



**REPUBLIC OF SOMALILAND  
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND  
HIGHER STUDIES  
Education Sector Analysis  
2012-2016**

**DECEMBER 2016**

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# FOREWORD

The Somaliland Education Sector Analysis (2012-2016) is a detailed analytical document that provides a comprehensive picture of the Somaliland Education Sector. The ESA provides an evidence based scrutiny of the sector, looking back at the goals and strategies set in the Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012-2016 and the achievements, failures and lessons learnt to date. More importantly, the ESA provides a basis and relevant analytical information for the development of a robust, credible and realistic ESSP (2016-2021).

The global progression from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) necessitates that countries and governments develop a credible, reliable yet sustainable strategies and plans that seek to align key sectorial activities and output to broader SDG goals. In this case, a comprehensive analysis of the education sector provides a rock solid foundation for a sound five-year strategy in the upcoming ESSP 2016-2021.

This being the first ESA for Somaliland, some effort has been made to highlight statistical evidence throughout the sector where feasible and relevant although it should be noted that availability of credible and reliable data continue to be a critical challenge to an accurate appraisal of the progress made in the sector over the past five years. The Education Information Management System (EMIS) providing most of the data that has gone into buttressing arguments and assertions made in this analyses only covers some sub-sectors leaving vital data gaps that should be addressed going forward.

Further, the analyses goes beyond a mere diagnosis of the education sub-sectors of Early Childhood Education (ECE), Primary, Secondary, Non-Formal Education, TVET and Higher Studies but takes into consideration the role that cross-cutting themes play in enhancing the quality, access and effectiveness of the education and training systems. The themes of Education Financing, Governance, Curriculum Development, Quality Assurance, Out-of School Children, Internal and External Efficiency, Gender and Equity have been given prominence wherever availability of sufficient data has allowed. In the realization of the increasingly outstanding importance being accorded to matters related to risk and fragility especially for states and governments emerging from conflicts and those facing arrested development, the ESA has delved in-depth into this theme providing useful insights and perspectives limited data notwithstanding.

**HE Abdillahi Ibrahim Habane**

**Minister for Education and Higher Studies**

**Republic of Somaliland**

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## List of Abbreviations

AABE	Accelerated Alternative Basic Education
AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
ABE	Alternative Basic Education
ALP	Accelerated Learning Program
CBO	Community Based Organization
CEC	Community Education Committee
CfBT	Centre for British Teachers
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DEO	District Education Officer
DG	Director General
ECD	Early Childhood Development
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESY	Education Statistics Yearbook
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan
EFA	Education for All
EBT	Enterprise Based Training
EPS	Employment Promotion Serves
GNP	Gross National Product
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HDR	Human Development Report
IAS	International Aid Service
IBT	Institute Based Training
IP	Implementing Partners
IDP	Internally Displaced people
INGO	International Non-Government Organizations
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ICDSEA	Integrated Capacity Development for Somali Education Administration
JPLG	Joint Program for Local Governance
JRES	Joint Review of the Education Sector
M & E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MOEHS	Ministry of Education and Higher Education
MOEHS	Ministry of Education and Higher Studies
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and social Affairs
NFE	Non-Formal Education

NFBE	Non-formal Basic Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NDP	National Development plan
NQF	National Qualification Framework
NTA	National Training Agency
PTR	Pupil Teacher Ratio
PINEAPPLES	Pacific Island Nation Evaluation Analysis Policy and Planning Leveraging Education Statistics
PPP	Purchasing Parity Price
QAAS	Quality Assurance and Standard Service
QI	Quality Indicators
REC	Regional Education Committee
REO	Regional Education Officer
SABER	Systems Approach for Better Education Results
SEC	School Educational Committee
SEIGYW	Somali Educational Incentives for Girls and Young Women
SL	Somaliland
SLSH	Somaliland Shilling
SNEP	Somaliland National Education Policy
SPLE	Somaliland Primary Leaving Examination
SSCE	Somaliland Secondary Certificate of Education
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
SCOTT	Strengthening Capacity of Teacher Training
SNE	Special Education Needs
SNEC	Somaliland National Examinations Council
SNTAC	Special Needs Assessment and Training Centre
SWOT	Strength Weakness Opportunity and Threats
SWAP	Sector Wide Approach
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
UNCRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Education Science and Culture Organization
VQF	Vocational Qualification Framework
VBA	Visual Basic for Applications
WB	World Bank
W&R	Winnefeld and Raymond Ltd. Co.
WHO	World Health Organization

## Executive Summary

The Somaliland Education Sector Analysis (ESA) has been conducted in response to the request by the Government of Somaliland, its sector partner, the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), and the Managing Entity, UNICEF, for an evidence-based analysis of the Education Sector within the period of the outgoing ESSP (2012-2016). Key objectives of the analysis include identifying education trends and priorities that will shape the new Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP). As emphasized in ESA global guidelines,<sup>1</sup> this ESA is based on a wide spectrum of dialogues with government duty-bearers, local partners and community stakeholders. The report is committed to being as accurate and as rigorous as possible so as to inform policies and strategies for the education sector for the next five years.

### Methodology

The methodology utilized for this analysis follows international standards and guidelines developed by organizations such as UNESCO, UNICEF and USAID. The analysis has been developed based on the following key stages:

- A review of the pertinent literature, including the ESSP 2012-16 and a range of reports listed in the bibliography
- Analysis of the key statistics including the relevant Education Management Information System (EMIS) statistics for the relevant years. Where necessary these have been validated by the team verifying the accuracy in randomly selected schools.
- Workshops with key members of the Ministry to formulate research questions and to analyse the progress made in each sector of education
- Presentation of draft findings to the same workshops in order to check and develop the findings.
- The result of this process has led to the writing of this report which reflects the conclusions of both stakeholders in discussions and workshops and the analysis of the reports and statistics.

### Structure

This report is structured on GPE guidelines for sector analysis and sector planning, albeit with the appropriate modifications. Much attention has been given to the need to provide a credible education sector plan supported by development partners and owned by local stakeholders and the MOEHS. From the onset key partners from the MOEHS were briefed by UNICEF (the managing entity of the GPE Grant for Somaliland) about the scope of works and methodologies to apply. Upon initiation of the work in Somaliland a Working Group for the ESA was constituted which led to a 6 pillar structure of the ESA report reflecting the most important issue in the education sector as suggested by ministry partners: These are: early childhood education, primary, secondary, alternative basic and higher education as well as TVET. This structure is also consistent with and directly comparable with the out-phasing ESSP 2012-2016; it also mirrors the organizational structure of the MOEHS so that the linkages to managerial responsibilities (for the later execution and monitoring of the planning exercise) are transparent. In addition, the partners in the Working Groups identified critical issues and themes, often cutting-across the sectors, specifically: equity issues, centred around gender, inclusiveness, rural access to education services; quality and efficiency issues (external and internal), good governance and management of the sector, Monitoring & Evaluation, EMIS, data generation and reliability issues, and training of teachers and head teachers.

The structure of the report and its sequencing of themes reflects these issues and expectations from partners and provides a factual description of the sector based on available empirical evidences.

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<sup>1</sup> UNESCO IIEP et al: Education sector analysis methodological guidelines, 9/2014, page 29.

Three field missions were instrumental to produce the necessary evidence informing this report. Additionally, a final mission was conducted during a National ESA Validation Conference held in October 2016. This forum brought together key stakeholders in the education sector to review the ESA, and create an agreed foundation on which to build the new ESSP 2017-2021.

## Key Observations

Some of the key observations for the Somaliland Education Sector between 2012 and 2016 include the fact that The allocation of national funding to the education sector has improved with increase in the national budget. In the past five years, the budget allocation to education has almost doubled from USD 7.8 million in 2012 to USD 14.6 million in 2016. Up to 72% of this<sup>2</sup> was absorbed by teachers' salaries, which, despite reported as being low<sup>3</sup>, has left little for capital expenditure and running costs, especially for free primary education that was introduced in 2011. For the Primary sub-sector there is a 9.9 % increase in primary schools from the baseline number of 987 schools in 2012, which is a growth rate of approximately 2% annually. At the same time, the number of ABE centres has declined. The average annual growth rate of classrooms is 15.9% in the formal primary sector for the last five years, which is below the 612 classrooms annually promised in the ESSP 2012/16 but sufficient to keep up with the growing enrolment at this level

In the secondary sub-sector, the total current student enrolment of both private and public schools as per the 2014/15 data is 47,913 compared to an enrolment of 31,072 in 2011 an increase of 54% over four years. Although this remains a very rapid increase in enrolment and thus a challenge to planners, it is slower than the 20% recorded annually between 2008 and 2011. The total teaching force currently serving the secondary education sector is 1,804 teachers of whom only 26 are female. This compares with 1112 teachers in 2011 an increase of 62%.

Additionally, about 48% boys and 40% girls have attended formal school. Only a quarter of women in Somaliland are literate, and that deplorable illiteracy status varies greatly with region and place of residence. For example, 45% of women residing in urban areas are literate compared to only 10% of their rural counterparts

The report demonstrates that there is a structural dilemma in the sector. Significant growth in investments targeted to benefit learners has been achieved and has in fact had some positive impact on the delivery of the out-going ESSP.

The key successes of ESSP in this period can be summarised as follows:

- Free primary education has been implemented across the country.
- An increasing number of teachers are now paid for by the government
- An increase in the teaching force has meant the teacher to learner ratio has been maintained
- A building program of class rooms has kept pace with the expansion in learner numbers
- The introduction of a new outcome based curriculum framework with syllabi but as yet without support learning materials
- There has been a significant improvement in the gender ratio with more girls attending school and performing better.

However, the key shortfalls in delivery of the on-going ESSP, are as follows (with further detail in relevant chapters of the report):

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<sup>2</sup> Expenditure figures from the Finance Department, Ministry of Education

<sup>3</sup> Ahmed, Hassan S. 2009. An Analytical Understanding of How External Sources Inform and Impact Upon Somaliland's National Education and Teacher Education Policy-making Processes. PhD Thesis.

- A reduction to near zero in the rate of growth of enrolment in Primary schools but continued growth in enrolment in secondary schools
- No significant improvement in the Net enrolment rate.
- A decline in the quality of teachers represented by an increase in the ratio of unqualified teachers, with nearly 50% of teachers now not categorized as 'qualified'.
- A decline in the ratio of children to learning materials.
- No significant improvement in learning outcomes at primary level, with very low results in mathematics, but encouraging results in Somali literacy. There is also some improvement in examination pass rates at grade 8 and form 4.
- The education sector serves as a major contributor to Somaliland's social and economic development. It still faces major weaknesses and challenges. Students' participation rates in the education system are still low, with more than 50% of children and youth being excluded from basic education. Quality in all subsectors is a constant challenge as evidenced by rather low achievement levels. There is a challenging trend to privatisation of basic (primary and secondary) education, largely driven by the low quality delivery of public services, mostly attributable to low quality of teachers and low professional morale, as well as poor infrastructure and equipment in public schools. Private education can provide significant stimuli to the public sector and makes a major contribution (about 30%) to improved access. However, both should compete on a comparable financial basis and the public sector should not subsidise private education. It is also recommended (and further argued in the relevant section of this paper) that the role and functionality of early childhood education (ECE) in a comprehensive education system needs to be given greater recognition by the Government and aligned with priorities of the MOEHS.

## Key Findings by theme and sub-sector

### Demographics:

Though not yet recognized as a sovereign state, Somaliland is governed by a democratically elected government consisting of three branches of government, Executive, Legislature and Judiciary. The administrative structure consists of a judiciary, legislative bodies (House of Elders and House of Representatives) and an Executive (the President and his chosen council of ministers). As shown in Table 1, Somaliland is divided into six regions, namely Adwal, Maroodi-Jeex, Sahil, Sanaag, Sool and Togdheer. These are subdivided into 35 districts. The capital of Somaliland is Hargeisa, with an estimated population of about one million, whilst the principal port is Berbera.

The World Bank's socio-economic survey of 2002 gives the figure USD1.6 billion, while its 2006 survey estimated GDP at USD 1.3 billion. Most of the international institutions use these sources, whilst the latest CIA Fact Book figures Somalia GDP in purchasing parity price (PPP) prices is given as USD 5.89 billion, and the per capita income at USD 600. The nominal GDP at the official exchange rate is estimated at USD 2.37 billion, which implies a GDP per capita of about USD 240. The Somaliland Ministry of National Planning and Development<sup>4</sup> estimates that Somaliland has an average GDP of USD 1.05 billion in nominal prices and USD 2.10 in PPP terms

As a whole, Somalia including Somaliland scores 160 out of 164 countries according to World Bank country rankings by available Human Development Index data available. Somaliland's income per capita is relatively higher than that of the rest of Somalia, generally due to its relative peace and political stability<sup>5</sup> since 1991

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<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

<sup>5</sup> UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012*.



About 1.9 million, constituting about 56.4% of the total population are between the age of 15 to 64 years and therefore available and able to work. Total employment (comprising self-employment, paid employment, unpaid economically productive family work excluding normal household chores) among the economically active population is 29.6% of the total population (or 52.6% of the economically active population) meaning that half of the labour force are not engaged in any form of productive employment. At the same time, a 2004 survey<sup>6</sup> estimated that child labour in Somaliland is 18%.

The total estimated population of Somaliland is some 3.5 million people with the average population growth rate is 3.1% per annum. Some 48.8% of the population is male, whilst 51.2% is female<sup>7</sup>. Sixty-two percent of the female population is aged under 25, compared to 66% of males. The average life expectancy is 50 years and 55 years for males and females, respectively<sup>8</sup>. The total population is expected to grow by 32% between 2010 and 2020, whilst the under 15 year age group will decrease slightly from 44.4% to 44.2%, signifying a higher number of children of school age in the future considering overall population growth estimates<sup>9</sup>. There are nearly 1.85 million people living in urban areas (52.9%), compared with about 0.4 million in rural areas and 1.2 million nomadic/pastoralist (combined 44.8%) and 84, 000 internally displaced persons (IDPs).

Accordinging the UNDP Somalia Human Development Report (2012), the literacy rate among school children aged 6 to 13 was 42%, percent, whilst the adult literacy rate was estimated at 31%: percent: 26% percent for females against 36% percent for males. Among the literate population, the majority has a primary level education, with only a small proportion attaining secondary level or above<sup>10</sup>. Literacy is a strong contributor to economic growth and individuals' earnings in a country<sup>11</sup> and such low literacy rates most definitely have significant development challenges to the Somaliland nation.

### **Hazards, conflict and political economy:**

It is estimated that nearly 70,000 learners have been forced out of school over different types of shocks and emergencies in the period of the outgoing ESSP (2012-2016). This has however not resulted in increased assessments and monitoring of national and local risks and hazards to enable the tracking of events over time. There is need to give increased attention to strengthening of rapid response capacities and standby emergency mechanisms of both government and donors and partners to enable timely and adequate response during crisis.

Pastoralists communities, IDPs, girls and learners from rural communities apart from experiencing the greatest educational inequalities are also increasingly prone to communal conflicts and environmental hazards. Yet, strategies in the outgoing ESSP have been poorly aligned to mitigating risks and strengthening the resilience of these groups, as demonstrated by evidence on results achieved for nomadic and pastoralist communities and limited increases with GPI. Government should thus prioritize its

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<sup>6</sup> Academy for Peace and Development. 2004. Socio-Economic Survey 2004 Somaliland.

<sup>7</sup> Somaliland Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey. 2011.

<sup>8</sup> Somaliland Mission in USA. <http://somaliland.us/>

<sup>9</sup> UNFPA Somalia Population Estimation Survey 2014 <http://somalia.unfpa.org/sites/arabstates/files/pub-pdf/Population-Estimation-Survey-of-Somalia-PESS-2013-2014.pdf>

<sup>10</sup> UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012*.

<sup>11</sup> Serge Coulombe, Jean-François Tremblay and Sylvie Marchand, 2004, *Literacy scores, human capital and growth across fourteen OECD countries*. Statistics Canada Catalogue number 89-552-MIE200411.

investments to supporting the most marginalized children, aligning policy and strategy to actual needs, and ensure inclusive and transparent planning and budget allocation.

There is also a need for additional research on capacities within the government and in particular the Ministry of Education to better understand organizational weaknesses related to procurement, recruitment, financial management and resource allocation to improve equitable education service delivery and mitigate risks related to political and social grievance among groups who experience exclusion and marginalization

### **Education Cost and Financing:**

Several international development bodies continue to contribute to channel funding from multilateral and bilateral bodies which contribute significant direct resources to building the education sector. However, the modalities for these interventions remain uncoordinated and demonstrate limited attempts to build capacities in the Ministry. This can however be largely attributed to gaps and weaknesses with funds accountability mechanisms within government overall and on-going fears of massive funds leakage if channeling funding through government budgetary systems.

The Private sector, whose role in the expansion of affordable education was well articulated in the outgoing ESSP has however shown little evidence of maximizing this potential. None of the budget data presented herein accounts for funding from private foundations or overseas interests, which also highlights the fragmentation of the education sector and challenges the government faces in generating domestic financing to fund the expansion of quality public education services that will benefit the most marginalized communities in Somaliland

Domestic financing of the education sector remain below the recommended international standards and despite the annual dollar values for the education financing increasing over the years, the proportion of the national budget has remained stagnant at 7%. Further, there is little evidence of investing in emergency preparedness and dealing with fragility. In such contexts, donors are typically and correctly extremely cautious in providing resources through government financing mechanisms given high risks of funds leakage and weak accountability mechanisms. It is recommended that Donors and Implementing Partners consider funding functions around fragility related to improving sector management (particularly in relation to accountability and transparency initiatives) so as to maximize efficiencies with investments in the education sector.

It is encouraging to see the decrease in the proportions of government funding going into payment of personnel from 92% in 2012 to 72% in 2016. However, government has increasingly turned to donors to fund teacher payments and incentives – though making commitments to take up some of these payments now. On a positive note, there remains much fiscal space for greater domestic financing in education over the security sector, suggesting that a number of quality improvement and equity needs can be financed in a sustainable fashion. These will require greater advocacy with government decision-makers based on reliable evidence to secure increased domestic financing for education services.

### **Early Childhood Development (ECE):**

The outgoing ESSP (2012-2016) acknowledges the importance of ECE and suggests six measures to be implemented which includes the formulation of a comprehensive ECE policy regulatory framework and the exploration of an integrated approach for Quranic and formal ECE schools. The others were the development of a curriculum and teacher training programmes, mobilization of additional resources, creation of an ECE unit in the MOEHS and provide adequate learning resources. Of all these, only a framework has been developed.

Currently, all the existing ECE facilities are managed by NGOs and Private entities. The sub-sector is not only underfunded but there exist virtually no data in the EMIS system pertaining it. There is also little distinction of roles and functions between the formal ECE and the widespread network of Quranic schools.

It is recommended that increasing responsibility be taken over by MOEHS over kindergartens that are currently largely managed by private foundations. It would also be worthwhile to integrate key aspects of curriculum with Koranic education to see if there is as a possible way of extending key pre-school competencies to a wide range of children. It is also important to finalize the policy framework for ECE to create overall coherence, ensure government oversight and quality assurance.

### **Primary Education:**

The Primary sub-sector is the highest priority for 2012-16, especially the delivery of good-quality primary education to vulnerable children and girls. The MOEHS recognizes several reasons for public investments in Primary education. The *ESSP (2012-16)* lists various challenges in the sector as of 2012 which would be addressed in the upcoming 4 year period. Key challenges included:

- Inadequate financial and human resource capacity
- Large number of IDPs and Pastoralists (up to 60%)
- Curriculum gaps
- Poor accountability framework
- Low teacher motivation
- Poor public-private coordination

According to the ESSP, all of the above challenges present a clear threat to the free primary education policy and to the MDG target of achieving universal primary education by 2015 especially without sufficient external support. Accordingly, as further outlined in Chapter 4, the Master Education Action Plan 2014 MOEHE Somaliland allocated over \$20.4 M would be injected into implementing the Primary sector strategy.

During the 2012-16 period, the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) has been largely stagnant at 43%, falling short of the 75% target. Low enrolment is largely due to unavailability of schools, especially for pastoralists. Whilst the ESSP aimed at construction of 612 new classrooms annually, 461 new classrooms were constructed annually, which, whilst achieving an annual average increase in classrooms of 15.9%, this increase has not reflected on student enrolment as was hoped, indicating that further research is needed to look into causes of poor enrolment and more evidence-based strategies should be developed towards this end. Nevertheless, internal efficiency indicators are promising. Drop-out rates reduced from 10.8 to 3.6 between 2014 and 2015, but there was no data available for the 2012-2014 period for this indicator. The annual average repetition rate, at 2015, is low, at just 2%, whilst the survival rate (2012-2015) is 21% higher during the ESSP period than it was before.

The sub-sector continues to have significant equity issues, ranging from gender, rural-urban and wealth disparities. For example, the Gender Parity index is 0.83, showing that girls are slightly under-represented. Only 15% of teachers in primary school are female. Whilst 54% of schools are based in rural areas, 73% of student enrolment is in urban areas. Finally, whereas the ESSP target was to have 6,000 children with special needs in school by 2016, the data shows that only 702 children with special needs are enrolled in school as of 2015.

The major contributors to the missed targets of the outgoing ESSP point towards financial, governance and management capacity gaps, but also imply that the original targets set may have been slightly overestimated. Structural and human resource infrastructure, and supply of other

supporting inputs such as school feeding programs and community empowerment, require further research to create evidence-based objectives and targets for the upcoming ESSP period.

### **Secondary Education:**

The Secondary sub-sector has been the fastest growing sector over the past 4-5 years. Since 2012, there have been signs of positive progress, namely: Secondary school enrolment has increased by a rate of 54% from 31,072 to 47,913 in four years. However, there are clear discrepancies in the geographical distribution of enrolment rates between urban and rural localities across regions. This indicates a need for considerate, evidence-based planning when building new secondary schools, to facilitate access. The challenge for this is because of how remote the rural areas are, there is probably challenges for access in terms of infrastructure, the teachers do not want to be stationed here, transport is a challenge for students and parents and so on. Some very critical and thoughtful strategies must be implemented to address this. Some recommendations that we have for the next ESSP include:

- Improve the EMIS statistics for Secondary schools including studies of cohorts
- Strategies and pilot workable options for serving out of school children
- Causes and effects of regional distribution and ownership
- Study the possible role of boarding facilities for improving access, especially for poorer and pastoralist families.
- Improving the effectiveness of strategies to improve the gender balance.

The analysis shows that education planners and decision-makers should give more attention to the rural areas in terms of providing sufficient access to secondary education, with the same being true for primary education. Students who travel long distances are most likely victims of the uneven distribution of schools between rural and urban localities. A new strategy should be designed to cater for special-needs students in terms of skilled delivery (for example, provision of Braille-based learning materials, sign language facilities and a special more inclusive approach to the curriculum for students with learning disabilities. Furthermore, there is a severe shortage of secondary textbooks in all the subjects. The Ministry needs to agree a realistic policy as to what is an acceptable ratio that ensure all learners have access to textbooks and how textbooks should be used to enhance learning. The building of classrooms has kept up with student enrolment, and there is generally enough space for students given current participation rates though inevitably there will be variations with overcrowding in urban areas. The student teacher ratio in government schools is also quite reasonable at 24 learners to one teacher which would suggest that the government has kept to its commitment to secondary schools in terms of maintaining a building program that keeps up with the growth in numbers.

Further studies needed to understand enrolment, transition and dropout rates. This can be achieved by designing clear research questions, strengthening EMIS and data collection quality and coordination, and to incorporate data on interventions such as construction and procurement monitoring. It is also imperative that research is conducted to establish the needs for secondary level education in rural areas is also imperative as well as determining the advantages and disadvantages of expanding the use of double shift in urban areas, which need to be discussed with a clear cost benefit analysis of the alternatives, such as boarding schools and distance learning. Options for education that can be offered to out of school youth in this age group in both urban and rural areas need to be agreed and costed in order to continue the encouraging trends in increased enrolment.

### **Alternative Basic Education (ABE):**

Alternative Basic Education (ABE) in Somaliland is designed to address the needs of out of school children through condensed and integrated curricular, flexible timetables, cost-effective use of resources, and high community participation aimed at improving access, equity and efficiency in the education system. In Somaliland, about 48% boys and 40% girls have attended formal school, and the average grade completed is Grade 3<sup>12</sup>.

### **Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET):**

The TVET and also Higher Education sub-sectors have been receiving only recently growing attention, probably attributable to the urgent, most intensive efforts of re-building the sector at the bottom of the pyramid. As described in the financing analysis chapter, the bulk of domestic and international funding has gone into building basic education, and that is much aligned with commitment to principles of Education for All, the commitment to (fee) free primary education policies, MDGs and SDGs, specifically for most vulnerable segments of the society, children, and specifically girls. With enrolment rate of under 50% there is no doubt that the challenges persist. And yet, it has become increasingly evident that the pressures on post primary education are progressively increasing requesting education opportunities in secondary education, but also TVET, particularly for those youths who are not able or motivated to continue general (academically inclined) education paths. The chapter on TVET also highlights the need to recognise TVET as a tool in macro economic (sustainable growth related) policies. Both populations pressures and economic needs for growth will require stringent policies and action to expand TVET. What exactly needs to be done could not be laid-out at the aspired level of concreteness as the sector is fundamentally lacking structured data provision. The analysis, despite extensive (additional) field-visits is revealing a large handicap by remaining at rather descriptive and even generic level, enforced by the poor data situation. This, in itself, is a clear result and suggests strong measures and actions by the Government to prepare the management tools to steer the sector, and ensure that the various private initiatives, mostly externally (donor) funded, are indeed aligned under one policy by a capacitated MOEHS and its TVET Authority. Not surprisingly, the lack of funding represents a massive barrier to any expansion of a costly sector. Therefore, nothing less than a paradigm shift is promulgated by making the economy a key financier of the sector. Once agreed, it is clear that quality and management standards must be improved as intensive involvement of the private sector will (in turn) require higher levels of accountability to satisfy expectations from those providing the funding. The chapter also highlights the need for the Government to act resolutely and push forward various overdue reforms, notably the promulgation of the Qualification Framework, and the National Authority for TVET. These are pending pre-requisites for a convincing reform. The chapter makes it sufficiently clear, that solid concepts to structure the sector in all key elements are available, what is needed is action by the Government. This is the time to act, and this ESA should lay the foundation to achieve this.

It also emerges that there is insufficient public financial and human resources that lower the quality of educational services in ABE facilities. This also includes learning material and documents regarding teachers, training and supplementary reading resources.

It is recommended that ABE centres be part of quality assurance and standard services as well as the scaling up of school feeding programmes to encourage attendance and boost enrolment.

### **Higher Education:**

The Higher Education sector lacks critical and credible data regarding student enrolment, lecturers, qualifications and courses offered as the EMIS system does not cover this sub-sector. Data from multiple non-government sources reveal that there are some 10,500 male and 4,900 female students

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<sup>12</sup> MOEHS Somaliland, 2012. Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-16 p. 38-39

in Somaliland enrolled across the 17 institutions listed above<sup>13</sup>, with 902 teaching staff and 416 non-teaching staff. The most popular courses are Business Administration, ICT, Science and Technology, Engineering and Economics. It is also noted that 'education science' is not a popular course at university level, probably attributable to the poor working conditions and remuneration for teachers in the country<sup>14</sup>.

Of 437 recorded university lecturers, a total of 57% only have a Bachelor's Degree. The university with the greatest proportion of lecturers with a bachelor's degree is Hargeisa University, with 97%, with Amoud and Gollis each with around 25% of lecturers have a Bachelor's Degree. While just under 5% of all lecturers hold a PhD, Gollis University has the highest proportion with 32% of lecturers hold a PhD (8), compared to Hargeisa University which has only 1.5% of lecturers having a PhD (3). Even though Hargeisa University has a much larger number of lecturers, the total number of those with a PhD (only 3) suggests that, unlike Gollis, Hargeisa University does not have a clear policy or intent to recruit lecturers who have PhDs. While faring better, Amoud University has just under 5% of its lecturers with a PhD (10). However, Amoud has a large proportion at Master's level (almost 70%, or 146), compared to 44% (or 11) in Gollis. Hargeisa University thus appears to have least invested in hiring of lecturers with higher academic qualification as only a combined total of lecturers have either a PhD (3) or Master's (10). The remaining 187 lecturers are all Bachelor degree holders.

It is encouraging to note that the drafts of Higher Education Act for the Commission and Higher Education policy have been developed and incorporated into the Education Policy. The government has also been offering subsidies to the 18 public and private universities over the past 5 years.

There are however key areas for improvement for the sector in the realization that no university mentioned has reported any key findings on research activities and that the number of PhD holders is incredibly low. At the same time, only three universities: Amoud University, Burao University and Gollis University offer courses related to Animal Science, Agriculture and Environment

### **Governance, Capacity Assessment, Equity and Learning outcomes:**

The Ministry of Education and Higher Studies is composed of the Ministry of Education, Higher Education and Commission for Higher Education and is led by a Minister with the assistance of a Vice-Minister and a State Minister. There are 12 departments in the Ministry as well as a National Examination Board that is autonomous to this structure and reports directly to the Minister of Education. The curriculum framework provides clear learning outcomes for each learning area and for each level, Lower Primary (Grade 4), Upper Primary (Grade 8) and Secondary Form 4.

The Somaliland National Education Policy (2015-2030) and the National Curriculum Framework outline the language policy, and thus the medium of instruction in education and training. The QASS is a department of the MOEHS in charge of Quality Assurance and Standards. The department has developed a comprehensive quality assurance checklist that guides school visits by quality advisors

The Somaliland National Examinations Council (SNEC), established in 2011, is responsible for the national examinations system and the accreditation of certificates for primary, secondary, teacher education and tertiary sub-sectors of education and training. The overall design of the examination system is sound and fit-for-purpose. However, there are numerous challenges with the examination system as well as uncertainties about its ability to cater to the needs of marginalized communities.

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<sup>13</sup> As noted below, there are no accurate gender disaggregated official statistics; app. one third of the student population are female.

<sup>14</sup> Focus Group Discussion with MOEHS HE Working Group, Hargeisa, August 2016.

There are also burning questions about sustainability and accountability of the examination system. While there have been commendable gains in strengthening examination systems in Somaliland, the incoming ESSP will need to address funding sustainability issues as well as conduct in-depth analysis of transparency and accountability processes of SNEC related to procurement and supply to mitigate sector management risks

### **Sector Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation:**

Sector planning, Monitoring and Evaluation potentially comes under the work of two units, the M&E unit and EMIS unit. There is understaffing that both are under the line authority of the Planning and Policy Department. It also emerges that there is no capacity within the EMIS unit to customize data collection forms used by the ministry, which means that old data collections form are used despite the need to update tools in order to collect relevant data.

While numerous challenges exist with the EMIS, the MOEHS now collects school data on an annual basis and produces statistical yearbooks which are used by many partners for assessing performance of the sector and their respective programmes. It should also be highlighted that challenges with EMIS spring from the original design phase of the outgoing ESSP and weaknesses with monitoring system initially established. The outgoing ESSP did not clearly define or outline a M&E framework on which a cohesive M&E system could be developed. As a result, monitoring indicators for Action Plan's and related targets lacked precise timelines and clear linkages between objectives and results.

It is recommended that an overall EMIS policy for quality assurance and regulation purposes be developed and that during the design phase of the incoming ESSP, ensure that indicators, targets and means of verification are realistic and achievable and logically tied to sector objectives. At the same time, a plan to either improve or replace the PINEAPPLES system should be put in place considering the pros and cons (this is outlined in Chapter 12) and with the emergence of free online courses, MOEHS staff should sign up to data management and M&E courses to improve their technical skills while MOEHS management should encourage their staff to pursue this option. Additionally, the MOEHS should buttress free online learning options by allocating a small budget line item for professional development of EMIS personnel. This will also break the ministry's dependency on any single staff member for the workability of EMIS.

### **Key Recommendations for the next ESSP**

A key factor to make sector investments more efficient points to the need for analyses that review the present modalities of sector funding, with a bias to ensure that all sources of sector funding and management should fall under the sole responsibility of a capacitated MOEHS with a realistic, comprehensive and robust sector plan, equipped with a clear-cut monitoring framework fully compliant with good standards that are maintained by the Department of Quality supervision and transparency within the finding that has the confidence of the community and the donors. The plan, when agreed will need to identify a wider source of funding at present to ensure an improvement in quality of education and a move towards doubling the numbers who have access to this education from the present 50% towards a 100% but without setting targets that are unrealistic.

There is also a need to develop a clear and realistic strategy to ensure that the challenge of out of school children is comprehensively addressed. It is estimated that at the current rate where the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) for Primary schools including Integrated Quranic Schools (IQS) and ABEs is stagnant at 44% (2014/2015) and the Net Enrolment Rate (NER) at 33%, and considering the population growth, it will take over 50 years for Somaliland to attain the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) of universal basic education to all.

The ESSP will need to establish creative ways, and in consideration of the limited resources to cater not only for the 53% that should join the first grade in 2017 but also the remaining that missed formal education over the past few years through the ABE programmes.

It is recommended that the Government set a progressive yet achievable target taking into consideration the various activities that will contribute to a sustainable rise in enrolment and decrease in out-of school children. Considerations should be made to provide more classrooms especially in rural and marginalized areas as well as targeted and integrated learning centres for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and Pastoralists. School feeding programmes have not only be known to boost enrolment and retention in schools but also encourage girls participation in education and this should be considered in target regions requiring such interventions. More classrooms calls for an increase in the number of qualified teachers and better terms of service for the teachers in service in an effort to reduce leakage to private schools and other jobs.

There is no doubt all these interventions will require greater financial commitment and mobilization from all possible funding sources. To begin with, the MoEHS would be encouraged to negotiate with the Central Government for additional allocation to the Ministry over the 7% of the national budget allocated in the past few years.

Guided by a well-prioritized and costed ESSP with clearly spelled out activities, donors and partners would be encouraged to align their assistance to government priorities. Improved financial management and accountability as well as a monitoring framework that will enable tracking of achievements and milestones would of course reinforce this. It is also important for critical success and risk factors be identified and mitigated to ensure that planned outcomes are achieved.



# 1. Chapter 1 – Purpose and methodology of the Education Sector Analysis (ESA)

## 1.1 Background

In 2012 Somaliland, with support from the European Union (EU), through a participative process set-up a 5-year Education Sector-wide National Policy and Strategy Plan (ESSP). The ESSP has now reached its fifth year of implementation, which requires an updated Sector Analysis to be completed and new ESSP to lay out a roadmap to support that achievement of national and global education goals, particularly those related to SDG 4 for ensuring inclusive and quality education. However, like other countries recovering from histories of fragility and conflict, Somaliland has struggled to keep pace with progress toward global development targets. According the UNDP Somalia Human Development Report (2012), the literacy rate among school children aged 6 to 13 was 42%, whilst the adult literacy rate was estimated at 31%: 26% for females against 36% for males. Among the literate population, the majority has a primary level education, with only a small proportion attaining secondary level or above<sup>15</sup>.

The Government of Somaliland and its Ministry of Education are committed to utilizing social services such as education to support Peacebuilding and State building Goals (PSGs) and the longer-term development priorities of Somaliland aiming to build a prosperous and peaceful society. In this regard, the government of Somaliland is striving to overcome drivers of fragility such as violence, inequity and limited access to quality social services, weak governance and service delivery capacities, and limited educational capacities to mitigate or respond to environmental and man-made shocks.<sup>16</sup> Global evidence also demonstrates that the type and quality of education can either fuel marginalization, alienation, poverty, and vulnerabilities of children and young people or strengthen societal resilience.<sup>17</sup> Moreover, quality education services that utilize multiple pathways to increase access to quality education equips future generations with the skills and knowledge to positively contribute to the social, political and economic development of their communities and supports the realization of multiple Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In this regard, Education Sector Analysis (ESA) and Education Sector Strategic Planning (ESSP) play a critical role in providing and supporting the achievement of SDGs by providing an evidence-based approach to improving effective and efficient education services.

### Political and Administrative Context of Somaliland

The Somaliland Government is democratically elected and has three branches of government consisting of the Executive, Legislature and the Judiciary. Constitutionally, Somaliland has a multi-party system. Though not yet recognized as a sovereign state, the country has functioned as an independent state since 1991. The administrative structure consists of a judiciary, legislative bodies (House of Elders and House of Representatives) and an Executive (the President and his chosen council of ministers). As shown in Table 1, Somaliland is divided into six regions, namely Adwal, Maroodi-Jeex, Sahil, Sanaag, Sool and Togdheer. These are subdivided into 35 districts. The capital of Somaliland is Hargeisa, with an estimated population of about one million, whilst the principal port is Berbera.

Table 1. Regions in Somaliland – Land Size and Regional Bases per District

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<sup>15</sup> UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012*.

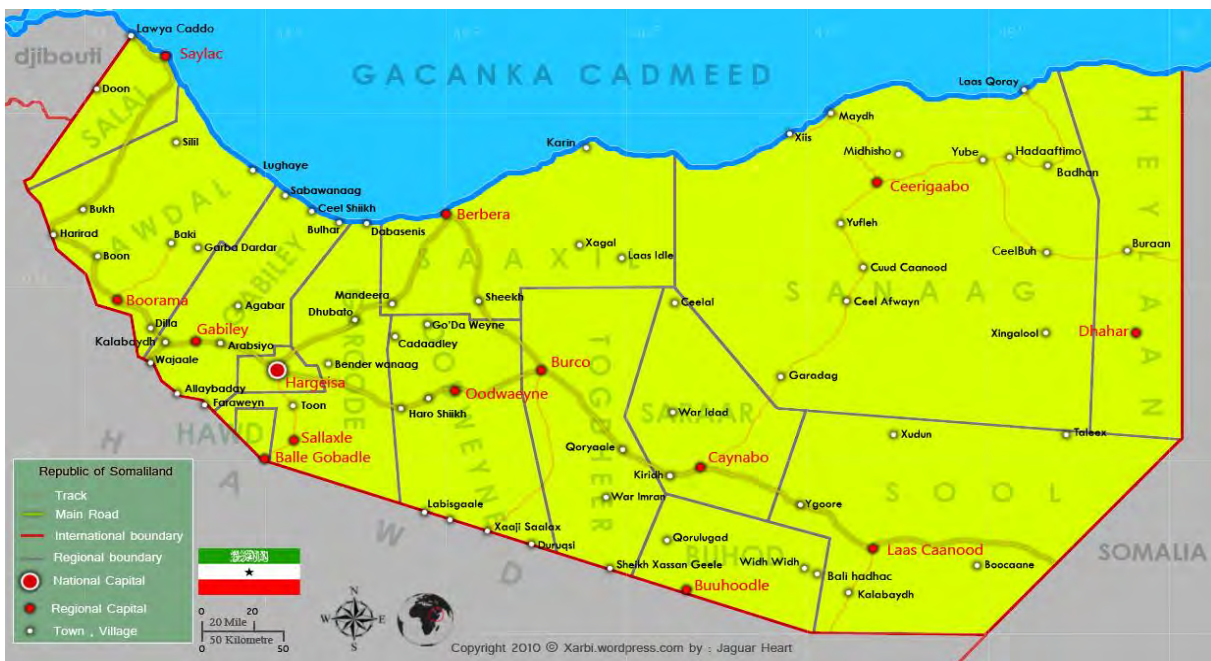
<sup>16</sup> For further information see OECD Fragile State Report 2015 on 'characteristics of fragility'.

<sup>17</sup> See UNESCO Global EFA Monitoring Report 2011.

Region	Land Size (Km <sup>2</sup> )	Regional Base (Capital/HQ)
<b>Maroodi Jeex</b>	16,138	Hargeisa
<b>Awdal</b>	11,202	Borama
<b>Sanaag</b>	48,747	Erigavo
<b>Sool</b>	24,465	Las Anood
<b>Togdeer</b>	25,667	Burao
<b>Saxil/Sahil</b>	11,381	Berbera

Somaliland's claimed territory has an area of 137,600 square kilometers (53,100 sq mi) as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1. MAP OF SOMALILAND<sup>18</sup>.



Somaliland's Education sector is managed by the Ministry of Education and Higher Studies (MOEHS). According to the MOEHS the educational goals of Somaliland have been identified as:

- To build a modern society based on the Rule-of-Law
- To promote the diffusion and practice of genuine Islamic principles and values
- To establish democratic governance emanating from the free expression of popular will and sovereignty
- To foster human rights, freedom, social justice and national unity
- To create an enlightened society made up of individuals with correct social values, attitudes and who are committed to the preservation and enrichment of cultural values and traditions based on Islamic principles
- To build a strong and self-reliant economy through the acquisition and application of scientific, technological and managerial knowledge and skills
- To protect and improve the condition of the natural environment, so as to pass it on as a safer and better heritage to future generations
- To ensure that Somaliland becomes a useful member of the international community and contributes to human progress and welfare

<sup>18</sup> OCHA. 2013. Somaliland Factsheet.

- To promote within the society a sense of responsibility for peace and improve human relations at the community, national and international levels.
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In 2012, the MOEHS developed the 2012-16 Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) that aimed to:

- Expand access to education and to raise the quality of education by enhancing the institutional capacity of the Ministry;
- Develop and apply appropriate educational policies, implementing various capacity-building programmes for professional development of educators and managers, as well as,
- Improve school infrastructure and access at all levels, including Higher Education.

The highest priority for 2012-16 was given as the delivery of good-quality primary education to as many of the age-group as possible. This involved the provision of sufficient classrooms and properly-maintained school facilities including water and sanitation, sufficient competent and well-motivated teachers, effective supervision and appropriate learning materials for children and providing specialized support to those most disadvantaged. Other priorities included the cost-effective provision of relevant secondary, TVET, university and continuous teacher development – together with effective information systems upon which sensible planning could be based and informed decisions taken, contributing to effective education sector management.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Education Sector Analysis and Education Sector Strategic Plan**

The Government of Somaliland is receiving support in conducting the ESA and ESSP to provide a comprehensive understanding of education development needs and priorities and progress made on key priorities during the last ESSP period. Particular attention will be given to areas underpinning the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) strategic development goals related to: quality of learning outcomes for children, out-of-school children and inequities with learning outcomes between groups in society, factors that undermine the quality and relevance of education services for marginalized children and young people, as well as education sector management and governance factors that contribute to inefficiencies and the quality of education services for all. Moreover, these areas are strongly aligned to addressing issues of risk and instability as outlined in UNESCO's 2011 Education for All Global Monitoring Report <sup>19</sup> and key characteristics that underpin fragility as identified by the Organization for Cooperation and Economic Development<sup>20</sup>.

