored in **Focus Box 5** below. Although the highlighted schools are similar in terms of number of students, teachers, and gender balance, some differences do appear to exist.

Umbrella-affiliated schools	Integrated Quranic schools	Rural/peri-urban schools
<p>As previously stated, schools not directly managed by umbrella associations may still be associated with one. This is the case for two thirds of the sample – including 46% of schools not managed by an umbrella association. The main observed differences are that umbrella-affiliated schools are more likely to charge school fees and appear to have better facilities than other schools.¹¹⁰ This may be explained by the fact that government schools, which are less likely to</p>	<p>Within the survey sample, there are 12 integrated Quranic schools (IQSs). These appear to mostly offer primary education and were evenly split between Garowe and Bosasso. Using the indicators used throughout this section, IQSs appear to be similar to other formal schools in terms of education quality and learning outcomes. The only significant differences found are that IQSs are less likely to have computers and Internet access.¹¹¹ This could be related to the fact that IQSs tend to be</p>	<p>Although the study focused on urban centers, 14 rural and peri-urban schools were surveyed in all locations except Kismayo. As with IQSs, the small sample size means that findings require cautious interpretation. Rural schools appear to have fewer resources, as they are less likely to have electricity and textbooks than urban schools.¹¹² Although not significantly so, teacher salaries appear to be lower at rural schools. These findings may indicate lower quality and explain</p>

¹¹² Electricity: $X^2(1, N = 170) = 5.6, p < 0.05$; Primary textbooks: $t(154) = 2.5, 2 \text{ tailed } p < 0.05$; Secondary textbooks: $t(115) = 3.0, 2 \text{ tailed } p < 0.01$

charge school fees, are also less likely to be associated with an umbrella. The difference in resources may therefore be linked to the greater availability of funding resulting from the payment of fees, and the fact that umbrellas may assist their affiliates by providing equipment.

primaries, which are generally less likely to have computers, Internet, and IT classes than secondaries and combined schools. Given the small number of IQSs included in the sample, these findings should be interpreted with caution and subject to further investigation.

some of the rural/urban disparities highlighted earlier in this report. Interestingly, dropout and repeat rates are lower in the rural schools, perhaps a sign that students that can overcome the initial barriers to accessing education are more likely to take their studies seriously.¹¹³

In terms of the region comparison, there is an inherent difficulty in attempting to compare the quality of education delivery in Somalia to **regional** developments. Although the education sector is visibly underfunded and under-developed, relative **lack of directly comparable and up-to-date data** only allows for a limited comparison.¹¹⁴

What appears clear is that the **gender gap is wider in Somalia** than anywhere else in the region. According to the results of this research, there are on average 198 male students per 100 female students in the four towns covered by the survey. In comparison, in the Republic of the Sudan the GER is 76.74% for male students at the primary level and 70.35 for women.¹¹⁵ In Kenya, a host country for the significant portion of Somali diaspora, the reported gender gap is non-existent at primary level with 105.48% female and 105.13% male GER.¹¹⁶

Comparison is **less conclusive on other quality indicators**. For example, the average student-teacher ratio of 37:1 is somewhat more than 31:1 in Kenya¹¹⁷ and significantly less than 55:1 in Ethiopia,¹¹⁸ however without additional information such as median values of the distribution or results for urban areas, the implication of this comparison remains unclear.

3.6. ACCESSIBILITY & INCLUSIVITY

Key Takeaways

- The reliance of schools on fees as their principal source of funding creates **financial barriers to education**.
- Average annual school fees are **USD 99 for primary and USD 149 for secondary** but there are often additional costs such as registration, uniform, and examination fees.
- Although most students travel less than 30 minutes to get to school, **distance can be a driver of exclusion** – especially in rural areas.
- **Gender is a major driver of exclusion** as financial, institutional and cultural barriers keep many girls out of school and contribute to higher female drop-out rates.

¹¹³ Note that these differences are only significant when using a one-tailed distribution. Repeat rate: $t(125) = 1.9$, 2 tailed $p = 0.056$; Dropout rate: $t(126) = 1.8$, 2 tailed $p = 0.077$

¹¹⁴ Additional comparison could be made on levels of enrolment, on which data is generally available throughout the region. However, as comprehensive enrolment data was not collected under this assignment, comparison of enrolment is left out of the analysis.