This report coincides with the conclusion of the implementation period of the Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) 2012-2016. It provides a sector-wide analysis of the education system in the Republic of Somaliland, describing the current state and key trends of the sector over the past several years<sup>21</sup>. The sector's progress will be determined by results achieved against objectives and targets established in the previous ESSP for education development and, to the extent possible, whether priorities and strategies effectively addressed key determinants impacting upon improving access to quality education. This sector analysis also identifies successes, challenges and lessons

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<sup>19</sup> EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011. These include: 1) inequities in education that contribute to social grievances and which reflect governance and education sector management weaknesses, 2) low quality of education services and weak learning outcomes that contribute to early school leaving and undermine the resilience of children and youth people, and 3) educational curriculum that promotes forms of intolerance or bias or the cultural and economic exclusion of certain groups in a society.

<sup>20</sup> OECD-DAC Fragile States Report 2015.

<sup>21</sup> To the extent possible data trends are examined over the past five years. However, for a number of indicators used data is available for shorter periods of time.

learned to inform the development of the next ESSP cycle. It is important to build on the lessons learned from the past ESSP period to ensure the sector accelerates progress toward meeting local, national and international education goals. The guiding principles regarding the strategic approach to education sector analysis (ESA) can be summed-up as the following guiding principles:

- Commitment to evidence principles, building consistently on available data;
- Robust methodology that includes quantitative and qualitative data sources;
- Participatory processes to ensure reliability of data, transparency, accountability and ownership by local stakeholders;
- A process that identifies priorities that are aligned to local needs and development needs;
- Capacity development of local stakeholders through the sector analysis and strategic planning process;
- Promoting equity, inclusion and good governance.

### **1.3 Scope of the ESA**

Key areas considered in the ESA include enrolment and access (for both formal and non-formal education), internal efficiencies, capacity building and training, financing, teacher qualifications and distribution, learning outcomes and quality of education, governance and management of the education sector, and equity in education<sup>22</sup>. The ESA further focuses in particular on eight pillars of education in the country, as they are individually addressed in the ESSP, namely: Early Childhood Education; Primary Education; Alternative Basic / Non-Formal Basic Education (ABE / NFBE); Special Needs Education (SNE); Secondary Education; Teacher Education; Technical and Vocational Training (TVET), and Higher (tertiary) Education.

The main focus of the ESA is to establish the current status of the education sector. The research questions asked to guide the analysis were extracted from the Terms of Reference and the GPE guidelines. The key areas are:

- Assessment of the outgoing Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP), including strengths and accomplishments as well as weaknesses in order to provide evidence-based guidance for future action planning;
- Analysis of the context of the Education Sector in terms of 1) demographic, social, humanitarian context, and 2) macroeconomic and financial context to improve decision-making in sector policies, future investments and funding allocations in the education sector;
- At the sub-sector level: Analysis of enrolments (including gender and regional disaggregation of indicators, sub-sector profiles and others), internal efficiency (repetition, retention, standard ratios such as learner: teacher ratio and teacher deployment analysis), out-of-school learner populations (by sub-sector and areas (rural : urban));
- Cost and financing: Analyse public expenditure allocations for education, distribution by education sub-sector, contribution from households, detailed analysis on the public recurrent expenditure, analysis of unit costs by sub-sector; assessment of external sources of sector funding, including Diaspora, development partners, others;
- System capacity: quality of services provision, sector management (including enabling environment factors related to delegation of authorities and accountabilities within the sector), including analysis of learning assessments, conversion of resources into results, management of teachers;

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<sup>22</sup>Equity entails different dimensions including relevance of learning materials, geographic disparities, cultural forms of discriminations, participation of communities/stakeholders in decision-making processes, and quality of education received by different groups.

- External efficiency vis-a-vis allocations of sector funds (recurrent and investments): Labour market demand, social (macro-) system requirements and impact of the sector;
- Equity in 1) enrolments and learning achievements, 2) distribution of public resources;
- Identification of possible key areas of MOEHS's investment for the next five years.

#### 1.4 Sector Analysis Methodology

The ESA process was launched in March 2016 and with the participation of officials from the Somaliland Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MOEHS), donor representatives and government-implementing partners.

The ESA and ESSP processes follow internationally recognized methodological guidelines and those specifically recommended by GPE during all phases of the work to ensure quality evidence-based policy decision-making and, where possible, the identification of causality between indicators and outcomes affecting equity and learning of children and promoting coordination among local education and financing partners.

The following sources were consulted and applied:

- **Education Sector Analysis Methodological Guidelines Vol 1 & 2**<sup>23</sup> jointly developed by UNICEF, UNESCO, The World Bank and the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) Secretariat.
- **Education Sector Analysis Methodological Guideline Volume 3**, which is currently still under development and covers four thematic areas related to 'risk/vulnerability analysis, inclusive education, political economy and governance, as well as institutional capacity analysis. While these new guidelines remain under development, they are considered as critical for ESA and ESSP in the Somaliland context given the territory's history and on-going challenges with overcoming factors related to fragility.
- UNESCO/IIEP Guidance tools on risk informed/crisis sensitive education sector planning, developed jointly with UNICEF.
- **Asian Development Bank guidance note on Education Sector Risk Assessment**<sup>24</sup>, particularly focusing on risks associated with weak sector management systems and governance.

#### Analytical methods and data sources used

The ESA is an analytical product that uses mainly existing data/statistics from various sources and recent studies in Somaliland that will be used to inform the sector analysis. Descriptive statistical approaches were used in most cases to measure progress/change based on indicators from 2011 to 2016, thus allowing for an assessment of overall results achieved over the period of the previous ESSP. Analysis focused on key education indicators as well as those related to environmental and man-made risks, explores causal relationships between progress, or lack thereof, on education indicators and provides recommendations for actions to ensure progress for children and learners in education.

Data was collected through Focus Groups, and focus group templates included in Annexes 4 to this report. The bulk of quantitative data was secondary, collected from previous statistical analyses such

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<sup>23</sup> Available at <<http://www.globalpartnership.org/content/methodological-guidelines-education-sector-analysis-volume-1>> and <<http://www.globalpartnership.org/content/methodological-guidelines-education-sector-analysis-volume-2>>

<sup>24</sup> See: ADB: Guidance note: Education sector risk assessment; <http://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/31318/guidance-note-education-sector-risk-assessment.pdf>



as the Statistical Yearbooks. These numbers were summarized where necessary using MS Excel, for visual representation in the forms of charts and figures and simple analyses such as averages and frequency distributions, for insertion into the report where necessary. Data from the EMIS that are normally presented in the statistical yearbooks were taken through further analysis to produce breakdown such as rural-urban and gender disaggregation. In cases where data was missing for specific years, statistical calculations were conducted to estimate values for missing data based on year-to-year trend data. Additional statistical data was gathered via surveys conducted with education sector stakeholders during validation workshops in which roughly 120 respondents participated in surveys.

Chapter-specific methodologies, such as the ADB methods for identifying sector management risks, were also used to buttress the statistical analysis and to ensure that appropriate causal relationships between education indicators, performance and risks are established.

### ***Key data sources***

- Statistics Yearbook 2016 (developed by the education ministry with support of UNICEF)
- Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-2016
- Ministry EMIS data 2011 to 2016
- Somaliland Primary School Census Year Book (2011)
- UNICEF EMIS data 2011 to 2016
- Population Estimation Survey (PESS) 2014
- School Survey Report/Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) database (2012/2013 and 2013/14)
- Teacher Profile Reports (UNICEF)
- UNDP 2010 Millennium Development Goals Progress Report Somalia
- UNDP Somalia Human Development Report 2012
- OCHA dataset on shocks (conflict incidents, environmental hazards and occurrences) covering the periods 2011 to 2016
- Progress for Children A World Fit for Children Statistical Review No. 6, Nov 2007
- Government Financial Operations Table and other available macroeconomic data
- Available Financial Reports and Executed Budget Reports.

### ***Secondary data sources***

- Carr-Hill, R. and Ondijo, D. (2011). Assessment of the Education, Livelihoods, Living Conditions and Welfare of Somali Pastoralists (UNICEF and DFID)
- Education Cluster, 2011. Cluster Report, 2011 South Central Zone
- Education In Somalia: History, Destruction, And Calls For Reconstruction Nov, 1998
- Final Draft Aide Memoire JRES December 2014
- Integrated Early Childhood Development Implementation Framework For Somaliland
- Master Education Action Plan 2014 MOEHS Somaliland
- School Initiative 2013-2016 Education for Resilience
- Somalia Situation Analysis of Children 2015, UNICEF
- Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012-2016
- 'Beyond Fragility', Conflict Analysis of the Education Sector in Somalia
- Joint-Review of the Education Sector (JRES) Report 2014 & 2015
- Somali Education Strategic priorities: 2021 Education Vision documents.

### ***Review of existing sector plans***

There are a number of sector-related strategic plans and reports that exist in parallel with the 2012-16 ESSP. A selection of documents that are worthy of note are outlined below. These documents cover various issues in the education sector ranging from the state of the national budget and government resources, productive capacities across the sector, school environments and learning

conditions, among others. These and other documents are referenced in the relevant chapters of the ESA.

- The Somaliland National Policy of Education (2015-2030)
- The National Strategy and Plan of Action for Female Participation in Education (2007)
- The Somaliland National Budget (2012-2014)
- Ministry of Education Capacity Assessment Gaps Report (2013)
- The Somaliland Education Sector Drought Response Plan (2013-14)
- Recommendations from the Final Synthesis Report for the Joint Review of the education sector, Somaliland (2015)

### ***Key informant interviews and stakeholder survey***

The sector analysis conducted key informant interviews with stakeholder and partners to fill gaps with data and gain inputs on overall progress achieved over the period of the previous ESSP.

Interviews were conducted with education ministry officials, development partners, and key donor agencies, as well as education stakeholders at community level (a full listing of key informant interview is provided in the Annex 4)

A stakeholder survey was also conducted with the participation of some 120 individuals in early October 2016 during ESA validation workshop to gather perception data on key risks, hazards and governance dynamics that impact upon the education sector. The survey comprised of a total of 20 closed questions. Data gathered was immediately verified by enumerators during which time quality control was introduced to remove 'spoiled' survey responses that did not provide reliable data for analysis.

### ***Verification and validation workshop with partners and education stakeholders***

Verification workshops for data analysis and findings were conducted with education partners and stakeholder in Somaliland with the participation of ministry officials from national and sub-national levels. This helped to (1) ensure that data gaps are identified and where possible filled in with findings relevant to local realities, and (2) strengthen coordination between partners.

After an initial desk review of available literature and data, preliminary observations were shared with stakeholders in a workshop held in Hargeisa in between 14th and 17th May. A second workshop to present more elaborate results were then held in August 2016 to validate preliminary findings and identify data gaps requiring additional attention. This was followed by a quality assurance review by UNICEF's Somalia Offices and Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office, broader ESC quality review, and following final revisions of the ESA a broad stakeholder consultation and validation workshop for the ESA findings and ESSP draft priority strategies. Underpinning these validation workshops and technical meetings was an approach aiming to strengthen local capacities to conduct ESA and to build local partners ownership over the results and strategies moving forward.

### ***Quality Assurance Processes***

UNICEF Somalia Country Office provided quality assurance and support to statistical analysis and report writing. Additional support was allocated with the recruitment of a data management consultant involved in the statistical yearbooks produced by all education ministries in Somalia. UNICEF's Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office also provided quality assurance during ESA report writing. Likewise, an overall quality review was conducted by UNICEF HQ-based GPE support team. Upon the completion of a suitable draft ESA, broader stakeholder quality reviews and feedback were then received via ESC members, which fed into this final ESA report.

## 1.5 Limitations

The Inception Report<sup>25</sup> has engaged in a rather detailed description of the limitations of the ESA. Several overall limitations should be considered in this report, which were addressed to some extent using various strategies and additional resources, listed below:

- The overarching limitation for the ESA/ESSP process has been related to GPE requirements for conducting ESA/ESSP itself and the dearth of qualified and experienced consultants/firms globally to complete quality evidence-based data. Many countries have recently experienced challenges around ESA/ESSP as a result. This challenge is compounded in the Somaliland context where issues of security and on-going system strengthening needs are not the most inviting of work environments for many international agencies and seasoned consultants. In a post-conflict context such as Somaliland where education remains underfunded and local officials struggle to manage complex political dynamics in a 'competitive' donor environment, the resulting pressures created by GPE processes risk generating conflicts and undermining partnerships if not managed effectively and in a manner that is 'conflict sensitive';
- Capacity gaps exist in the MOEHS, and this required clarification on core values of the ESA and ESSP, notably that the work is owned by the MOEHS. Nevertheless, in contexts such as Somaliland weak capacities are expected and one of the key objectives of the ESA/ESSP was to address these weaknesses which required extensive awareness raising and sensitivity with ministry officials who at times felt exposed at requests for them to take on lead roles at certain points of consultations and analysis.
- Fieldwork demonstrated that data is often missing for some indicators, particularly in relation to trend data, while in other cases the quality of data is improving<sup>26</sup>. Triangulation of data was thus applied where possible to address these limitations (e.g. examination of statistical yearbook data and UNFPA PESS survey data from 2015). While variations exist across different data sources, there is generally a consistency across most indicators, validation workshops and the participation of ministry officials in all stages of the ESA was also important for increasing confidence in findings and recommended ESSP priorities.<sup>27</sup>.
- A final limitation related to conducting ESA/ESSP in fragile contexts such as Somaliland is around funding requirements, which are generally higher than in other more 'secure' contexts and more 'developed' systems in place. Funding limitations were addressed by UNICEF which added resources from its own core funding for education in Somaliland and the contribution of UNICEF staff time to support key areas of the ESA/ESSP.

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<sup>25</sup> See: W&R: Inception report, revised final version, 8/2016. The report submitted by UNICEF to the ESC for endorsement in 8/2016.

<sup>26</sup> It is observed that often data are based on estimates and related assumptions; these estimates are often products of underlying estimates, hence compounding the scope for corrupted data. Such observation is not untypical for fragile systems, particularly in disputed / conflict zones with limited international access.

<sup>27</sup> A final ESA field mission is scheduled in 8/2016 which seeks to remedy final gaps, and further reduce limitations. The mission will seamlessly lead to the Joint Review Workshop discussions at National level for ESA and the forthcoming ESSP.





## 2. Chapter 2 – Context of the Education Sector

### 2.1 Development Indicators

#### Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Credible, reliable and recent macroeconomic data about Somaliland are largely unavailable<sup>28</sup>. It is therefore difficult to appraise the Gross Domestic Product of Somaliland. Nevertheless, there are various estimates, based on statistical projections of Somalia-wide GDP. For instance, the World Bank's socio-economic survey of 2002 gives the figure USD1.6 billion, while its 2006 survey estimated GDP at USD 1.3 billion. Most of the international institutions use these sources, whilst the latest CIA Fact Book figures Somalia GDP in purchasing parity price (PPP) prices is given as USD 5.89 billion, and the per capita income at USD 600. The nominal GDP at the official exchange rate is estimated at USD 2.37 billion, which implies a GDP per capita of about USD 240. Finally, the Somaliland Ministry of National Planning and Development<sup>29</sup> estimates that Somaliland has an average GDP of USD 1.05 billion in nominal prices and USD 2.10 in PPP terms. Table 2 summarizes economic statistics for the region, giving an overarching estimate of the economic climate in Somaliland.

Table 2. Economic Statistics for Somaliland

Economic Indicators	Value	Global Ranking
GDP (Purchasing Power Parity):	\$4.431 billion (2014 est.)	
GDP (Official Exchange Rate):	\$5.8 billion (2014 est.)	177
GDP - Real Growth Rate:	2.6% (2010 est.)	
GDP - Per Capita (PPP):	\$400 (2014 est.)	113
<b>GDP - Composition, By End Use:</b>		
Household Consumption:	72.1%	
Government Consumption:	8.7%	
Investment In Fixed Capital:	19.8%	
Investment In Inventories:	0.8%	
Exports Of Goods And Services:	0.3%	
Imports Of Goods And Services:	-1.7% (2015 est.)	
<b>GDP - Composition, By Sector Of Origin:</b>		
Agriculture:	60.2%	
Industry:	7.4%	
Services:	32.5% (2013 est.)	
Agriculture - Products:	Bananas, sorghum, corn, coconuts, rice, sugarcane, mangoes, sesame seeds, beans; cattle, sheep, goats; fish	
Industries:	light industries, including sugar refining, textiles, wireless communication	
Industrial Production Growth Rate:	2.5% (2013 est.)	
Labor Force:	3.109 million (2013 est.)	88

28 Republic of Somaliland Ministry of National Planning and Development. 2012. National Development Plan (2012-2016)

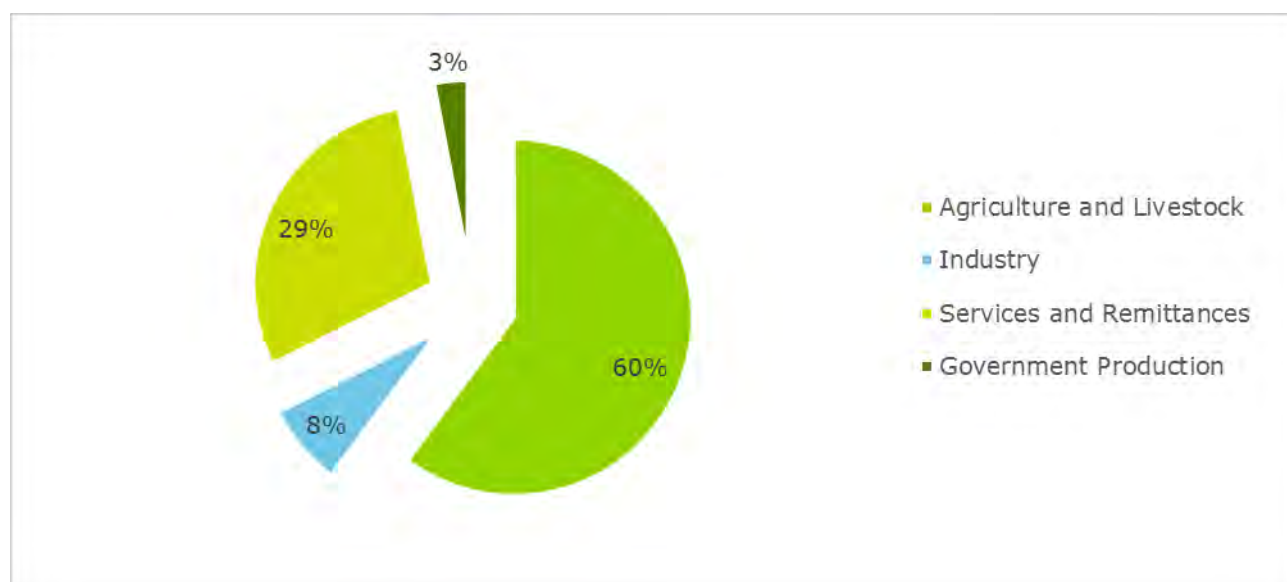
29 Ibid.

<b>Labor Force - By Occupation:</b>		
Agriculture:	71%	102
Industry And Services:	29% (1975)	
Revenues:	\$145.3 million	
Expenditures:	\$151.1 million (2014 est.)	
Taxes And Other Revenues:	2.5% of GDP (2014 est.)	219
Budget Surplus (+) Or Deficit (-):	-0.1% of GDP (2014 est.)	41
Exports:	\$819 million (2014 est.)	111
Exports - Commodities:	livestock, bananas, hides, fish, charcoal, scrap metal	164
Exports - Partners:	UAE 45.7%, Yemen 19.7%, Oman 15.9% (2015)	
Imports:	\$3.482 billion (2014 est.)	
Imports - Commodities:	manufactures, petroleum products, foodstuffs, construction materials, <i>qat</i>	136
Imports - Partners:	Djibouti 18.7%, India 16.5%, China 11.8%, Oman 8.7%, Kenya 6.1%, Pakistan 4.4% (2015)	
Reserves Of Foreign Exchange And Gold:	\$30.45 million (2014 est.)	
Debt - External:	\$3.054 billion (31 December 2013 est.)	170
Exchange Rates:	Somali shillings (SOS) per US dollar - 20,227 (2014 est.)	140

Extracted from CIA World Fact book. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/so.html>

As shown in Figure 2, the estimated contributions of major industries to the GDP are agriculture (including livestock), services and industry. It is worth noting that Agriculture and Livestock account for the majority of productive activities at 60% of total GDP.

Figure 2. SOMALILAND'S GDP BY PERCENTAGE, 2012<sup>30</sup>



The economy is therefore largely dependent on pastoral production, with export of livestock (mainly camels, goats and sheep) to the Arab States constituting a large proportion of productive activities in

<sup>30</sup> UNDP. 2012. Somalia Human Development Report 2012.

the Agriculture and Livestock sector. However, financial remittances from Somali Diaspora members and aid donations are also significant contributors to the local economy. A 2007 UNDP report states that remittances from the Somali diaspora and donor support constitute the largest source of foreign exchange in the country, estimated at USD 750 million to USD 1 billion annually. Some sources estimate that remittances contribute up to 35% of the country's GDP and are amongst the highest in the world<sup>31</sup>. These figures have far-reaching implications for education sector management, such as:

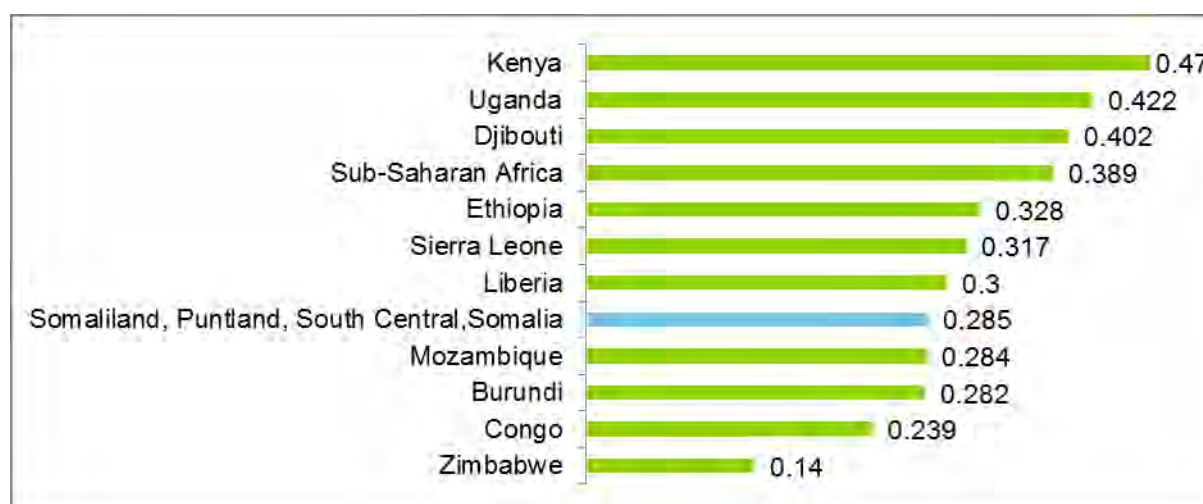
1. The need for partnerships between the Government and the international community to provide effective support to the sector (see Chapter 4 – COST AND FINANCING)
2. Alignment of the education curriculum to market realities; for example, prioritizing capacity development in agriculture management and related services for the next generation of the workforce (discussed further in Chapters 9 and 10– HIGHER EDUCATION / TVET).
3. The need to involve the diaspora in investing in development of the education system in their home areas.

For consistency of data, the findings in this chapter will reflect findings from the 2012 UNDP Somalia Human Development Report (unless stated otherwise).

### Human Development Index

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite statistic of life expectancy, education, and per capita income indicators, which are used to rank countries into four tiers of human development (very high, high, medium and low). Specific Human Development Index (HDI) data is not available specific to Somaliland<sup>32</sup> as the available HDI data shows the whole of Somalia in comparison to other countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa region. As a whole, Somalia is in the lowest tier, scoring 160 out of 164 countries according to World Bank country rankings by HDI.

Figure 3. HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICES FOR SOMALILAND AND SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA COUNTRIES<sup>33</sup>



Source: UNDP Global Human Development Report 2012; Survey conducted for the Somalia HDR 2012

Somaliland's income per capita is relatively higher than that of the rest of Somalia, generally due to its relative peace and political stability<sup>34</sup> since 1991. Nevertheless, Somaliland is one of the world's poorest and least developed countries. Using a poverty index of USD 2 per day, the incidence of

<sup>31</sup> UNDP Somalia's Missing Million, 2009

<sup>32</sup> Ibid.

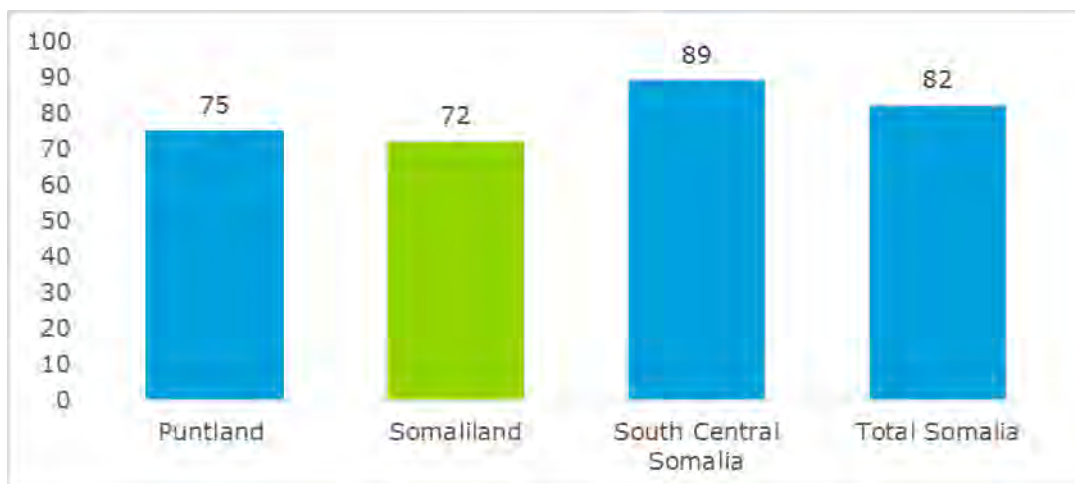
<sup>33</sup> Ibid.

<sup>34</sup> UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012*.

poverty in Somaliland is 72%, compared to 82% for the whole of Somalia, 89% in South Central Somalia and 75% in Puntland.

Somaliland is thus one of the poorest countries in the world, and the Sub-Saharan average of 0.389 is approximately 130% greater than Somalia's HDI. Poverty and inequality are the main challenges facing Somaliland's economy. 72% of the population struggle to access to basic social services, including health, education/training, water and sanitation caused by lack of cash to pay for services.

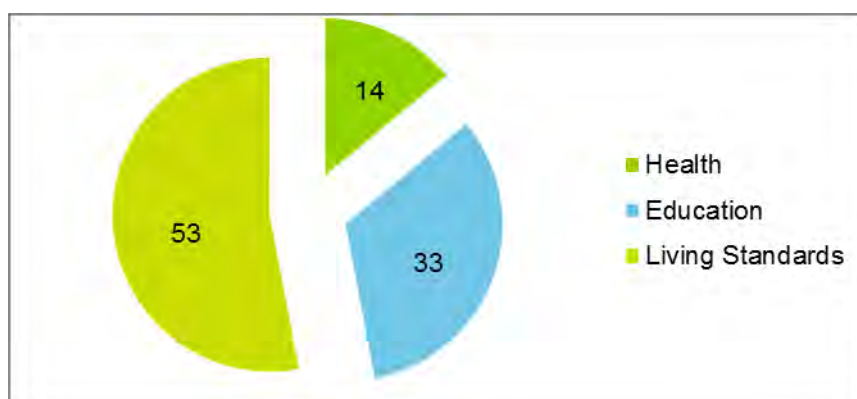
Figure 4. POVERTY RATES USING INCOME MEASURES/\$



### Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)

Poor provision of services limits access to basic opportunities such as employment, thus further contributing to high rates of poverty and multiple dimensions of human deprivation. The Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) captures the incidence of poverty and the intensity of deprivation within a population (the proportion of poverty indicators by which an individual is 100% deprived). Whilst the incidence of poverty in Somaliland is 72%, the average 'intensity' of poverty is 54%. Figure 5 shows the contribution to different dimensions of the MPI in Somaliland. Poor living standards contribute more than 50% of average deprivation, reflecting weak service infrastructure (for example, roads, sanitation and housing), whilst education is the second-highest contributor at 33%. As these figures outline the development targets in the country, it is clear that education is a top priority gap to be addressed as it is one of the main factors contributing to multi-dimensional poverty.

Figure 5. PERCENTAGE BY WHICH DIFFERENT FACTORS CONTRIBUTE TO DIMENSIONS OF MPI<sup>35</sup>

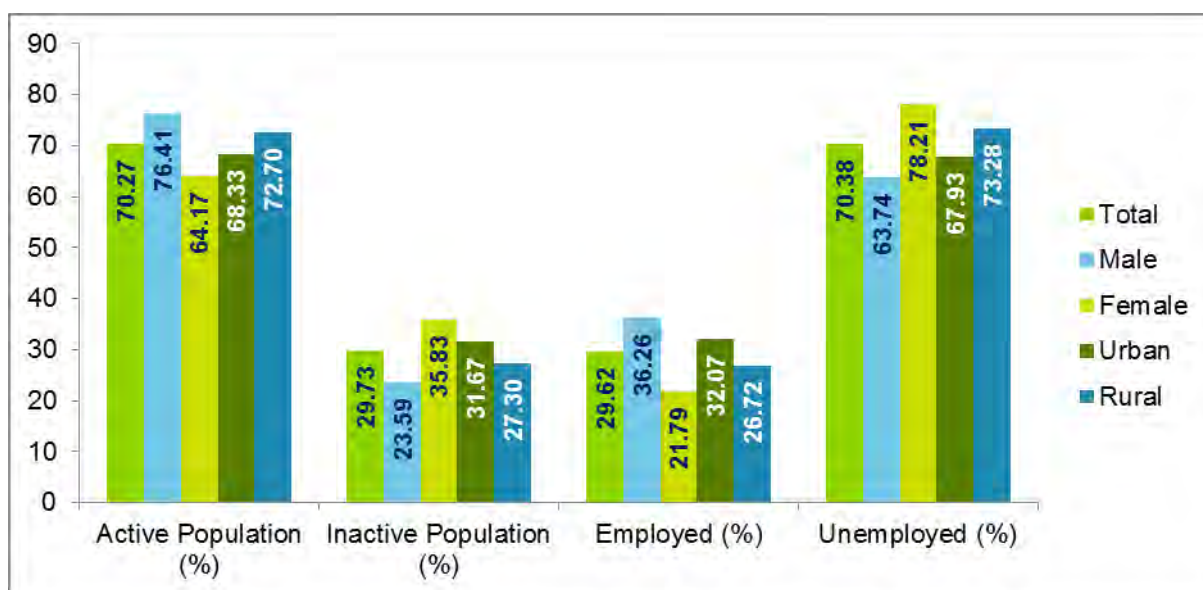


<sup>35</sup> Ibid.

## Employment

The populations in the age group 15 to 64 who are working or are available for work are considered to be the economically active population. In Somaliland, they constitute 56.4% of the total population, or a total of 1.9 million people. Total employment (comprising self-employment, paid employment, and unpaid economically productive family work excluding normal household chores) is at 29.6% of the total population (or 52.6% of the economically active population) meaning that half of the labour force is not engaged in any form of productive employment (see Figure 6 below). Of prime concern is youth unemployment, where two-thirds of youth are unemployed – one of the highest rates in the world. This is among the factors fueling the appeal of extremist groups such as *Al-Shabaab*, who in the past actively recruited members across the horn of Africa region<sup>36</sup>. Furthermore, this has led to major vulnerability of young people aggravating their exposure to risks and other forms of exploitation that trap them in cycles of poverty and underdevelopment.<sup>37</sup> As the Table below shows, the estimated labour force is slightly higher in rural compared to urban areas, but conversely there are fewer people employed in rural areas compared to urban areas. This has contributed to migration of the rural labour force to urban areas as discussed further below.

Figure 6. ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS



Data extracted from Somalia Human Development Report 2012

Unemployment rates are at some 70.4% of the economically active population in all of Somalia. Whilst these figures are only indicative (as they do not take into account the extent of under-employment or seasonal unemployment), they suggest significant levels of financial strain on the Somali population. Lack of job opportunities due to poor infrastructure and low or nil investment is a key reason for unemployment. As shown in Figure 7, the main reasons cited for unemployment in Somaliland are:

1. Lack of experience,
2. Low pay,
3. Lack of access to credit,

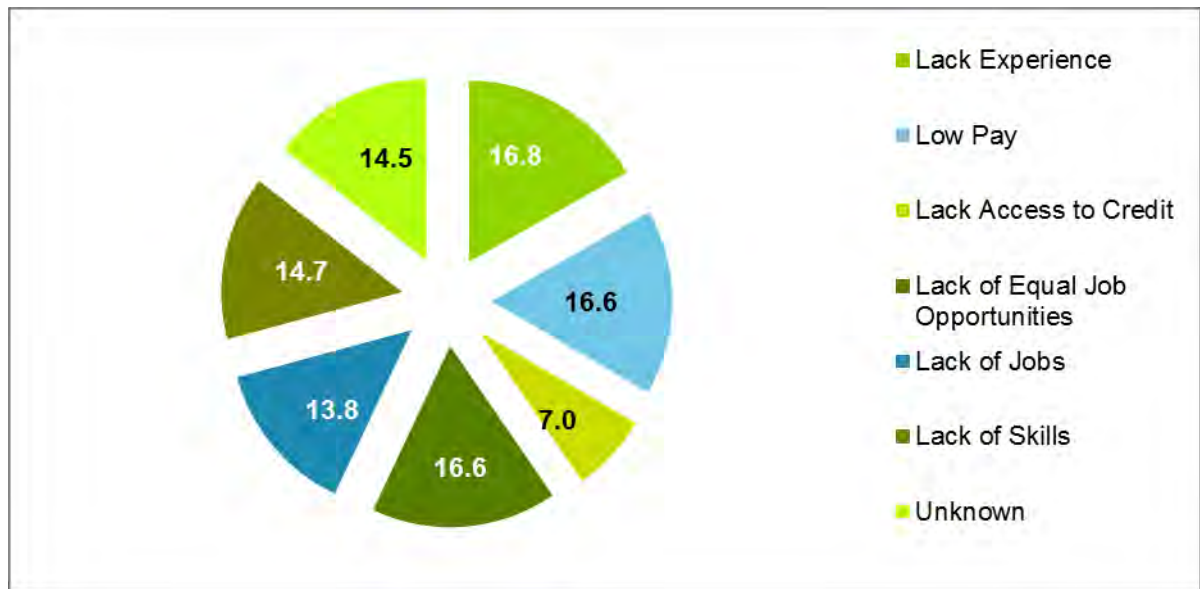
<sup>36</sup> UNDP. 2012. Somalia Human Development Report 2012.

<sup>37</sup> *Beyond Fragility, 2014, UNICEF and York University study*

4. Lack of equal job opportunities,
5. Lack of jobs and
6. Lack of skills.

Youth transiting from education, or those who have never attended any form of education, are the most affected by these challenges.<sup>38</sup>

Figure 7. REASONS FOR UNEMPLOYMENT<sup>39</sup>



The 2012 Somalia Human Development Report sums up the link between education and the high rates of youth unemployment and as follows:

*[Youth unemployment] Result[s] from a combination of demand and supply side factors. On the supply side, a major obstacle to the employability of young people is inadequate education, which leaves a growing number of entrants to the labour market poorly equipped with relevant skills. On the demand side, inappropriate school curricula and lack of employable skills mean that job seekers do not meet the needs of employers, especially in the tertiary sector.<sup>40</sup>*

### Child Labour

A 2004 survey<sup>41</sup> estimated that child labour in Somaliland is 18%. Of these working children, the sectorial distribution is summarized in Figure 8 below.

<sup>38</sup> *Ibid*

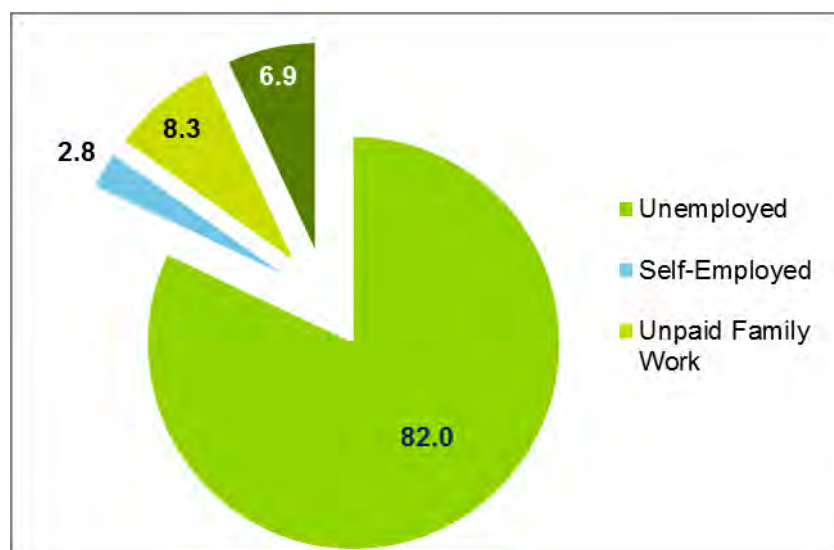
<sup>39</sup> UNDP. 2012. Somalia Human Development Report 2012

<sup>40</sup> *Ibid*.

<sup>41</sup> Academy for Peace and Development. 2004. Socio-Economic Survey 2004 Somaliland.



Figure 8. CHILD LABOUR BY SECTOR (%)



Data extracted from Somalia Socio-economic Survey 2004

Whilst the reasons for child labour are not discussed in the survey, factors such as poverty, social exclusion, labour mobility, discrimination and lack of adequate social protection as well as lack of educational opportunity are contributors and influencers of child labour<sup>42</sup>. Further, the number of working children may constitute a significant proportion of out-of-school children in the country, and can contribute to explaining the primary and secondary school enrolment rates that will be discussed in Chapters 6 and 7, respectively.

## 2.2 Population Statistics

### Age and Gender distribution

The total estimated population of Somaliland is some 3.5 million people. The average population growth rate is 3.1% per annum<sup>43</sup>. Figure 9 summarizes the age distribution of the Somaliland population by gender. Some 48.8% of the population is male, whilst 51.2% is female<sup>44</sup>. Sixty-two percent of the female population is aged under 25, compared to 66% of males. The average life expectancy is 50 years and 55 years for males and females, respectively<sup>45</sup>. The total population is expected to grow by 32% between 2010 and 2020, whilst the under 15 year age group will decrease slightly from 44.4% to 44.2%, signifying a steady number of children of school age in the future considering overall population growth estimates<sup>46</sup>. This implies that the capacity of the education system will need to increase at a similar rate to accommodate growing population numbers of school-aged children and adolescents, but at an even greater rate if it wishes to address existing capacity weaknesses that prevent access to quality education for all, as discussed in the rest of this report.

<sup>42</sup> International Labour Organization <http://www.ilo.org/ipec/Action/Education/lang--en/index.htm>

<sup>43</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS. 2014. Annual Statistics Yearbook (2014-15)

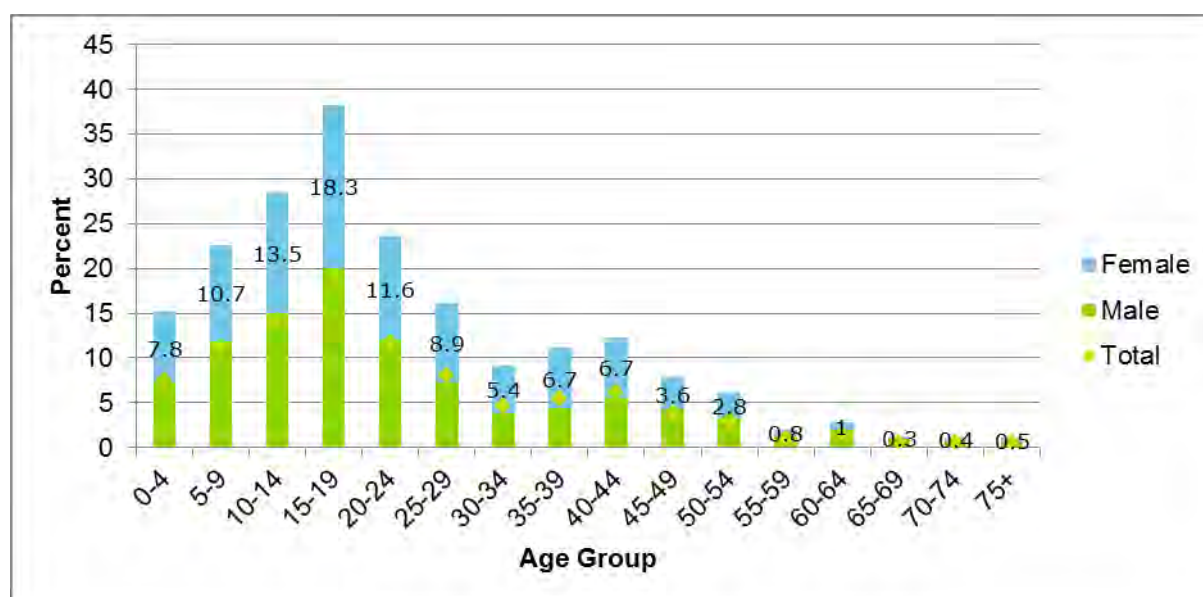
<sup>44</sup> Somaliland Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey. 2011.

<sup>45</sup> Somaliland Mission in USA. <http://somaliland.us/>

<sup>46</sup> UNFPA Somalia Population Estimation Survey 2014 <http://somalia.unfpa.org/sites/arabstates/files/pub-pdf/Population-Estimation-Survey-of-Somalia-PESS-2013-2014.pdf>



Figure 9. POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND GENDER



### Rural-Urban Migration

As summarized in Table 3, there are nearly 1.85 million people living in urban areas (52.9%), compared with about 0.4 million in rural areas, 1.2 million nomadic/pastoralist communities (combined 44.8%), and 84,000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) (only 2.4%).

Table 3. Regional distribution of Somaliland Population Disaggregated by Settlement Status<sup>47</sup>

Region	Urban		Rural		Pastoralist		IDPs		Total
<b>Awdal</b>	287,821	42.8%	143,743	21.4%	233,709	34.7%	7,990	1.2%	<b>673,263</b>
<b>Maroodi-Jeex and Sahil</b>	802,740	64.6%	138,912	11.2%	255,761	20.6%	44,590	3.6%	<b>1,242,003</b>
<b>Sanaag</b>	159,717	29.4%	30,804	5.7%	352,692	64.8%	910	0.2%	<b>544,123</b>
<b>Sool</b>	120,993	37.0%	13,983	4.3%	187,632	57.3%	4,820	1.5%	<b>327,428</b>
<b>Togdheer</b>	483,724	67.1%	57,356	8.0%	154,523	21.4%	25,760	3.6%	<b>721,363</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,854,995</b>	<b>52.9%</b>	<b>384,798</b>	<b>11.0%</b>	<b>1,184,317</b>	<b>33.8%</b>	<b>84,070</b>	<b>2.4%</b>	<b>3,508,180</b>

Internal migration is common, either as part of the widespread nomadic lifestyle (33.8% of Somaliland's population are pastoralist/nomadic), or as part of the rural-urban migration. Urbanization is estimated at 3.4% per annum. The main driving forces for rural-urban migration include natural disasters such as drought and flooding in poorly served rural areas, and employment opportunities in urban areas.<sup>48</sup> Conflict-driven immigration has occurred since 1991, resulting in at least 1 million Somalis, 14% of Somalia's combined population, to live outside the country and which has created one of the world's largest diaspora groups<sup>49</sup>. This has deprived Somaliland of a significant proportion of potentially qualified human resources, but as previously mentioned, this is arguably compensated for by the large consignment of financial remittances injected into the economy from the diaspora<sup>50</sup>.

<sup>47</sup> Extracted from UNFPA Somalia Population Estimation Survey 2014

<sup>48</sup> Save the Children Somaliland. 2013. National study on street children in Somaliland.

<sup>49</sup> L. Hammond. 2007. 'Obligated to give': Remittances and the Maintenance of Transitional Networks between Somalis at Home and Abroad. London Migration Working Papers No. 2007/07

<sup>50</sup> UNDP. 2012. Somalia Human Development Report 2012.

## 2.3 Basic Social Indicators

As demonstrated by figures on basic social indicators, the majority of Somaliland's citizens experience significant financial barriers to accessing social services such as education. This is particularly true for rural and pastoralist communities as well as the urban poor. While available data shows some significant improvements since 1990, particularly with infant mortality rates, Somaliland's 2012 report on Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) shows that under five, infant and maternal mortality rates are among the worst in the world.

Figure 10. EARLY CHILDHOOD MORTALITY RATES

Neonatal, post-neonatal, Infant, child and under-five mortality rates for five year periods preceding the survey, Somaliland, 2011.					
	Neonatal mortality rate <sup>1</sup>	Post-neonatal mortality rate <sup>2</sup>	Infant mortality rate <sup>3</sup>	Child mortality rate <sup>4</sup>	Under-five mortality rate <sup>5</sup>
<b>Years preceding the survey</b>					
0-4	42	30	72	20	91
5-9	32	37	69	28	95
10-14	30	40	70	41	108
<sup>1</sup> MICS indicator 1.3					
<sup>2</sup> MICS indicator 1.4					
<sup>3</sup> MICS indicator 1.2; MDG indicator 4.2					
<sup>4</sup> MICS indicator 1.5					
<sup>5</sup> MICS indicator 1.1; MDG indicator 4.1					
Note: Post-neonatal mortality rates are computed as the difference between the infant and neonatal mortality rates					

Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, 2011. UNICEF, Republic of Somaliland Ministry of National Planning and Development (MNPD). 2014.

It also seems apparent (and generally well documented) that low education levels among girls and women leads to early marriage, poor pregnancy and child care practices, and high mortality rates.

## Health

Health and education are intimately connected factors in development. It is difficult for unhealthy children to attend school or learn properly, whilst the less educated adults are less equipped with the knowledge, skills and income to protect their families from disease. Primary indicators of poor health outcomes in Somaliland are high rates of infant mortality (90 deaths per 100,000 live births) and high maternal mortality (1,013 per 100,000 live births)<sup>51</sup>, which is exacerbated by the widespread practice of Female Genital Mutilation<sup>52</sup>.

Table 4. Selected MDG Indicators for Child and Maternal Health in Somaliland

MDG Indicator	Value
Infant mortality rate	72 per 1,000
Child mortality rate	20 per 1,000
Institutional child deliveries	30.6%
Support for learning	65.2%
Attendance to early childhood education	2.8%
Women married before age 15	8.7%
Approval for female genital mutilation (FGM)	28.9%

<sup>51</sup> PSI. Prevention & treatment of post-partum haemorrhage in Somaliland: Navigating a complex course to greater health impact.

<sup>52</sup> International Solidarity Foundation (ISF). 2014. Final evaluation of community education on female genital mutilation (FGM) in Somaliland.

Child malnutrition, specifically protein-energy malnutrition, is high. Studies show that children who are malnourished not only perform more poorly than healthy children but they grow to earn up to 20% less as adults compared to healthy children<sup>54</sup>. In 2013, 14% of children under 5 in Somaliland were acutely malnourished<sup>55</sup>. This number has decreased from 36% in 2006, which can be attributed to donor-supported food aid and school feeding programs, although there is limited data on the impact of school feeding programs in the country<sup>56</sup>.

A number of other factors impact on the health of children and therefore on their education. These include:

- Access to health centers: Although 85% of urban households and 57% of non-urban households report access to at least one health facility, qualified personnel and supplies are lacking.
- Khat: In Somaliland, 12% of the population chews *Khat*<sup>57</sup>, a light narcotic. Due to the social stigma associated with female smoking and chewing of *Khat*, males are at higher risk from the health and social hazards of *Khat* and tobacco abuse, including oral / lung cancers<sup>58</sup> and chronic loss of motivation to study or work, thus exacerbating poverty<sup>59</sup>.
- Medical Staff: The government-run hospitals have insufficient staff and medical supplies are not readily available<sup>60</sup>.
- Water and sanitation: inadequate sanitation and water systems, results in the spread of several preventable diseases.<sup>61</sup>

These factors are coupled with the high prevalence of poverty (most of the population cannot afford private medical care). Thus, it is evident that education outcomes will be affected, and education development programs and policy-makers should pay attention to children's health in order to improve achievement on education indicators and children's learning outcomes. This requires recognizing and investing in the wider impact of health services in education contexts, as well as providing more health-based learning at all stages of life.

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<sup>53</sup> Republic of Somaliland Ministry of National Planning and Development, UNICEF. 2014. *Somaliland Final Report 2014. Monitoring the situation of children and women.*

<sup>54</sup> Save the Children. 2013. *Food for Thought: Tackling child malnutrition to unlock potential and boost prosperity*

<sup>55</sup> OCHA. 2013. *Somaliland Factsheet.*

<sup>56</sup> UNDP. 2010. *Somaliland MDG Report, 2010.*

<sup>57</sup> Ibid.

<sup>58</sup> Ageely H. M. A. 2008. Health and socio-economic hazards associated with Khat consumption. *J Family Community Med.* 15(1): 3–11.

<sup>59</sup> UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012.*

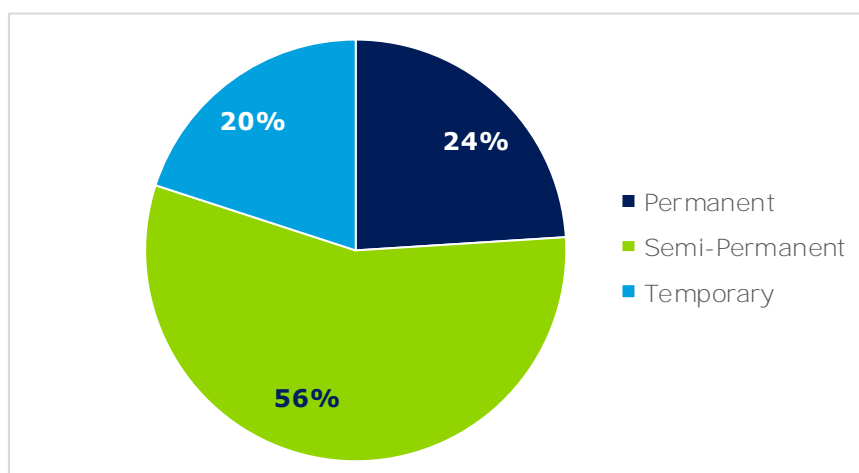
<sup>60</sup> Republic of Somaliland Ministry of National Planning and Development, UNICEF. 2014. *Somaliland Final Report 2014. Monitoring the situation of children and women.*

<sup>61</sup> UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012.*

## Housing

The distribution of housing structure types is shown in Figure 11. Some 24% of houses in Somaliland are constructed with durable materials and therefore classified as permanent structures<sup>62</sup>. Slightly over 56% of all homes are classified as semi-permanent (having walls or roofs constructed utilizing semi-durable materials). Twenty percent of houses are temporary structures, as they are makeshift houses utilizing twigs, plastic sheets and similar materials. The average urban house in Somaliland has three rooms whilst rural and nomadic houses have an average 1.7 rooms. Living space is nonetheless tighter in urban areas, with one third of the households in urban areas having two or more families staying in the same dwelling. Slightly over half of these families share single roomed houses. In rural and nomadic areas, two or more families share about 11% of houses, of which one-third are single roomed dwellings.

Figure 11. HOUSING STRUCTURE TYPES IN SOMALILAND



## Access to Education and Training

Despite limited demographic data, available information shows that the population growth rate in Somaliland is increasing, which means that the capacity of the education sector to service a growing population will be strained, unless greater investments are made in the education sector. As briefly discussed above, there are several factors which hinder access to education, resulting in out-of-school children, i.e., children who:

- Do not have access to a school in their community
- Do not enrol despite the availability of a school
- Enrol late
- Enrol in schools that have poor facilities / no teachers
- Dropout of school
- Enrol but do not attend school<sup>63</sup>.

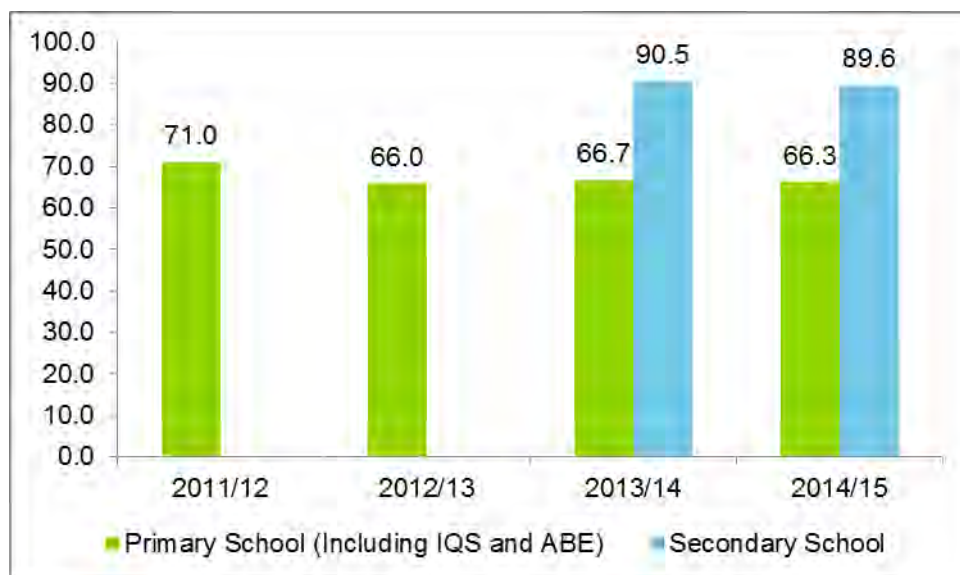
As of 2015, the Net Enrolment Ratio / NER (the number of children enrolled in primary school who belong to the age group that officially corresponds to each level) in primary and secondary schools in

<sup>62</sup> UNICEF-GF, ANPPCAN-SOM Chapter, Somaliland National AIDS Commission (SOLNAC). Situational Analysis on Orphaned and Vulnerable Children in Somaliland.

<sup>63</sup> UNICEF. 2015. *Really Simple Stats: The UNICEF Ghana International Statistics Bulletin*.

Somaliland are 33.7% and 10.4%, respectively<sup>64</sup>. Through an elementary analysis of the NER, by deducing the percentage of all children of eligible age who are *not* enrolled in school, out of school children can be counted, as shown in

Figure 12. PERCENTAGE OF OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, 2011/12-2014/15 (NON-WEIGHTED ESTIMATE)



Extracted from Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2014. *Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook, 2014-15*.

## 2.4 Key observations and summary

Opportunities for formal education are still unavailable to a majority of children, especially in rural and nomadic areas. As aptly expressed by participants in the Somaliland focus group discussions: “The quality of education is very low and the teaching is poor. School availability is difficult and expensive.” It is widely accepted<sup>65</sup> that the majority of an entire generation over the last three decades has not received adequate education, with a large number of qualified Somalis having left and become part of the Diaspora, instead of returning to Somaliland with the necessary skills. This has contributed to an unbalanced age structure within the education system and limited capacity even within the MOEHS and teaching force. Further, conflict-related trauma among children and teachers is a factor that has not been well researched but should be considered as a contributor to behaviour associated with poor school attendance, conflict and discrimination against minorities within the community.

According to the UNDP Somalia Human Development Report (2012), the literacy rate among school children aged 6 to 13 was 42%, percent, whilst the adult literacy rate (sample respondents aged 15 years and above) was estimated at 31%: percent: 26% percent for females against 36% percent for males. Among the literate population, the majority has a primary level education, with only a small proportion attaining secondary level or above<sup>66</sup>. Literacy is a strong contributor to economic growth and individuals earnings in any country<sup>67</sup>. Given that most economists agree that the human resources of a nation, even more than its capital or natural

<sup>64</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2014. *Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook, 2014-15*.

<sup>65</sup> UNICEF, World Bank. 2008. *Somali Reconstruction and Development Programme: Deepening Peace and Reducing Poverty. Volume 1*.

<sup>66</sup> UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012*.

<sup>67</sup> Serge Coulombe, Jean-François Tremblay and Sylvie Marchand, 2004, *Literacy scores, human capital and growth across fourteen OECD countries. Statistics Canada Catalogue number 89-552-MIE200411*.

resources, ultimately determines the character and pace of its economic and social development, the low literacy levels in Somaliland are a significant development challenge.

Moreover, considering existing government weaknesses, including the fact that Somaliland is not internationally recognised as an established and sovereign state, available resources necessary for investing in various pockets of the education sector continue to be limited. It is likely that disputed areas of the country (especially with neighbouring Puntland but also internally through contested administrative divisions), access to education, provision of materials and classrooms, as well as accuracy of data, are highly unreliable. If education development goals are to be realized, significantly greater investments will be required in education or risk seeing little to no progress on education indicators such as Gross Enrolment Ratios (GER), Net Enrolment Ratios (NER) and Equity / Inclusion.

Education is recognized as a basic human right, and better education improves people's welfare resulting in reduced fertility and mortality rates; empowerment; increased environmental consciousness; lower crime; democratic participation, among others. Education is a mandatory tool to promote within the society a sense of responsibility for peace and improve human relations at the community, national and international levels. This aligns with Somaliland's national goals. people's welfare. This ultimately promotes economic growth on a societal level via increased productivity and, potentially, better governance.

### 3. Chapter 3 – Risk Assessment – Hazards, Conflict and Sector Governance

According to the GPE, “36% of out-of-school children live in conflict-affected countries and are at higher risk of being marginalized”<sup>68</sup>. Moreover, in the Eastern and Southern Africa region, close to 76% of all out-of-school children are concentrated in countries that are classified as ‘fragile’ by the OECD, many of which have histories of violent conflict with the highest proportion of out-of-school children found in countries such as Somalia, South Sudan and Uganda.<sup>69</sup> While other factors such as income poverty, poor health and nutrition and geographic isolation contribute to children being out of school and impede progress toward Sustainable Development Goal 4 (and 5), factors that drive ‘fragility’ and instability consistently underpin the weakest progress in countries globally toward achieving education goals. Key among these are weak governance and management systems, high levels of inequity, histories of violence, and limited capacities to mitigate the impacts of environmental risks.<sup>70</sup>

It is therefore important to better understand how factors underpinning ‘fragility’ and risk impact upon progress toward achieving SDG 4 Goals so as to strengthen capacities of education ministries and communities to prevent, prepare for and mitigate the impacts of crises while at the same time working to address factors that give rise to risks and undermine development progress<sup>71</sup>. This chapter looks at the delivery of education in Somaliland during the outgoing ESSP (2012-16) period from the perspective of conflict, risk and fragility. The aim is to assess the risks associated with natural and manmade hazards, conflict and political economy, governance, and inequity so as to identify causal relationships between the resilience of systems, individuals and how improving education sector performance can both protect children during period of crisis while at the same time bridging the divide between humanitarian action and development to support sustainable gains toward SDG 4 targets<sup>72</sup>.

#### 3.1 Rationale and terminology

##### Fragility

Whilst there is no common definition of fragile states, donors and development practitioners increasingly refer to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development-Development Assistance Committee’s (OECD-DAC) criteria and definitions of fragility, which simply refer to “[A

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<sup>68</sup> <http://www.globalpartnership.org/focus-areas/out-of-school-children>

<sup>69</sup> UNICEF, *The Role of Conflict Sensitive Education in Supporting the Achievement of SDG 4*, UNICEF ESARO, 2016.

<sup>70</sup> See for example: Novelli et al, *Exploring the Linkages between Education Sector Governance, Inequity, Conflict, and Peacebuilding in South Sudan*, University of Sussex, UNICEF ESARO, 2016; Smith et al, *Exploring the Linkages between Education Sector Governance, Inequity, Conflict, and Peacebuilding in Kenya*, University of Sussex with University of Ulster, UNICEF ESARO, 2016; FHI 360 Education Policy and Data Center, *Horizontal Education Inequality and Violence Conflict: A literature Review*. New York, NY: UNICEF, 2014.

<sup>71</sup> International Institute for Educational Planning. 2011. *Integrating conflict and disaster risk reduction into education sector planning: Guidance notes for educational Planners*. Paris. UNICEF/UNESCO.

<sup>72</sup> Discussions on Sustainable Development Goals highlight lessons learned around the achievement of MDGs, specifically related to failing of achievement; and to consider how such dynamics prevented the realization of MDG targets in many fragile contexts and countries that experience repeated shocks.



State] failing to provide basic services to poor people because [it is] unwilling or unable to do so”<sup>73</sup>. The OECD further identifies several key ‘characteristics’ underpinning fragility, which include:

1. **Violence:** legacies of conflict and new forms of societal violence creating risks for broader conflict.
2. **Access to justice for all:** essentially weak rule of law, inability of communities to find peaceful and fair resolution to perceived grievances/injustices – particularly the most disadvantaged.
3. **Effective, accountable and inclusive institutions:** Weak institutions that lack transparency, accountability and participation and are unable to deliver effective quality services to citizens
4. **Economic inclusion and stability:** High rates of youth unemployment with marginalized communities experiencing patterns of economic exclusion that fuel vulnerability/grievance.
5. **Capacities to prevent and adapt to social, economic and environmental shocks and disasters:** High exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters; and weak adaptive capacity of communities and systems (e.g. weak risk-informed and preparedness of governments to respond to shocks).

It is important to note that different parts of the same state may experience different forms of fragility and exposure to risk. For example, in Somaliland, some parts of the country can be categorized as in the “Early Recovery” phase whilst other areas are deteriorating rapidly<sup>74</sup>. Generally, Somaliland is widely ranked as being in a state of “Arrested Development”<sup>75</sup>. Furthermore, ‘political will’ and capacity refer to a range of different contextual factors. For example, willingness means an explicit political commitment to policies that support human welfare and is closely tied with political economy and factors such as state legitimacy and authority, governance, political competition, political transitions, succession and reform, among others<sup>76</sup>. In the context of Somaliland there is a broad consensus on political willingness to push forward the process of education reform, manifested in (among other policies) the Call for Education for All, but limited understanding of how factors that give rise to fragility impact upon education sector performance and the achievement of development targets.

## Resilience

Resilience is sometimes referred to as the ability of individuals, communities or education systems to (1) minimize risks; (2) maintain desired functions during an emergency, and (3) recover from shocks.

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<sup>73</sup> OECD (2006), *DAC Guidelines and Reference Series Applying Strategic Environmental Assessment: Good Practice Guidance for Development Co-operation*, OECD, Paris. Other sources simply refer to ‘an inability to provide quality services for the majority of citizens within a country’.

<sup>74</sup> Barakat, Connolly, Hardman, Lewis, Lineker, Menkhaus, et al. (2014). *Beyond Fragility: A Conflict and Education Analysis of the Somali Context*. York: The University of York, UNICEF.

<sup>75</sup> Brannelly, L., Ndaruhutse, S., & Rigaud, C. (2009). *Donor's engagement: Supporting education in fragile and conflict-affected states*. Paris: IIEP and CfBT Education Trust.

<sup>76</sup> Davies, L. (2009). *Capacity Development for Education Systems in Fragile Contexts*. ETF, GTZ, EU and INEE.



Table 5. Resilience

Resilience (for transformation)	<p>Resilience can be defined as the ability of children, families, communities, and systems to withstand, adapt to, and recover from shocks and stresses (e.g. natural disasters, political crises, epidemics, pervasive violence, armed conflict) in ways that support economic and social development, preserve integrity and do not deepen vulnerability.</p> <p>The term “resilience for transformation” emphasises the idea that it only makes sense to support such resilience if the system promotes safety and social cohesion. (A system can be strong and resilient, and at the same time lead to violation of children’s rights and negative learning outcomes – but such a system should be transformed.)</p>
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As commonly understood, resilience suggests that there will be steady upward trajectory toward achieving development goals because systems and communities are better equipped to deal with or prevent different types of emergencies, thus ‘protecting’ development investments rather than experiencing ‘reversals’ as often happens when emergencies occur. In so doing, resilient systems and communities are able to ‘break’ with cycles of vulnerability, risk and emergency and contribute to sustainable development outcomes, in this case education for children.

This means not just being able to identify risks but also having the knowledge, skills and mechanisms to mitigate those risks, adapt to emergency situations, protect children from exploitation and violence and to rapidly resume children’s learning. Figure 13 further below shows an example of occurrences of different types of emergencies (flood, drought and storms) that have affected the East African region (including Somaliland) and selected impacts, since 2005. Resilience also calls for utilizing the education system’s potential for preventing and dealing with emergencies and addressing patterns of inequity and marginalization that undermine individual and community capacities to cope with hazards and promote inclusive social and political development.<sup>77</sup> In the Somaliland context, some main strengths include political will and external donor / partner support. Addressing disaster risk reduction in national education plans and strategies demonstrates a commitment to “Education for All” and contributes to enhancing resilience of the education system.

### 3.2 Risk characteristics

Risk is composed of several factors: exposure to hazards, vulnerabilities and capacities. The equation below presents the main components of risk:

$$\text{Risk} = \frac{\text{exposure} \times \text{hazard} \times \text{vulnerability}}{\text{Capacity}}$$

Table 6. Hazards, vulnerability and coping capacity

Hazard	<p>A dangerous phenomenon, substance, human activity or condition that may cause loss of life, injury or other health impacts, property damage, loss of livelihoods and services, social and economic disruption, or environmental damage.</p> <p>A distinction is made between (a) Human-made hazards, including conflict and (b) Natural hazards.</p>
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<sup>77</sup> Capacity development in education planning and management in fragile states, Bethke, L

Vulnerability	The characteristics and circumstances of a community, system or asset that make it susceptible to the damaging effects of a hazard. Vulnerability factors include: physical, economic, social, political, technical, ideological, cultural, ecological, organisational, institutional vulnerabilities.
Capacity	The resources of individuals, households, communities, institutions and systems that enable them to cope with a threat or resist the impact of a hazard.

Consequences are the negative effects of a disaster expressed in terms of human impacts, economic and environmental impacts, and political/social impacts. The sections below list groups in Somaliland identified as being most 'at risk', and the different categories of risk which threaten the right to education and broader well-being.

### Most vulnerable groups in Somaliland

In the context of Somaliland, it is assumed by local stakeholders that specific groups are most vulnerable to different being most severely impacted by 'shocks' or emergencies. Not surprisingly, those who are perceived as being most impacted are those who experience the greatest inequities in education (e.g. GER for nomadic communities sits at 3.1% and for IDPs is 16.8% compared to 56.8% for children in urban areas). A survey conducted with 120 education stakeholders during early October 2016 in Hargeisa specifically explored which children were most impacted by emergencies. Those identified as being most vulnerable include pastoralist/nomadic communities, children in rural schools, as well as IDP communities. While 'girls' are seen as 'most impacted' by only 36.7% of respondents to the they in fact tend to be among the most affected overall considering that they make up roughly half of all children in rural and nomadic/pastoral communities. Other groups cited as being impacted include orphans, those with disabilities, and returnees from Ethiopia who sometimes migrate back and forth between Somaliland and the Somali Region of Ethiopia. Those who are least impacted are children from urban schools and, to a lesser extent, children from urban poor families. Common to those groups who experience the greatest impacts is that they are either from rural areas or nomadic/pastoralist communities and thus have limited access to social services, or experience high levels of inequity with how social services (including education resources) are allocated between urban and rural areas. Others who are most impacted also tend to be those who are most marginalized and 'disempowered', including girls and IDPs. Commonly underpinning these patterns are high levels of inequity or social and political marginalization experienced in different forms by the most vulnerable groups.<sup>78</sup>

Table 7. Groups most affected by emergency/risks

	Most impacted	Sometimes (not much)	Least (hardly ever)	Total (n)
Pastoralists	50	10		60
	<b>83.3%</b>	16.7%	0.0%	
IDPs	31	29		60
	51.7%	48.3%	0.0%	
Children from urban poor families	25	21	14	60
	<b>41.7%</b>	35.0%	<b>23.3%</b>	
Girls	22	29	9	60
	<b>36.7%</b>	<b>48.3%</b>	15.0%	
Children in urban	4	17	39	60

<sup>78</sup> The survey did not specifically explore vulnerability based on clan affiliations, those matching geographic inequities with key education and resource allocation indicators with clan location could be used to identify any possible linkages between political clan affiliation and vulnerability to environmental shocks.

schools	6.7%	28.3%	<b>65.0%</b>	
Children in rural schools	38	18	4	60
	<b>63.3%</b>	30.0%	6.7%	
(Orphans x2, disabilities x4, Returnees x1)		7		7
	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	

*Risk and Hazard Survey, ESA Validation Workshop, Hargeisa, 2016*

### 3.3 Climate / Conflict Risks

The most commonly understood categories of risk affecting children's access to education are 'man-made' and 'environmental', often seen as climate related such as droughts and floods and 'man-made', often related to conflict (but that can include financial crises, election related violence, and poor construction).

- Lives or livelihoods are lost during environmental shocks such as floods and drought. Populations are displaced, leading to out-of-school children
- During conflict, education facilities are damaged, closed or destroyed, resulting in poor quality of education
- Certain groups may be denied education through prejudice, threat or insecurity. Also, the inability for government to provide services that cater for various cultural lifestyles, such as the lack of mobile and remote schools to cater for nomadic communities
- Out-of-school children are exposed to a range of abuses including child labour, marriage and recruitment into radicalism, which hinder their ability to develop vital life skills and lead to growth of a "lost generation".

### Conflict Dynamics and man-made risks and the nexus with Education in Somaliland

Somaliland is a liberal democracy that has maintained peace, security and economic recovery since its secession from Somalia in 1991. The government is comprised of an elected presidential office and House of Representatives and a clan-based Upper House of Elders called Guurti.

A recent World Bank study attributes Somaliland's success to an emphasis on negotiation, informal and flexible governance arrangements; clan-based allocation of resources and reputation to build trust and keep the peace; reliance on customary law; quid pro quo arrangements between political leadership and local businesses; and the power of dense social networks in a setting where society is stronger than state. These elements have collectively reinforced a strong commitment to peace building in the country.

However, despite relatively low incidents of civil unrest or violence compared to its neighboring countries, Somaliland faces security threats from Al Shabaab, the main source of violent extremism in the region. Although Al Shabaab is based in southern Somalia the group has, since 2008, expanded and deepened its network, recruitment, assassinations, and terrorist attacks both southward into Kenya and northward into Somaliland and Puntland. To date, threats are mostly focused in the Eastern part of the Somaliland area, which is poor, remote and rural. Additionally, 'radical movements' from other parts of Somalis have their roots in Somaliland including Al Whuda, Al Itihaad and Al Shabaab, which creates risks of violence and instability in some parts of the country.<sup>79</sup> Clan-based tension underpinning territorial rivalry in the contexts areas of Sool and Sanaag between Somaliland and Puntland also create risks of conflict and disruption to education

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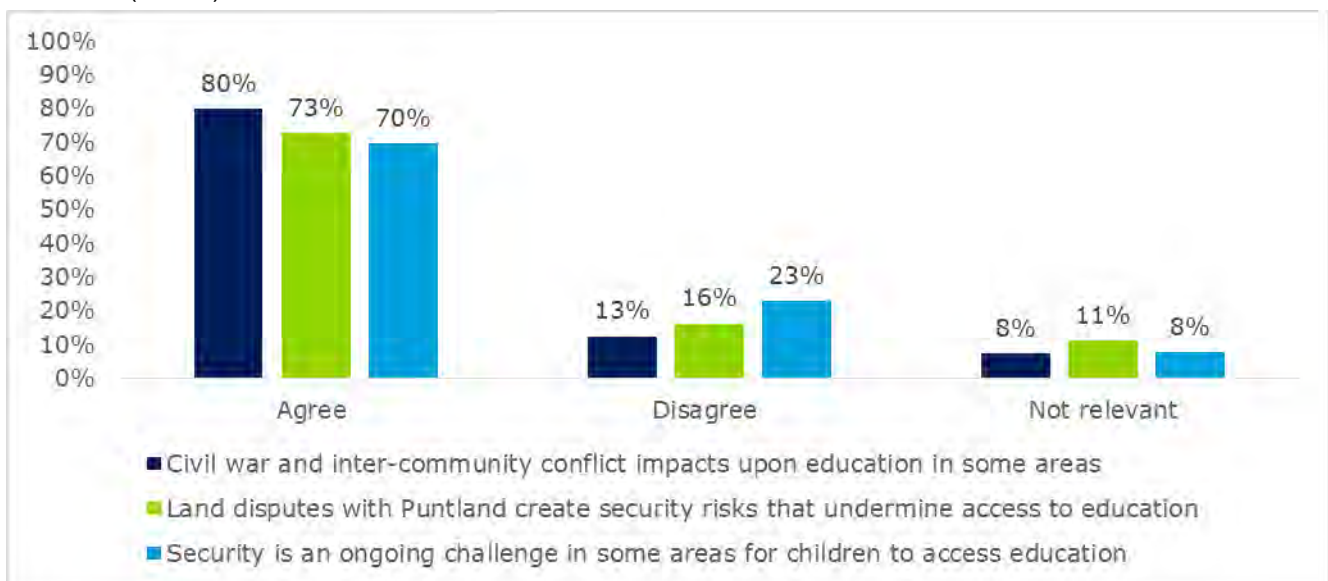
<sup>79</sup> *Beyond Fragility*, p. 99.

services for children.<sup>80</sup> Other key ‘conflict-related’ risks that impact upon children’s rights to education include:

- Youth marginalization and ‘fighting’ between groups of youth from different communities
- Education curriculum that does not equip youth to capitalize upon economic opportunities due to lack of ‘relevant’ education curriculum (i.e. poor external efficiency)
- Competition over access to children’s facilities (such as nutrition centers)
- Conflict over resources such as land, water and theft of livestock such as camels
- Inequitable representation of minority clans in politics
- Election-related violence and formation of new political parties
- Clan-based disputes over land ownership<sup>81</sup>

As shown below, the results of a perception survey conducted with over 103 education stakeholders Hargeisa during early October 2016 as part of the ESA validation process shows that the majority of respondents believe that such risks impact negatively upon children’s rights to access education. Of 80 valid survey responses, 80% of participants believe that risks of civil war and inter-community conflict impact upon education in some areas of Somaliland, 73% believe that land disputes with Puntland create security risks that undermine access to education, while 70% believe that security is an ongoing challenge in some areas of Somaliland that undermine children’s access to education.

Figure 13. STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS ON CONFLICT-RELATED RISKS AND IMPACT ON CHILDREN’S EDUCATION (N=103)



*Risk and Hazard Survey, ESA Validation Workshop, Hargeisa, 2016*

Stakeholder perceptions on conflict-related risks are generally consistent with findings of a study commissioned by UNICEF entitled *Beyond Fragility: A Conflict and Education Analysis of the Somali Context*. In addition to identifying a range of macro-political factors, issues of political economy, local actors and the history of Somaliland, the study identified how the education sector contributes to specific conflict-related risks. Below is an adaptation of key risks drawn directly from summary analysis tables found in the York study.

<sup>80</sup> *Beyond Fragility*, p. 101.

<sup>81</sup> *Beyond Fragility*, pp. 107-109.

Table 8. The nexus between risks of conflict and education in Somaliland

Conflict Risks	Form taken	Impact on education and vice versa
Clan/ identity-based conflict risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Politicization of clan identities leading to mobilization of groups and communal conflict</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• IDPs, nomads and other minority groups have limited access to education</li> <li>• Discriminatory practices of school administrators toward children from other clans.</li> </ul>
Political/state related conflict risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Elite political settlements leading to the creation of the Federal State with contentious relationship with federal government</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Education not accessible to minority groups</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inability to provide security in contested areas and increase in non-state actors exercising control at local level</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attacks on education facilities and closure of schools, particularly those seen as under the control of the state</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of control over revenue and weak state institutions unable to finance social services such as education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of state education provision at primary and secondary level adding to exclusion of poor households from education which are unable to pay fees of in privately managed schools</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Elections</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of citizenship education to promote civic, social and political responsibility</li> </ul>
Resource based conflict risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Traditional competition over land, pasture and water resources resulting in conflict among pastoralists</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pastoralist children have limited access to education fuelling marginalization and vulnerability</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Diaspora investments and remittances</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growth in private schools only available to urban elites leading to greater inequities in education provision fuelling grievance among excluded minority groups</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unemployment and poverty and increased criminality among youth</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of primary and secondary education provision and relevance of curriculum to needs of youth</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decline of pastoral sector</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of relevance of curriculum to employment needs and livelihood opportunities of pastoralist</li> </ul>

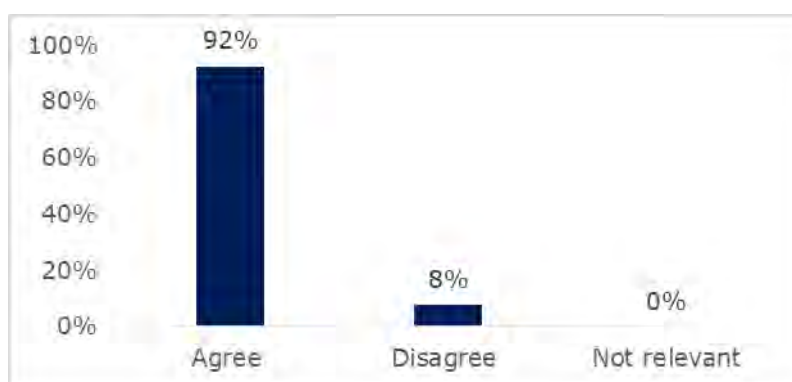
		communities aggravated by large rural-urban migrations
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Migration of IDPs to urban centres</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of education provision for IDPs and lack of relevant curriculum to employment needs of IDP youth</li> <li>• Lack of IDP representation on school management committees</li> </ul>
Social violence and crime	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited accountability and impunity, proliferation of small weapons, use of Qaat leading to use of violence to resolve disputes and financing of crime</li> <li>• Gender-based violence/violence in households</li> <li>• Violence against children in schools</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Promoting cultures of violence in homes and schools</li> <li>• Teacher rely on corporal punishment and lack training on positive discipline approaches.</li> <li>• Gender-based violence not addressed by curriculum or in schools</li> </ul>
Ideological risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Disputes over interpretation of Islam and imported ideologies from other countries</li> <li>• Radicalization of youth by militant Islamists</li> <li>• Marginalization of youth from civic and political processes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Curriculum hijacked for ideological reasons and attempts to use curriculum to indoctrinate young people reflecting the external vested interests of organizations from outside Somaliland</li> <li>• Inappropriate pedagogy and instructional materials for teaching about civic and moral responsibility</li> </ul>

Based on: *Beyond Fragility: A Conflict and Education Analysis of the Somali Context*. York: The University of York, UNICEF (2014), pp. 125-139

## Environmental risks and natural disasters impacting education in Somaliland

Risk assessment and mapping are typically carried out within the broader context of disaster risk management. The important of addressing environmental hazards is shown below. A large proportion of respondents to a 'Risk and Hazard Survey' conducted in Hargeisa, the majority of respondents (92.5%) felt that droughts, weather and other challenges related to climate impact upon the ability of children to access education. Risk assessment and mapping are the central components of a more general process which furthermore identifies the capacities and resources available to reduce the identified levels of risk, or the possible effects of a disaster (capacity analysis), and considers the planning of appropriate risk mitigation measures (capability planning), the monitoring and review of hazards, risks, and vulnerabilities, as well as consultation and communication of findings and results.

Figure 14. STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS ON ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS AGGRAVATING RISKS THAT IMPACT CHILDREN'S ACCESS TO EDUCATION (N=105)



*Risk and Hazard Survey, ESA Validation Workshop, Hargeisa, 2016*

Figure 14 below provides an example of different risk / emergency types and impacts over time in the East African Region, between 2005-2015. The chart shows that drought is by far the most common hazard / natural disaster risk affecting the region. The numbers of people affected by drought has risen from approximately 3,200,000 in 2008, to 4,700,000 in 2015. Regional data also demonstrates that environmental risks are often highly predictable. If appropriate mapping is conducted over time the impact of environmental risks can thus be mitigated with through appropriate preparatory and preventative measures deployed by government and development partners. The importance of such measures is demonstrated by the increasing severity of environmental hazards over the years with increasing impacts on affected populations, including children and their rights to access education – most notably for marginalized and disadvantaged communities as cited in Table 8 (above).

Studies that provide data for environmental risks and their impacts in Somaliland are limited or simply do not exist. At the same time, government data systems (as well as those of development partners) are not in place to provide demographic information which undermines the ability of government to conduct evidence-based planning (almost 94% of survey respondents participating in the ESA validation workshop in early October 2016 noted lack of data as a major impediment to effective planning).

Currently, it is estimated that more than 240,000 people in Somaliland are affected by drought<sup>82</sup>. The most affected regions in Somaliland are Maroodi-Jex and Gabiley, which are also largely agro-pastoralist and pastoralist settlement areas. These areas are also considered the “food basket” of the country, which implies far-reaching consequences of the drought for the whole country. Children and the elderly have been the most affected by drought, with roughly 40,000 children under five are

<sup>82</sup> Action Aid, 2015. <http://www.actionaid.org/somaliland/2016/01/somaliland-drought-update>

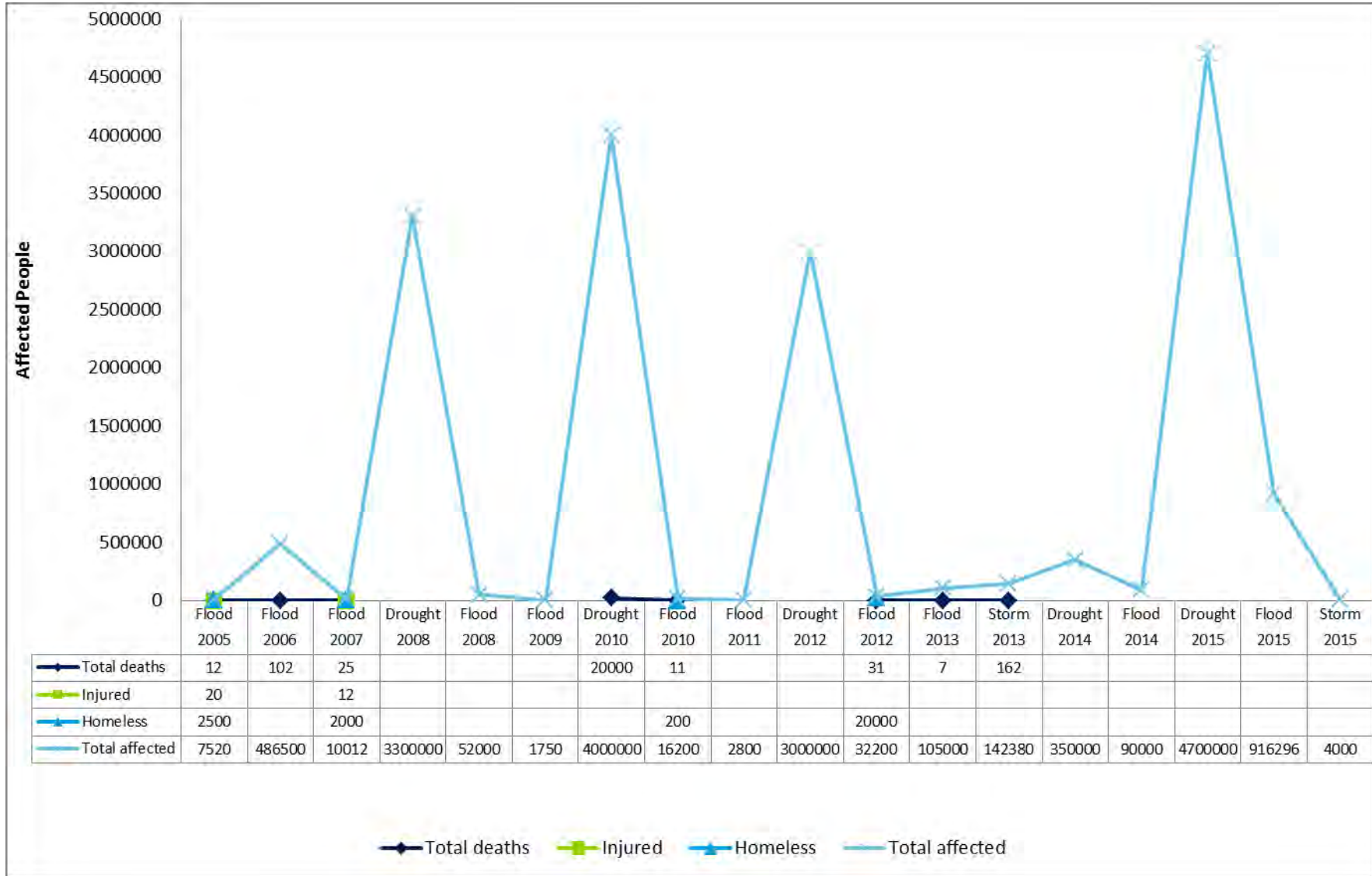
malnourished in Somaliland<sup>83</sup>. Moreover, the majority of those affected are under the age of 18 years, suggesting that around 120,000 of the affected population are children and adolescents. Implications for this are mass migration in search of pasture and water, high rates of children dropping out of school. Among other risks for children, one of the cumulative impacts this has is reversing development gains made toward SDG 4.