¹¹⁵ UNESCO Institute for Statistics, <http://uis.unesco.org/en/country/sd>, data from 2015

¹¹⁶ Ibid, <http://uis.unesco.org/en/country/ke>, data from 2016

¹¹⁷ Ibid

¹¹⁸ Ibid, <http://uis.unesco.org/en/country/et>, data from 2011

FINANCIAL DRIVERS OF EXCLUSION

As seen in the Section 3.4 on funding, the financial burden of funding education falls to parents, meaning that **cost is the main driver of exclusion**. Government officials, non-government stakeholders, teachers, and parents were all in agreement that **costs can be prohibitively high**. Students from **low-income backgrounds and ethnic minorities are especially disadvantaged** since they are more likely to be required to help at home.¹¹⁹ Additionally, their parents may be less invested in their education, leading to a greater chance of dropping out. As described by a teacher in Mogadishu:

“There are many children who would like to attend the schools but cannot - every person in the world loves to learn and achieve a higher level in life. The school supports those who are in need by providing scholarships and supporting education. But we cannot provide everything because there are other fees they cannot afford such as transportation and food.”

In addition to school fees, there are several **additional costs associated with obtaining education**. Table 11 presents the annual costs of education borne by parents.

Table 11. Average cost of education to the parent per surveyed school in USD (n = 170)

Cost category	Average yearly cost (across all schools)	Average yearly cost (only when fee is charged)	% of schools where fee is charged
School fee (primary)	99	114	88%
School fee (secondary)	149	163	88%
Registration fee	4	7	65%
Uniform	9	15	58%
Textbooks	6	18	33%
Transportation	11	79	15%
Examination fee	6	8	70%
Extracurriculars	3	32	11%
Meals	6	135	5%

Some parents also reported that their children received private tutoring several days a week after school. Tutors are often hired to help students with Math and English, with tuition fees ranging between USD 10 per month up to USD 15 for a single session.

As seen in Table 12, the average total cost to parents is **USD 132 per year for primary education and USD 197 for secondary**. The cost to attend government schools is lower – largely related to the fact that they are less likely to charge school fees. However, when charged, fees at government schools are similar to those at other school types. A full breakdown of average school fees by school type can be found in Annex 4 ‘Additional Information’.

Table 12. Average annual cost of education per surveyed school by school type in USD

	All schools	Government	Mixed- management	Umbrella	Independent
School fees	99	57	94	106	111

¹¹⁹ This was mentioned as main drop-out reason besides lack of academic skills in teacher discussions

Primary (n = 156)	Additional fees	33	14	40	31	40
	Total annual cost	132	71	134	137	150
Secondary (n = 95)	School fees	149	83	140	164	153
	Additional fees	48	19	82	46	51
	Total annual cost	197	102	222	210	204

Although an analysis¹²⁰ **comparing cost to education quality** did not uncover a clear trend, additional insights from the qualitative portion of the survey suggested a relationship, or at least the perception of one. As described by a parent in Bosasso:

“Those independent schools that charge high fees generally offer comprehensive education beyond only academics. They provide greater academic, cultural, and sporting opportunities, as well as highly-qualified services such as academic support and career guidance.”

Since quality does not appear to be the clear driver of cost, other factors are likely to be involved (Focus Box 6).

Focus Box 6. Major drivers of cost

Major drivers of cost

According to the interviewed government and umbrella officials, headmasters, teachers and parents, the **following factors drive up the cost of education**:

- ▶ **Public funds are insufficient** to offer free or subsidized education in all locations.
- ▶ The **lack of external funding** sources forces schools to generate their own revenue by charging school fees.
- ▶ Insufficient funding **limits the ability of schools to offer scholarships** to students from low-income backgrounds, causing demand to exceed supply.
- ▶ More **qualified teachers demand higher salaries**, necessitating higher school fees to cover these costs.
- ▶ Families that do not live near a school must pay **additional transport fees**.
- ▶ **External factors**, such as drought and conflict, have hindered the education system's development and contributed to high costs for parents.

To assist students with the cost of attending school and to overcome the challenge of the parents having to carry the major financial burden, **schools may offer scholarships**. Overall, **only 38% of schools offer scholarships to students** (Table 13), and the eligibility criteria for these scholarships are not always clear, especially for need-based scholarships.¹²¹ Scholarships based on academic achievement are usually awarded to the student at the top of her/his class. **Scholarships specifically for girls** are also available but **are less common**. This is relevant insofar as the gender gap is large, and some parents with low income specified that they then chose to only send their sons to school.

¹²⁰ Details of this analysis can be found in Annex 4 'Additional Information'.

¹²¹ Teachers and umbrella association representatives indicated that the headmaster and teachers select students of which they think they are most 'needy' from the neighbourhood. It remained unclear based on what criteria this is taking place, and whether this reaches families that are not on the headmasters' or teachers' radar.

Table 13. Availability of scholarships by school type (n = 168)

	All schools	Government schools	Mixed-management schools	Umbrella schools	Independent schools
Need-based	15%	24%	12%	10%	18%
Performance-based	15%	16%	12%	10%	19%
For girls	16%	24%	12%	10%	19%
Any scholarship	38%	44%	41%	33%	38%

Representatives of **umbrella associations** reported that for umbrella schools, every school has to accept **15 students** from **poor neighborhoods for free**. However, this regulation does not consider the size of the school, nor the criteria according to which students are eligible for such a scholarship. Additionally, families that have more than five children are not required to pay school fees for two of their children. Orphans and children of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) are also more likely to receive scholarships.

DISTANCE TO SCHOOL

Most students live in the relative vicinity of the school, as reported by the headmasters and shown in Figure 21.

Figure 21. Average time spent travelling to school by school type (n = 170)

According to the headmasters, the **average student** across all school types **travels 10-30 minutes to school**. However, travel time can still be **long for some students** (students travel more than 30 minutes to 8% of the surveyed schools, and more than an hour to 2% of the surveyed schools). Additionally, some **headmasters indicated that geographic distance prevented certain children from attending school**. According to government data,¹²² most students walk to school, although other forms of transport, including school buses, may be available in some cases.

Students tend to travel the **shortest distance to independent schools**, and the **longest distance to government schools**. The willingness to travel longer distances may be driven by the desire to avoid

¹²² MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

school fees. Although most students travel less than 30 minutes to get to school, **distance can be a major barrier** to students' attendance **if they need to pay for transportation**, as reported by the headmasters and teachers. **Long journeys to school may negatively impact academic performance** and increase the likelihood of dropping out as described by a teacher in Bosasso:

“The long distances children must walk to school disrupt their concentration in class. Some of them arrive at school sweaty, stressed, and exhausted both physically and psychologically, which compromises their performance to the point that they finally give up and drop out.”

In the graph presented below (Figure 22), the distance to school is disaggregated by region. Students travel the **shortest distance to school in Bosasso**, and the **longest in Kismayo**.

Figure 22. Average time spent travelling to school by location (n = 170)

GENDER BARRIERS

Gender is a major driver of exclusion as evidenced by the large gender gap presented earlier in Section 3.1. Low availability of sanitation facilities and gender-sensitive learning environments, a lack of female teachers, a lack of role models outside of school, safety concerns, and social norms are mentioned as factors preventing parents from enrolling their daughters in school or causing girls to drop out of school.

With Somalia being a **highly patriarchal society**,¹²³ social norms lead to the **undervaluing of girls' education** as the role of women is traditionally to remain home. Parents indicated that they would choose to only send their sons to school if they could not afford education for all children. According to teachers, **girls being married** is also a **major reason for girls to drop out in secondary school**. These findings are substantiated by Somalia's high illiteracy rate of girls and women.¹²⁴ The overall literacy rate of adult women is 36% compared to 44% for men.

¹²³ Gardner, J. and Musse, F., A Gender Profile of Somalia, EU Somalia Mission, 2013; Gardner, J. and El-Bushra, J., Somalia: A State of Male Power, Insecurity and Inequality, Rift Valley Institute, 2017.

¹²⁴ MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

OTHER DRIVERS OF EXCLUSION

Although **cost, geographic distance to school, and gender** have been identified as the **major drivers of exclusion**, there are other factors that limit access to education. Details on these additional drivers of exclusion are provided in Table 14.

Table 14. Drivers of exclusion

Drivers of exclusion	Explanation
Safety	Safety impacts access since parents stated they would not send their children to schools in unsafe areas.
Lifestyle/life situation	Lifestyle can be an exclusion criterion for nomads as schools cannot always accommodate their movements if the children cannot stay with relatives living near the school, as education experts stated. IDPs among the parents also brought up that they face difficulties from having to move often , being confronted with different curricula, and sometimes even a different language of instruction.
Lack of parental education	Lack of parental education and engagement with the children's education can be a driver of exclusion if education is not considered relevant, and no efforts to facilitate the child's education are made, as teachers stated.
Religion	Students may be taken out of school in order to have more time to study the Quran , as stated by the teachers.

Additional views on the inclusivity of Somali schools are presented in Focus Box 7 below.

Focus Box 7. Stakeholder perspectives on inclusivity

Stakeholder perspectives on inclusivity

During group discussions and interviews, stakeholders agreed that schools do not actively exclude certain groups.

“The school focuses on the whole child — the social, emotional, mental, physical, and cognitive development of each student is valued regardless of gender, race, ethnicity, socio-economic status, or geographic location. It prepares the child for life, not just for testing” – Parent in Garowe

Instead, access to education is largely dependent on the ability to pay school fees.