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<sup>83</sup> FSNAU, UNHCR. 2013.



**Figure 15.** MAPPING IMPACTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL HAZARDS 1980-2015, EASTERN AFRICA



***Rapid Assessment Mapping of risks and impacts.*** To fill the ‘data gap’ regarding environmental hazards and impacts on children, a ‘rapid assessment’ was conducted with education stakeholder in Somaliland. During the ESA validation workshop conducted in early October 2016, a qualitative method was used by which education stakeholder (i.e., Regional Education Officers with first-hand knowledge of emergencies over the past several years) were asked to complete a tracking matrix to identify types of incidents that have occurred, location of event, impacts of events on children and estimated damage and loss that occurred. The initial mapping of hazards and impacts was subsequently shared with Education Cluster partners for verification and elaboration.

The rapid mapping of risks and impacts yielded information on 34 discrete incidents between 2012 and 2016 ranging from conflict, flooding, droughts and cyclones. While likely understating the actual impacts of different events, it is estimated that some 68,448 children were forced out of school during this period, 289 schools were closed during different periods, with 123 schools damaged and made unusable and 74 schools occupied as a result of refugee flows or IDPs displaced during periods flooding or local conflicts. The regions in Somaliland most affected have been Sahil and Gabiley, which account for 23,598 children who were forced out of school, or 34.5% of the total of out-of-school children caused by different types of emergency. Meanwhile Sanag region appears most affected by conflict with some 27 schools closed over the years due to conflict, some 29% of the total number of schools closed over the past five years.

While the rapid assessment provides a better understanding of the frequency of different emergencies, which regions have been most affected and the impacts upon children and education, the data likely misses many cases that are not so easily recalled. This further highlights problems for planning caused by the absence of monitoring systems in place and specifically designed for this purpose.

Table 9. Estimated Frequency and impacts of emergencies in Somaliland 2012-2016

Year	Disaster type	Region	District	Frequency	Total deaths	Injured	Schools closed	Schools damaged	Schools occupied	Children out of school
2012	Conflict/election	Somaliland	Somaliland	1	2	7	10	5	0	5,000
2012	Drought	Sanaga	Elafweyn	1	4	0	21	0	3	830
2012	Cyclone	Sahil	Lascidle, Berbera, Hagal	1	0	0	3	3	0	180
2012	Cyclone/ rain	Togh dher	Shahid, Ali sahid, Booraamo, Karbare	2	0	0	3	3	0	210
2012	Cyclone/ rain	Gabiley	Allaybaday and Arabsiyo	1	0	0	3	3	0	1,500
2012	Cyclone/ rain	Marodijeh	Darasalaam	1	0	0	1	1	0	300
2013	Floods	Sahil	Berbera	1	0	75	11	11	11	20,000
2013	Cyclone/ rain	Marodijeh	Hargeisa	1	0	0	1	1	0	1,100
2013	Cyclone/ rain	Gabiley	Wajale(Cadad dhaadheerey)	1	0	0	1	1	0	70
2014	Drought	Somaliland	Zeila, Lughaya, Gabiley, Borama, Dilla, Hawd	1	0	0	30	0	0	2,400
2014	Cyclone/ rain	Toghder	Il carmo	1	0	0	1	1	1	40
2014	Cyclone/ rain	Gabiley	Agabar( Cada)	1	0	4	1	1	0	85
2014	Cyclone/ rain	Maroodijeh	Faraweyn and Hargeisa	1	0	0	4	4	0	500
2015	Cyclone/ rain	Somaliland	Hargeisa, Buroa, Erigavo	1	0	0	28	28	0	2,520
2015	Cyclone	Sahil	Bulahar	1	2	14	2	2	2	210
2015	Cyclone/ rain	Sahil	Sheik	1	0	0	2	2	0	123
2015	Drought	Toghder	Gabo gabo, Ilkacadees, Xayira and El dher	1	0	0	4	0	4	250

2015	Cyclone/ rain	Maroodi jeh	Darasalam, Hargeisa, farawayne	1	0	0	5	5	0	1,500
2016	Drought	Gabiley	Allaybaday, Agabar, Gabiley	2	100	0	34	0	0	2,500
2016	Drought	Awdal and Marodijeh	Qunuejed,	2	5	0	72	0	5	6,000
2016	Refugee Yemen	Somaliland	Berbera, Zeila, Borama, Buroa, and Hargeisa	3	0	0	0	0	15	5,000
2016	Refugee- Border	Togdher	Togdher	0	0	0	5	5	5	5,000
2016	Cyclone	Maroodi Jeh	Hargeisa	1	3	9	11	11	0	15,000
2016	Flood	Awdal	Dilla	1	6	2	2	2	0	1,000
2016	Communal Violence	Sanag	El-afweyn,	3	12	34	27	27	27	1,490
2016	Cyclone/ rain	Sahil	Bulahar	1	0	1	1	1	1	125
2016	Cyclone/ rain	Gabiley	Allabaday	1	0	0	5	5	0	450
2016	Cyclone	Gabiley	Wajale( xunshalay)	1	0	0	1	1	0	65
<b>Total</b>				<b>34</b>	<b>134</b>	<b>146</b>	<b>289</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>68,448</b>

*Risk and Hazard Mapping, ESA Validation Workshop, Hargeisa, 2016*

There are also several snapshots of the hazards that the country faces that provide more detailed understanding of two common natural hazards that occur in the region – drought and flooding. A recent example of climate-related emergency in Somaliland is the drought in February 2016. Following two low precipitation rainy seasons, the Government of Somaliland issued a declaration of drought as a result of the El Nino weather system. The Somalia Initial Rapid Needs Assessment (SIRNA) for Somalia (2016)<sup>84</sup> revealed the impact of drought on affected populations in the region, and highlights its effect in the education sector, as presented in Box 1. The drought was reported to have a high impact primarily on pastoralist communities and their livestock in the affected regions of Awdal, Sool, Sanaag, Togdheer Marodijeer and Sahel.

**Box 1 Key Education Sector Impact of Drought in Affected Regions of Drought in Feb 2016, Somaliland<sup>85</sup>**

- Attendance rates at any form of education (formal and informal) are low, although marginally higher in most age and gender groups in assessed communities in Somaliland. 33% of males aged 5-12 were reported to attend some form of education in Somaliland. Girls in the same age group were less likely to attend education... at 29% in Somaliland.
- In rural communities in Somaliland, the primary school attendance rate was 13% for boys and 12% for girls. The dropout rate since the drought identified through facility mapping (which is indicative only) was 15% for males and 13% for females across all education types.
- There is some evidence that response and recovery programmes implemented through integrated support delivered at schools could have an auxiliary impact on attendance rates. Schools with a water point within 500 metres of the school had a dropout rate of 14% for male students and 11% for female students, compared to 21% of male and 19% of female students in schools without water points within 500 metres. Schools with feeding programmes had even lower dropout rates – 11% for male students and 10% for female students, compared to 22% of male students and 17% of female students in schools where no feeding programme was present.

*Extracted from Somalia Initial Rapid Needs Assessment (SIRNA), Somaliland and Puntland<sup>86</sup>*

The extract in Box 1 shows the importance of preparedness for environmental shocks and the need for preparedness systems that can improve resilience in the community, especially for nomadic populations and in rural areas, by minimizing the worst impacts of different types of events. Whilst this data is not verified by official government records, it is worthy of note for the high rates of children dropping out of school, compared with the most recent data provided by the MOEHS, which states

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84 Somalia Initial Rapid Needs Assessment (SIRNA), Somaliland and Puntland. 2016. USAID, OCHA, EU and REACH.

85 Ibid.

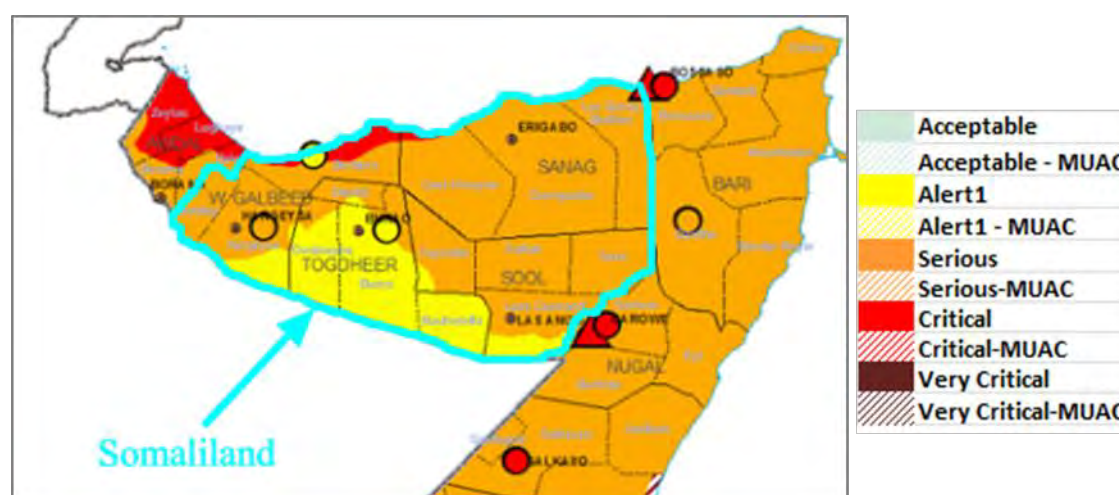
86 Ibid.

the average primary school drop-out rates across Somaliland for the 2014-15 period was 3.5% (boys) and 4.6% (girls).

### Estimates of vulnerability to environmental hazards using nutritional indicators for school risk mapping

As previously observed, there is limited availability of disaster risk mapping and related data in Somaliland, especially as pertaining to the education sector. However, using climate and food security research it is possible to create a preliminary school map to identify schools located in high risk areas for drought. In these areas, school attendance can be expected to behave as was revealed in the survey outcomes in Box 1, above Figure 16 below is a map of the estimated nutrition situation in the Horn of Africa for the months of February to June 2016. As seen in the map, the nutrition situation for most of the Marodijeeh, Sahil and Sool Regions, part of Togdheer Region and all of Sanaag Region are ranked as “serious”, whilst the extreme Northeastern part of Sahil is colour-tagged as “critical”. This means that the level of malnutrition, especially among children, is of serious concern. Superimposing these colour tags on the enrolment data found in the ESSP for the affected regions can inform preliminary priority areas for schools to be targeted with preventive measures such as school feeding programmes and other student-retention strategies to prevent reversals in gains in education and minimize impacts of drought.

Figure 16. ESTIMATED NUTRITION PROJECTION FOR SOMALILAND, FEBRUARY TO JUNE 2016<sup>87</sup>.



As shown in Table 13, taking nutritional indicators (Mid Upper Arm Circumference, MUAC<sup>3</sup>) as a proxy indicator for community vulnerability to environmental hazards<sup>88</sup>, risk reduction programmes should be prioritized in schools in Sahil Region where the nutrition situation as of February-June 2016 was deemed ‘critical’ and children are at greatest risk. However, nutrition data suggests that many children in Somaliland remain highly vulnerable to environmental hazards, with nearly half of all regions categorized as facing a ‘serious’ nutritional situation.

<sup>87</sup> FSNAU. 2016. *Somalia Food and Nutrition Analysis*. FAO/UNICEF/FEWSNET/WFP.

<sup>88</sup> MUAC cut-offs commonly used are: <11.5cm = (Serious); 11.5–<12.5cm = (Very Serious), Sever Acute Malnutrition (Critical) and Global Acute Malnutrition (Very Critical)

Table 10. Nutritional Situation data for Schools by Region

Region	Total number of	Nutritional
Awdal	109	Serious
Badhan	44	Serious
Buhodle	39	Alert
Gabiley	79	Alert
Hawd	18	Serious
Maroodi-Jeex	253	Alert
Odwayne	34	Alert
Sahil	85	Critical
Salal	26	Serious
Sanaaq	154	Serious
Saraar	34	Serious
Sool	100	Alert
Togdheer	108	Alert
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,083</b>	

### 3.4 Impact of disaster on education and vice-versa

As noted earlier, emergencies have had a profound impact upon children's education during the timeframe of the last ESSP with close to 70,000 children being forced out of school for different periods of time, and hundreds of schools either closed or damaged. The combined effect has been to slow progress toward achieving targets set out in the previous ESSP and goals related to SDG 4.

Not surprisingly, those most affected have been pastoral and rural communities. Approximately 44% of the Somaliland population is pastoralist and live in rural areas (see Table 3) where government (and private sector) capacity (or desire in the case of private sector providers) to provide education services remains weakest. According to the 2012-16 ESSP, almost 50% of the pastoralist population is in need of humanitarian assistance due to famine and other climate shocks, which has aggravated extreme poverty and deprivation among already marginalized communities. Therefore, at least 25% of Somaliland's overall population is extremely vulnerable to climate risks. Furthermore, there are cases of high child malnutrition in rural areas as seen in earlier chapters.

The current ESSP pledged to address the aforementioned impacts by:

- Providing boarding schools for pastoralist populations
- Equipping existing schools with learning and teaching materials
- Enhancing teacher skills through workshops during the long school holidays
- Sensitizing parents on alternative ways of disciplining children [a measure for prevention of violence by reducing corporal punishment in schools and at home]

Scarce data has been collected on education trends among this and other high-risk populations such as IDPs during the ESSP period between 2012 and 2016.

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<sup>89</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS EMIS

However, while policies aiming to reduce violence against children and address inequities by providing learning and teaching materials in schools, focus areas in the outgoing ESSP seem primarily relevant to increasing access and improving teacher quality. It is thus fair to assume that few results were achieved with addressing the impacts of environmental hazards for the most vulnerable groups – most of which were out of school. This can be explained a potential misalignment between proposed strategies in the ESSP for addressing risks springing from environmental hazards.

### 3.5 Education Sector management and governance risks

The OECD notes that weak institutions which lack transparency, accountability and participation and that are unable to deliver effective quality services to citizens are a critical dimension of fragility. Recent studies commissioned by UNICEF and carried out by Sussex and Ulster Universities specifically identify how education sector management deficiencies can contribute to societal inequities and political grievances that aggravate social pressures giving rise to instability or conflict, and that may also undermine resilience among the most marginalized segments of a society.<sup>90</sup> This section draws on a 2013 Capacity Gap Analysis of the education sector<sup>91</sup>, 2014 education sector conflict analysis findings, and a 2016 Risk and Hazards survey conducted as part of the ESA validation process conducted in Hargeisa. By using an analytical tool adapted from the Asia Development Bank (ADB) it identifies how sector management weaknesses in Somaliland result in what can be termed as **Reduced Effectiveness**.<sup>92</sup> This reduced effectiveness of the education sector, in turn, contributes to risks which are the result of weak governance systems and institutions, weak transparency systems, and capacity deficiencies that undermine the ability of the education sector to steer the process of sector reform out of “arrested development” toward sustainable peace and development.

The ADB Guidance Notes on Education Sector Risk Assessment illustrates how the education sector is vulnerable to governance risks (Asian Development Bank, 2010). Reasons for this can include:

- The share in total government expenditure as a proportion of the overall national budget which often results in substantial total funds managed by the education sector,
- Opportunities for discretionary decision-making and ‘rent seeking’ (e.g. practices of collusions and back door dealing in securing management of donor grants or government contracts,

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<sup>90</sup> Novelli et al, *Exploring the Linkages between Education Sector Governance, Inequity, Conflict, and Peacebuilding in South Sudan*, University of Sussex, UNICEF ESARO, 2016; Smith et al, *Exploring the Linkages between Education Sector Governance, Inequity, Conflict, and Peacebuilding in Kenya*, University of Sussex with University of Ulster, UNICEF ESARO, 2016.

<sup>91</sup> M. H. Isaak. 2013. Capacity Gaps Assessment Report for the Ministry of Education and Higher Studies of Somaliland. Hargeisa. Republic of Somaliland Ministry of Education and Higher Education.

<sup>92</sup> Asian Development Bank. 2010. Education Sector Risk Assessment Guidance Notes.



- Weak institutional capacity; and
- Political interference and patronage networks that can, for example, be based on political or some other type of affiliation (e.g. clan relationships).<sup>93</sup>

Based on the framework outlined by the ADB, a short listing of specific governance/sector management risks most relevant to the Somaliland context are identified in Table 14.

Table 11. Sector Management Risk Matrix

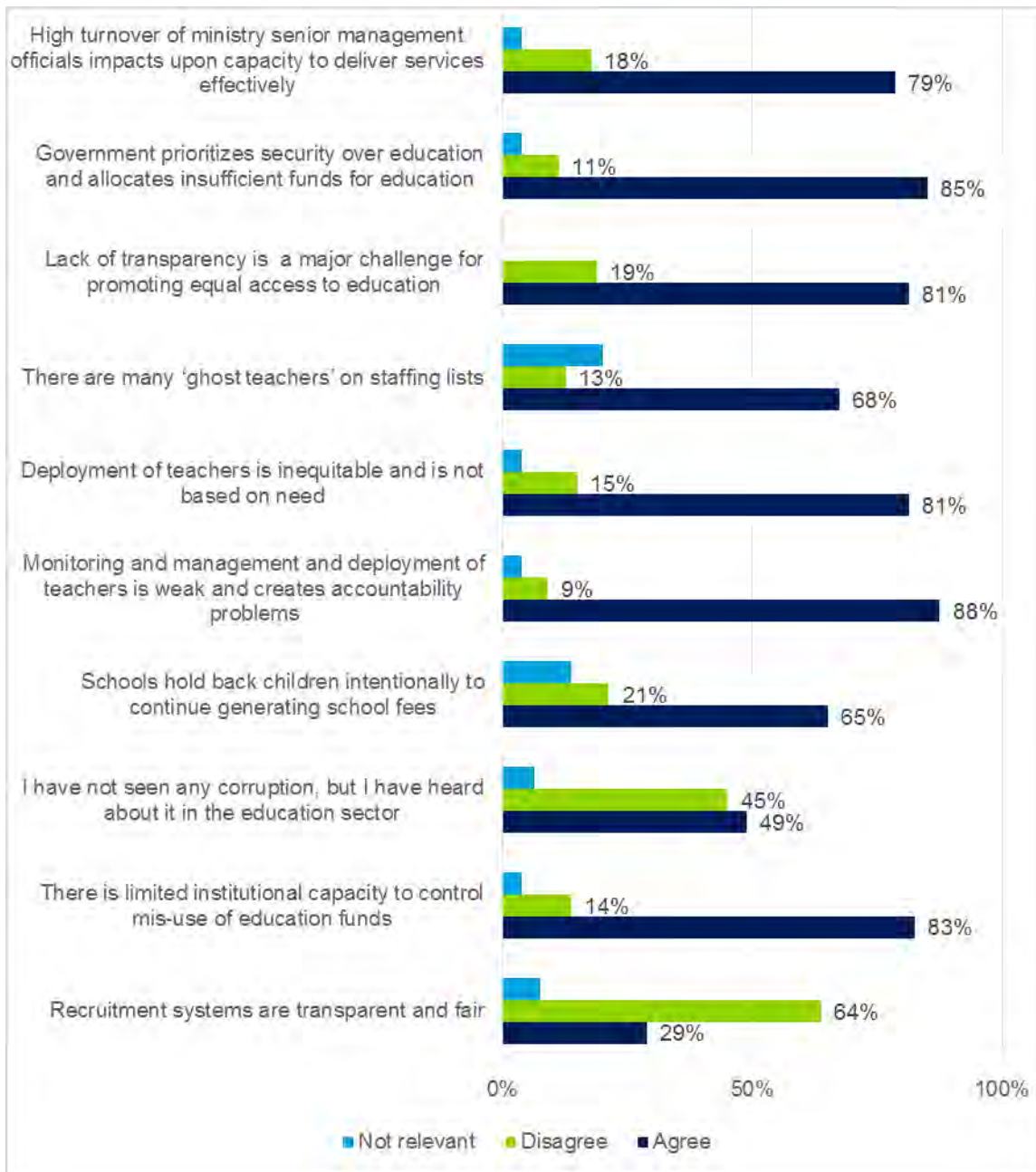
Dimension	Analysis in the Somaliland context
Policy risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The allocation to the Education sector remains low at between 7-8% leaving the sector grossly underfunded and key functions such as training and capacity building not catered for. In some cases, not all essential staff receive salaries regularly.</li> <li>• The formal education system is not flexible enough to fit into the life style of the pastoralist communities. Hence children of the pastoralist livestock herding communities have very limited access to education.</li> <li>• Government policy-makers have prioritized investments in military expenditure over education.</li> <li>• Lack of policy framework for education in emergency and school safety</li> <li>• Construction projects of schools have been prioritized in the past, resulting in many schools now left vacant and unused further demonstrating a misalignment between policy priorities and actual needs.</li> </ul>
Legal framework risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The draft SNEC Act has not been forwarded to parliament for approval which holds back process; The SNEC board is semi-functional and does not meet regularly unless there is an emergency situation,</li> <li>• Weak school supervision systems resulting in an inability to enforce quality standards</li> </ul>
Regulation risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of regulations to manage private sector schools and foundations resulting in collusion among the private sector to retain control of the education sector</li> <li>• Weak human resource management regulations resulting in frequent turnover or rotation of staff within or between ministries.</li> </ul>
Economic and Cultural Barriers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There are economic, social and cultural barriers against certain disadvantaged groups. For example, some parents do not send their daughters or children with disabilities to school</li> </ul>

<sup>93</sup> Asian Development Bank. 2010. Education Sector Risk Assessment Guidance Notes, p. 12.

Organizational risks (planning, procurement, budgeting, recruitment, teacher management)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weak data management systems create opportunities for planning based on patronage networks or political affiliations</li> </ul>	We
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weaknesses with financial management capacity and audit systems create risks of funds leakage</li> </ul>	We
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weaknesses with decentralized funding to local levels hampers effective delivery of education services at local level</li> </ul>	We
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Limited participation of teachers and representatives of civil society in planning and budget allocation processes</li> </ul>	Lim
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weak information systems create risks that 'ghost teachers' continue to be on the government payroll</li> </ul>	Po
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Inadequate expertise in procurement of services and construction contracts can lead to 'loose contracts' and poor delivery of services procured by the government.</li> </ul>	Ina
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Corruption in procurement processes can undermine transparent and quality contracting</li> </ul>	Col
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weak recruitment processes that can undermine transparency and effective staff performance</li> </ul>	We
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weak response capacities for managing humanitarian actions resulting in long response delays</li> </ul>	We
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High rates of teacher absenteeism in classrooms</li> </ul>	Hig	

Figure 16 below presents findings from a perception survey on risks and hazards in Somaliland conducted with Education stakeholders. Respondents to the survey identify many of the sector management risks listed in Table 14 above as factors that that undermine children's access to education as well as the performance and credibility of the education sector.

Figure 17. EDUCATION SECTOR MANAGEMENT RISKS, STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS (N=80)



*Risk and Hazard Survey, ESA Validation Workshop, Hargeisa, 2016*

Based on a total of 80 valid survey responses, the greatest risk area is monitoring, management and deployment of teachers, with 88% of survey respondents suggesting this undermines transparency and accountability. The second most cited problem is with government prioritization of security issues resulting in insufficient budget allocations to the education sector, with 85% of respondent agreeing this is a governance weakness in Somaliland. This was followed by limited government capacity to exercise controls over the utilization of funds to reduce funds leakage, with 83% of respondent seeing this as a challenge. Similarly, lack of transparency and the inequitable distribution of teachers between rural and urban areas was cited by 81% of respondents as challenges, closely followed by 79% of respondents citing the high turnover of senior government officials as a problem. A high proportion of respondents (68%) also listed the existence of 'ghost teachers' on staffing lists as a

problem, followed by 65% of respondents indicating that 'schools hold children back intentionally to continue generating schools fees' as a problem. Respondents also demonstrated a high level of mistrust in government recruitment processes, with 64% feeling that recruitment systems are not fair or transparent. On a positive note, the proportion of respondents who indicated and direct or indirect knowledge about the existence of blatant forms of corruption was relatively low. Only 49% of respondents had ever 'heard of corruption' taking place in the ministry, with none stating that they had ever seen or experience corrupt practices directly.

The lack of blatant forms of corruption in the ministry of education is highly encouraging for Somaliland. However, the cumulative effect of sector management weaknesses is that they undermine the capacity of the education sector to promote inclusive development and address factors underpinning fragility. Moreover, as noted in the York University conflict analysis for the education sector, these weaknesses can contribute to clan-based competition over education resources and contribute to education inequities within Somaliland.<sup>94</sup>

### **3.6 Inequities in Education, social and political risks**

Within Somaliland, it is widely accepted that the majority of an entire generation of children over the last three decades have lost all opportunities to receive adequate education<sup>95</sup>, and today could be referred to as a 'lost generation'.

Recent studies commissioned by UNICEF in partnership with FHI360, as well as Sussex and Ulster Universities, identify how weaknesses in education sector management can contribute to educational inequities that exclude the most marginalized groups.<sup>96</sup> Moreover, the existence of educational inequities, particularly in fragile state contexts, can fuel divisions within a society and contribute to pressures for instability, expose children to violence and exploitation, and undermine societal resilience.<sup>97</sup> Lack of education and the continued marginalization of vulnerable communities can play a role in nurturing hostility or conflict between different sects<sup>98</sup>, as well as contributing to the availability of recruits for organized violence and undermining state legitimacy<sup>99</sup>. Horizontal inequities across different

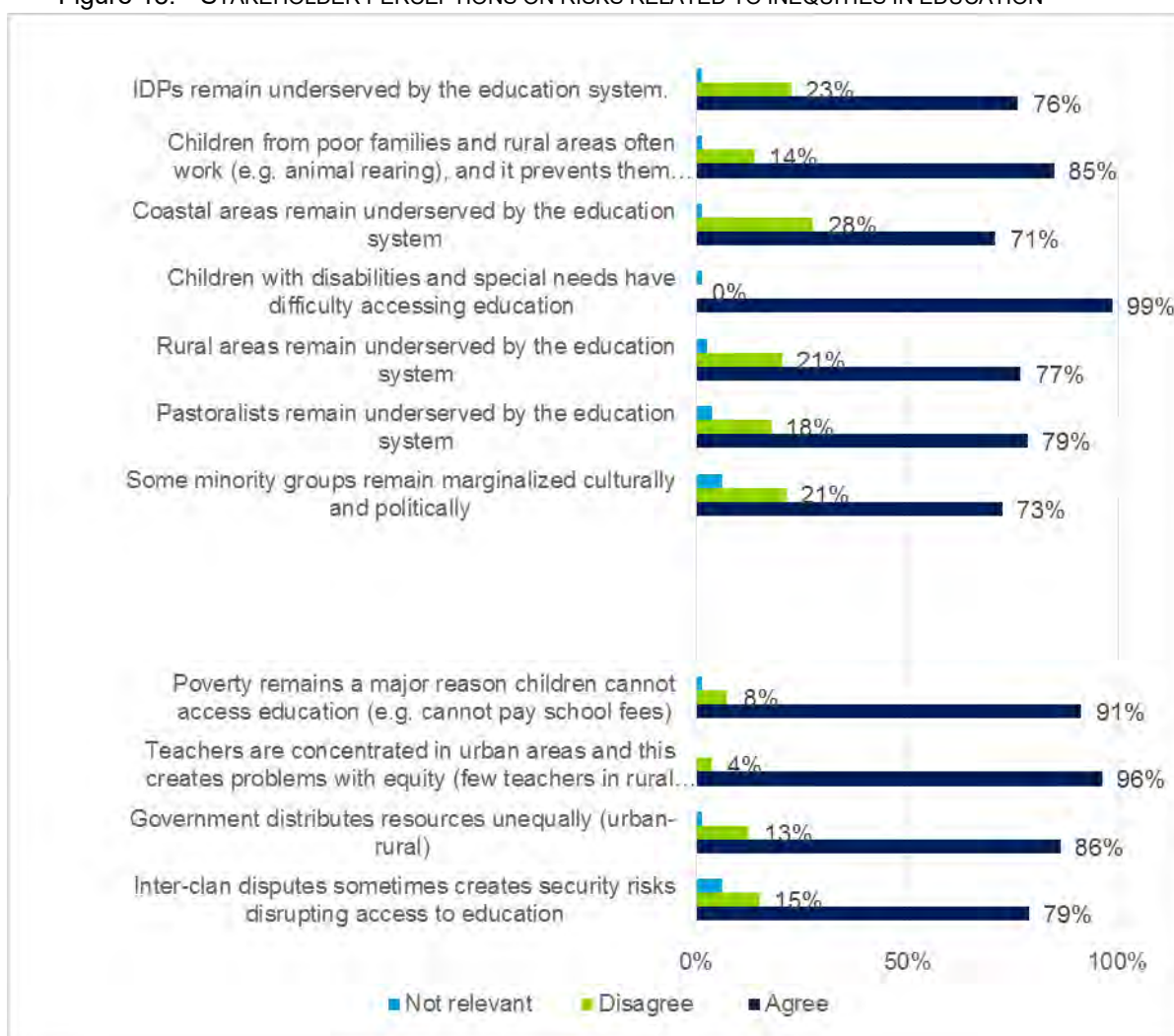
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<sup>94</sup> Barakat, Connolly, Hardman, Lewis, Lineker, Menkhaus, Rzeszut and Shanks, 2014. *Beyond Fragility: A Conflict and Education Analysis of the Somali Context*. UNICEF. UNICEF, World Bank. 2008. *Somali Reconstruction and Development Programme: Deepening Peace and Reducing Poverty*. Volume 1. Novelli et al, *Exploring the Linkages between Education Sector Governance, Inequity, Conflict, and Peacebuilding in South Sudan*, University of Sussex, UNICEF ESARO, 2016; Smith et al, *Exploring the Linkages between Education Sector Governance, Inequity, Conflict, and Peacebuilding in Kenya*, University of Sussex with University of Ulster, UNICEF ESARO, 2016; FHI 360 Education Policy and Data Center, *Horizontal Education Inequality and Violence Conflict: A literature Review*. New Yor, NY: UNICEF, 2014. *Interpeace*. 2016. *Practice Brief: Resilience and Peacebuilding. Using Resilience to Build Peace. Frameworks for Assessing Reilience Programme*. Tebbe, K., Breazeale, B., Commins, S., Kalista, J., Pigozzi, M. J., Winthrop, R., et al. (n.d.). *The multiple faces of education in conflict-affected and fragile contexts*. Retrieved from [http://www.themimu.info/sites/themimu.info/files/documents/report\\_inee\\_multiple\\_faces\\_of\\_e\\_d\\_in\\_conflict-affected\\_fragile\\_contexts.pdf](http://www.themimu.info/sites/themimu.info/files/documents/report_inee_multiple_faces_of_e_d_in_conflict-affected_fragile_contexts.pdf) Burde, D., Kapit-Spitalny, A., Wahl, R., & Guven, O. (2011). *Education and conflict mitigation: What aid workers say*. Washington, D. C.: US Agency for International Development.

types of identity lines (e.g. clan, nationality, etc.) within a society can trigger significant resentment<sup>100</sup>. Stewart points out that “equality of access in education is particularly important” as schooling is both highly symbolic indicator of equity as well as being concretely linked to income earning potential and thus the future ability to diminish inequalities between groups.<sup>101</sup>

Figure 18 below presents findings from a perception survey on risks and hazards in Somaliland conducted with Education stakeholders in October 2016. Respondents to the survey identify how specific forms of inequity impact upon children’s access to education, pointing to groups who are persistently excluded from education or issues that undermine equity in education.

Figure 18. STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS ON RISKS RELATED TO INEQUITIES IN EDUCATION



Risk and Hazard Survey, ESA Validation Workshop, Hargeisa, 2016

While the groups listed are not exhaustive, those most commonly perceived as experiencing difficulties accessing education, by 99% of respondents, are children

Collier, P., & Hoeffler, A. (2000). *Greed and grievance in civil war*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank  
 Stewart, F. (2002). *Horizontal Inequalities: A neglected dimension of development*. Oxford: Queen Elizabeth House.

with disabilities. This is followed by 85% of respondents listing children from poor families who are often required to work to support households. IDP children and those from pastoralist communities are perceived by 76% and 79% respectively as being 'underserved' by education services, with rural communities perceived by 77% of respondents as being underserved by education services. Seventy-three percent of respondents also believed that some minority groups are culturally and politically marginalized, while children from coastal areas were least perceived as being underserved by the education sector – cited by 71% of respondents. Considering ongoing challenges with achieving Gender Parity in education, additional forms of exclusion are experienced by girls within each of the groupings, thus making girls by far the group in society most affected by educational inequities.

Survey respondents also identified several factors related to education sector management that contribute to reproducing inequity and exclusion in education. 'Poverty' is cited by 91% of respondents as a barrier to accessing education, but specifically in the context of being able to pay school fees. Considering the unregulated nature of the education sector and the prevalence of privately managed schools and education foundations, fee structures (which can be on average USD 20 per month for a single child), have the effect of excluding a large number of children from poor households. Teacher management also creates barriers to achieving equity in education, with 96% of respondents feeling the teachers are not distributed equitably to rural areas. This is borne out when analyzing population distribution figures and teacher distribution figures. At primary level roughly 64% of teachers are concentrated in urban areas (see Chapter 6), whereas roughly 45% of the population either lives in rural areas or are nomadic/pastoralists in rural areas. At the same time, 86% of survey respondents also felt that the distribution of education resources (e.g. text books, learning materials, etc.) is inequitable with children from rural communities often being under-resourced. Nearly 80% of survey respondents also identified clan-based disputes as a factor creating security threats that undermines access to education, the result being that children who are from the most marginalized communities are also most impacted.

Overall, survey findings point to four key factors contributing to inequity including: 1) geographic location, 2) economic barriers to education, 3) cultural and political barriers to achieving equity in education, and 4) limited community participation in decision-making on resource allocation, as demonstrated by perceptions on inequitable resource allocation.<sup>102</sup>

Further discussion is given below to several of the groupings of children experiencing the greatest educational inequities, followed by consideration of policy achievements at promoting equity in education during the period of the outgoing ESSP.

### **Gender Equity and risk**

While gender is often considered only in terms of girl's participation in education, recent global evidence demonstrates that gender inequities in which girls face high levels of exclusion from education are often related to risks of social and political

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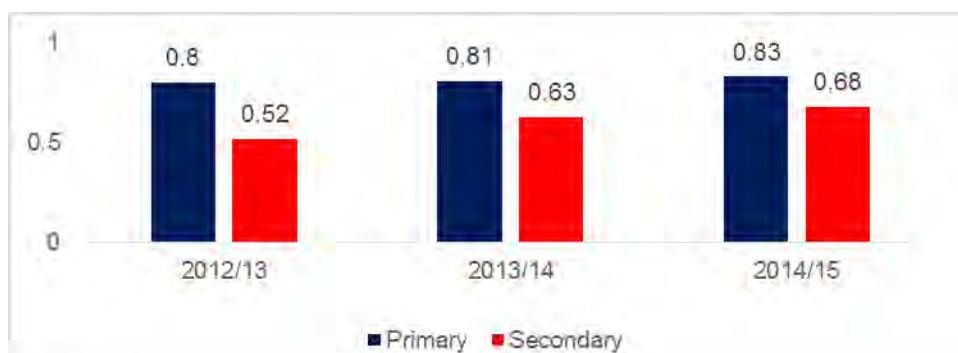
Epstein, A. 2010. *Making the case for an equity focus in education*. New York: UNICEF HQ Education Section.



stability. For example, recent evidence produced by UNICEF’s global Peacebuilding, Education and Advocacy Programme (PBEA) shows that conflict and societal violence are less likely to occur “where there is gender parity in terms of average years of schooling...[conversely]...gender inequality in education increases in response to the incidence of conflict.”<sup>103</sup> As such, the prevalence of inequities towards girls acts as a strong indicator about the broader social and political dynamics that contribute to inclusive development, peace and security more broadly, and progress toward achieving SDG 4 targets.

In Somaliland, the Gender Disparity Index (GPI) in the Primary and Secondary subsectors have slowly improved since 2011/12, as shown in Figure 19 below. At primary level the GPI has increased slightly since 2011/2012 from .8 to .83 by 2014/15. At secondary school level, there has been a much larger increase since 2011/12 from .52 to .68 by 2014/15. These improvements aside, girls and women still face significant cultural and political barriers to achieving equity. For families experiencing economic hardship, if forced to choose between sending boy or girl to school, most will send a boy – as noted by 72% of participants to a survey on Risks and Hazards conducted by UNICEF in October 2016.<sup>104</sup> Women experience underrepresentation in the education and employment sectors. For example, the proportion of female employees in government is 12%, the proportion of female teacher in Somaliland is under 5%, and only three out of 164 seats in Parliament are held by women<sup>105</sup>. As such, while progress with GPI at primary and secondary levels is commendable, the figures also demonstrate high levels of inequity experienced by girls. This can also be taken as indicative of broader inequities prevalent for many of the most marginalized in society and which contribute to fragility and undermine progress toward achieving SDG 4 targets.

Figure 19. GPI TRENDS IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL, 2011-2015



Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2014. *Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook, 2014-15*

Table 15 below provides a summary analysis of results achieved with Gender Equality policies during the period of the outgoing ESSP. The table identifies several

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UNICEF, 2016, *Gender, Education and Peacebuilding: A Review of Learning for Peace Case Studies*, UNICEF, New York. Available at :

<http://learningforpeace.unicef.org/resources/gender-education-and-peacebuilding-a-review-of-learning-for-peace-case-studies/>

Risk and Hazard Survey, ESA Validation Workshop, Hargeisa, 2016

UNDP. 2012. *Somalia Human Development Report 2012*.

areas of progress that have contributed to gains in GPI over the years. Conversely, some of the policy initiatives have not been achieved, such as the establishment of female counselors in schools while progress with 'affirmative action policies' seeking to improve learning outcomes for girls is difficult to measure accurately given lack of gender-disaggregated learning outcome data. It is worth noting that none of the key policies examined touch on critical issues affecting girls such as Female Genital Mutilation, early marriage, or gender-based violence. At the same time, none of the policies considered herein consider gender-equity from the perspective of boys or males. Limited progress with the GPI and promoting equity for girls (and women) has thus met with limited progress because strategies have only focused on girls. This means that the social norms and power dynamics between boys/girls and men/women that create barriers to equity are not being acted upon to more rapidly promote gender parity in schools and gender equity in society more broadly.



Table 12. Analysis on Gender Equity policies and achievements in the Education Sector

Policy Priority	Level of achievement 2016 and Comments	Recommendations for Improvement
Introduce affirmative action programs to improve access, retention and academic performance of girls in secondary education	<p><b>Partially achieved</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More than 90% of the secondary school girls achieved more than 50% in secondary final examination.</li> <li>• Gender mainstreaming policy was developed</li> <li>• Subject to validation, 100 new female teachers were trained and deployed to secondary schools.</li> <li>• Remedial classes were organized for secondary school girls and this improved their performance</li> <li>• Girl friendly spaces were established in some secondary schools</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Training more female secondary school teachers</li> <li>• Construct more Girl friendly spaces in schools.</li> <li>• Successful strategies at Secondary level should now be applied at primary level</li> <li>• Maintain afternoon classes for secondary schools.</li> <li>• MOEHS to lobby the government and sponsor legislation to remove 'invisible' barriers to education access for girls (e.g. GBV, FGM, early marriage).</li> </ul>
<sup>106</sup> Scholarship programs for girls, who obtain high scores in national examinations) to attract and retain girls in secondary school	<p><b>Partially achieved</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 73 university students who scored better in secondary examinations are provided university scholarship</li> <li>• 63 girls in secondary school receive performance based scholarship</li> <li>• This improved the girl's retention and encouraged.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establish strategy to provide scholarship to universities for girls who performed better in secondary school examinations.</li> </ul>
<sup>107</sup> Create an enabling learning environment for girls by ensuring adequate and relevant facilities such as separate latrines for girls in secondary	<p><b>Partially achieved</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Girl friendly spaces were constructed in mixed secondary schools</li> <li>• All schools have separate latrines for girls</li> <li>• Sanitary kits were provided to target secondary</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Construct more GFS in mixed schools that do not have them.</li> <li>• More female teachers to be recruited.</li> </ul>

UNDP Somalia Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Strategy (2011-2015) Progress Report 2013.  
<http://www.undp.org/content/dam/somalia/Reports/Somalia%20Gender%20Progress%20Rpt.%202013.pdf>  
 Accelerated Primary Education Support (APES) Project. Final Evaluation Report. [www.alnap.org/pool/files/9686521.pdf](http://www.alnap.org/pool/files/9686521.pdf)

Policy Priority	Level of achievement 2016 and Comments	Recommendations for Improvement
schools	school girls	
Establish female school counselors for secondary school girls	<b>Not achieved</b> Guidance and counseling manual was developed but no counselor established in schools.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establish guidance and counseling committee at schools</li> <li>• Train the counselors on guidance and counseling</li> </ul>
Promote girls networks and linkages with other students	<b>Not achieved</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Girl's empowerment committee established in secondary schools but no linkages among the different schools</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Established girls committee in schools should be empowered and link within the schools.</li> </ul>
Encourage girls only secondary boarding schools	<b>Not achieved</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reconsider merits of this priority as it may inadvertently add to inequities</li> </ul>
Establish gender-balanced boards of governors in accordance with the Education Act	<b>Achieved</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• School boards/school committees in schools are gender balanced.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Empower the school boards by providing school management trainings.</li> </ul>

## Nomadic and Pastoralist Communities

It is widely assumed that in many countries in the Eastern and Southern Africa region where nomadic and pastoralist communities comprise a large proportion of the population, risks to peace and sustainable development are high. Recent initiatives in countries such as Ethiopia which has moved to develop 'socially inclusive education for pastoralist communities' reflects attempts to address such risks.<sup>108</sup> Similarly, research drawn from Kenya on 'resilience and education in arid and semi-arid lands' which explores the role of education for pastoralist communities bordering Ethiopia and Kenya identifies how educational inequities fuel vulnerability to environmental hazards and place young people at risk of alienation and the use of negative coping strategies such as violence, drug abuse, engagement in criminal activity, or recruitment to armed groups or mobilization to engage on political violence.<sup>109</sup> In June of 2016, to address such risks with pastoralist and other marginalized communities 13 African countries from across the continent, including the Federal government of Somalia with the government of Somaliland as an honorary participant, signed a political communique recognizing that,

[C]onflicts, violence and inequities can lead to crises and impede the achievement of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) such linkages and...that education systems, particularly the type and quality of education provided, can either fuel marginalization, alienation and risks of conflict and violent extremism, or contribute to social inclusion, economic development and sustainable peace and stability[.]<sup>110</sup>

The commitment of Somalia and Somaliland governments is grounded in a strong desire to build viable peaceful states and a recognition that to do so requires overcoming inequities faced by pastoral and nomadic communities. A 2015 Population Estimate Survey for Somalia (PESS) conducted by UNFPA, shows that the Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) for children from nomadic communities across Somalia is only 3.1%, compared to 18.8% for those children living in rural areas and 56.8% for those children living in urban areas. In simple terms, the data shows that strategies employed during the outgoing ESSP have failed to address inequities faced by nomadic and pastoral communities, which currently comprise roughly 34% of the population in Somaliland but that contribute to nearly 60% of Somaliland's GDP through agricultural and livestock production (see Figure 2). Several reasons are outlined below.