“No discrimination in this school; the only discrimination is the income, the excluded group is the low-income community” – Puntland government official

Parents and teachers stated that schools often try to accommodate low-income families by negotiating reduced fees and offering scholarships. In other cases, parents may send their children to distant schools to avoid paying fees.

“If we cannot pay the full amount, we talk with the management and discuss how the student can continue his studies. We make a deal on how the money will be paid” – Parent in Mogadishu

“Other children go to very far public schools because they cannot pay the school fees” – Parent in Kismayo

In addition to socio-economic status, parents and teachers both stressed the importance of parents valuing education. The lack of support at home was identified as a major reason why many children are out of school.

“There are two types of people who don’t send their children to school: those who are economically not able to pay the school fees, and those who don’t understand the importance of education and instead encourage their children to work.” – Parent in Mogadishu

Although many parents were understanding of the realities of Somalia’s education system, others felt let down by the government and exploited by non-state providers. Some teachers shared this opinion.

“Since the government has failed in the provision of quality education to its younger generation, parents have no option but to seek education from privately managed schools whatever the cost might be.” – Parent in Garowe

“High-quality private education remains outside the reach of the majority, and the unfettered drive for profit in the private sector has led to virtual cartelization where a handful of elite schools exploit parents whose collective bargaining position is already weak.” – Teacher in Garowe

IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL CHOICE

For many families, **cost is the principal determinant** of which school their children attend. The number of nearby schools, reputation, and perceived education quality may also have a role. The **factors influencing school choice are explored in Focus Box 8.**

Focus Box 8: Factors influencing school choice

Factors influencing school choice

If families can overcome the initial barriers to education, the next step is to choose a school to attend. During FGDs, stakeholders identified three main levels of choice that families have in selecting a school:

1. No real choice exists
2. The decision is influenced by external factors
3. The decision is based on what is best for the student

At the most basic level, school choice is made out of necessity. In such cases, no decision between schools is made - there is only one that could be realistically attended. For instance, there may be only one school in the area. Another possibility is that low-income families cannot afford to pay school fees so have no choice but to send children to schools that offer free education.

At the next level, despite having the choice of several schools, factors beyond the control of the family determine which school is chosen. For instance, the security situation may lead parents to send children to nearby schools to avoid travelling through potentially dangerous neighborhoods. The amount of school fees charged, as well as additional costs to bear, such as for uniforms, textbooks, transportation, or exam fees, are external factors that can determine the choice of school.

Finally, at the highest level, the school chosen is the one that is most suitable based on individual needs and expectations. The opportunity to select a school purely based on what is best for the student is only available to the most fortunate Somalis. They must be in a comfortable financial

situation to be able to bear the costs of education and live in an area with many schools to choose from. Most commonly, students simply attend the school that is closest to where they live to minimize travel time. When selecting based on quality, teacher qualifications and academic reputation are the main factors taken into consideration. Additionally, language of instruction and the availability of specialized programs or facilities can influence the decision. The quality and stability of non-government schools is perceived to be higher – largely a function of the lack of consistent funding and qualified teachers presumed of government schools.

3.7. ACCOUNTABILITY

Key Takeaways

- Schools in Somalia are held accountable through both the **'long route'** and the **'short route'**.
- Through the long route, the government uses **school inspections and EMIS** data to monitor education quality. However, the **efficacy of these systems is limited** by institutional capacity and funding shortages.
- Through the short route, **communities interact with school management** via formal and informal mechanisms to voice their concerns and improve quality.
- **Umbrella associations** also participate in the short route by setting and monitoring quality standards in response to market pressures.

LONG ROUTE OF ACCOUNTABILITY

Education service providers can be held **accountable by** either the **'long route'** or the **'short route'**. Accountability through the long route takes place when an elected government exercises oversight over the education system on behalf of the electorate. The short route, on the other hand, is taken when citizens interact directly with service providers.¹²⁵

Federal Government Accountability Mechanisms

As set out in Chapter 2 'Education Sector Background', the prolonged absence of a stable government in Somalia has resulted in a **lack** of a nationwide and centrally imposed **framework for education standards**. Two main mechanisms for enforcing accountability currently available to the MoECHE are the EMIS, the collection of education data collected by the government, and the REOs, regional representatives of the MoECHE. Both are described in detail in Section 2.3.