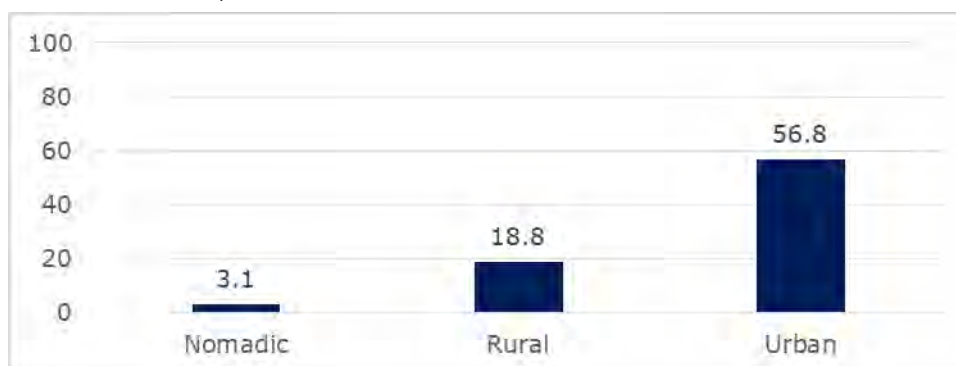
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*Ministry of Education, 'Revising Pastoralist Education in Ethiopia: Moves toward socially inclusive education'. Presentation made at joint UNICEF/ICQN Pan-African Symposium on Education, Social Cohesion and Resilience. 1-3 June 2016. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.*

*Patta Scott-Villiers et al (2015), A Study of Education and Resilience in Kenya's Arid and Semi-arid Lands, UNICEF Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office.*

*"Pan-African Symposium on Education, Resilience and Social Cohesion, Strengthening Education Policies and Programmes to Achieve SDGs and Africa's Agenda 2063", Addis Ababa Communique, 3 June 2016. The political communique was signed by 13 education Ministers and their representatives, with Somaliland annexed as a possible additional signatory.*

Figure 20. GROSS ENROLLMENT RATIOS (NOMADIC AND PASTORALIST COMMUNITIES COMPARISON)



UNFPA 2015, PESS

As noted earlier, the distribution of education resources between rural and urban areas remains highly inequitable. In rural areas schools are plagued with insufficient textbooks and learning materials, and the distribution of teachers based on population distribution is skewed in favor of urban areas. Moreover, as many schools are run by private foundations or organizations that are profit-oriented, there is little incentive for many school managers to extend education services to support these communities as many households live below the monetary poverty line and cannot afford to pay the fees charged by privately run schools. As many pastoralist communities tend to be politically marginalized compared to urban residents, there is also little influence these groups bring to government decision-making processes, resulting in resources being prioritized to areas and groups who are better aligned to government processes.

This type of inequity is aggravated further by the mobile lifestyle of pastoral and nomadic communities who are not able to benefit fully from schools and resources that are in fixed rural locations. While there is also an assumption that boarding schools for nomadic and pastoralist children may offer solutions, but even then the government has lacked sufficient funds to provide affordable and accessible facilities for nomadic and pastoralist children.<sup>111</sup> Sparse distribution of the nomad population causes a low population density of students at a given time, which makes it difficult to gather enough pupil population to make it cost-effective. Meanwhile, because many pastoralist community members are not able to meet the necessary costs of education (in areas where it is available), which usually results in boys being sent to school as they are prioritized to help meet the needs of families – thus aggravating gender inequities.

Additionally, as noted earlier pastoralist and nomadic communities are perceived as being most affected by environmental hazards such as drought, flooding, and cyclones. Specific details of community coping strategies are not clear but include selling of assets such as livestock when a crisis occurs, pulling children out of school (if they are in school), shifting locations, and in some cases engaging in communal conflicts over control for grazing lands or watering holes. The cumulative effect is

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*Boarding school solutions can also aggravate problems of exclusion or exploitation if not carefully considered and well-managed and sufficiently resourced and funded.*

that the vulnerabilities of these communities is chronic and has 'trapped' them in a cyclical pattern of crisis which undermines opportunities for sustainable development gains.

While there are many assumed benefits from education for pastoralist communities if it is delivered in a manner that is culturally and economically relevant<sup>112</sup>, formal education curriculum is not designed in a way that strengthens local livelihoods and is not aligned to the practices and schedules of pastoralist communities. Much of the formal educational curriculum instead focuses on academic achievements that are better suited to the needs of urban / modern / Western society, with the schedules of formal schooling creating a barrier for many pastoralist children. As such, many pastoralists perceive modern education as a 'threat' to Somaliland's indigenous nomadic/pastoralist lifestyle, believing that school facilities, whether boarding or day schools, and the curriculum content, will alienate their children from the community. These fears bear some merit when considering the negative impacts that formal education in the arid and semi-arid lands of Kenya have had upon children, particularly young boys who in many cases have become 'trapped' between traditional and modern economies and vulnerable to numerous social, economic and political risks.<sup>113</sup>

To address inequities experienced by nomadic and pastoralist communities, ABE services need strengthening (which have declined over the past several years) and community-run boarding facilities can be piloted and scaled up with special consideration to ensuring their relevance and effective management to prevent abuse and cultural forms of violence being exercised against pastoralist children. In addition to providing integrated social services for health and nutrition, there is also urgent need to revise the education curriculum for pastoralist and nomadic children to ensure that educational content and its mode of delivery to address the cultural and economic needs of nomadic and pastoralist communities. This requires much deeper research and understanding than can be generated herein.

### **Persons with Disabilities and Special Education Needs**

While the government of Somaliland has expressed a deep desire to support children with disabilities and special needs, these groups face high levels of discrimination within society. A household survey conducted by CESVI & Habitat International<sup>114</sup> found that 80% of respondents believe that children with disabilities should not play with other children, while 50% of households support the statement that children with disabilities cannot contribute to a household. There also appears to be a high prevalence of discrimination against persons with disabilities (including stoning, insulting, and turning children into public spectacles) throughout Somaliland.

As of 2012, there were ten schools and centres catering for persons with special educational needs in Somaliland from pre-school through primary to pre-vocational

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*UNICEF SOMALIA, 1993. Strategies on nomadic education delivery: State of the art review. Patta Scott-Villiers et al (2015).*

*CESVI & Handicap International. Children with Disabilities in Somaliland: A Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices Household Survey.*

levels<sup>115</sup>. These are special schools, integration schools, special units and rehabilitation centres. Government owns none of these schools. In addition, International Aid Services (IAS) has established five Special Needs Training and Assessment Centres (SNTACs) in [the] five regional headquarters in the country. IAS is also undertaking in-service training of teachers on SNE from all over the country to give them knowledge, skills and attitudes so as to effectively support learners with SEN in regular schools. Challenges in implementing education suitable for persons with special needs include:

- Lack of adequate specially trained teachers on SNE
- Lack of adapted curriculum for learners for SEN ⇔ Lack standardised assessment and evaluation criteria for various groups of learners with SN
- Lack of proper monitoring and evaluation on SNE programmes ⇔ Lack of proper coordination between MOEHS and service providers
- Lack of motivation for teachers supporting learners with SN in the mainstream schools. ⇔ Negative attitudes towards learners with SEN
- Lack of adequate teaching/learning materials and assistive devices ⇔ High cost of specialised materials and equipment for learners with SEN
- Lack of SNE language development for learners with hearing and visual impairment (deaf and blind)
- Difficulties to reach people with disabilities who live in geographically difficult areas.

Currently, the MOEHS is in partnership with several NGOs and implementing partners who aim to train teachers with the skills necessary to provide SEN. However, this sub-sector has not received any budgetary allocation<sup>116</sup>.

### 3.7 Sector needs for strengthening resilience and mitigating impacts

Conflict-related trauma among children and teachers as well as violence against children in school have not been well-researched. Further work is required to better understand these factors as they have been known to contribute to poor school attendance and poor learning outcomes in other contexts.

Within the Somaliland school setting there is currently no nationally coordinated approach to integrating disaster risk reduction (DRR) programs in education, for example implementing disaster resilience education (DRE) in curriculum or delivering student focused and participatory DRR programs. Given the extensive number of hazards faced by children and considering their prevalence and impact, there is need to incorporate disaster risk preparedness and reduction (DRP/DRR) into both the **school curriculum and education planning**. This can be addressed in terms of **School Safety**. The recently developed UNESCO/UNICEF Comprehensive School Safety (CSS)<sup>117</sup> framework for reducing risks in the education sector is a useful starting point that comprises of three pillars:

- Safe learning facilities

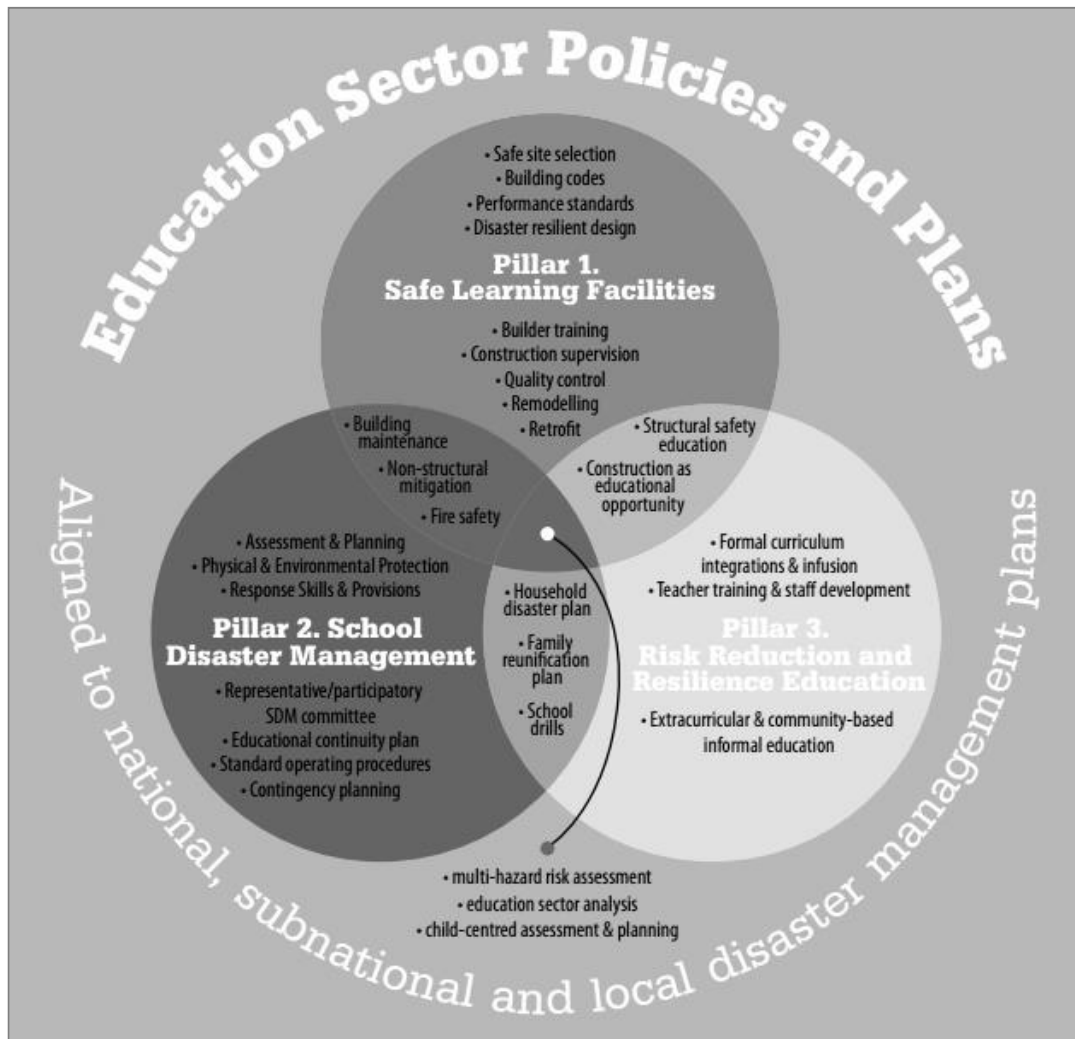
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*Republic of Somaliland MOEHS. 2012. Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-16. Working Group Focus Group Discussion held in Hargeisa with Special Needs Practitioners in the country, August 2016.*

UNICEF/UNESCO. 2013. Comprehensive School Safety. Working towards a global framework for climate-smart disaster risk reduction, bridging development and humanitarian action in the education sector.

- School Disaster Management
- Risk Reduction and Resilience Education.

Figure 21. UNICEF/UNESCO COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL SAFETY (CSS) FRAMEWORK<sup>118</sup>



### 3.8 Conclusions and Recommendations

As seen in subsequent chapters of this report, the Somaliland government pays considerable attention to promoting equity and access in schools at all levels, starting from its move to provide universal basic education. Findings in this chapter demonstrate how factors underpinning ‘fragility’ impact equity and vice versa. Findings also demonstrate that ‘fragility’ has its roots in development programming, in education sector management, and governance dynamics, which undermine the capacities of children and communities to cope with and respond to emergencies when they occur. In order to bridge the divide between ‘development and emergency’, the insights from this chapter should be used to inform education sector policy and planning, sector management, resource allocation, and educational curriculum so as to improve the resilience and safety of children and contribute to inclusive development that will accelerate the achievement of SDG goals such as SDG 4 on education, SDG 5 on Gender, SDG 10 on Equity and SDG 16 on peace and stability.

UNICEF/UNESCO. 2013. *Comprehensive School Safety. Working towards a global framework for climate-smart disaster risk reduction, bridging development and humanitarian action in the education sector.*

The education sector in Somaliland lacks a DRR policy and strategy (at both central and decentralized level) and a system to monitor the occurrence and impact of different types of hazards that can result in emergencies. As shown earlier, on the whole hazards can be predicted based on cyclical patterns – particularly those which are environmental.

***Key recommendations and final considerations:***

1. During the period of the outgoing ESSP it is estimated that nearly 70,000 children have been forced out of school at different points in time due to different types of emergencies, including displacement and conflict. Yet, there are few national and local risk assessments based on hazard data and vulnerability information for the education sector that help to track events over time. This includes within education cluster mechanisms managed by large international development partners. Further attention should be given to strengthen rapid response capacities and standby emergency mechanisms of the government and humanitarian partners to ensure timely responses during periods of crisis.
2. Those groups most vulnerable to environmental hazards and which are prone to communal conflicts are also those which experience the greatest educational inequities, notably pastoralist communities, girls and IDPs. Yet, strategies in the outgoing ESSP have been poorly aligned to mitigating risks and strengthening the resilience of these groups, as demonstrated by evidence on results achieved for nomadic and pastoralist communities and limited increases with GPI. Government should thus prioritize its investments to supporting the most marginalized children, aligning policy and strategy to actual needs, and ensure inclusive and transparent planning and budget allocation. This can be done on a yearly basis as annual work plans are developed and by expanding participation in Education Sector Committee meetings to include a more representative cross-section of civil society.
3. Additional research on capacity within the Ministry should be undertaken to better understand organizational weaknesses related to procurement, recruitment, financial management and resource allocation to improve equitable education service delivery and mitigate risks related to political and social grievance among groups who experience exclusion and marginalization (whether real or perceived).
4. Further research should be undertaken on the role of privately managed education foundations and service providers to identify how they can support overcoming educational inequities and support children traditionally excluded from education. Current practices suggest that current management practices may fuel inequity and contribute to risk.





## 4. Chapter 4 – Education Cost and Financing

### 4.1 The need for targeted and effective resource mobilization

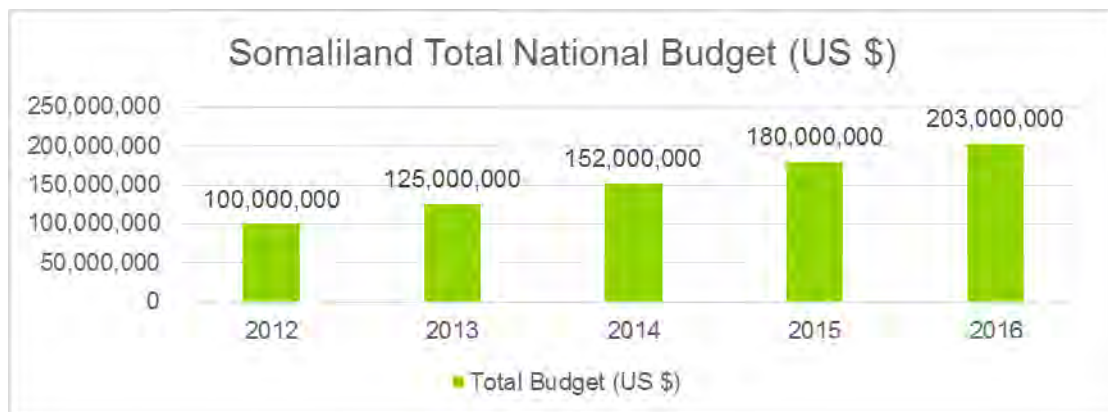
The out-phasing Strategic Plan (2012-2016)<sup>119</sup> identifies weak budgetary allocation to education in contrast to increasing demand for education as a key challenge impacting the entire education sector. Systematic under resourcing leads to poor service delivery in any area of public services provision, not limited to education. Furthermore, it puts into jeopardy fundamental commitments and the adherence to principles of good governance<sup>120</sup>. National commitments manifested in the presidential Decree (2011) of Fee Free Primary Education for all children in Somaliland are thus also jeopardized. . This chapter explores education financing and identifies gaps with domestic and international financing.

### 4.2 Government Budget allocations to the Education Sector

The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) advocates for innovative methods to bridge the funding for the education sector in member countries and requires increased domestic financing for education as a condition for additional GPE funding support. Countries are encouraged to progressively increase domestic funding up to 20% of the total government budget and focus on equity, efficiency and learning outcomes. Somaliland has allocated an average of 7.4% of its national budget to education over the past 5 years. A huge proportion of allocations, sometimes up to 92%, is spent on recurrent costs for personnel/staff. As a result, spending patterns have left very little for education infrastructure and investments in training, capacity development for improving the quality of education services and education in emergencies.

#### Somaliland National Budget

Figure 22. A REPRESENTATION OF SOMALILAND NATIONAL BUDGET (2012-2016)



There is a significant and steady growth in the Somaliland national budget from USD 47 million in 2010 to USD 203 million in 2016. During this period there has been a rise in GDP and increased taxation revenue that has added to the national budget.

In 2012, according to the World Bank, Somaliland's GDP per capita ranked fourth lowest in the World at USD 348, only higher than Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Malawi.

### **National Budget Allocation to the Education Sector**

Compared to budget allocations for education made by its neighbouring countries, Ethiopia (14%), Kenya (24.5%) and Puntland (7%) – (data for South and Central Somalia currently unavailable), as well as the global average of 13%, Somaliland's public expenditure on education is low. Priority is still given to security expenditures (military, police, and security). There is no accurate data on the average household expenditure on education, nor how much of education spending is catered for by the citizens of Somaliland. However, it is estimated that overall parental contributions amounted to at least 30% of teachers' salary and management costs of schools. Furthermore, public expenditure remains dependent on external donor funding.

In the past five years, the nominal budget allocation to education has almost doubled from USD 7.8 million in 2012 to USD 14.6 million in 2016. Up to 72% of this<sup>121</sup> was absorbed by teachers' salaries, which, despite reported as being low<sup>122</sup>, has left little for capital expenditure and running costs, especially for free primary education that was introduced in 2011 (i.e. few or no scholarship schemes or safety net programmes for children from the poorest households).

For the purposes of this analysis, figures on allocations from the national government and spending patterns were obtained from the finance department of the Ministry of Education. Attempts were made to collect data on donor and partner spending and budget allocations but there was success in some cases. Cross-referencing of allocations was done with figures on enrolment that are readily available in statistical year books produced by the ministry to calculate cost per pupil in each region.

Figure 23. A REPRESENTATION OF SOMALILAND NATIONAL BUDGET ALLOCATED TO THE EDUCATION SECTOR (2012-2016)

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Expenditure figures from the Finance Department, Ministry of Education  
Ahmed, Hassan S. 2009. An Analytical Understanding of How External Sources Inform and Impact Upon Somaliland's National Education and Teacher Education Policy-making Processes. PhD Thesis.

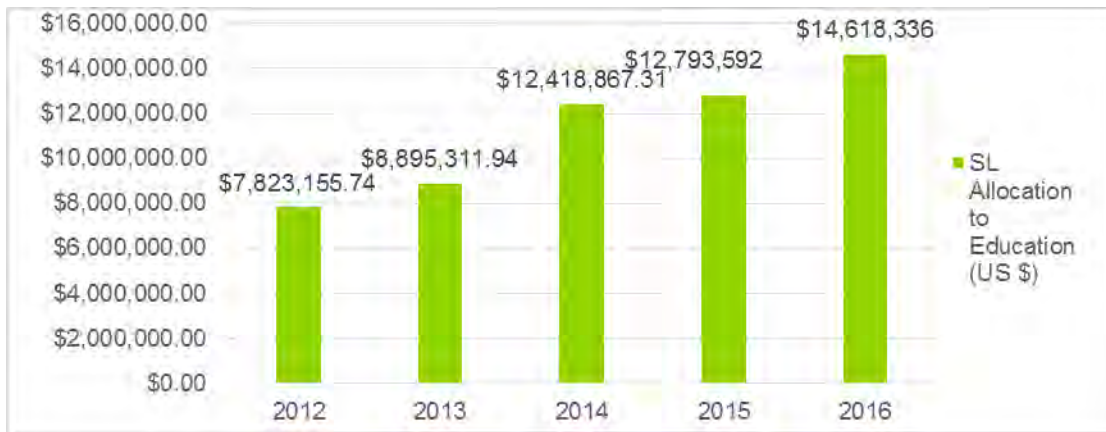
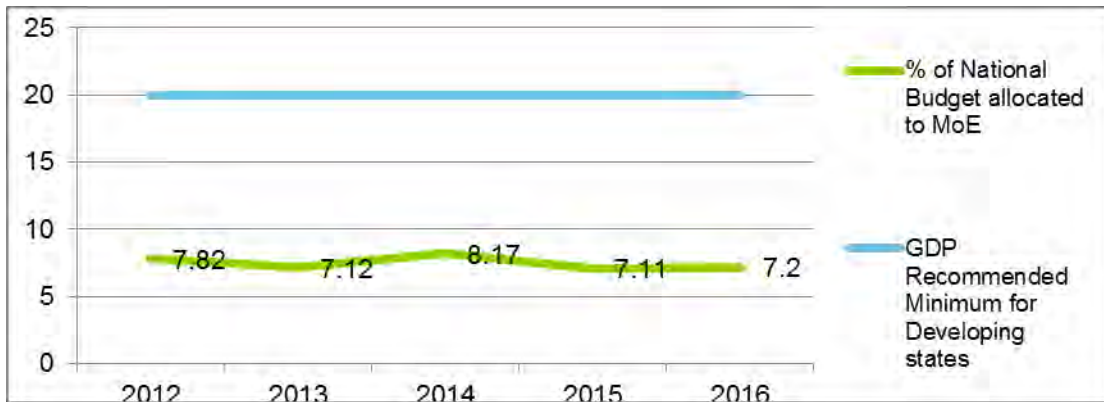


Figure 24. A REPRESENTATION OF THE ALLOCATION TO THE EDUCATION SECTOR AS A PROPORTION OF THE NATIONAL BUDGET

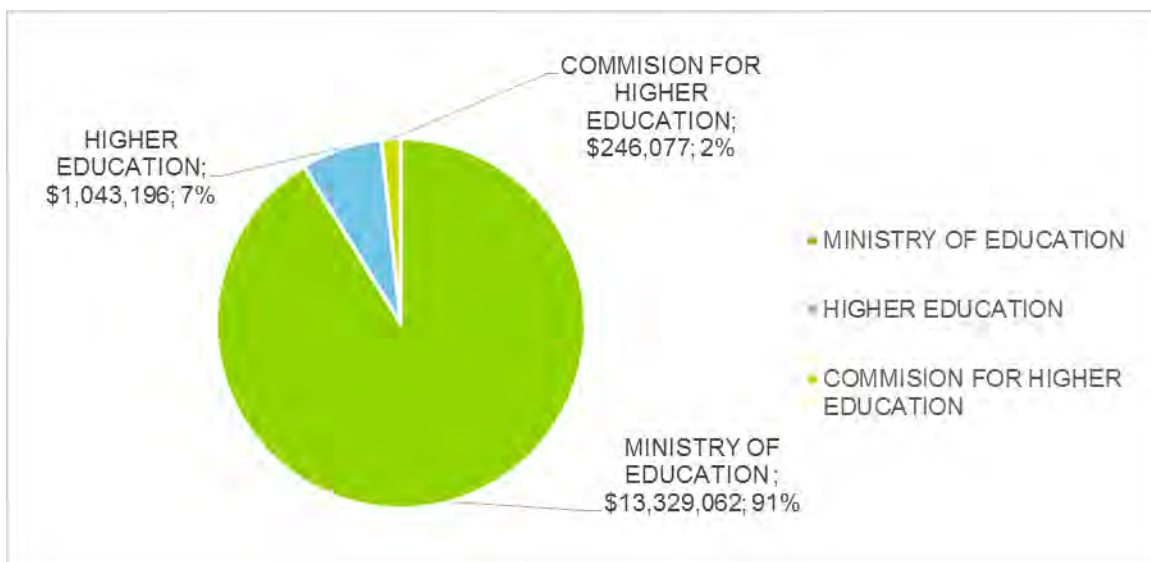


Despite an increase in the amounts received by the education sector, the proportion of the national budget allocated to education has remained stagnant at between 7% and 8% for the past 5 years due to increases in the overall national budget. This suggests that there remains much fiscal space for securing greater nominal allocations to the education sector by increasing the proportion of funds to education and that in turn will greatly help address many ongoing educational needs in a sustainable fashion.

### 4.3 Funding priorities within the education sector

There is a conscious prioritization of the Ministry of Education over the other two entities of Higher Education and the Commission for Higher Education in the allocation of national resources.

Figure 25. A REPRESENTATION OF PRIORITIZATION OF FUNDING WITHIN THE EDUCATION SECTOR



In the 2016 budget, the Ministry of Education received 91% of the total allocation to the education sector. Higher Education and the Commission for Higher Education were

allocated 7% and 2% respectively. It should be noted that the Ministry of Education houses the departments responsible for the sub-sectors of Early Childhood Education (ECE), Primary, Secondary, Non-Formal Education (NFE) and Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Other critical departments in this entity are Special Education, Human Resources and Policy and Planning. The sizeable proportion notwithstanding, vital gaps in funding critical education and training functions remain, including provision of supplies, learning materials and quality control systems including school supervision and monitoring.

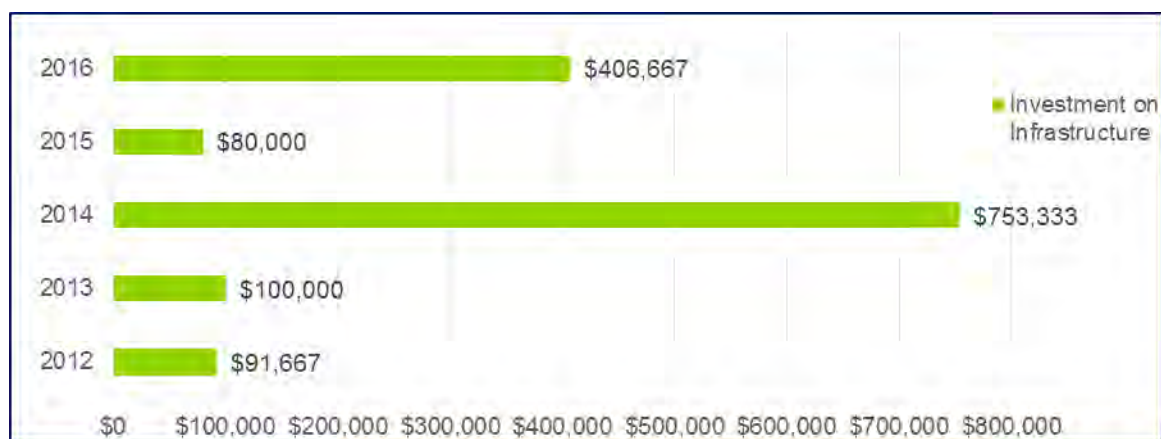
Table 13. Trends in funding Priorities for MOEHS

ENTITY	2014	2015	2016
Basic, Non-formal and Secondary Education	11,761,049	12,100,365	13,329,062
Higher Education	503,239	538,648	1,043,196
Commission for Higher Education	154,578	154,578	246,077

### Investments in Training, Capacity Building and infrastructure

Over the last five years, no government funds have been allocated for training and capacity building. These areas have been left for donors and development partners to support.

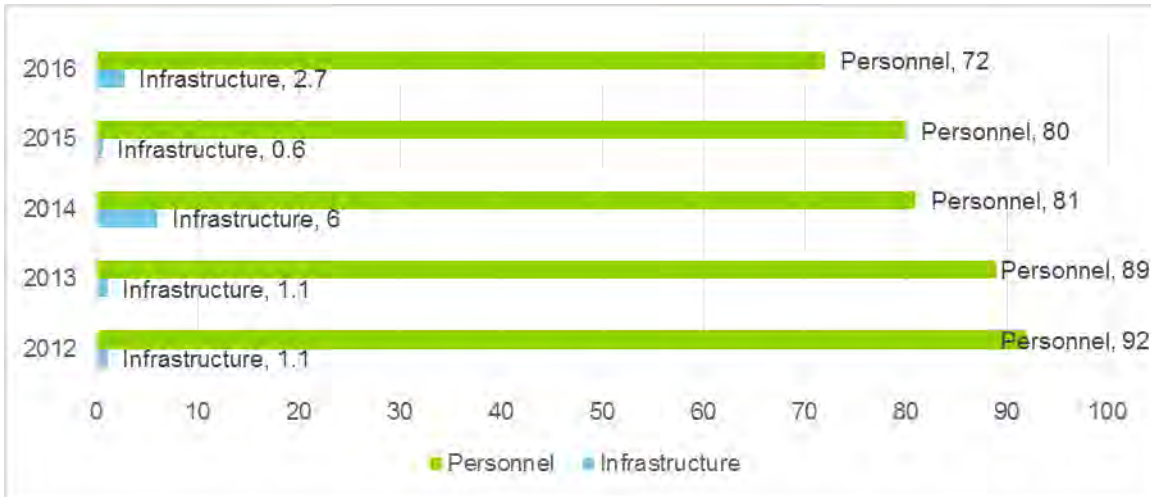
Figure 26. A REPRESENTATION OF GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION INFRASTRUCTURE



An observation of the investment in educational infrastructure from government funding (2012-2016) suggests that there is no particular policy guiding allocation to this vital area. This allocation has risen and fallen without any consideration of the total budget disbursement to the ministry, sometimes being only 0.6% of the total budget allocation as seen below.

### Investments in Personnel and Infrastructure as a Proportion of Total Sector Allocation

Figure 27. PERCENTAGE OF NATIONAL REVENUE ALLOCATED TO EDUCATION INFRASTRUCTURE AND PERSONNEL



A comparison between the allocations to payment of personnel and infrastructure between 2012 and 2016 demonstrates patterns with the utilization of education budgets. Despite the proportion of the government funding going into payment of personnel being high, there is progressive reduction over the years from 92% in 2012 to 72% in 2016.

It is however interesting to note that donors and education partners continue to support the payment of teacher salaries especially in rural areas. It is clear that some of the funding being freed from the payment of personnel goes into vital recurrent expenditure that were not catered for five years ago. Some functions such as funding the curriculum center, supervision of schools and support to technical institutions were not factored into the budget five years ago but have now been included in recent budget years. Increase in the budget for purchasing stationery has also increased fourfold. There has been negligible investment in education infrastructure (only a 1% increase over five years) and no investments in training and capacity building for improving quality of education.

### Government Spending on Recurrent Expenditure

Figure 28. RECURRENT EXPENDITURE AS A PROPORTION OF THE TOTAL MOEHS BUDGET



Figure 29. A REPRESENTATION OF MINISTRY SPENDING ON RECURRENT EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL MOEHS ALLOCATION



Recurrent expenditure that is not salaries accounts for a modest proportion of national revenue allocated to education. In the past five years, a total of USD 3,126,707 has been used for recurrent expenditure. Apart from 2015, the sector has kept the figure below 6%. Some of the recurrent costs include rent, lighting, water, fuel and communication.

In 2013 recurrent expenditure accounted for only 2.6% of the education budget. Such austerity measures that reduce recurrent expenditures may appear prudent, but bring with them mixed benefits. On the one hand such measures may free up funds for other initiatives related to learning or infrastructure development, but mean insufficient funding to support sector operations (including monitoring and school supervision in rural areas) that undermine the capacity of the sector to ensure overall coherence and quality. As a result, savings in this area may lead to inefficiencies and undermine progress toward quality improvement and system effectiveness. Further detailed consideration is required.

Table 14. List of other recurrent cost (2012-2016)

Sub head	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Curriculum Centre cost	0	0	0	0	41,667
Stationary	4,667	4,667	6,333	6,333	16,667
Purchase of books and Journals	1,738	1,738	1,738	1,738	1,738
Support to Orphanages	74,286	0	90,952	200,000	230,667
Support to Schools	10,000	10,000	156,667	235,000	391,666
Hargeisa Technical School Support	0	0	0	0	156,667
Buroa technical school support	0	0	0	0	16,667
Travelling allowance	3,910	3,910	3,910	3,910	16,667
Communication Cost	11,721	11,721	11,721	11,721	16,667
Examination cost	18,833	18,833	218,833	385,500	385,500
Security cost	0	0	0	6,000	6,000
Petty cash	2,833	2,833	2,833	2,833	8,333
Light and Water cost	33,333	50,000	50,000	50,000	50,000
Supervision Cost	0	0	0	0	50,000
Directorate of private schools	0	10,000	20,000	30,000	30,000



Looking at recurrent costs over the past five years, there appears to have been a lack of funding to critical areas that have undermined the provision of quality education services. Funding the curriculum center, support to technical school and supervision of schools have had no investments until recently. Examination costs, purchase of stationary and funding of directorate of private schools have also had improved funding in the past year. This may help to explain the limitations in quality and coherence of certain areas of the education sector such as curriculum, examinations and running of technical schools.

### Government Spending on Capital Costs from the National Revenue Allocation to Education

Figure 30. A REPRESENTATION OF SPENDING ON CAPITAL COSTS AGAINST TOTAL MOEHS BUDGET



Figure 31. A REPRESENTATION OF GOVERNMENT SPENDING ON CAPITAL COSTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL MOEHS BUDGET



Apart from the year 2014, the past five years have registered allocations of less than 3% for capital costs.

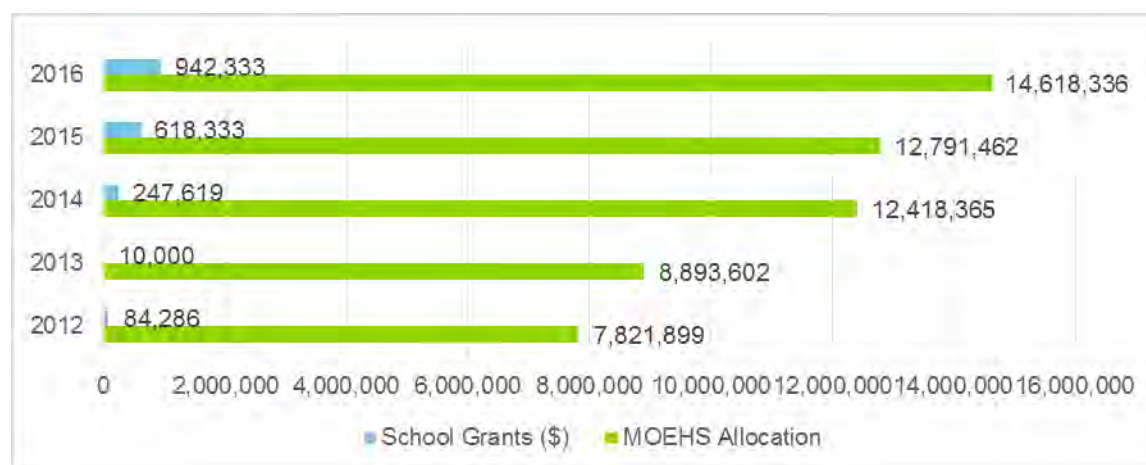
Table 15. Government spending on other capital costs

Sub-heads	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Office and house maintenance	3,768	3,768	3,768	3,768	3,768
School Maintenance	13,417	13,417	13,417	403,333	370,000
Other government asset maintenances	4,345	4,345	0	0	8,333
Purchase of office and house equipment	0	0	10,000	10,000	10,000
Equipping Hargeisa University (Conference facilities)	0	0	50,000	0	0
Purchase of Vehicles	0	0	0	0	50,000
Construction of Schools, Universities and Orphanages	291,667	0	753,333	263,333	540,000

The investment patterns on government spending on capital costs help reveal government priorities and some of the challenges that the ministry has had in delivering services. For instance limited investments in school maintenance over the years limits the ability of institutions to deliver quality services. At the same time, the prioritization of construction of universities and orphanages over school maintenance may suggest that the government has prioritized access to schools over the improvement of quality in the already existing schools, some of which reportedly remain vacant and unused (particularly in rural areas). Evidence with go-to-school campaigns globally following the endorsement of the MDGs shows that this type of investment pattern has not helped to improve access because of insufficient corresponding investments in quality improvement, curriculum, supplies for students and learning materials, teacher training, etc.

### School Grants Allocation from the National Revenue Allocation to Education

Figure 32. A REPRESENTATION OF SCHOOL GRANTS ALLOCATION FROM THE NATIONAL REVENUE ALLOCATION TO EDUCATION



There has been a steady increase in the amounts allocated to funding school grants from government revenue over the past five years from USD 84,000 in 2012 to USD 942,000 in 2016. Schools which in earlier years had very little or no say in their own financial management

now receive grants directly from central authorities. While this trend is not new in OECD<sup>123</sup> countries, it has an almost revolutionary character in many developing countries, because it breaks a tradition of centralized decision-making and control over financial resources.

There is however limited information from the finance department on the use and effectiveness of the schools grants, especially following the declaration of free primary education in Somaliland. It is worthwhile to carry out a study to determine the effectiveness and the efficiency of the disbursement, the concentration of the disbursements- whether rural or urban, and how this has impacted on the delivery of quality learning and increasing enrollment for children from the most disadvantaged households.

### Government Spending on Education Sector Personnel

Figure 33. MINISTRY OF EDUCATION SPENDING ON PERSONNEL (2012-2016) US\$

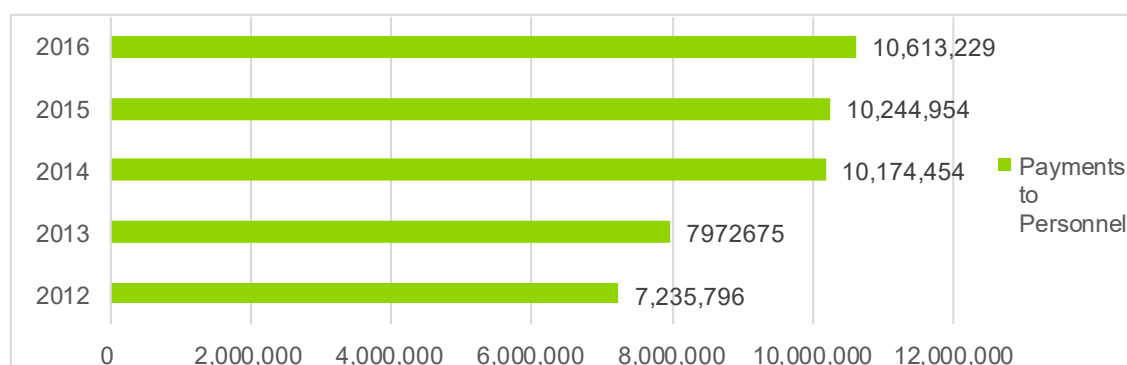


Table 16. Salary grade per level in the Education Sector in US\$

	Years				
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Minister	2,350	2,350	2,350	2,350	2,350
State Minister	2,350	2,350	2,350	2,350	2,350
Vice-Minister	2,350	2,350	2,350	2,350	2,350
Director-General -Lower Education	641	641	1,170	1,170	1,170
Director-General -Higher Education	641	641	1,170	1,170	1,170
Departmental Directors	3,201	3,201	5,040	5,040	5,040
Head of Units	141	141	170	170	170
Education officers	480	480	480	480	170
Grade A	141	141	170	170	170
Grade B	115	115	138	138	138
Grade C	89	89	107	107	107
Grade D	52	52	62	62	62

The use and usefulness of school grants: lessons from Ethiopia; UNESCO

The Education Sector spends most of its 72% of its allocation from the national budget on personnel and the compensation of its human capital. A look at the trend reveals a steady increase of spending on personnel with an increase in the allocation to the sector. There is however need for the government to strengthen its domestic financing and revenue generation as well as taxations schemes to enable it run a sustainable sector and increase its allocation to the education sector to the recommended 20%.