EMIS is central to MoECHE's capacity to plan, **monitor, and evaluate** the education sector. Data is collected from government schools directly and through intermediaries like the umbrella associations for other schools.¹²⁶ This approach has so far resulted in **incomplete and out-of-date datasets**. According to the interviewed government officials, a change to a bottom-up approach with education providers having the obligation to deliver the information to the Ministry is in discussion. Additionally, EMIS is fully donor-dependent.¹²⁷

¹²⁵ The World Bank, World Development Report 2004. Making Services Work for Poor People, 2003

¹²⁶ EMIS data has been collected since 2011. Part of this evidence base is collecting data on the number of schools, student enrolment rates, number of teachers, and number of students taking national exams.

¹²⁷ See Appraisal report of the Federal Government of Somalia Education Sector Strategic Plan 2018-2020

REOs help create accountability by providing a point of contact between the MoECHE and individual schools. They are responsible for carrying out government inspections and providing guidance to schools on how to improve quality.

Government Inspections

Inspections are the most **commonly implemented quality assurance and supervision mechanism** used by the government. **Scheduled and unannounced** inspections are carried out by the different agencies, who are then expected to report to the MoECHE. Figure 23 shows the proportion of schools inspected, disaggregated by school type and the inspecting body.

Figure 23. Government inspections by school type as reported by headmasters (n = 170)

Just **over half** of the total number of surveyed schools (54%) **had been inspected** by someone other than a DEO or REO, described in the survey as a 'government agency'. This may refer to a representative of a **state-level MoE** or another unidentified part of the state or federal government. **Government** (96%) and mixed-management schools (88%) are commonly **inspected by a government** agency, unlike the umbrella schools (16%). Inspections are also **less common in Mogadishu** (27% of schools were inspected), where most umbrella schools are located, compared to the other locations (85%).

Figure 24 shows the frequency at which school inspections take place across the different school types. **Government schools** tend to be **inspected more frequently** than other schools (**68%** of government-managed schools are inspected **quarterly** while this is the case for only 16% of other schools).

Figure 24. Frequency of government inspections by school type (n = 92)

Survey data indicate that **inspections are fairly consistent** in their components, most commonly including:

- ▶ Inspection of facilities (98% of inspections)
- ▶ Evaluation of curriculum (98%)
- ▶ Classroom observation (97%)
- ▶ Assessment of teachers (90%)
- ▶ Interviews with stakeholders (87%)
- ▶ Assessment of student learning (86%)

Beyond these components, according to an interviewed DEO in Kismayo, the inspections are also supposed to include: **classroom size** and its adequacy for the number of students, the availability and adequacy of **learning materials**, and the use of **child-centered** teaching methodology. In most cases (63%) the visits include teaching feedback for teachers, according to the headmasters.

However, in the FGDs, teachers raised concerns that they did not receive feedback or guidance on their teaching. Additionally, the inspection system faces many challenges as the lack of funding makes it impossible to regularly visit every school.¹²⁸ Although systems are in place to use the outcomes of inspections to improve quality through workshops, they are limited by the lack of resources, coordination between government bodies, and the inspectors' limited authority over non-state schools.

SHORT ROUTE OF ACCOUNTABILITY

Umbrellas

As described in Section 2.3, umbrella associations participate in the short route of accountability by adopting a quasi-governmental role towards member schools in the network. Umbrellas **set standards** members schools must adhere to and maintain their own **data collection and reporting mechanisms**. These mechanisms tend to be transparent and shared with the MoECHE. FPENS, for example, via its database has access to all schools' enrolment numbers, the teachers and their qualifications, students' names, identity cards, their marks, and whether they have transferred from another school. By setting standards of quality, umbrella associations contribute to their reputation and can attract more students.

¹²⁸ MoECHE, 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2022.

Since schools are dependent on school fees, parents and students may hold umbrella associations accountable through their client power, possibly leading to higher quality overall.

Perhaps the most important role of **umbrella associations** in terms of accountability is their function as a **platform** for individual schools **to voice and discuss their concerns**. This ability to collectively communicate with the government agencies is not available to independent schools outside of the umbrella system.

Community Based Organizations (CBOs)

As described in Section 2.3 **both PTAs and CECs in practice have a limited role in holding the school accountable**. For instance, **CECs inspected 51% of the surveyed schools**. This number rises to 68% when umbrella schools are excluded. As with government inspections, CEC visits are most common at government and mixed-management schools.

Most **parents** state that they are very **satisfied with their communication with the school management, and consider good communication between parents, teachers, and school management crucial** in order to be informed about their children's progress or absence. Focus Box 9 below gives insight into parents' and students' views on the short route of accountability.

Focus Box 9. Perspectives on the short route of accountability

Perspectives on the short route of accountability

In the Somali education system, short accountability is actualized either through formal or informal mechanisms. Parents, students, teachers, and school managements are the principal stakeholders involved in such pathways.

CECs and PTAs are the main formal avenues of communication between schools and the community, especially students and parents. The roles of PTAs are varied, but generally, PTAs provide a forum for parents to voice their concerns.

“We have monthly regular meetings where we discuss school developments. If we have complaints about either the school administration or teachers, we bring them up during the meeting.” – Parent in Kismayo

At some schools, PTAs can also be involved in decision-making, working closely with the school administration.

“Parents and school management work together, and parents are involved in the decisions. [...] For example, when the school management wants to increase the school fees, the administration cannot just decide to increase without consulting the parents.” – Parent in Bosasso

Students may also organize themselves to collectively address issues with school management and teachers, although this appears to be less common than PTAs or CECs. Student associations and the designation of prefects are among the ways that students may liaise with school management.

“We complain when teachers are not doing their job well. School management deals with our complaint and advises the teacher to change their behavior.” – Student in Bosasso

Besides these formalized processes, schools often interact with parents on an *ad hoc* basis. Open lines of communication at many schools allow parents to be informed of their child's progress, and for schools to better understand individual families' needs.

“Whenever there is an issue the school calls us. For example, if the student did not go to the school or if he/she is not doing well in the exams.” – Parent in Mogadishu

4. RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

4.1. POLICY IMPLICATIONS

As research findings presented in this report have shown, **education delivery in Somalia** in its current state **shows** the following fundamental **weaknesses**:

- **Fragmentation of the education sector among a diverse set of state and non-state bodies.** Research captured a wide variety of ownership and management models, in which government tends to play only a limited role. Only 15% of the surveyed schools were described as managed and owned by the government, with the remainder managed and owned by a combination of actors including umbrella associations, local community bodies and private local and diaspora owners. In many cases, two or three of these owners and managers are involved in the same school. To further add to the fragmentation, there is a limited degree of cooperation between the federal MoECHE and state-level MoEs, while the designation of 'government' may apply to either of the two institutions.
- **Lack of government capacity for policy planning, standards setting, financing, collaboration with private providers and data collection.** This is in evidence across the sector but namely in the variation in the education quality index constructed for this report: on a scale from one to 100, schools ranged from 44 to 89, irrespective of the school type. There is therefore a wide variation in availability and state of infrastructure, resources and qualified teaching staff, with government agencies having little to no involvement in monitoring or addressing these shortcomings.

The lack of consolidated data on education sector became apparent during the survey methodology design stage, when the team was unable to find a consolidated list of schools in major urban areas and had to compile one through a physical mapping process. The MoECHE also has a very limited access to feedback from the individual schools. In Mogadishu, only 27% of the surveyed schools have been inspected by a government body.

- **Inadequate financing.** Almost all (89%) schools charge school fees, which cover, on average, 74% of a school budget. According to the survey findings, an average school is able to access 1.3 sources of funding. This means that a number of schools rely solely on school fees for funding and operates in the state of a chronic deficit. On school level, chronic underfunding is evidenced by delays in teacher salary payments and lack of investment in infrastructure and teaching equipment. Financial support to students from poor families is unstructured and ad-hoc, even as inability to pay school fees was highlighted as a major obstacle to accessing education in interviews.
- **Lack of teaching capacity.** Government does not regulate teacher qualifications and teacher training is offered by a diverse set of state and non-state institutions. As a result, 12% of teachers do not have post-secondary education and the situation varies among school types: 30% of teachers at mixed-management schools have no post-secondary education, while 75% of teachers at independent schools have a university degree. Even though over 90% of interviewed headmasters said that they offered guidance to teachers at their school, none of the teachers who participated in the FGDs confirmed this.
- **Gender gap.** Severe gender imbalance was found in all aspects of school operations. The surveyed schools served a median value of 156 males per 100 females and had on average 6.8 times more male teachers compared to female teachers. Only 3 of the 170 headmasters interviewed during the survey were women.

To respond to weaknesses of the education sector identified in this report, Somali and international stakeholders are encouraged to explore the following areas of support and intervention:

1. Induce cooperation between the government institutions (MoECHE and MoEs) and umbrella associations to encourage the spread of common standards and build the FGS capacity.