From the table on the analysis of the salary grades above, the education sector, in an effort to contain the wage bill and still motivate personnel in the lower cadre, has only revised salaries for staff in the lower four grades between 2012 and 2016. Despite these efforts, teacher salaries remain low leaving much room to ensure that qualified teachers are hired, retained and well-motivated. However, this cannot be achieved unless a greater proportion of the national budget is allocated to the education sector as reliance on donors for payment of teachers is not sustainable and not likely to be funded over the long term.

### Funding the Primary Sub-sector from the National Budget

Table 17. Allocation of the National Budget to the Primary Sub-sector in US\$

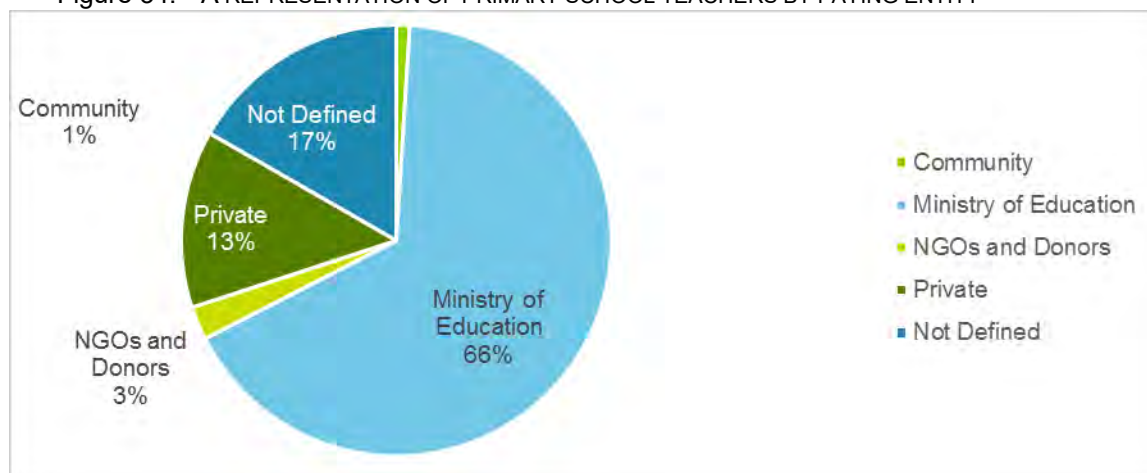
Budget Description	2014	2015	2016
Total National Budget Allocation to MOEHS	12,418,867	12,418,867	14,618,336
Total MOEHS staff salary in the Budget	10,067,054	10,170,750	10,357,096
Total Primary school budget	8,465,181	8,836,903	9,001,377
Total Primary school budget as a % of education sector allocation	68%	69%	62%

The Primary sub-sector receives the biggest share of both the national budget as well as the combined government and donor funding. This is probably to cater for increasing primary school enrollment arising from the government's declaration of free primary education and foundational understandings that improved access to education at primary school level has massive longer-term outcomes for improving health, nutrition, improving gender equity and welfare of girls, and longer term benefits for national economies (among many other benefits). At over 60%, the allocation is above the 45% recommend by the GPE for developing countries but reasonable considering the under-development of the primary educations sector and issues of fragility that have delayed development progress compared to other developing country contexts.

#### 4.4 Teacher Payment and Remuneration

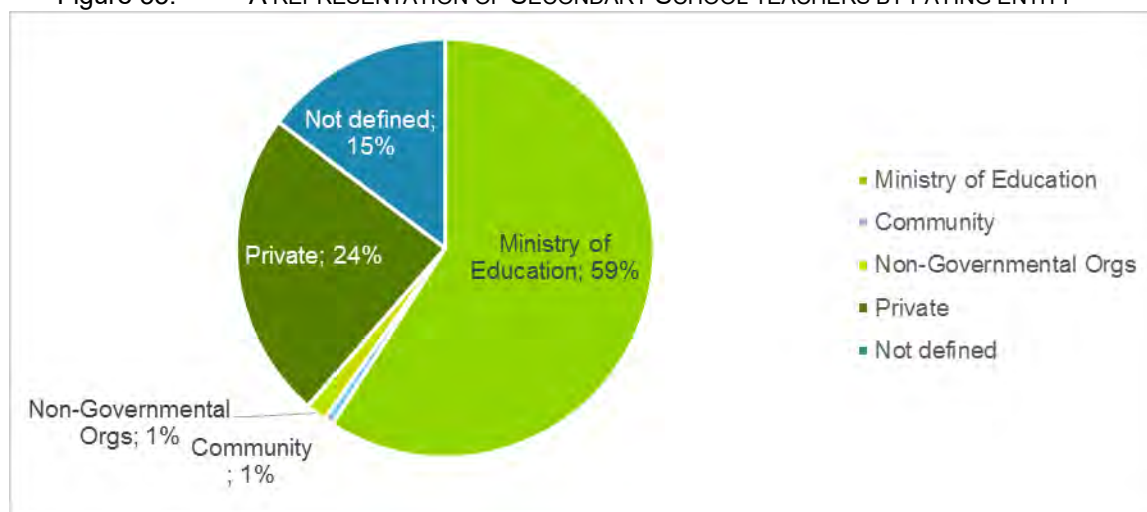
Despite payment of teachers taking up most of the government allocation to the education sector, there remain teachers who are either serving on a voluntary basis, who are being paid by the community while awaiting absorption into the government payroll, or which are 'absent' teachers – sometimes referred to as 'ghost teachers'. By 2012, only 57% of all teachers were on the government payroll while parents, community, NGOs and other private entities were paying the rest (see Figures 33 and 34 below). One of the overriding concerns has been the absence of attractive conditions of service, lack of career schemes and total absence of performance related remuneration for senior performing teacher staff, and concerns that absent teachers are reducing the efficiencies surrounding teacher payment systems.

Figure 34. A REPRESENTATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY PAYING ENTITY<sup>124</sup>



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

Figure 35. A REPRESENTATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY PAYING ENTITY



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

### Donor Contribution to MOEHS Incentive Payments

To bridge the gap and motivate teachers and other education sector personnel, INGOs and UN agencies have provided incentives to teachers and head teachers. This also done for personnel critical to the running of the education sector such as Regional Education Officers (REOs) and technical advisors seconded to key departments in the ministry such as Policy and Planning, Quality Assurance and Curriculum Development. While this has been critical to ensure essential education services are continued, over the long-term it is highly unsustainable and vulnerable to irregularities due to the absence of an integrated civil servant payment system in which payments can be harmonized and better regulated to minimize risks of funds leakage.

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*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016.*

Table 18. Payment of Education Staff incentives by Donors and Programmes

Budget Description	No	Monthly Rate (US \$)	Paying Programme	Agency/
Regional Education Officer (REOs)	13	200	Horumarinta Elmiga	
Regional Education Officer (REOs)	14	100	GPE through UNICEF	
Head Teachers	848	25	GPE through UNICEF	
Teachers	125	181	UNICEF Thematic Fund	
Teachers	600	100	GPE,CARE,ADRA	

Table 19. Key Partners contribution to teacher salaries (2012-2016)

Education Partner	Years			
	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16
Global Partnership for Education (GPE) <sup>125</sup>	360,000	360,000	360,000	360,000
Save the Children International (SCI)	70,333	70,333	70,333	70,333
Adventist Relief and Development Agency (ADRA)	0	0	20,790	46,814
UNICEF	75,225	75,225	75,225	75,225

#### **Sustainability of Teacher Incentive Programme<sup>126</sup>**

The MOEHS began with supporting 1,500 teachers with the assistance of INGOs and donors. This number has steadily increased over the years indicating the willingness of the ministry to take responsibility for the payment of teacher salaries. A comprehensive plan within a Medium- Term Financial Framework will be required if all teachers are to be added to the MOEHS payroll. In the interim, the MOEHS is committed to sustaining payment to 300 new teachers who will be supported through the GPE Programme after 2015. It is also committed to building the capacity of local accountability mechanisms, such as the CECs, which will ensure that teachers are paid in a timely manner and that teacher absenteeism is reduced through monitoring and advocacy. As referenced earlier, several other donor-funded education programmes are focusing on strengthening CEC capacity to manage education at school level. A key element of this will be empowering CEC members to call teachers with patterns of absenteeism into account. They will also work with the REOs to ensure that barriers to teacher productivity, such as being paid very late, are mitigated and do not result in teacher attrition or poor teaching/learning outcomes. The EU-funded programme and G-2-S programme will focus on strengthening the accountability and watchdog/advocacy roles of the CECs around issues such as teacher absenteeism over the GPE programme period

## 4.5 National Spending Teacher Salaries and Other Education Personnel

Table 20. Payment of Primary school teachers from the central government budget

Description	2014	2015	2016
Number of Primary teachers paid	4,897	4,850	4,897
Primary School teacher Monthly Salary	138	138	138
Total Primary School Teacher Annual Spending	8,128,236	8,050,224	8,128,236
Percentage of Primary teacher by the Total staff salary	81%	79%	78%

Table 21. Government funding Disbursements 2012 to 2016

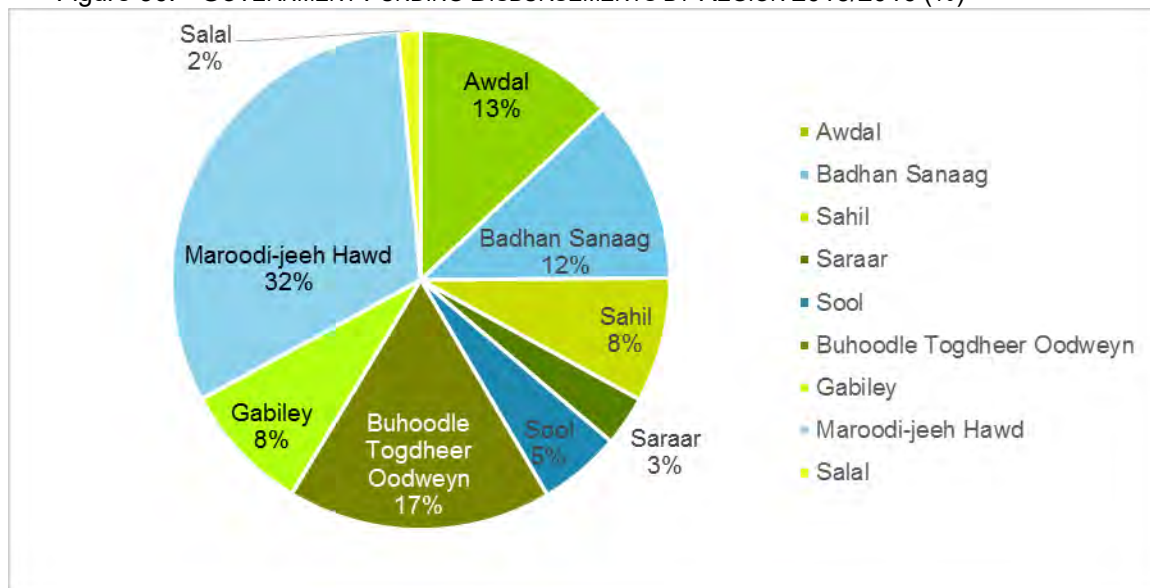
Region	Years				
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Awdal	797690	992794	1235283	1242727	1262857
Badhan Sanaag	717876	905996	1158306	1157021	1153701
Buhoodle Togdheer Oodweyn	1036074	1289824	1633351	1653332	1665637
Gabiley	567341	643100	811743	822825	817846
Maroodi-jeeh Hawd	1813365	2354024	3034955	3039492	3055223
Salal	58625	98420	140793	140793	140793
Sahil	500890	615384	771096	776824	783838
Saraar	179452	237546	316143	312824	313572
Sool	327080	396999	519904	517870	517870
Total	5998393	7534087	9621574	9663708	9711337

Table 22. Somaliland Enrolment Rates per region and year

Region	Years			
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
Awdal	12,429	16,739	17,062	16,904
Badhan & Sanaag	20,104	29,845	30,101	29,492
Buhoodle, Togdheer & Odweyn	30,561	36,848	38,334	35,510
Gabiley	11,844	13,393	14,751	16,995
Maroodi-jeeh & Hawd	41,990	49,659	56,105	62,651
Salal	2,973	3,422	3,892	4,604
Sahil	9,177	11,023	12,068	12,067
Saraar	4,878	5,970	5,327	5,756
Sool	12,243	17,118	16,133	17,586
<b>Total</b>	<b>146,199</b>	<b>184,017</b>	<b>193,773</b>	<b>201,565</b>



Figure 36. GOVERNMENT FUNDING DISBURSEMENTS BY REGION 2015/2016 (%)



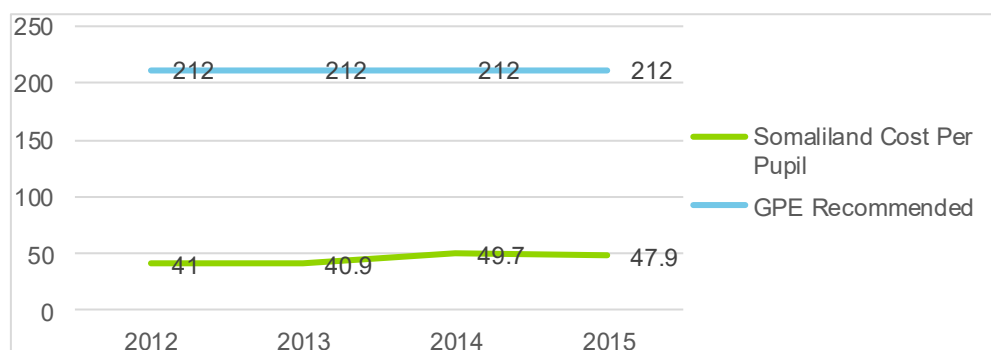
Somaliland JRES 2015

Disbursement of government funding to the regions reveals a probable consideration of the number of pupils in the disbursements. However, cross-referencing of the disbursements against the population of pupils and students indicates inequity across regions as shown in the determination of cost per pupils below.

#### 4.6 Cost per Pupil

In consideration of the disbursement of government funding to the regions and the number of Primary and Secondary students catered for, a provisional cost per pupil can be calculated. It is challenging to calculate the actual cost per pupil considering that interventions by donor and partners is most times not consistent across the years or not homogenous across regions. These calculations are done in consideration of government funding to the regions against the pupil and student population in these regions.

Figure 37. COST PER PUPIL (2012-2016) IN US\$



Computations done using budget data from the Finance Department and EMIS data on enrollment

From these calculations, there are little improvements on costs per pupil over the years. The GPE estimates that it costs about USD 1.18 to educate a pupil per day in developing countries. Roughly, this translates to about USD 212 per year. These findings reveal the huge deficit in funding the education sector and the funding gap that exist between Somaliland and other developing countries.



Within the sector and in different regions, there exists a lot more inequality in the efficiency of cost per learner as seen in Table 26 below. Some regions such as Sool spend about USD 29.4 per learner yet in some places such as Awdal, it takes about USD 73.5 to keep a learner in school.

Table 23. Provisional cost per pupil per region and year

Region	Years			
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
Awdal	\$64.2	\$59.3	\$72.4	\$73.5
Badhan & Sanaag	\$35.7	\$30.4	\$38.5	\$39.2
Buhoodle, Togdheer & Odweyn	\$33.9	\$35.0	\$42.6	\$46.6
Gabiley	\$47.9	\$48.0	\$55.0	\$48.4
Maroodi-jeeh & Hawd	\$43.2	\$47.4	\$54.1	\$48.5
Salal	\$19.7	\$28.8	\$36.2	\$30.6
Sahil	\$54.6	\$55.8	\$63.9	\$64.4
Saraar	\$36.8	\$39.8	\$59.3	\$54.3
Sool	\$26.7	\$23.2	\$32.2	\$29.4
<b>Average</b>	<b>\$41.0</b>	<b>\$40.9</b>	<b>\$49.7</b>	<b>\$47.9</b>

#### 4.7 Prioritization of Funding Areas by Partners and Donors

There were about 20 donors and implementing partners including the MOEHS that fund and implement education and training services in Somaliland. For instance, in 2014, partner and donor activities were distributed among the subsectors as follows:<sup>127</sup>

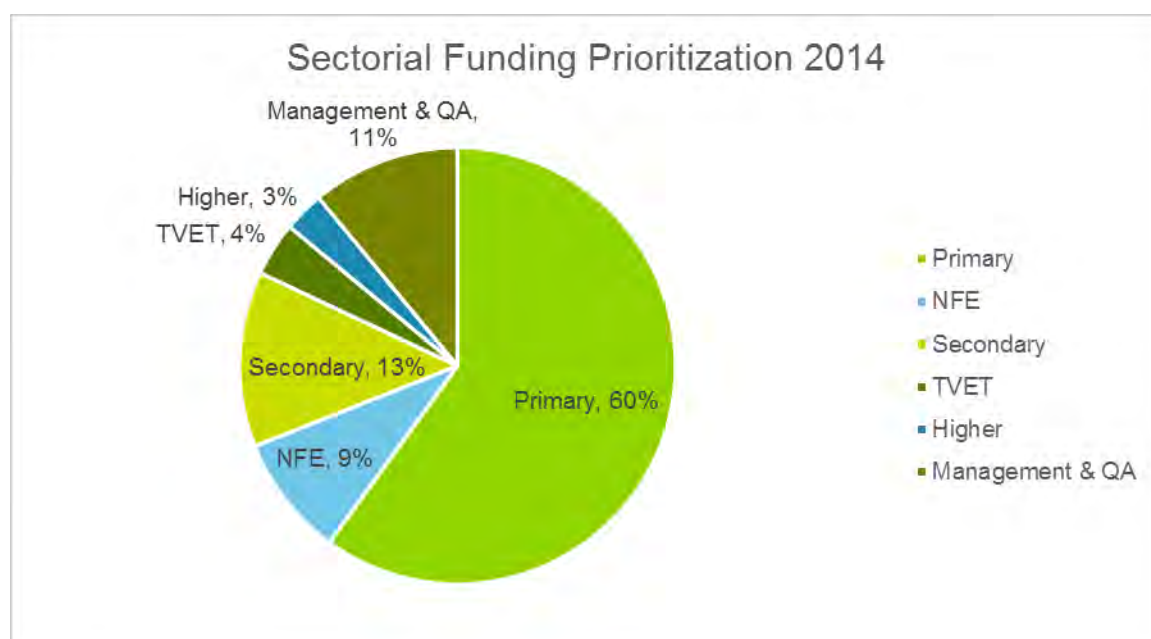
Primary	•MOEHE, Mercy Corps, SCI, ADRA, NRC, CARE, CFBT, UNICEF (9)
Non-formal	•MOEHE, UNICEF, NRC, SCI, Mercy Corps, AET, CARE, Actionaid, PYM, IAS (10)
Secondary	•MOEHE, NRC, CARE, ADRA, Actionaid, UNICEF, Caritas, SCI, WVI, GAA, SOS, WFP, PYM, CFBT (14)
TVET	•Mercy Corps, Candlelight, SCI, NRC, ARC, SOS, CARE, Caritas (8)
Higher	•MOEHS, UNDP, CFBT, SCI, CARE (5)
Management	•MOEHS, SCI, CFBT, CARE, Mercy Corps, UNICEF, NRC, District Councils, ARC, AET (10)

#### Sub-Sectorial Funding Prioritization 2014

From the 2014 Action Plan of the MOEHS, funding was divided between the 6 sub-sectors: primary education/ early childhood education; non-formal education/ special needs education; secondary education; technical and vocational education and training; higher education as well as two cross-sectorial themes of Education Management & Quality Assurance (QA). Whereas it is encouraging to see the prioritization of the primary subsector (at 60% which is above the 45% GPE recommendation) to cater for the declaration of free

primary education and recognition that investment in this sub-sector will address legacies of conflict and fragility and support broader social development for a majority of society, there is a concern that this leaves other sub-sectors underfunded.

Figure 38. SUB-SECTORIAL FUNDING IN 2014



#### 4.8 Innovative decentralized financing models

Innovate models for generating domestic financing for social services in Somaliland have also been piloted of the past several years under the Joint Local Governance Programme (JPLG). The funds generated from domestic financing are not captured in national budget calculations, but important to present because of the potential such approach have for generating funding from domestic sources.

In April 2014, the MOEHS and local authorities in Borama, Burao and Berbera with UNICEF commenced a pilot education sector programme aiming to generate local revenue to support social services.<sup>128</sup> The table below shows the contributions of education stakeholders at different levels of government for last three years. District level contributions increased by more than 200%. Moreover, annual budget contributions from national sources as a proportion of donor funding increased from 44% to 53%. This demonstrates how innovative approaches that build on local strengths and government partnerships can generate greater domestic financing to support social services such as education. In its next programming phase for 2017-2018 the JPLG will assess lessons learned related to domestic financing, which can be used by the MOEHS to further capitalize on domestic financing opportunities.

Table 24. Revenue generation at local levels

	Phase I (2014/2015)		Phase II (2015/2016)		Phase III (2016/2017)		Total
Burao Contribution	25,000		29,992		40,000		<b>94,992</b>
Borama Contribution	25,000		28,000		30,000		<b>83,000</b>
Berbera Contribution	40,000		40,932		177,156		<b>258,088</b>
Ministry of Education	51,208		61,152		61,152		<b>173,512</b>
<b>Total national contributions</b>	<b>141,208</b>	<b>44%</b>	<b>160,076</b>	<b>47%</b>	<b>308,308</b>	<b>53%</b>	<b>609,592</b>
JPLG Contribution	180,000		180,000		270,000		<b>630,000</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>321,208</b>		<b>340,076</b>		<b>578,308</b>		<b>1,239,592</b>

#### 4.9 Sectors and Priority Areas for funding effective Education and training tools and Systems

There is limited funding that goes into tools and systems that assist in the effective running of the education sector. These include EMIS, Monitoring and Evaluation, accounting, performance monitoring and management systems. Other systems that will help the ministry track the number of hours staff engage in meaningful office work whereas useful are not available.

There is no standalone budget dedicated towards EMIS operations from the government budget. Much of the MOEHS operations and activities are funded by donor organizations. No actual figures or documents could be provided for this assessment to show the percentage of funds provided by the Ministry to support EMIS-related projects and activities. Any investment into the system such as software upgrades and training are donor dependent and therefore highly unsustainable. For example, UNICEF has provided several hundred thousand dollars for this area of work in Somaliland via funding sources such as the Peacebuilding, Education and Advocacy Programme (PBEA) and UNICEF thematic funding received from its headquarters in New York and its Regional Office in Nairobi. There is a delicate balance between having a separate budget allocated directly by the government to EMIS to ensure the sustainability of the system and initiatives for improving data quality and efforts to ensure better accountability of channeled funds before this is done.

#### 4.10 Key findings and recommendations for domestic financing and aid effectiveness

It is acknowledged that several UN agencies and international NGOs, allocating funds from multilateral and bilateral donors, contribute significant direct resources to building the education (and other) sectors. However, the modalities of these interventions often demonstrate limited attempts at transferring operations and capacity from the INGOs and agencies to the Ministry in charge of Education. Indeed for the purpose of this analysis, data on financial support and areas of intervention by partners was not readily available with the Ministry. In large measure this is due to some donor and partners reluctant to transfer funds to the MOEHS and as a result data on donor and education partners spending not readily available with the Ministry.

The role of the private sector in expanding affordable education was well-articulated in the outgoing strategic plan, yet there is little evidence that the injection of private funding was fully maximized nor that this potential in fact increased either NER or GER and increased access for the most marginalized communities in Somaliland. None of the budget data presented herein accounts for funding from private foundations or overseas interests, which also highlights the fragmentation of the education sector and challenges the government faces in generating domestic financing to fund the expansion of quality public education services that will benefit the most marginalized communities in Somaliland (see Chapter 3 for further discussion on the implications this creates for equity and achieving SDG goals). At the same time, there remains untapped potential in the mobilization of private funds from the diaspora through targeted and direct support to institutions albeit with the Ministry's guidance. However, capitalizing upon the potential of remittances to increase government services has been undermined by fears of funds leakage and misdirection of resources due to organizational capacity weaknesses of the governance system and sector management.

Domestic financing and national budget allocations to the education sector remain below recommended international standards. The absolute dollar values for education financing have increased over the years, but as a proportion of the national budget has remained stagnant at around 7%. Moreover, domestic taxation schemes have remained underdeveloped and the potential for public-private partnerships have not materialized, particularly in relation to remittance payments from the Somali Diaspora.

The Somaliland funding model also shows little evidence for investing in emergency preparedness and aid effectiveness required for a developing country considered as still grappling with issues of 'fragility'. In such contexts, donors are typically and correctly extremely cautious in providing resources through government financing mechanisms given high risks of funds leakage and weak accountability mechanisms. It is recommended that Donors and Implementing Partners consider funding functions around fragility related to improving sector management (particularly in relation to accountability and transparency initiatives) so as to maximize efficiencies with investments in the education sector.

Despite the proportions of the government funding going into payment of personnel being high, there is progressive reduction over the years from 92% in 2012 to 72% in 2016. At the same time, government has increasingly turned to donors to fund teacher payments and incentives – though making commitments to take up some of these payments now. On a positive note, there remains much fiscal space for greater domestic financing in education over the security sector, suggesting that a number of quality improvement and equity needs can be financed in a sustainable fashion. These will require greater advocacy with government decision-makers based on reliable evidence to secure increased domestic financing for education services.

## 5. Chapter 5 – Early Childhood Education (ECE)

### 5.1 Defining the Sub-sector

Early childhood education (ECE) is a term used herein to describe any type of educational program that serves children in their preschool years, i.e. before they enter primary school. It can include a range of activities designed to aid in the cognitive and social development of preschoolers, including, in the Somaliland context, their moral and spiritual development. This chapter focuses on ECE rather than Early Childhood Development (ECD) which encompasses a more holistic concept of development from pregnancy to the age of 8 and includes health, welfare, and physical development often incorporated into the context of whole family care within the community. Among other important areas, ECE plays a critical role in preparing children for school readiness and reducing school attrition, especially in the first two years, and improving learning outcomes.

In Somaliland children enter primary school between the ages of six and eight. This chapter concentrates on activities that prepare them for their schooling and encompasses pre-primary education, often taking the forms of kindergarten and Koranic education in the Somaliland context. At present, most children access Koranic education but only a small number have access to the wider pre-school curriculum represented by kindergarten. This chapter describes the existing situation of ECE in Somaliland in terms of access to ECE centers, system capacity gaps, the role of Koranic schools, and a summary of points to consider in developing a new policy within the 2016-2020 ESSP for Somaliland.

### 5.2 Policy Environment

The Minister of Education and High Studies has prioritized attention to ECE and its integration into the policy and strategy discussions in the next ESSP and as a cornerstone of the education system moving forward. The out-phasing ESSP 2012-2016 also acknowledges the importance of ECE, and the limited available resource provisions; it is cognizant of the importance for ECE, and suggested the following measures be implemented in the current period (2012-2016), inter alia:

- Formulate a comprehensive ECE policy with integration into the education regulatory framework
- Explore an integrated approach of Quranic and formal ECE schools
- Develop an ECE curriculum and teacher training programmes
- Mobilise additional resources, including mobilisation of parents and communities
- Create an ECE unit in the MOEHS
- Provide adequate teaching/learning resources.

As shown here, although these six points are pertinent and should be carried forward into the next ESSP plan, limited progress has been made in these areas. A framework has been developed at least in theory and a unit has been established in the Ministry. There have also been studies by UNICEF into integrating Quranic schools with formal ECE approaches. Thus, the policy environment at present is sound on intention but weak on implementation.

Children in the ECE age bracket in Somaliland usually attend Quranic schools. The generally agreed purpose of Quranic education is to instill a sound spiritual and moral foundation and specifically to ensure knowledge of the Holy Quran, largely through rote memorization. In addition, children are expected to learn basic Arabic language to help them

recite the Holy Quran. Quranic education normally takes more than two years, and, in terms of access is by far the most successful system in Somaliland as most children attend at least two years. It is successful on its own terms and in its wide access for children, and its primary aim of instilling knowledge of the Quran. However, it does not and isn't intended to prepare children for schooling. Its limited range of skills developed may well leave children vulnerable to transiting into formal schooling without requisite language, cognitive, social and emotional competencies. This places them at risk of dropping out of school because they are not ready for school and are not well-equipped to learn of formal education settings. In addition, many children attend Quranic schools and the first grades of primary school at the same time which can lead to exhaustion.<sup>129</sup>

In an attempt to address this problem, the MOEHS has endeavored to implement an ECE Programme that addresses the holistic need of the children of 3-5 years prior to primary school entry at age 6. The purpose of the ECE Implementation Framework is to provide a detailed roadmap for the implementation of an integrated ECE Programme in Somaliland<sup>130</sup>. The framework seeks to ensure implementation of quality integrated services for all young children, especially those from disadvantaged and marginalised households. The framework also provides a concept for multi-sectoral co-ordination of ECE Programmes and could act as a tool for benchmarking as well as monitoring and evaluation.

There are several important Stakeholders to involve in sector management and planning for ECE<sup>131</sup>, listed below:

- **Ministry of Education and Higher Education [MOEHS]:** Develop ECE policy and service standard guidelines; Collaborate with **Ministry of Religious Endowment [MORE]** to develop Integrated ECE Islamic curriculum; Appoint and support training of ECE trainers; Develop ECE teachers remuneration guidelines
- **Ministry of Health [MOH]:** Implement health and nutrition project; Feed at MCH; Maternal and Child Health service; Reproduction health education
- **Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs [MOLSA]:** Ensure respect of children rights; Develop child rights and protect policies
- **Ministry of Religion and Endowment [MORE]:** Develop policy regarding Quranic Education System; Promote religious instructions, good morals and ethics
- **Ministry of Justice [MOJ]:** Rehabilitation ECE facilities; Administer justice to child victim of abuse
- **Ministry of Interior [MOI]:** In collaboration with MOLSA, develop policy and guidelines on child rescue; Rescue children who are trafficked, separated, abandoned or unaccompanied children
- **Ministry of Finance [MOF]:** Member of multi-sectoral training, supervision and M&E teams; Mobilise and allocate resources for ECE
- **Community Education Committees [CEC]:** Ensure parents enrol children in ECE;
- **Communities:** Establish and manage ECE centres; Support ECE teachers in the development of play and learning materials from locally available resources

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<sup>129</sup> Acacia Consultants, 2013. Early Childhood Development and Education Feasibility Study Report & Implementation Plan For Somaliland.

<sup>130</sup> Somaliland ECE Implementation Framework. 2013.

<sup>131</sup> Acacia Consultants, 2013. Early Childhood Development and Education Feasibility Study Report & Implementation Plan For Somaliland.

- **Families:** Provide care for pregnant and lactating women; Encourage breastfeeding and complementary feeding
- **Religious Institutions /Mosques:** Promote spiritual and moral development of children aged 0-8 years; Promote family unity and stability through counselling

### 5.3 Present situation

The field missions undertaken for this ESA, including working group discussions, reveal the following points:

- Virtually all existing ECE facilities are managed privately and by NGOs;
- In the communities there is limited awareness of the role of ECE;
- Funding for the provision of ECE has been curtailed (although the ESSP 2012-2016 envisaged that funding should come from communities/parents);
- The policy regarding ECE has not yet been formalized;
- There is no data available for this sub-sector (thus no mention in the Annual Education Statistics Yearbook).
- It is also argued that part of the functions attributed to ECE is delivered through a widespread network of Quranic schools, but a clear distinction of the full functions and roles has not been provided.

However, recent developments are addressing at least part of these observations. The MOEHS has established an Early Childhood Development Unit within the Primary Education department. Jointly with an NGO (HYDA) the MOEHS has started the curriculum development for this (sub-) sector, and seven public model schools have been selected to pilot the developments. Once the results of the model schools are obtained and validated it is planned to transform this into an agreed policy for implementation across the education sector, including the regions.

Given the importance of good nutrition for the child's development it is important to make provisions for ECE school feeding programmes to be available where schools exist in deprived areas and these have been available in a limited number of schools.

#### Enrolment levels and equity

Although the Ministry of Religion and Endowment (MORE) is mandated to govern the Quranic schools, it has not maintained any comprehensive data. In addition, the MOEHS does not have data on ECE. Coupled with the lack comprehensive birth registration, it is not possible to determine enrolment levels and the demand for ECE services in Somaliland. However, low enrollment rates appears to be confirmed through key informant interviews with a panel of head teachers and caregivers who indicated that very few children access ECE services (i.e. kindergartens). UNICEF information has indicated very limited access to ECE services, estimated as low as 5.7 %<sup>132</sup> (of the relevant age cohort).

Under equity aspects, the majority of children (in the relevant age bracket) are excluded from ECE, especially for those children in rural nomadic communities where the only service available may be found in the traditional Quranic schools. It is worth recognizing that the proportion of pre-primary school aged children (3-5) attending Quranic school and kindergartens was reported to be very low as Quranic schools also cater for older children. The majority of those enrolled in Quranic schools are outside the ECE age bracket and are

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<sup>132</sup> Study on sector functional analysis on Education, Health and WASH, JPLG, 2012

simultaneously attending primary school<sup>133</sup>. In addition, the nature of the pastoral/nomadic lifestyle of a majority of the Somali community limits their access to ECE services (roughly 34% of the total population of Somalis are nomadic/pastoralist).

Another factor limiting access to ECE is the cost of education, as both forms of education, Quranic and formal, charge school fees. Whereas, the fees in Quranic schools are moderate and affordable for most, fees charged for kindergarten in by privately managed services are relatively high, which serves as a barrier to the majority of households.

### **Quality of services provision**

The quality of services in kindergarten and Quranic schools seems to be compromised by key determinants impacting on quality such as lack of a standardised ECE curriculum, untrained teachers, out-dated teaching/learning approaches and inadequate use of play and learning materials as well as the strong focus on religion. Given that the MOEHS has yet to address the data management, monitoring and quality assurance needs of the sector, there is no data to conduct a robust analysis on quality issues referred to here.

### **Teacher/caregiver training, curricula, and expansion of ECE**

**Teacher/caregiver training and curriculum.** Presently, there is no curriculum for ECE teacher training available and no clear training policy or strategy for ECE teachers and caregivers. It is rather obvious to associate the training of ECE teacher in close proximity with primary education teachers, as there are some areas of training that are similar. In institutional terms the nearest choice would be the proposed National Teacher Training Institute (NTTI), for which a modular competency-based (outcome oriented) curriculum development approach has been recommended. The ECE modules would need to be specific to this level and age group and not be confused with training of lower primary teachers. What can also be considered is that in a number of countries teachers in ECE schools are mostly female and younger/ less qualified. Teachers could be comparable (in terms of status) as equal to nurses, which makes the profession less costly. However, as will be argued later in this ESA, great care must be taken to create the necessary pathways for the kindergarten nurse to become a teacher and progress in her career<sup>134</sup>.

In addition to the competency-based approach outlined above, the curriculum for the children should contain components of the Quranic-school curriculum, as this is expected to smoothen the anticipated transition process which could facilitate a transition to the MOEHS eventually exercising full authority and quality assurance over both areas and can lead to some integration of Koranic and early grade competencies. Such integration however, requires thoughtful consideration on sensitivities listed further below in discussion the possible expansion of ECE via Koranic schools.

**Service delivery channels.** In Somaliland, there are no identifiable ECE service delivery channels. This is partly because it was not possible to quantify the number of home-based care programmes. Besides, services are indirect and caregivers and project implementers did not see themselves as ECE. However, there were three main channels that could

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<sup>133</sup> Acacia Consultants, 2013, *ibid*.

<sup>134</sup> This design principle is further developed in the chapter on TVET, and training of nurses falls into the category of Technician Level (diploma).



variously be referred to as channels for early learning programs in the Somaliland. These were categorised according to management and type of service as follows:

- i) Traditional Quranic school (TQS)
- ii) Integrated Quranic schools and
- iii) Kindergartens (KG).

Whereas the TQS are found in both urban and rural areas and at least in every village, the private KGs and IQSs are mainly located in urban centres. Most of those children enrolled (94% of them) are in the traditional Quranic schools that are accessible as they are located within villages and they charge lower fees than kindergartens. Kindergartens, the majority of which are in urban areas and managed by private institutions, are mainly accessed by children from well-to-do families. Hence in the new ESSP, consideration should be put to cater for those children from poor families.

**Community perceptions on ECE.** Lack of understanding by communities of the scope of ECE has resulted in the assumption that attending Quranic School fulfils the requirement for ECE. This suggests the need for a wide-ranging awareness raising campaign to address these beliefs<sup>135</sup>. As reported during interviews with MOEHS officials, some people believe that integrating Quranic Education with secular subjects would dilute religious teaching, which is the core mandate of the Quranic schools. On the same note, there is a debate within the Ministry whereby some consider Quranic education centres as religious institutions that should be placed under the Ministry of Justice and Religious Affairs.

**Expanding ECE via Koranic schools.** It is beneficial to expand the integration of Koranic education and ECE and widen the skills of Koranic teachers so that they can develop a wider range of pre-school competencies in their children. However, this will need careful discussion to ensure such an approach is seen as strengthening Koranic education, rather than threatening to undermine it. As was stated earlier, the Koranic system is the most successful system for accessing young children and this achievement needs to be built upon, rather than undermined. This is clearly an area to explore in the development of the new ESSP.

#### **5.4 Strategic points to consider in developing ECE in the new ESSP**

Several critical areas need to be addressed to develop effective ECE services in Somaliland.

- Raise the awareness on the importance of ECE
- Increase access and equity to ECE services
- Discuss how ECE can move from being an option available only to elites via privately managed education foundations to a service that is available for the majority.
- Emphasise enhancing children's readiness for formal schooling, rather only replicating Grade 1 curriculum at kindergarten level.
- Improve quality of ECE services
- Improve legal and institutional framework
- Improve ECE programme documentation, monitoring and evaluation
- Ensuring respect of children's rights and protecting them from harmful influences and injuries

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<sup>135</sup> Acacia Consultants, 2013. *Early Childhood Development and Education Feasibility Study Report & Implementation Plan For Somaliland.*

- Improving the learning environment in Quranic Education Schools (QES) and identify how to integrate key ECE learning competencies within the learning framework of Koranic schools

## **5.5 Conclusions and recommendations**

ESA findings suggest that there are a number of private initiatives promoting ECE in Somaliland. Their experiences should be researched when developing an ECE curriculum, jointly with existing international partners.

- Great sensitivities should be applied in the development of the Action Plan to ensure a smooth transition and increasing responsibility of the MOEHS over kindergartens as many are currently managed by private foundations that fall outside of government regulation.
- The anticipated positive effects in terms of equity (supporting children from lower social strata), better transition, higher enrolment, higher attrition and others should be explored and validated.
- If ECE is to provide value for money and contribute to achieving equity, then policies must be found that will ensure that it becomes available to a much wider range of children, including rural and urban poor children, rather than only accessible to those who are in stronger economic situations.
- UNICEF's experiences in integrating key aspects of ECE curriculum with Koranic education should be examined to see if there is as a possible way of extending key pre-school competencies to a wide range of children.
- Policy frameworks for ECE should be finalized that will create overall coherence for the sector and ensure government oversight and quality assurance, paying particular attention to address supply-side barriers to ECE services. This will include developing child friendly learning spaces, teaching and learning materials, with particular attention to strengthening parental and community involvement in the management of community-run ECE centres which can be highly effective and very low cost.



## 6. Chapter 6 – Primary Education

### 6.1 Introduction

In Somaliland, primary education takes eight years (grades/classes) and is divided into Lower Primary (Years One to Four) and Upper Primary (Years Five to Eight) levels. Primary education is provided through Integrated Quranic Schools (IQS) and Formal Primary Education (FPE) schools (collectively referred to as FPE schools in this chapter) and Alternative Basic Education (ABE) centres. Whilst the same syllabus is taught in both IQS and FPE schools (with additional Quranic subjects taught in IQS), ABE is complementary to formal primary education and consists of separate syllabi, teaching materials, non-formal staff and processes.

According to the 2011/12 *Primary School Census Statistics Year Book*<sup>136</sup>, the primary school-age population (6 to 13 years) was 479,868 (UNDP projection, rising by 3% annually from 2005). The total number of students attending primary schools in 2011/12 was estimated at 239,454. This is roughly 50% of the total population of primary school-aged children in the country. Within the school-going population, 36% are girls, which falls short of the ministry target of a 1:1 boy: girl ratio in primary school by the year 2015.

### 6.2 Policy Environment - Education Sector Strategic Plan

The Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-2016 (the ESSP) covers a large proportion of the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MOEHS) objectives, policies and expected results for the Primary Education sector over the 2012-2016 ESSP. The ESSP listed six objectives and four Policy statements for the Primary Education Sector, whilst the ESSP Annexure summarizes what the sector stakeholders planned to achieve within the 4-year period through a detailed logical framework guided by eight Policy Priority Objectives. A copy of the log frame is shown in Annex 4.

The structure of the log frame in the ESSP Annex divides each policy priority into four components: The policy objectives, indicative targets, strategies and desired outcomes. A number of main objectives and policy statements (found in the Chapter 7 of the ESSP), show some overlap with the log frame's Priority Policy Objectives summarized above. However, direct linkages between these three policy components are unclear. Furthermore, it is difficult to establish direct links between objectives, strategies and outcomes described in the ESSP because, whilst indicative targets were listed for each policy objective in the logical framework, actual indicators and indicator values were not clearly defined and therefore cannot be quantified for assessment. Therefore, whilst this assessment describes sector performance from the point of view of strategic implementation of the ESSP, when comparing sector targets and actual results, limitations exist. For example, some baseline values for various indicators which could be used to compare the progress in quality terms between the 2012-2016 period are missing. There are also some annual values missing from the implementation period for various key quality indicators.