The major umbrella associations have a longer and more extensive history of self-regulation than the FGS institutions in their current incarnation. For the cooperation to be to the mutual benefit of all parties, it should feature the following:

- a. **Collaborative process.** Umbrella associations are independent of government in their financial, management, administrative and other procedures, reaching over thousand schools across the country. Regulations unilaterally imposed by the government will therefore likely find limited reception, while mutually beneficial collaboration will extend the reach of the MoECHE and the MoEs across the country.
- b. **Formal forum for structured interaction.** This research found no formal or structured interaction between the FGS and umbrellas. A formal forum that regularly convenes major stakeholders would constitute the first step towards a collaborative dialogue, allowing the umbrellas to speak to the government in one voice.
- c. **Incentives to collaborate.** Although umbrellas have become accustomed to operating independently of government, data shows that umbrella-managed schools are plagued by the same shortcomings as the rest of the sector: 30% of umbrella-managed schools do not have a chair for every student, 34% do not use textbooks and over 10% of their teachers do not have post-secondary education. These are sector wide challenges and umbrellas are more likely to respond positively to initiatives that will contribute to their solution.
- d. **Extended network through direct engagement of school leadership.** Although umbrellas dominate the education sector (by directly managing schools or through a looser association), one third of the surveyed schools fell outside of the networks. As the FGS resources are likely to remain limited, umbrella networks represent the most efficient vehicle for engaging individual school leadership.

2. Clarify the roles and responsibilities of the MoECHE and the state-level MoEs to reduce stakeholder fragmentation within the education landscape.

As with a number of other ministries, the MoECHE continues to adapt to the federal governance system and to forge relationships with state-level institutions. This process of clarification of roles and responsibilities can be centered around specific issues such as:

- a. **School inspections.** The data shows that inspections are being carried out in parallel by the REOs and the DEOs, who report (mostly) to the MoECHE, and 'other government agencies' on the state level. There appears to be no system to allocate responsibility for inspections, to define their frequency or duration, or to process the outcomes of inspections. In addition, there is a lack of inspections, especially in Mogadishu where 73% of surveyed schools have never been inspected. Inspections are therefore a pertinent issue for discussion among the MoECHE and the MoEs on which federal and state-level collaboration could be trialed.

3. Expand, reinvent and refine the business model for education to improve quality and stimulate expansion of the school network.

Most schools struggle to cover teacher payroll while relying predominantly on school fees. Some of the directions that could be explored include:

- a. **Grant-delivery mechanisms.** In South Sudan, the Girls Education South Sudan (GESS, <http://girlseducationsouthsudan.org>) encourages schools to fulfil a set of conditions in exchange for a yearly grant that can be used to invest in school infrastructure, supplies of equipment. The program is an example of public-private partnership, whereby the program was administered jointly by an external implementer and government agencies, using government structures to disburse funds.

- b. **Advise schools on sustainable business models.** The majority of budgeting decisions are currently being made on the level of individual schools, by the school leadership with occasional input from communities. Best practices on designing and maintaining a school budget in the Somali context should be developed and shared to better equip headmasters to deal with these challenges.

4. **Extend access to education for women and vulnerable children through systemic change.**

As described above, based on the available data, Somalia has one of the worst gender gaps in the region. In addition, cost of education reduces access to schooling. However, the relative lack of development in Somalia also provides opportunities for change at the systemic level:

- a. **Introduce gender mainstreaming into teacher training curriculum.** A development of a national teacher training curriculum would present an opportunity to insert the principles of gender mainstreaming into the core of the education system.
- b. **Prioritize training of female teachers.** Quotas for female students at teacher training institutions could improve the gender balance among teachers. In addition, if women are to progress in their education, it will be necessary to encourage female teachers to qualify to teach secondary grade classes.
- c. **Provide targeted financial support.** A number of schools have an unstructured approach to supporting vulnerable children with scholarships and fee waivers. Targeted scholarships or subsidies could also be delivered through a grant-delivery mechanism such as the one described in 3 a) above. Such centrally distributed support would benefit vulnerable students and facilitate involvement of MoECHE.

5. **Invest in systems that support teacher training and education.**

Given Somalia's security and accessibility issues, it will take a significant amount of time and investment to improve infrastructure and increase availability of equipment and textbooks. In this context, investing in teachers is the fastest way to increase education quality:

- a. **Construct a performance baseline.** With no regulation on teacher qualification, there is no available data on teacher performance. A baseline will inform the development of a teacher training curriculum and any subsequent regulation.
- b. **Teacher Management and Information System (TMIS)** should be used to store and manage data relating to teacher performance and professional development needs.
- c. **Develop national teacher training curriculum** to standardize teacher education and qualification across the country.
- d. **Explore the introduction of 'mobile' in-service training.** This could take the form of ICT solutions taking advantage of smartphones and tablets, but also of 'mobile' tutors using motorbikes to visit individual schools, as is practiced in Uganda.¹²⁹
- e. **Subsidize teachers' wages.** The current wage range of USD 50 – 350 corresponds to that of a day laborer. Unless the compensation increases, there is a risk that poor staff retention will undo any effort to improve teachers' capacity. Such subsidy could be disbursed through a kind of grant mechanism described above. It would nevertheless require a developed TMIS.

6. **Encourage and stimulate data collection and reporting within umbrella associations and on the level of individual schools.**

The first step towards successful engagement with the education sector are reliable records of the overall number and basic characteristics of schools and student enrolment.

¹²⁹ Hardman, F., Ackers, J., Abrishamian, N., and O'Sullivan, M., 2011. Developing a systemic approach to teacher education in sub-Saharan Africa: emerging lessons from Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda.

- a. **Strengthen EMIS.** The EMIS database is currently incomplete. Alongside strengthening the data processing capacity within the unit itself, MoECHE should focus on more productive collaboration with umbrella associations and on providing incentives to individual schools to submit data. Focus Box 10 offers examples of EMIS data collection in fragile contexts, adopting decentralized approach and taking advantage of ICT technology.

Focus Box 10. Country Examples: Afghanistan and South Sudan

Afghanistan provides an example of how an EMIS can be used in fragile states to strengthen the education system.¹³⁰ In 2004, the country's EMIS was rudimentary and data were collected with pen and paper. Since then, technological advancements have been made to allow the collection and management of data from several components of the education system including schools, teachers, and student achievement. For example, tablets are being used to conduct student learning assessments and monitor results in real-time. Although many challenges remain, the new information management systems have improved accountability and transparency while providing policymakers with reliable data to inform new strategies.

South Sudan is another fragile state that has developed an EMIS, initiating its program in 2006.¹³¹ One of the main challenges to data collection is the country's large rural population distributed across remote and inaccessible areas. This made it impractical for the federal MoE to be solely responsible for gathering EMIS data. Instead, a decentralized approach has been adopted with EMIS focal points in each state. So far, the initiative appears to be a success as the EMIS has completed annual education censuses nearly every year since 2007, reaching 95% of schools.

Despite the initial cost, Somalia could benefit from the expanded use of technology to monitor progress and promote information-sharing. If implemented correctly, long-term gains would justify the investment. Like South Sudan, Somalia has a large rural population, making decentralized data collection more practical. Leveraging the existing capacity of state-level MoEs would facilitate this approach.

4.2. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There are a number of research topics that were not covered in this report, due to sample and operational limitations, or because their relative importance only emerged out of the study findings. For future research assignments, the following area of interest should be considered:

1. **RURAL SCHOOLS:** Since this study focused on urban schools, limited information was collected from those in rural areas. A study specific to rural schools would be required to assess their quality, evaluate the student body, and understand the factors contributing to the education inequalities that exist between urban and rural populations.
2. **NON-STATE ACTORS:** Among non-state actors, umbrella associations were revealed to be the most prominent as important providers and regulators of education. Since the study mostly relied on data collected at the school-level, organizational information on umbrella associations was limited. An in-depth study of their organizational structure, operations, and resources would be helpful in determining how to effectively structure public-private partnerships to improve educational

¹³⁰ de Silva, S. and Valsangkar, P., 2015. The Impact of Education Management Information Systems: The Case of Afghanistan, URL: <http://blogs.worldbank.org/education/impact-education-management-information-systems-case-afghanistan>

¹³¹ Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (South Sudan), 2015. Education for All 2015 National Review.

outcomes. In addition to umbrellas, other non-state actors also play key roles in the education system. The structure and function of CECs should be subject to further study in order to assess their efficacy and strengthen the short route of accountability. The specific roles of the diaspora and private individuals remain unclear and should therefore also be investigated.

3. **SCHOOL LEADERSHIP:** There is a need to further study the role of school leadership (including ownership and management) as they have important roles in determining quality through resource allocation, hiring practices, and establishing school guidelines. The study should pay particular attention to the school-level decision-making process on fundraising, resource allocation, management and training of teaching staff and curriculum.
4. **TEACHER QUALITY:** Almost no information is currently available on the teaching quality at primary and secondary schools in Somalia. A baseline assessment of teacher capacity and performance across a range of school types would inform the development of teacher training curriculum as well as any future interventions in support of teaching staff.
5. **FUNDING:** The lack of resources was identified as one the biggest challenges faced by schools. The reliance on school fees places the financial burden on parents and contributes to exclusion. Future research should look more specifically at how much funding schools receive and generate themselves, as well as how the funds are allocated. This would help identify alternative means of financing education and improve the efficiency of spending.