### 6.3 Assessment Methodology

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<sup>136</sup> MOEHS: 2013. *Somaliland Primary School Census Statistics Year Book 2011/12*. Education statistics may not present accurate figures.

Given that the progress of the Primary Education sector is based on the implementation of the ESSP for the 2012-2016 period, it is important that the sector assessment reviews the ESSP as a foundation for measuring progress. The assessment seeks to compare data at the baseline with end-line data, as well as analyze the actual results against targets. In addition, the assessment relies on international standards of good practice, such as UNICEF (2000) indicators for quality education and the Global Partnership for Education (GPE's) Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Appraisal. The guidelines list critical elements of a credible ESP and will therefore be instrumental in identifying any gaps in the sector as well as credible reasons for them. To this effect, the Primary Sector Working Group conducted a qualitative appraisal of the ESSP by answering critical questions selected for their relevance to the Primary Education Sector .

To provide a snapshot of the current quality of primary education, and to make the necessary recommendations, Heneveld & Craig's (1996) School Effectiveness Conceptual model was applied to support analysis. Whilst specifically designed for Free Primary Education systems within the Sub-Saharan context, the model regards educational quality as a function of 16 interrelated factors, which directly influence student outcomes (participation, academic achievement, social skills and economic success). The input areas / processes can be organised into five groups:

1. Supporting inputs, including learning materials and facilities as well as human inputs such as parental, community and system support)
2. Enabling conditions such as effective leadership, capable teaching force, flexibility and autonomy, and high time-in-school
3. School climate, including high expectations of students, positive teacher attitudes, order and discipline, an organized curriculum and rewards and incentives for all shareholders
4. Teaching / learning processes, namely high learning time, variety in teaching strategies, frequent homework and frequent student assessment and feedback.
5. The above components all influence a fifth component of the education system, Student outcomes, including participation, academic performance, social skills and economic success.

The conceptual framework, as demonstrated by Heneveld (1994), can be used for three interrelated purposes as an evaluation tool to formulate general pictures of school quality in a given system. The following section contains the assessment findings, which are divided into five parts: Supporting Inputs; Enabling Conditions; School Climate, Teaching / Learning Processes, and Student Outcomes.

#### **6.4 Supporting Inputs**

The Government's Priority Objectives for supporting inputs are to (1) increase the provision of and accessibility to primary textbooks and other learning materials; (2) provide school and public library facilities and encourage community private libraries (common investment across all levels of education), and (3) improve the Somali and English language proficiency

of all formal primary students and teachers. According to the Final Synthesis Report for the Joint Review of the Education Sector, Somaliland, 2015 (Joint Review)<sup>137</sup>:

Schools no longer have ready cash to pay for the essential running costs such as water supply, stationery and furniture repair. Consequently the environment has deteriorated in some schools e.g. toilets not functional, shortage of chairs and no paint to brighten classrooms.

Figure 39. SUPPORTING INPUTS INDICATORS - TEXTBOOK AND CLASSROOM RATIO; GPI

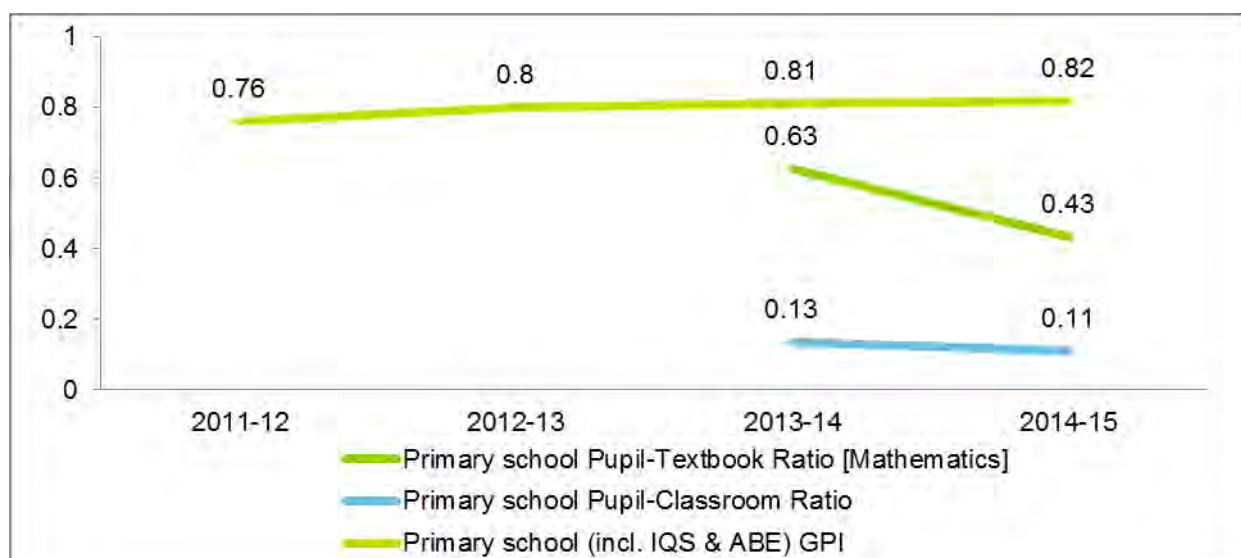


Figure 39 shows the trends in supporting inputs that could be retrieved from the *Somaliland 2014/15 Statistics Yearbook*<sup>138</sup>. While the data is limited, it shows that the provision of textbooks (for the subjects recorded) does not meet the target of a 1:1 ratio for all subjects, as set in the ESSP.

### Pupil-Textbook Ratio

Donors and implementing partners, such as UNICEF, provide a large proportion of primary school supplies including textbooks for children in schools. Encouragingly, 631,000 textbooks were distributed to 878 primary schools throughout the country as of 2015. However, the number of pupils who received a text book was not recorded, which hinders indicator analysis in terms pupil-textbook ratio. The textbooks covered all primary levels and subjects, teacher guides and syllabi, including much needed English textbooks for the first time<sup>139</sup>. Apart from mathematics textbooks (0.43, or 2.3 pupils per textbook in 2014-15), there is no data on the current pupil-textbook ratio in primary schools. This value has decreased since the previous year from 0.63 or 1.5 students per textbook. This could indicate that classes are getting bigger, but that the supplies necessary for education are not meeting demand. There is a need to collect more data on the availability of textbooks, in reading as well as mathematics, to clearly determine the correct ratio. It is equally important

<sup>137</sup> T. Brown. 2015. *Final Synthesis Report for the Joint Review of the Education Sector, Somaliland, 2015*. GPE, IIEP. Hargeisa, Somaliland.

<sup>138</sup> MOEHS 2015. *Somaliland 2014/15 Statistics Yearbook*. MOEHS. Hargeisa.

<sup>139</sup> T. Brown. 2015. *Final Synthesis Report for the Joint Review of the Education Sector, Somaliland, 2015*. GPE, IIEP. Hargeisa, Somaliland.

to establish quantifiable relationships between various indicators (simulations), which can predict the required adjustments for one component relative to changes in others.

### **Pupil-Classroom ratio**

The Pupil Classroom Ratio (PCR) for formal primary including IQS has gradually decreased from 57 in 2011-12 to 46 in 2014-15. The same trend applies to ABE in which the PCR decreased from 108 in 2011-12 to 35 in 2014-15 (see Figure 38). Outlying data for the 2012/13 period implies that for the 2011-12 period, the number of classrooms were either under-reported, or enrolment data was over-reported, for both FPE and ABE. Overall, the decrease is with an average annual growth rate of 7.2% for formal primary including IQS and 31.2% for ABE.

### **Gender Parity Index**

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) for primary education has increased over for the last four years, from 0.76 to 0.83. As the GPI is still less than 1.00, it is evident that more boys than girls are attending primary school. The GPI in primary schools is better than in secondary education (see chapter 7), but the rate of growth towards gender parity is higher at the secondary school level than at primary school level. Reasons for this disparity should be further elaborated upon, though some explanations are found in Chapter 3 of this report.

### **Environmental Factors - Distance to school**

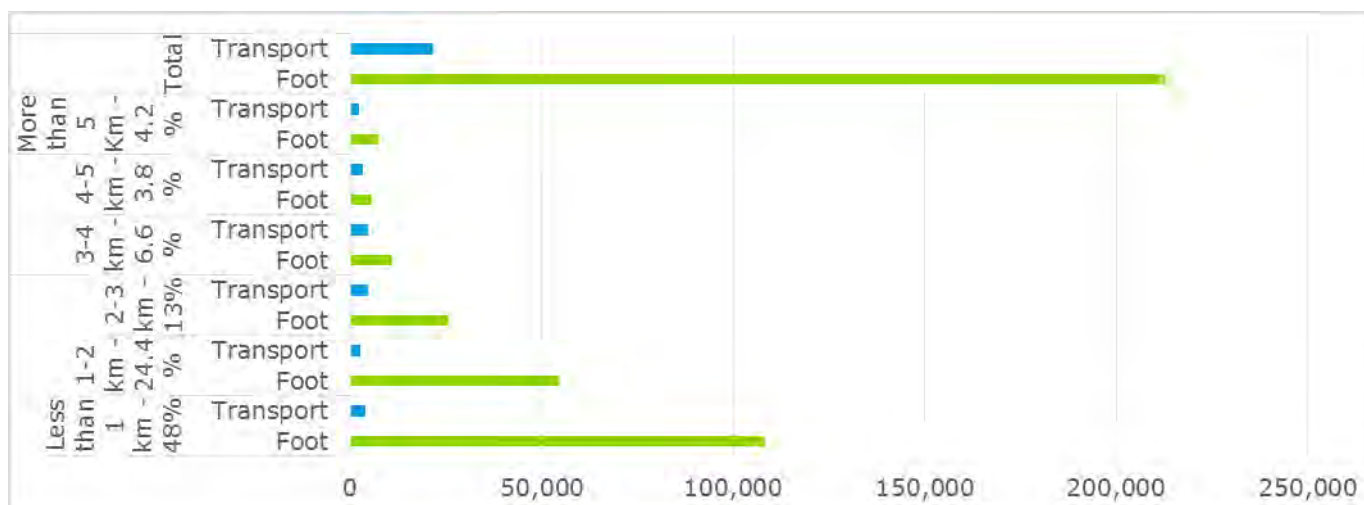
The majority of schools (48%) are located within one kilometre of the pupils' homes and only 4.2% of pupils live more than five kilometres away from their school. The average recommended distance of 2.5Km<sup>140</sup> exists for over 80% of the primary school children in Somaliland. Ninety-one percent of pupils walk to school whilst 9% travel to school by other means of transport. The data shows that distance to schools does not pose a significant challenge for the majority of children enrolled in schools. However, for the majority of children who are out-of-school and in rural areas, distance and accessibility likely remains a challenge.

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<sup>140</sup> National Council of Educational Research and Training. Educational Indicators. [http://www.ncert.nic.in/programmes/education\\_survey/msise/Educational%20Indicators%20-%20Final%20-%201.pdf](http://www.ncert.nic.in/programmes/education_survey/msise/Educational%20Indicators%20-%20Final%20-%201.pdf).



Figure 40. DISTANCE TO SCHOOL



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

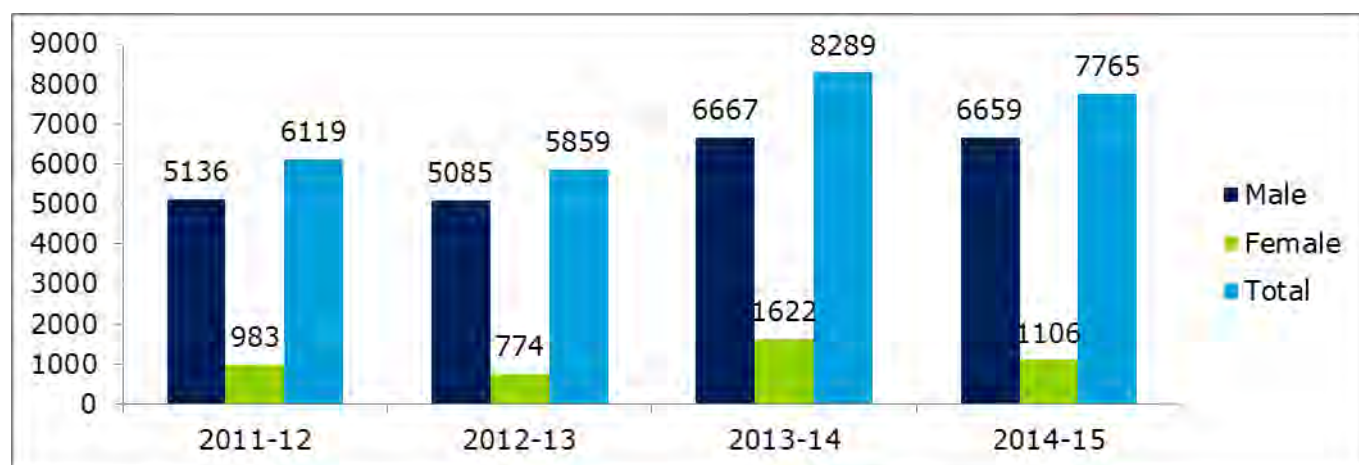
## 6.5 Enabling Conditions

Enabling conditions include effective leadership, a capable teaching force, flexibility and autonomy, and high time-in-school (particularly time-on-task). Data on many indicators for enabling conditions is unavailable (was not collected during the period of the outgoing ESSP). This section summarizes available indicators for enabling conditions that could be retrieved from the 2014-15 *Statistic Yearbook*<sup>141</sup>.

### Teacher Trends

According to the Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook, 2014/15, the total number of teachers in primary school (FPE and IQS) has risen from 6,119 in 2012-13 to 7,765 in 2014-15<sup>142</sup>. While numbers show an inconsistent pattern from year-to-year, the only obvious trend is that number of teachers has been steadily increasing over time, with proportionally greater increases in the number of male teachers compared to female teachers (Figure 40).

Figure 41. TOTAL PRIMARY TEACHERS (INCLUDING ABE AND IQS), 2012-2015



<sup>141</sup> Ministry of Education and Higher Education Department of Policy and Planning. 2015. Republic of Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/2015.

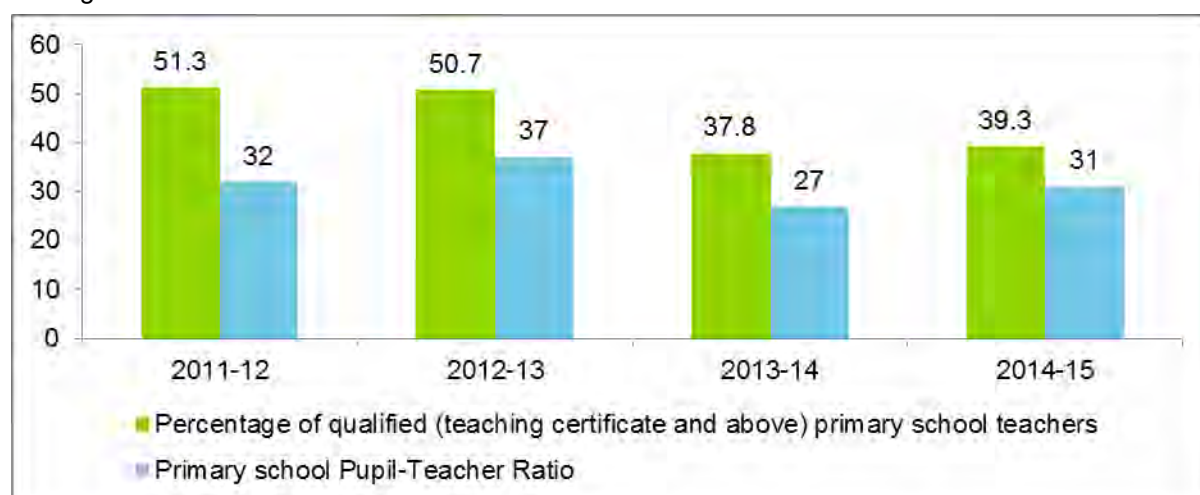
<sup>142</sup> *Ibid.*



### Pupil-Teacher Ratio

The Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) for formal primary education has gradually decreased from 32 in 2011/12 to 31 in 2014/15. The PTR decrease has occurred despite an average growth rate of 2%. However whilst gradual, the 1% decreases in PTR for FPE indicates an improvement in the quality of education as the class size taught by a single teacher is decreasing. The ESSP cites the draft Somaliland teachers' policy document as stating that the Teaching Certificate is a minimum standard of qualification for teachers of primary education. As seen in Figure 41, the percentage of qualified teachers has declined every year between 2011 and 2015 as numbers of teachers has increased, whilst the pupil-teacher ratio has slightly decreased over time. Essentially this means that more unqualified teachers are in classrooms teaching, thus actually negating any possible quality gains that may have been achieved due to the decreasing PTR.

Figure 42. QUALIFIED TEACHER TRENDS AND PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

### Teacher qualification and distribution

Figure 43 summarizes the distribution of qualified teachers by rural versus urban areas and by gender over the period of the outgoing ESSP on an annual basis. Forty percent of primary teachers had this minimum qualification in the year 2014/15. Over 50% of primary teachers' qualifications are undefined, which brings to question the proportion of students who might be receiving substandard education, despite attending school as noted earlier. Interestingly, across all categories and years women, though much fewer in numbers, are proportionally more qualified than male teachers.

Additionally, Table 27 shows that the distribution of teachers between urban and rural areas is highly skewed, with 64% of all teachers stationed in urban schools, compared to only 36% in rural areas. When considering the population distribution of some 52% of the population found in urban areas compared to nearly 45% in rural areas (rural and pastoral/nomadic communities combined), the distribution of teachers suggests inequities in the distribution of education resources that aggravate existing patterns of social and economic exclusion.

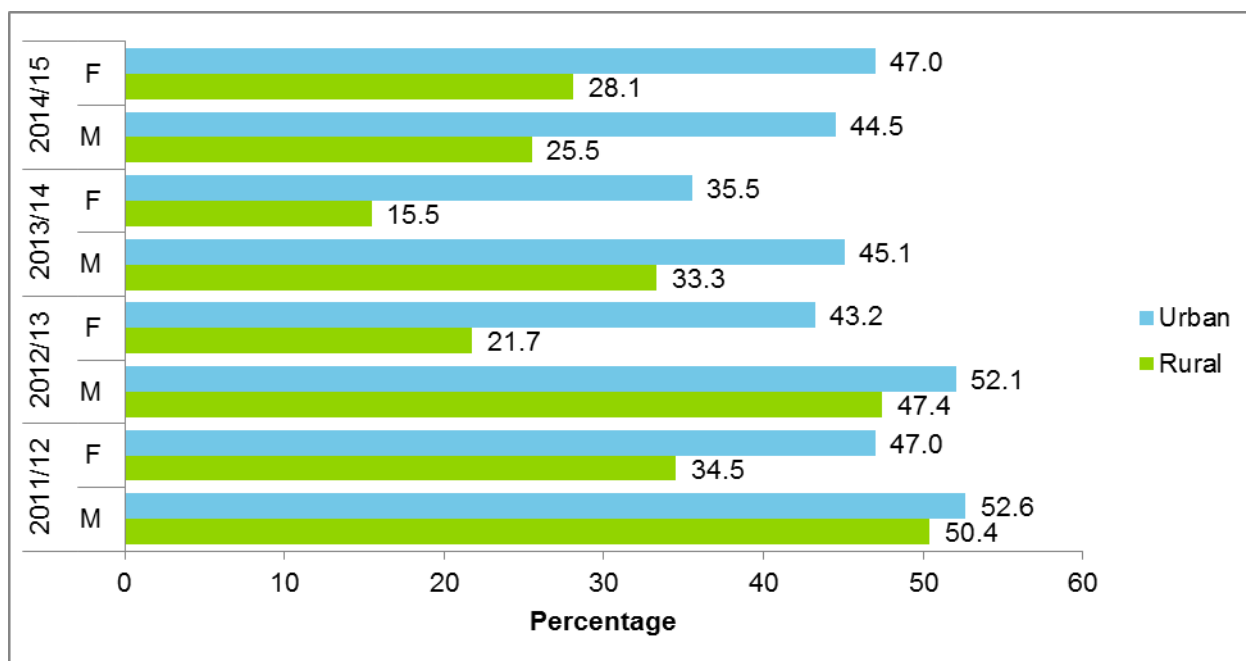
Table 25. Primary Teacher distribution Urban vs. Rural

	Urban	Rural	Total	% of
--	-------	-------	-------	------

	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	Rural
Somaliland	4,029	828	4,857	2,469	261	2,729	6,498	1,088	7,586	36%
% in group	83.0%	17.0%	100%	90.5%	9.5%	100%	85.7%	14.3%	100%	
Rural vs. Urban			64%			36%				

Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

Figure 43. PERCENTAGE OF QUALIFIED PRIMARY TEACHERS (INCLUDING IQS) BY GENDER AND LOCALITY (RURAL/URBAN), 2011-2015



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

### School Shift Schemes

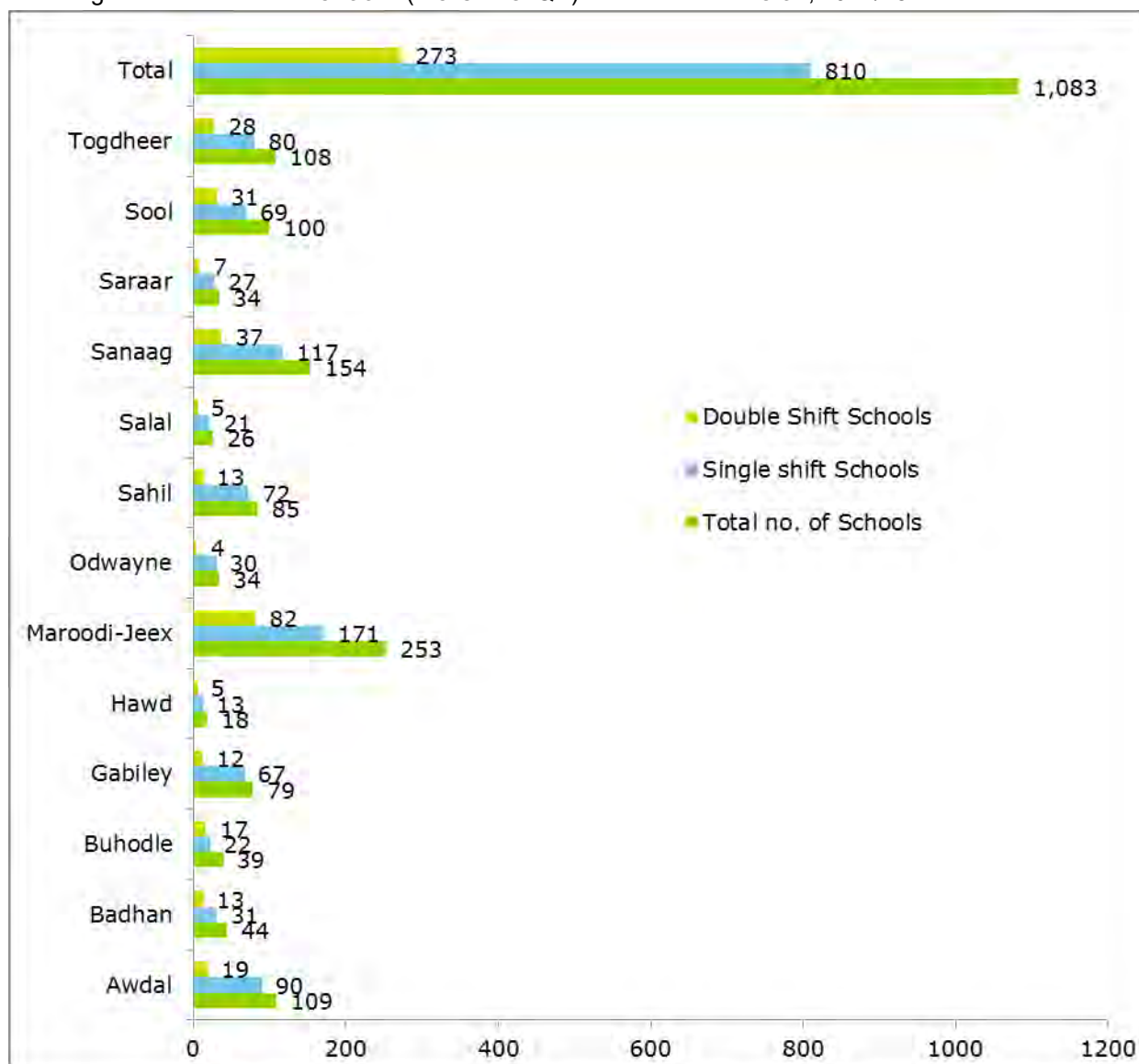
Due to the imbalance between student enrolment numbers and available schools, particularly in urban areas, some schools utilize a double-shift system for all students enrolled to receive lessons. This system puts strain on school resources, especially teachers, most of whom repeat their lessons twice in a day to meet demand. At the same time, the ESSP recommends increasing double shift schools to 50% as part of its strategy to increase access. Figure 43 shows the share of primary schools including IQS with a double shift scheme for the 2014/15 period.

Regionally, double shift primary schools including IQS are higher in the Maroodi-Jeex, Sanaag, Sool and Togdheer regions. These are also highly populated and urbanized regions, and presumably the findings are in line with the trend of rapid urbanization overtaking infrastructure development and state capacity to provide services<sup>143</sup>. The

<sup>143</sup> M. Hove et al. 2013. The Urban Crisis in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Threat to Human Security and Sustainable Development. International Journal of Stability & Development.

MOEHS and partners should be wary of this trend and seek to mitigate the strain on current double-shift schools, while building more school facilities **and** capacitating more qualified teachers to accommodate the rising number of students. It is an important area for further research to ensure evidence-based policy. Research should also explore how greater investment in rural areas may reduce urbanization and in turn lesson the strain on teachers and schools in urban areas.

Figure 44. PRIMARY SCHOOLS (INCLUDING IQS) BY SHIFT PER REGION, 2014/15



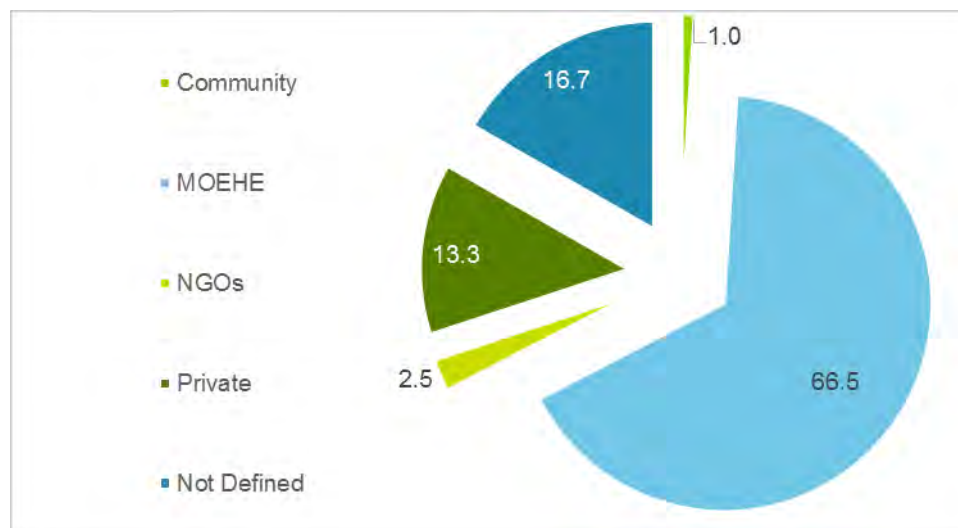
Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

### Teacher Remuneration

In Somaliland, FPE and ABE teachers' salaries are paid by communities, non-government organizations, private owners and the Ministry of Education. In the year 2014/15, the Ministry paid 66.4% of the FPE teachers' salaries, whilst 48.6% of ABE teachers' salaries were paid by the MOEHS. The data on the sources of up to 21% of the teachers' salary payers is missing (**Error! Not a valid bookmark self-reference.8**). This makes Somaliland unique in Somalia as the majority of teachers are paid by government, unlike South Central Somalia and Puntland where the proportion of teachers paid by government is much lower. Available

data in this areas has important implications on the role of private versus public service provision. The state in Somaliland, irrespective existing weaknesses, appears much better placed to take on a larger role in education service provision for children, particularly those from marginalized communities.

Figure 45. SALARY PAYMENT SOURCES FOR PRIMARY TEACHERS INCLUDING. IQS (2014/15)



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

Salaries have progressively increased with an average annual growth rate of 8.5% for FPE, although the annual growth rate is slower for female teachers<sup>144</sup>. It is not clear whether teacher salaries are dependent on qualification, for example, whether there is a minimum entry-level rate and higher values for more qualified teachers (such as graduate qualifications). As a result, there is lack of clarity on how payments for teachers are decided, thus creating risks for manipulation around teacher payments schemes. Additionally, according to the *Joint Review*, teachers in government-run schools earn the same amount (approximately USD 50 per month in 2010<sup>145</sup>) regardless of their workload or qualification level. The total income for teachers has generally decreased since the implementation of FPE. In addition to the obvious consequences for the enabling conditions (for example, the teachers' quality of life and professional motivation), this affects school climate. The Review further revealed that once school heads lost responsibility for staff remuneration, their level of influence within the school system decreased. Overall, school autonomy has decreased as government control has increased.

## 6.6 School Climate

According to Henveld & Craig (1996), the school climate includes high expectations of students, positive teacher attitudes, order and discipline, an organized curriculum and rewards and incentives for stakeholders (students, parents and staff). Included in this discussion is first a overview of school infrastructure conditions and how these have impacted on enrolment and learning for children.

<sup>144</sup> C. Goldsmith. 2010. "Teachers' pay – making the pipe work": The role of improving teachers' payroll systems for education service delivery and state legitimacy in selected conflict-affected countries in Africa (Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011 *The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education*). UNESCO, EFAGMR.

<sup>145</sup> Ibid.

## **School infrastructure**

School facilities have significant impact on access, quality, efficiency and gender equity of the education system. Various provisions within the school environment have been found to contribute towards encouraging students, especially girls, to stay in school.

In 2015, there were approximately 1,083 primary schools in Somaliland. This is a 9.9 % increase in schools from the baseline number of 987 schools in 2012, which is a annual growth rate of approximately 2%. At the same time, the number of ABE centres has declined. According to the ESSP, ABE centres are increasingly transforming into formal primary schools, which explains their decrease. However, the data to support the transformation of ABE centres is lacking.

The availability of water (drinking and/or washing), latrines, laboratories, libraries and pedagogical centres in schools will attract students and is a means of increasing quality and efficiency of education. School feeding programs also contribute towards maintaining school attendance by lowering the financial burden of education on poor families. Forty-six percent of the Somaliland primary schools, including IQS centres have access to water and 32.9% have drinkable water. The sources of water for these schools are different, but most common source is roof tanks, which covers 63.3% of schools. Only 21.2% of the water available in primary schools is piped.

Between 2012 and 2016, a target was set that 200 primary schools would benefit from a school feeding with the provision of take home rations for girls in primary schools. EMIS reports show that of the targeted schools, 172 schools were reached and 18,548 girls received take home rations. The data implies a high success rate; however, it is not immediately clear from the reports why the target was not reached.

The numbers of classrooms across Somaliland have been increasing over the last four years in the formal primary schools. The average annual growth rate of classrooms is 15.9% in the formal primary sector for the last five years, which is below the 612 classrooms annually promised in the ESSP 2012/16 but sufficient to keep up with the growing enrolment at this level.

## **Stakeholder Perceptions, Attitudes and Behaviors**

School climate has been linked with educational outcomes. Positive student experiences in relation to various school processes, such as the overall academic climate and social experiences and interactions, and the school's values on an organizational level, can contribute to improved academic achievement and reduced discipline problems. Student, parent and teacher perceptions are therefore often a target of school improvement initiatives.

However, in Somaliland, there is currently little-to-no information on the extent to which student and teacher perceptions vary as a function of individual, classroom, and school characteristics, or the level of congruence between teachers' and their students' perceptions of school climate. Nevertheless, ESA technical work Working Group discussions conducted as part of this report preparation revealed a general consensus that quality of education is below par in public schools, predominantly due to limited educational resources and poor infrastructure. Examples include the low pupil-textbook ratio and teacher qualifications, outlined in other sections of this chapter. Poor quality of education is therefore cited as a major reason for dropping out of school, further outlined below in this chapter (Student outcomes).

The *Joint Review* contains some information on stakeholder perspectives (such as teacher attitudes and parent expectations). It states that, whilst communities are keen to enjoy the benefits of free primary education, lack of sufficient financial support to operate free government schools has compromised the quality of FPE. Thus, the perceived quality of government-run schools is low, and parents will choose to take their children to private schools if they can afford it. Consultation findings also show that there has been an exodus of teachers<sup>146</sup> transferring from public to private schools where working conditions are more conducive. It was further discovered that few students are able to communicate in English, even at the highest grade of secondary school, and that far more emphasis and resources need to be invested to strengthen the teaching of English (and in secondary education) as a medium of communication<sup>147</sup>.

## **School Curriculum**

Primary school curriculum has been under development since the launch of the 2012-2016 ESP. The curriculum Framework has been completed and the MOEHS is currently working with partners to review and finalize the syllabi. It is thus too early to assess its impact. In particular, the curriculum framework has been developed and validated through a highly consultative process. Competency-based learning outcomes have been finalised for all levels in primary education. Two committees have been formed and are functional (curriculum oversight and curriculum technical) to oversee the curriculum transformation process. This is one sign of success in implementing the ESSP (2012-16). The proposed learning areas in Somaliland Primary schools according to the ESSP annexure (Table 5: Subjects Taught in Somaliland Primary Schools) are: Islamic Education; Somali; Arabic; Mathematics; Science; Social Education; English; Physical Education; Art and Craft and Life skills and HIV/AIDS education. The Curriculum Framework, in line with the ESSP also highlights topics and cross-cutting issues to be included, such as Peace, Business, Environment, Agriculture and Health education, life skills and promotes equity in education by ensuring culturally and economically relevant learning opportunities for young people. The language of instruction for both FPE and ABE in Somaliland for grades 1 to 8 is Somali. Further integration of disaster risk reduction (outlined in Chapter 3) into the education curriculum will help to address issues related to strengthening resilience and easily fits within the existing cross-cutting issues such as peace and environment.

A broad range of approaches for implementing school curriculum and integrating disaster risk reduction has been identified, and new sector plans should include a detailed methodology for the comprehensive and efficient development and implementation of a cohesive curriculum. While these are already in the Framework, it will be necessary to monitor their inclusion in syllabi and textbooks as they are developed.

## **School Environment and Risk Management**

Risk Management is of particular importance at Primary School level. Most governments (including the Somaliland MOEHS) acknowledge the crisis of out-of-school children,

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<sup>146</sup> *This statement reflects repeated observations from technical staff on the ground; however, it is noted that quantitative information is required to substantiate this, possibly in the broader context of the MOEHS identifying policies to address/accommodate the trend towards privatization of (primary) education.*

<sup>147</sup> T. Brown. 2015. *Final Synthesis Report for the Joint Review of the Education Sector, Somaliland, 2015*. GPE, IIEP. Hargeisa, Somaliland.

especially in fragile states, and the impact this crisis will have on future generations. The Somaliland MOEHS has pledged to provide universal primary education and is committed to reduce the impact of conflict and fragility on children's education. Further government-specified objectives for primary education applicable to risk management are:

- Provide children with the basic skills, relevant to their communities and environment, such as animal husbandry, agriculture, budgeting, family welfare, community development, care for the environment, community health and physical fitness
- Foster children's appreciation of the contribution of the family, community, national development and for the interdependence of the various communities in Somaliland
- Support children in upper primary applying what they learn in practical community efforts, such as those that seek to protect the environment
- Create an enabling learning environment for girls by ensuring that there are adequate and relevant facilities such as separate latrines at all levels and putting in place facilities that allow girls privacy
- Move steadily towards universal primary education – and successful primary completion – paying attention to increasing the numbers of girls, establishing networks for advocacy on female participation in primary (and subsequent) education
- Provide girls and boys with appropriate knowledge, insights, skills and values that will enable them to realize their potential and be able to make worthwhile contributions for their own benefit and to the development in society
- Impart appropriate knowledge, insights, skills and Islamic moral values on children that will enable them to relate well with others and take responsibility for good social relations in the community
- Raise awareness among pupils about life skills, including reproductive health and HIV/AIDS.

The admirable policies listed above do not explicitly outline final objectives, but instead list government goals for the sector. Secondly, while the policies do not explicitly address the context of risk and fragility within Somaliland (outlined in Chapter 3), they do address issues identified as 'nexus areas' between education, conflict and fragility and should thus be sharpened to make stronger linkages. Nonetheless, in current format they provide a foundation for education in post-conflict / recovering states and in Somaliland act as a means of risk prevention, protection and peacebuilding. This was well-illustrated through the risk management and peacebuilding approach taken in consultative curriculum development processes supported by UNICEF and managed by AET.<sup>148</sup> Box 3 outlines recommended priorities for education in fragile states that should be utilized to build upon successes already achieved in Somaliland<sup>149</sup>.

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<sup>148</sup> Knezevic, Neven, and W. Glenn Smith. 2015. *Reducing fragility and supporting peacebuilding through youth facilitation of the National Education Curriculum Framework in Somalia: achievements, challenges, and lessons learned*. Nairobi: UNICEF.

<sup>149</sup> J. Mouton & F. Dall. 2006. *Delivering Education Services in Fragile States: Lessons from Four Case Studies*. Creative Associates International. USAID.

Box 3: Priorities for education in fragile states

- **Teacher training:** (1) an immediate roll-out of basic teacher training workshops and (2) first steps to build a teacher training system;
- **Learning materials** (1) immediate delivery of whatever useful materials are available for teachers and students, and (2) first steps to build a relevant curriculum and quality textbook procurement and distribution system;
- **Community support:** (1) immediate measures to reconnect families and communities with their schools and (2) first steps to institutionalize school-community relationships;
- **Learning spaces:** (1) immediate help to communities in finding safe and healthy places to teach, even if temporary and (2) first steps to map schools and set construction standards and procedures.

The best strategies will combine activities to meet these four priority objectives simultaneously. Once progress toward these objectives is certain and if additional resources are available, a second set of priorities would include the following:

- **Management training:** (1) Hands-on guidance in how to manage people and resources and (2) continuing management training on-the-job as well as in short, just-in-time courses for ministry staff and NGOs;
- **Planning and budgeting:** (1) immediate technical support to the ministry in assessing the availability of funds and other resources and planning their most effective use and (2) building a planning and budgeting process and system that is integrated with extra ministerial agencies;
- **Monitoring and evaluation:** (1) immediate technical support to help teachers and schools continuously assess students' performance and (2) first steps toward a comprehensive system of exams for students and a system that monitors the performance of schools. Finally, there are longer-term challenges that must eventually be met if the ministry of education is to function effectively in a sustained way. These include:

- Personnel procedures, salary adjustments and payroll processes;
- Recruitment, deployment, management system;
- A pre-service training system;
- Relationships with decentralized, local governance institutions and teachers unions;
- A school construction program;
- An education management information system to support the planning system

*Extracted from Moulton and Dall, 2006*

From the assessment activities, including a consultation with the Primary Education Working Group, there is little supporting data available on implementation of risk management practices, though some successes such as with curriculum development are clearly demonstrated. Activities needed to implement several goals, together with result indicators, were not properly defined or subsequently monitored. This blocks the potential to assess progress. Whilst EMIS data shows there was a 1% increase in GER between 2013/15 and

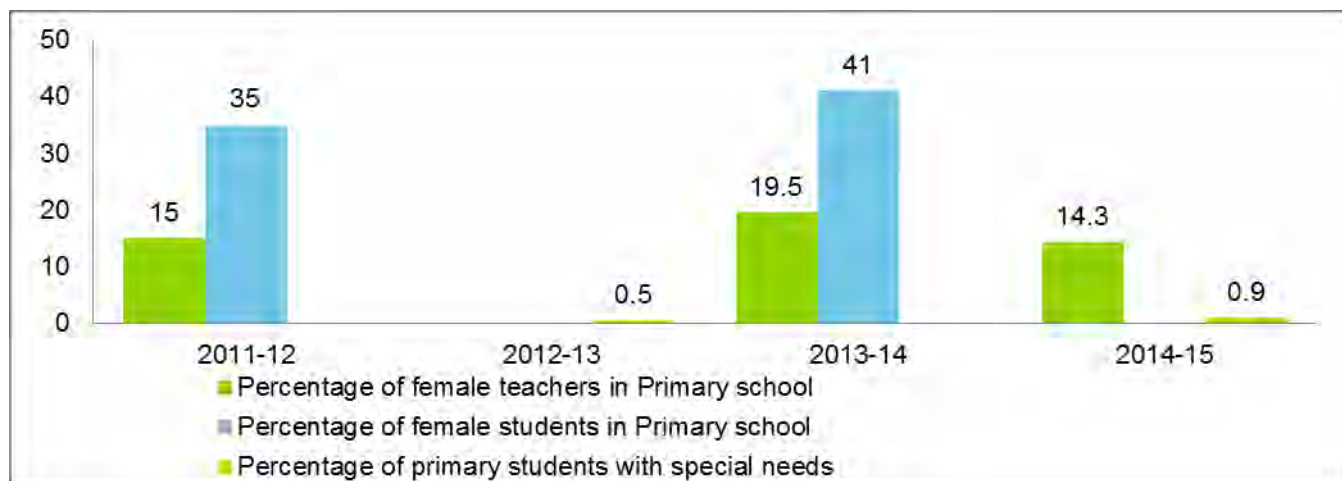


2014/15, to reach 44.3%, this falls short of the 75% target. There are also anecdotal reports from the Working Group that social mobilization and education campaigns were carried out, but the data on these activities could not be produced. Overall, it seems that the MOEHS did not achieve all of its specified objectives listed above. Reasons for this include lack of coordination between different Divisions within the MOEHS, and insufficient coordination between the Ministry and NGOs / other education partners, which is in part a result of limited capacity to develop a comprehensive and SMART strategic risk-reduction framework as listed above.

**Enabling environments for girls.** Figure 45 below shows that female teachers comprised between 15% in 2012 and then 20% in 2014, dropping back to 14% in 2015. The Statistics Year book for 2014/15 also states that 16% of Government teachers are female, whilst 14% of non-government primary schools are female. Whilst this decrease may not be significant in the long-run, the figures depict a poor gender balance in the teaching force at primary level. Further, this imbalance may limit equity in and access to support services for girls and women and deprives girls of role models. Similarly, the percentage of female students is below 50% (as already show by GPI figures earlier), indicating that access to school falls short of the target as far as equity (and potentially, teacher and pupil perspectives and expectations) is concerned. A such, limited progress has been made with creating enabling environments for girls in schools.

However, numbers appear to be increasing. At the same time, as there is a gap in the data for this indicator for the 2012-12 period, it is not clear whether there is a rising trend until data for 2015-16 is assessed (currently in progress).

Figure 46. GENDER EQUITY INDICATORS – PROMOTING ENABLING ENVIRONMENTS FOR GIRLS



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

**Children with Special Needs.** Available data does not paint an encouraging picture for children with special needs in Somaliland, who comprise less than 1% of the student population (1,179 students in total). There is no information about schools for special needs children, which may suggest that children with special needs attend regular schools. This might explain why the proportion of such students is low in the primary school population: due to access barriers and failure to monitoring and document children with special needs (see Chapter 3 for further discussion).

## 6.7 Teaching / Learning Processes

## Government-specified objectives

The Government-specified objectives for teaching and learning processes are to:

- Provide girls and boys with appropriate knowledge, insights, skills and values that will enable them to realize their potential and make worthwhile contributions for their own benefit and to the development in society
- Impart appropriate knowledge, insights, skills and Islamic moral values to children, that will enable them to relate well with others and take responsibility for good social relations in the community and
- Apply learner centred, teaching methodology in primary schools incorporating modern approaches that focus on participation, group work, problem solving, active enquiry, research, stimulating activity, creativity and socialization.

The above government-specified objectives each point toward a wide range of activities and inputs that contribute to the quality of learning. There are many factors which contribute to the teaching-learning process in the classroom, including: appropriate curriculum and pedagogy, sufficient materials, quality formative assessment tools, sufficient quality teachers and sufficient teaching hours. In addition, effective school leadership and the basic nutrition and health of students are important influences on quality of teaching-learning processes. Most of the above factors have already been discussed in various sub-sections of this chapter so far. Below, the current role of teaching hours in the primary education system is outlined.

## Teaching hours

According to the 2015-30 *National Education Policy*<sup>150</sup>, students at Primary school level are required to learn 11 subjects for a total of 36 periods, comprising 27 teaching hours every week. There is no data on the number of teaching hours completed by teachers during the 2012-16 period. The state of teacher attendance can be presumed to be low, as evidenced from other factors in Somaliland's teaching environment that are shown to result in low teacher morale, such as insufficient resources and low teacher salaries, and high teacher absenteeism. Poor remuneration is the most frequent reason that teachers give for leaving teaching or being absent, as they pursue income from other jobs. For example, the *Joint Review* found that many teachers work in multiple schools, across private-and government-run schools, in order to make ends meet. Unfortunately for public school children, they usually experience more teacher absenteeism because private school salaries are higher.

However, it is a gross mistake to assume that only teacher salaries will impact upon teacher attendance and performance in schools. School supervision, school-based management approaches in which communities exercise oversight of schools and teachers, the availability of teacher resources, and effective school leadership are all extremely important in preventing teacher absenteeism and should therefore be implemented more rigorously in the next ESSP.<sup>151</sup> There is also a need to implement monitoring systems for assessing the number of teaching hours students actually receive, as a means towards measuring and improving the quality of primary education. Currently there is no limited evidence to show that the proposed systems to ensure supervision and monitoring were enforced during the

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<sup>150</sup> Republic of Somaliland Ministry of Education and Higher Education. Somaliland National Policy of Education. 2015-2030.

<sup>151</sup> UNICEF 2013, 'We Like Being Taught': A Study on Teacher Absenteeism in Papua and West Papua, Indonesia. UNICEF, Indonesia.

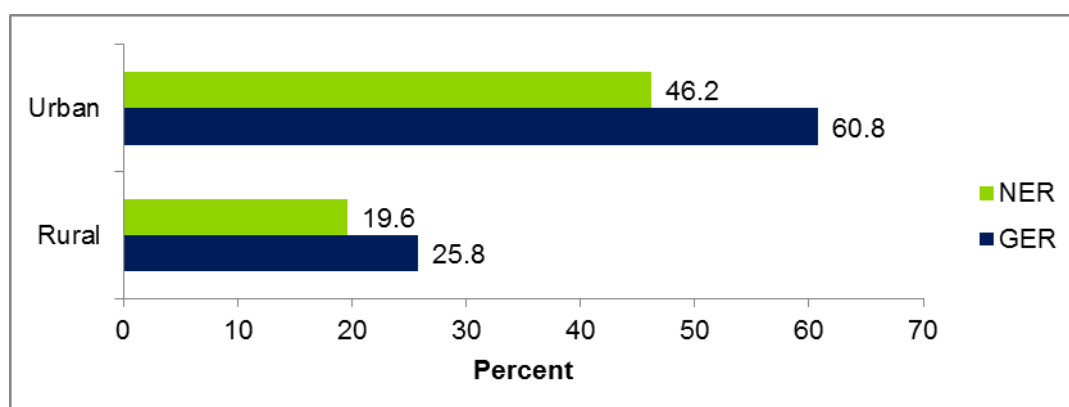
2012- 2016 period. Greater donor investments to provide technical strengthening in this area also appear to have been insufficient.

## 6.8 Student Outcomes

### Enrolment and Attendance

A total of 239,454 children enrolled in primary school for the 2014/2015 period. Figure 46 shows the Primary school GER and NER for the 2014-15 period. The figures show significant inequity between urban and rural communities. The primary education Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) has remained unchanged in the formal primary including IQS since 2012.

Figure 47. PRIMARY (INCLUDING IQS AND ABE) - GER AND NER FOR 2014-15 BY REGION



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

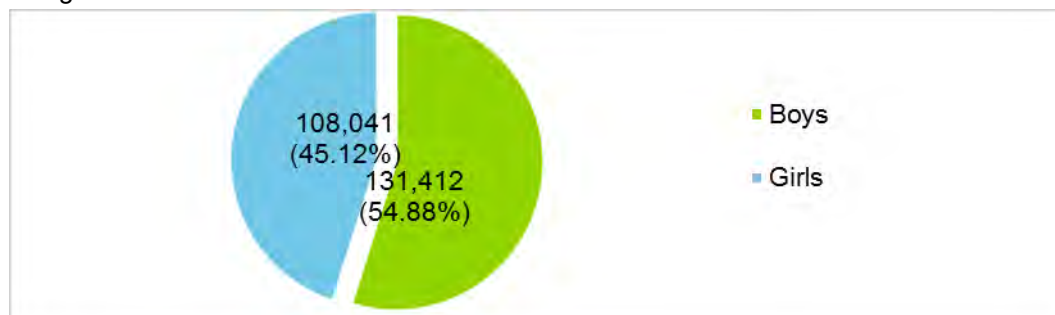
Deeper analysis also demonstrates a decreasing GER for boys but an increase for girls. Conversely, the actual enrolment for FPE has increased slightly over the last four years, with an annual average growth of 7.6%. Conversely, the rate of growth of Alternative Basic Education (ABE) has declined over the last four years, as ABE schools have progressively been transformed into formal primary schools. This compares with the 12% growth rate in enrolment in the five years before the 2012-16 Plan. There is no clear explanation for the trend of ABE centres converting to FPE schools. The annual average growth rate (AAGR) of the UNDP (2005)<sup>152</sup> projected primary school age population is 3.7% for the last four years<sup>153</sup>. Working Group members agreed that there has been inadequate monitoring of the GER over the 2011-15 period and the incoming ESSP will specify more effective means of monitoring and assessing the challenges that led to a stagnant GER.

Other areas of concern are rural vs urban participation rates and teacher deployment, which have been discussed in above and in Chapter 3. Figures 47 and 48 show distribution of Primary School Gross Enrolment Rate, and distribution of Gross Intake Rate by Location (Rural vs Urban), respectively. During this period, the GER for Grade 1 was 94.4, whilst the NER was 23.5. This indicates that 70.9% of students start primary school at a later age than the recommended 6 years.

<sup>152</sup> Republic of Somaliland Ministry of Education and Higher Education. 2011/12 Primary School Census Statistics Yearbook.

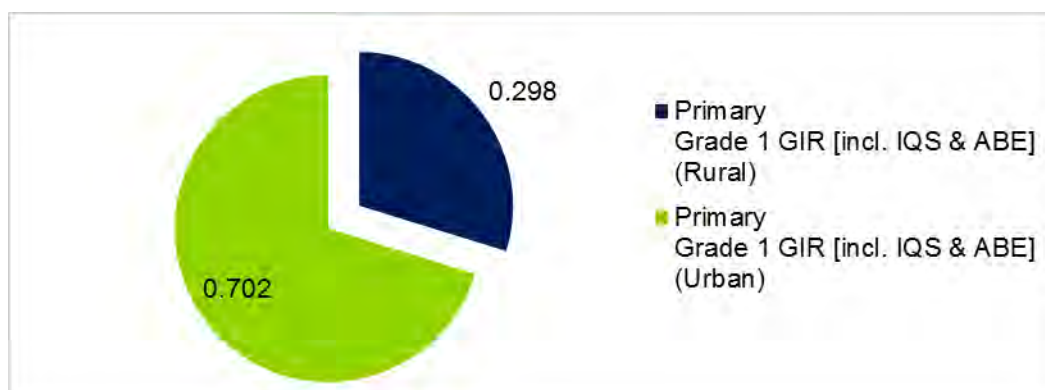
<sup>153</sup> *Ibid.*

Figure 48. GROSS ENROLMENT RATE – 2014/15



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

Figure 49. PRIMARY GROSS INTAKE RATE BY LOCATION – 2014/15



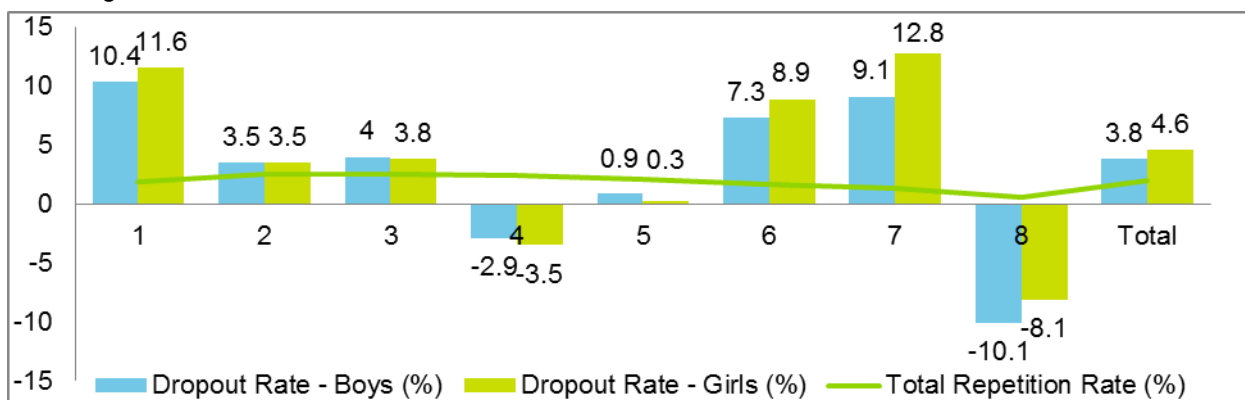
*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

## Internal Efficiency

Promotion rate, repetition rate and dropout rate are measures of internal efficiency of the school system. These rates help to understand how the education system utilizes its resources and measure the efficiency of the education system in producing graduates of a particular education level, both between and between sub-sectors such as primary, secondary and higher education. A student has three paths in a particular academic year, i.e. promotion, repetition and dropout. Repeating a class means using more resources than allocated to a student; and leaving a school (dropping out) results in loss of resources invested in education. Higher promotion, lower repetition and lower dropout rates are indications of good internal efficiency, i.e., improved utilization of limited resources

**Repetition and Dropout rates.** The repetition rate is the proportion of students who have remained in the same grade after one year, thus ‘reusing’ resources within that grade for the successive year. The average repetition rate in primary school for the 2014-15 period was 2%, in which girls’ repetition rate was higher than boys’ (2.2% and 1.9%, respectively) in all classes except in class 8, where the repetition rate was equal and lowest for both genders. For girls and boys the repetition rates are highest in classes 2 and 4, and classes 2 and 3, respectively.

Figure 50. PRIMARY SCHOOL REPETITION AND DROPOUT RATES BY YEAR



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

Figure 49 provides a snapshot of the dropout and repetition rate per class in primary school during the 2014-15 period. Although no cohort analyses have been done, data shows that the lowest dropout rates (seen in Year 8) correlate with the lowest repetition rates. The Global education digest 2012<sup>154</sup> shows that 42% of children in Sub Saharan Africa drop out of school before they have completed primary school, and many of the children who repeat grades also leave school before completing primary education.

The *Somaliland 2013 Millennium Development Goals Report*<sup>155</sup> found that 36.4% of pupils who started grade one reached Grade 8 of primary, indicating a cumulative attrition rate of 63.6% by Grade 8. Dropout and repetition rates show decreasing trends between 2012-13 and 2014-15 (10.8% to 4.2% and 3.7% to 2.0%, respectively), although the data for both indicators is missing for the 2011-2013 periods. Working Group members cited poverty as the fundamental cause for school dropouts at primary school level, as most families across the community are convinced of the importance of education, both for boys and girls. When families are unable to support the child's education or need the child's assistance at home to make ends meet (farming, housework or pastoralism) children are pulled out of school. Poverty is also a motivation for early marriage of girls, who show on average a higher dropout rate than boys in Primary school.<sup>156</sup>

However, available data casts some doubt on assumptions that poverty is the main cause of high dropout rates. As seen in Figure 49, with the exception of girls at Grade 7, the highest dropout rates for both boys and girls are in Grade 1 (10.4% and 11.6% respectively), with lower rates at subsequent years to Grade 4. Data also shows that a small proportion of children (both boys and girls) return to school at Grade 4. This is followed again by a stream of dropouts until Grade 8, when again data shows a small proportion of children (both boys and girls) returning to school. In both instances, and as in other countries experiencing similar trends with dropouts at primary school level, Grade 4 and Grade 8 are key transitional stages for progression to higher grade levels. Overall, the largest proportion of dropouts occur in early grades (Grades 1 to 3). It is highly unlikely that factors cited earlier, such as early marriage for girls and a need to work to support households are the main

<sup>154</sup> UNESCO Institute for Statistics. 2012. *Opportunities lost: The impact of grade repetition and early school leaving*. UNESCO-UIS. Quebec.

<sup>155</sup> Ministry of National Planning & Development. Somaliland. 2014. *SOMALILAND MDGs Report 2013: Prospects for meeting the MDGs by 2015*.

<sup>156</sup> UNICEF 2013, 'We Like Being Taught': A Study on Teacher Absenteeism in Papua and West Papua, Indonesia. UNICEF, Indonesia

causes of dropout at these levels of schooling (e.g. few Somali families are willing to agree to early marriage of girls at the ages of 6-9 years old). Rather, and as evidenced in many other countries where children lack exposure to ECE services, lack of school preparedness, challenges with transition to formal education, and poor quality of teaching and learning processes at early grades level are likely the more critical determinants giving rise to dropout and a cumulatively high attrition rate. Only at grade levels 6 and 7 do explanations rooted in poverty and early marriage see reasonable, but even then quality dimensions giving rise to dropout must be factored in, particularly when considering the proportion of girls returning to school in Grade 8. The MOEHS should adopt more accurate methods to monitor the patterns, causes and consequences of school dropouts.

**Promotion, Transition and Completion Rates.** The promotion rate describes the proportion of students who have passed to the next grade/level at the end of the school year. A high promotion rate indicates a high level of retention or survival. The total primary promotion rate in the 2014-15 period was 93.8%, but this should not be confused as an indication of good internal efficiency or good utilization of resources. Promotion rates count those who do not dropout along the way, thus meaning high promotion rates as well as high attrition rates can coincide at the same time. Whilst students who are retained in the system will likely progress, those who dropout will be lost from the school system before reaching the 'promotion' stage, hence they are not accounted for. The promotion rate was lowest from class 1/level 1 to 2 (87.1%) followed by class 7 to 8 (88%).

The promotion rates from class 8 to class 9 also counts for transition from primary to secondary school. Promotion rates between class 8-9 as well as class 4-5 are both greater than 100% (108.7% and 100.8%, respectively), suggesting that there were new entrants (or those who returned) to the system at classes 5 and 9 in the year 2014/15. This might be due to students who successfully completed ABE in the year 2013/14 that might have joined formal education in class 9, whilst those who were not successful entered FPE in class 5 in the same year. In addition, there are cases of children who 'jump' grade 8 and persuade the head teacher to take them directly into Secondary school from grade 7 or from the private schools. The discrepancy may also be due to some of the schools inaccurately reporting their census data for classes 5 and 8 in the year 2013/14. More boys than girls were promoted in most classes, except in the class 4 to 5 and class 5 to 6, in which the reverse is true. From class 3 to class 4, the promotion rate is gender equal. Overall, promotion rates show that those children who remain in education or join at later stages have performed well achieving overall high rates of transition to higher grade levels.

There is no data available showing the gross rate of completion for primary school in Somaliland. However, the 2014-15 *Yearbook* records a survival rate for students who completed five grades of primary school, which as of the 2014-15 period is 63% (suggesting that 37% of children have dropped out of school by Grade 5). The survival rate is usually recorded until the 5<sup>th</sup> grade as this level of education is commonly presumed to be a prerequisite for sustainable literacy<sup>157</sup>. It is not clear why the completion rate was not measured. This is a crucial indicator in assessing the progress of the Government-Specified Objective to "move steadily towards universal primary education – and successful primary

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<sup>157</sup> L. Cameron. 2004. *Indicator Handbook for Primary Education: Abridged*. EQUIP2. US Agency for International Development. Washington.

completion...” and whilst challenging, and involving a cohort study, should be measured as it is widely considered a preeminent indicator for educational coverage and quality.

**Student Performance.** The only data recovered for performance scores revealed that at Grade 4 level, the average score is 23% in mathematics. The literacy rate is a common indicator of student performance, but, as previously stated, the MOEHS does not have official data on literacy for the whole Republic of Somaliland.

### Results of Monitoring Learning Achievement for Grade 7

Monitoring Learning Achievements (MLA) (or ‘Measuring Learning Achievements’ and also used as an acronym for Minimum Learning Achievements) is one of the most commonly used learning achievement tests. It represents a standardized approach to testing at various stages to see what levels of learning have been achieved. This tool can be used to measure the success of the quality aspects of the ESSP, particularly since data is available from 2012 and 2013 against which future improvements in performance can be measured.

Measuring learning achievements in Grade Four (MLA4) in Somaliland was a requirement in ICDSEA<sup>1</sup> under Result 4, which aimed to strengthen the capacity of departments within Ministries of Education to measure and deliver quality in education. As a result of the issues raised by MLA4, it was agreed by the Ministry of Education that a similar study should be carried out in Grade Seven and that these assessments of learning achievements should be a regular part of the monitoring of the education system. Whereas MLA4 was funded by the European Community, MLA7 was funded by UNICEF and was a part of the project to support examinations and assessment across the whole of Somalia (FACSS).

In March 2012, findings from MLA4 concluded that numeracy was by far the weakest of the key competencies and recommended urgent remedial action to address how numeracy was taught. The findings from these tests for MLA7 in June 2013 confirm this.

Any discussion of results needs to look at the scores on individual items rather than the overall score to value the diagnostic implications for the delivery of curriculum. Thus, in the full report the results are described initially in terms of competences achieved as indicated by specific test items before reporting on the overall scores.<sup>158</sup>

Table 26. Summary of performance across the four learning areas in Somaliland

Mark Range	40 – 50*	30 – 39	20 – 29	10 – 19	0-9
<b>Somali</b>	34	25.6	33.4	3	4
<b>Mathematics</b>	15	16.9	34.2	20	14
<b>English</b>	30.1	29.2	21.7	16.5	2.5
<b>Sciences</b>	11.3	18.2	46.2	13.7	10.5

According to the Africa Education Trust Measuring Learning Achievements (MLA) Report for Grade 7 (2014) it is clear that students are generally performing well in Somali and that all but between 4% and 7% have achieved basic literacy and can express themselves in their own language. Some 34% are achieving high marks. However, there remains a weakness in their writing that will result in a weakness in writing any other languages they learn. Students have performed satisfactorily in science but at a slightly lower level than in Somali, and with

<sup>158</sup> Report on Measuring Learning Achievements in Grade 7- AET

fewer excelling but a majority in the middle range of scores. English, though clearly weaker in the writing and paragraph comprehension, parallels the results in Somali. These are better than one would expect from students without textbooks and with very little exposure to the language. Maths is clearly the weakest subject, with 34% having very weak numeracy skills and only 32% actually passing. Numeracy and mathematics has been shown to be weak in form four exams, in Grade 8 exams, in MLA 4 and in studies done on non-formal education<sup>159</sup>.

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<sup>159</sup> Report on Measuring Learning Achievements in Grade Seven (MLA 7), Somaliland. 2013. Africa Education Trust.



### **Summary of Results across Subjects<sup>160</sup>**

It is clear that students are generally performing well in Somali and that all but between 4% and 7% have achieved basic literacy and can express themselves in their own language. Some 34% are achieving high marks. However, there remains a weakness in their writing which will result in a weakness in writing any other languages they learn. Students have performed satisfactorily in science but at a slightly lower level than in Somali, and with fewer excelling but a majority in the middle range of scores. English, though clearly weaker in the writing and paragraph comprehension, parallels the results in Somali. These are better than one would expect from students without textbooks and with very little exposure to the language. Maths is clearly the weakest subject, with 34% having very weak numeracy skills and only 32% actually passing. This is the area that requires some sort of action plan across the whole learning process. Numeracy and mathematics has been shown to be weak in form four exams, in grade 8 exams, in MLA 4 and in studies done on non-formal education.

### **The Gender Divide**

One interesting feature of the results relates to gender disparities. One conclusion from the results of MLA4 was that there was no significant difference in performance between boys and girls. At the time it was predicted that differences in performance between the genders would appear later in the learning cycle, even if some of the causal factors might exist in the early years. This prediction seems borne out to only a limited extent by these results. A gender disparity in performance does appear. However, it is not universally consistent across the four learning areas

It appeared that in the Somali language girls have a slight advantage over boys. There are about 0.5% more girls in the high scoring bracket (over 60%) but there are also more boys in the lowest bracket (under 20%). In English there is also a small but probably insignificant difference with significantly more girls in the top scoring group (4% difference). As those who perform well in English are likely to be the ones who do best at higher levels of education, this is very encouraging.

In Mathematics the disparity is relatively small, with 2% more boys in the higher brackets but 3% more boys in the lowest bracket. The results are so poor for both genders and this difference does not seem significant set against the overall failure of 65% of the children.

Science is the one subject in which the gap does seem to be the significant, with an 11% gap in those passing but the same numbers failing. This should be concerning as it feeds into and may be caused by the popular misconceptions that science is a subject for boys rather than girls. The reasons for this marked differential when compared to other subjects should also be explored.

Twenty-eight schools were surveyed for the above report, but the report does not present its findings as a representative sample. Nevertheless, the data is useful as a snapshot of student achievements. Further, a World Bank report stipulates that because current school enrolment is much lower in Somaliland than in all countries in the region, Somaliland may have poor comparative literacy rates given the high numbers of out-of-school children and those who dropout<sup>161</sup>. Additional government-specific objectives that could not be assessed for reasons previously stated in are:

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<sup>160</sup> *Report on Measuring Learning Achievements in Grade 7- AET*

<sup>161</sup> World Bank. 2014. *New World Bank GDP and Poverty Estimates for Somaliland*. <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2014/01/29/new-world-bank-gdp-and-poverty-estimates-for-somaliland>

- Lay the foundation for basic skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking of Arabic and English, as bases for further learning
- Equip children with a sound foundation of mathematics and the appropriate application of mathematics to practical problems (though findings above suggest this objective has not been achieved).

### Policy Priorities and Solutions for the incoming ESSP to promote equity in the primary education sub-sector

Based on analysis conducted in Chapter 3 and a review of progress in the primary education sector in relation to issues of equity, the table below provides a brief summary of critical constraints that need attention in the next ESSP and possible policy solutions to promote equity. The table also outlines likely impacts of proposed solutions and the feasibility of implementation that can be used for cost and financing calculations in the next ESSP.

Table 27. Equity Analysis on Access to Basic Education

Critical constraints needing attention	Preferred solution	Impact of solution	Feasibility of implementation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Existing schools in hard to reach rural and coastal areas unable to address the problem of long travel to school. Parents are reluctant to send their children to school and many children enroll late when they are well above the right age.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Construction of feeder schools to minimize walking distance and facilitate enrolment at the right age. – Support for innovative Alternative Basic Education approaches such as</li> <li>• Mobile schools: to reach children migrating with parents.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• These approaches will take education to the hard-to-reach communities and can reach more children in a short time with cost effective setups, ensuring active community management. It can easily scaled up as long as funding is available. Ensures safety of children and parents' confidence</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This will build on existing experience with learning from neighboring countries with pastoralist communities (e.g. Kenya, Ethiopia).</li> <li>• It benefits from technical and practical experience and financial support of organizations operating in Somaliland.</li> </ul>

Critical constraints needing attention	Preferred solution	Impact of solution	Feasibility of implementation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Formal education is not flexible enough to fit the lifestyle of pastoralist communities. Children of pastoralist/livestock communities have limited access to education.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Community-managed cluster boarding schools for Nomadic and coastal regions</li> <li>Flexibility in classes to enroll herding/working children who cannot go to school at the regular time and introduce multi-grade teaching to address classroom and teacher shortages</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>If parents send their daughters to school at the right age the girls will benefit from more years of schooling and the risk of drop-out will be minimized.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The simplified school structures (mobile schools) will encourage the involvement of locals and will require less time for construction thus reaching more children with less cost and fewer challenges.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>There are economic, social and cultural barriers against certain disadvantaged groups. For example, some parents do not send their daughters or children with disabilities to school.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Provision of scholarships for needy girls to facilitate retention and completion of their education</li> <li>Promotion of inclusive education through campaigns and provision of girl- and disability-friendly schools e.g. WASH facilities and separate latrines for girls.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>If campaigns are coupled with concrete improvements in children's performance, parents will see the value of education and will send more children to school.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Partners can support the government at HQs level and various geographical areas until the Ministry's capacity has improved to fully take over. In particular, external financial support will be needed over the short and medium term while being phased out as the government's domestic financing increases.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>In urban areas classes are often overcrowded with double shifts thus severely impeding the</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expansion/construction/rehabilitation of formal child friendly schools to minimize over-crowded</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Will minimize the number of overstretched</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The existing girls' support systems will be strengthened and a safe and protective environment promoted.</li> </ul>

Critical constraints needing attention	Preferred solution	Impact of solution	Feasibility of implementation
quality of teaching and learning taking place. This hinders teachers to attend to individual children with learning difficulties but also causes extra damage to rooms and furniture.	classes and shift system especially in urban areas	schools and the quality of learning will improve accordingly	

## 6.9 Summary of Expected and Actual Results

Table 30 shows a comparative summary of the baseline, target and progress on primary education indicators that were reviewed for this assessment. Out of 16 indicators, only two (GPI and the estimated number of female teachers) had specific targets. The main reason there are missing targets in the table is that targets were not set for the ESSP.

Table 28. Data summary of Primary Education Indicators

Indicator	2011/12 Baseline	Target	2014/15 Current Situation	Comments
No. primary schools	967	n/a	1,083	3.8% annual increase*
Total enrolment	191,567	n/a	234,128	6.9% increase*
Boys' enrolment	109,695	n/a	128,471	5.7% increase*
Girls' enrolment	81,872	n/a	105,657	8.9% increase* more than for boys
Public school enrolment	151,104	n/a	169,634	3.8% increase*
Private school enrolment	40,463	n/a	64,494	16.7% increase* more than public
Gender Parity Index	0.75	n/a	0.82	Steady progress towards equity
Number of pupils in upper primary	62,506 (33% of primary)	n/a	82,580 (35% of primary)	Progress towards higher completion
Total # of teachers	6,143	n/a	7,765	8% increase*
Number of female teachers	980 (16% of total)	3,062	1,106 (14% total)	Increase in number but less equitable
Pupil-teacher ratio	31	n/a	30	Good ratio maintained
Pupil-textbook ratio		n/a		
Number of qualified teachers	1,714 (28%)	n/a	2,979 (39.3%)	Improving steadily, decreasing as proportion

				of overall number of teachers
Number of grade 1-8 schools	223	n/a		Schools sitting PLE
Number of pupils passing Primary Leaving Examinations	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Number of girls passing Primary Leaving Examinations	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

## 6.10 Conclusions

There are areas in which the Ministry has been successful and the plans laid out in the 2012/16 policy have been fully or partially achieved and other areas where more research is needed and where concerns exist. The sections below briefly summarize key areas of success and ongoing issues of concern to be addressed in the forthcoming ESSP.

### Areas of success

**Construction Programme.** Although the construction programme has achieved the original plan of 612 classrooms, it has managed to provide learning spaces in excess of the growth in enrolment. As a result, the average class to learners' ratio has improved significantly and now stands at 46. However, there remain concerns about the quality of many of the schools, especially in terms of water and office space.

**Teacher learner ratio.** In a similar way, although the Ministry may not have recruited the additional 500 teachers promised in the plan, they have recruited sufficient numbers to improve the student: teacher ratio from 1:31 to 1:30. Although this is a small reduction it represents a satisfactory ratio at primary school level. Within the context of FPE the ratio could have risen dangerously. However, there remain concerns about the quality of those recruited and the number that are not yet qualified.

**Curriculum Development.** The 2012/16 plan promises a new curriculum framework that will include broad goals and values and wider and more relevant. The syllabi for primary sector have been developed and textbook development is in process. However, there remain concerns about how well the crucial cross-cutting issues and skills specifications are transferred into the syllabi and the textbooks and finally into the classrooms. This will involve continued monitoring as the curriculum framework is implemented.

**Quality Assurance.** The 2012-16 Plan promises that at least 50% of accessible schools will receive a supervisor's visit every year. Evidence suggests that, with reference to Primary schools, this has been exceeded and that reports exist on most of the schools using the minimum standards checklists. However, concerns remain about what action and, if any, are taken in response to these reports and therefore whether they have any impact. In addition, the approach to QAS has moved towards a 'Minimum Standards Approach' rather than the 'School Improvement Approach' recommended in the plan.

**Learning outcomes.** Although the evidence is based on a limited sample, the MLA results for 2012 suggest that basic literacy is being achieved at primary level. Results for literacy in

Somali are much better than similar results in neighboring countries (only 4-7% were failing basic literacy in Somaliland. An equivalent figure for Uganda was nearly 30%). However, concerns remain about writing skills and basic numeracy. The latter in particular is below scores in other countries.

### **Areas of concern**

**Gender Parity.** There has been marginal improvement in the gender parity index over the period of the outgoing ESSP with a gender ratio in schools of 44:56. While this shows some improvement, it has in fact changed little over time.

**Dropout and Transition rates.** Because the statistics are limited and there are no cohort studies, indications are that the dropout rates, especially in upper primary, are potentially misleading. Whilst recorded transition rates are high, drop-out rates are not properly incorporated into the analysis due to poor monitoring mechanisms. There is thus considerable need for additional input in terms of statistical methodology when collecting this data, as with most other indicators within this sector.

**Data Availability and Smart Indicators.** At present, the greatest drawback both to planning and to evaluating progress under the last plan is the lack of key indicators that can be used for comparison

**Enrolment Rates.** The outgoing ESSP assumed that the declaration of free primary education would be followed by a massive increase in enrolment in Grade 1. This has not happened with GER remaining stagnant over the years. As absolute number of new enrolments over the past four years have been over 200,000, this stagnation can partly be explained by population growth. However, research into why over 50% of the children are not enrolling for free education should be conducted. In addition, more analysis of the actual enrolment statistics is necessary. The plan predicted an annual increase of 25,000 learners: i.e. over 10% a year. In fact, the actual growth rate of enrolment seems to have declined from the 12% recorded in the ESSP (7.2%)<sup>162</sup> to a much lower rate, between 2% and 6.9% thus reducing pressure on the sector to meet expected demand.

**Direct and indirect costs as barriers to education for the poor:** Cost is a common barrier for low-income families. Whilst the elimination of school fees and other costs to parents, as part of the EFA initiative, has seen dramatic surges in enrollment in countries such as Kenya, Uganda and Timor L'este<sup>163</sup>, are additional challenges come from free service delivery if the government does not effectively cover the costs. In Somaliland, as a consequence of mismanagement of free education policy implementation in public schools, parents continue to incur costs that remain as a barrier for very poor households. Examples of these costs include textbooks and school stationery, and in extreme cases even school furniture<sup>164</sup>. As wealthy families are able to pay for schooling in better equipped and private

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<sup>162</sup> The 2012-16 plan does have some apparent inconsistencies in this figure as elsewhere (section 7.3) it quotes a growth rate of the primary system of 2.4% annually over 10 years. It is not clear whether this refers to resources or enrolment.

<sup>163</sup> R. B. Kattan, 2006. *Implementation of Free Basic Education Policy*. Education Working Paper Series No. 7. World Bank.

<sup>164</sup> MOEHS, *Aide Mémoire Joint Review of the Education Sector (JRES) Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) February 24th – 25th 2014*

institutions, the low quality of free education is a contributor to disparities in education access between the poor and wealthy, thus exacerbating poverty.

## 6.11 Key Recommendations

**Equity.** As discussed in previous sections of this chapter, challenges in the Primary Education sector cut across policy issues, equity issues (especially for pastoralists, rural communities, urban poor, girls and those with special needs) and the quality of education. While roughly half of children remain out-of-school, these groups remain the most excluded from education. Initiatives like school feeding have been instrumental in encouraging poor children to go to school, but additional measures (for example targeted cash transfers and savings, loan and income-generating facilities, as well as targeted distribution of schools) should be considered to offset barriers to education for vulnerable groups.

**Efficiency in primary education.** Simply defined, efficiency refers to obtaining the desired results by the least costly means. As seen from the above assessment of supporting inputs, enabling conditions, school climate, teaching / learning processes and student outcomes, efficiency issues in the primary sub-sector are overarching, beginning from defining and articulating the desired outcomes, delivering the necessary interventions and measuring the outcomes, all the while involving and providing the capacity for responsible parties and stakeholders (from schools, administrators, students and teachers) to meet the desired standards. Transparency, participation and accountability (especially as regards financial management and governance) measures should be given priority for ensuring efficiency within the system.

**Teacher qualification and distribution:** There are regional, district and qualification disparities among teachers in the primary sub-sector. There are a plethora of potential solutions to address shortages of well-qualified teachers. The most common is financial benefits, for example, providing a “hardship allowance” for teachers in hardship areas. Another is providing alternative certification strategies to recruit the right teachers, in high need areas, so as to avoid forced relocation. At the same time, measures should be taken to address the gaps in working conditions for teachers in rural areas, which includes improving school infrastructure in disadvantaged areas, which will in turn encourage more students to attend school.

**Learning Outcomes.** Overall, as has been evidenced above, the data show a low level of performance (23% in Mathematics), indicating great room for improvement in teaching and learning outcomes. Further, student performance is a key indicator necessary to assess the progress of the education sector and data should be collected from all subjects across all school years for such an indicator. Finally, there is a need to establish quantifiable relationships between various indicators (simulations), which can predict the required adjustments for one component relative to changes in others.

**Monitoring.** Policy objectives require better targeted formulation and could be framed as benchmarks or results to include specific (quantified) indicators and indicator related targets, as well as accessible sources of information, and means of verification (such as a well-equipped EMIS). The development of robust database of baseline information is necessary to empower policy-makers with the evidence needed to make effective policy choices. The high extent of missed targets implies unrealistic prioritization and goal-setting, poor strategic planning and, consequently, lack of accountability measures.





## 7. Chapter 7 – Secondary Education

Secondary education in Somaliland spans four years, from Form 1 to 4, and is divided into junior secondary (Forms 1 to 2) and senior secondary (Forms 3 and 4). Entrance to secondary education is determined by the centrally administered standardized examinations at the end of class 8 (the last year of primary education). The MOEHS National Policy of Education (2015) targeted a Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) of 50% by 2016. In fact, as we shall show in the next section, Table 31, they have barely achieved 25%.

Each section of this analysis of the secondary education sector presents the current situation in terms of regional statistics and compares that situation with the situation prior to the start of ESSP 1212/16. Where relevant this is followed by key recommendations for the specific policy priority as stated in the Somaliland National Education Sector Strategy, 2012-16 (The ESSP)<sup>165</sup> and other policy documents where necessary, in line with GPE guidelines.

Where comparisons are made they are between the EMIS statistics for 2014/15 and the statistics available for the years 2010/11 which were gathered by the Ministry with support from Africa Educational Trust under the EU-funded SAPIS project<sup>166</sup> as both sets of figures are reliable and were verified after collection.

### 7.1 Policy context

The MOEHS's vision is to provide quality secondary education that will provide a wide range of options for the future study and career choices of the learners. The objectives that were developed in the ESSP<sup>167</sup> are:

1. To facilitate all round development of students, i.e. spiritually, physically, socially, mentally, academically and morally according to the principles of Islam so that they make positive contribution to the development of the society
2. Develop learners' competencies so that they can compete in job markets, especially in the productive sectors of Somaliland's economy and in global markets
3. Extend and consolidate the knowledge, skills values and attitudes acquired at primary education level so that students can acquire a strong foundation of quality higher education
4. Develop in students critical and creative thinking and problem solving abilities
5. Furthering an understanding and appreciation of the contribution of science and technology to development.

### 7.2 Enrolment Analysis

The total current student enrolment of both private and public secondary schools as per the 2014/15 data is 47,913 compared to an enrolment of 31,072 in 2011 – an increase of 54% over four years. Although this is a rapid increase in enrolment, it is slower than the 20% recorded annually between 2008 and 2011.

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<sup>165</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2012. *Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-2016*

<sup>166</sup> Somaliland- All Secondary School Statistics 2011 Africa Educational Trust (also shared with Ministry of Education)

<sup>167</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2012. *Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-2016*

The age category of those attending secondary school is not well defined. This is because the real entry age for primary education varies due to access and participation-related conditions, resulting late starting and in turn a high variation in the ages of those who start secondary school. Additionally, late starting and mixed age grouping for secondary school starters is not reflected clearly in teacher training strategies looking (i.e. pedagogy for multi-age group teaching).

### Secondary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)

The secondary level Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) compares those students enrolled, regardless of age, with the population of the appropriate age range for the corresponding school level. For Somaliland, the official school age range for secondary education is 14-17 years inclusive.

Table 29. Secondary GER for the Year 2014/15<sup>168</sup>

GER	Boys	Girls	Total
Enrolment in secondary (Forms 1-4)	29,334	18,579	47,913
School age population (14-17 yrs)	116,703	108,720	225,423
Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in %	25.1	17.1	21.3

*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

The data above also demonstrates a significant gender equality gap, with the GPI at .68 meaning that gross enrolment levels for boys are much higher than for girls. Data also shows that 78.7% of the secondary school age population are not in secondary schools. This could be a combination of over-aged students attending the primary schools (as shown by higher GER levels at primary level), and other children in the 14-17 year age group out-of-school.

### Secondary Net Enrolment Ratio (NER)

The secondary level Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) measures the share of enrolment of children of the appropriate school age group (ages 14-17) to the total population of that age in the corresponding level of schooling.

Table 30. Secondary NER for the Year 2014/15<sup>169</sup>

NER	Boys	Girls	Total
Enrolment of secondary (Forms 1-4) (14-17 yrs)	13,575	9,803	23,378
School age population (14-17 years)	116,703	108,720	225,423
Net Enrolment Rate (NER) in %	11.6	9.0	10.4

*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

A comparison on the numbers enrolled shown in table 31 and 32 show that over half the learners in secondary schools are outside the expected age bracket. It is assumed that most of these will be overage adolescents and youth. This may be due to late entry as not many start school aged 6, or repetition of different years or even learners taking a year out of school to earn money for paying school fees. NER thus provides useful information regarding late school starting and multi-age classrooms, but GER offers a more useful understanding of overall participation rates in education.

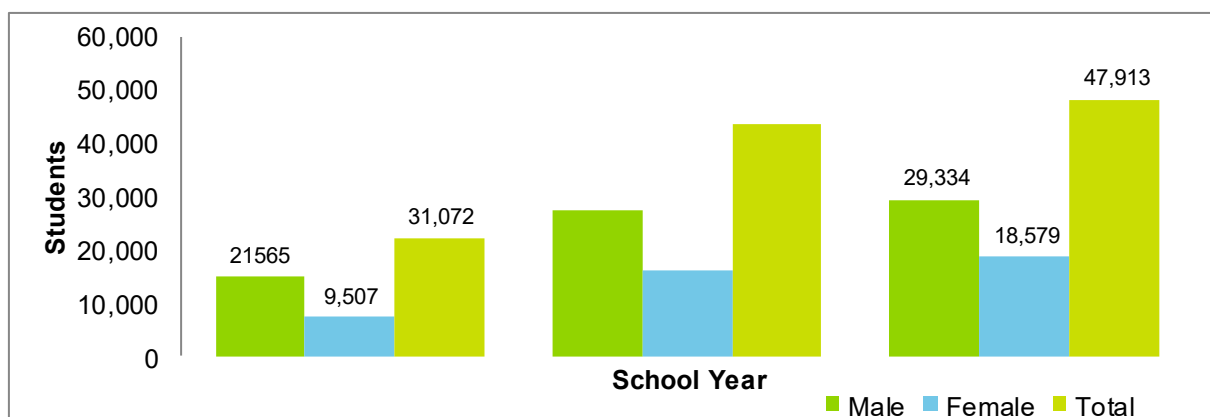
168 Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15

169 Ibid

## Enrolment Trends

As seen in Figure 50, enrolment has increased over the four years in secondary schools, with a rate of increase of 54% between 2010-11 and 2014-15. There was no data available for the first school year period covered in the ESSP (2011-12) and the data for 2012-13 appears unreliable. Thus, this report uses figures from 2010/11 to compare numbers before the start of the outgoing ESSP with those of last year of the outgoing ESSP (a span of four years).

Figure 51. ENROLMENT TRENDS FROM 2011 TO 2015<sup>170</sup>

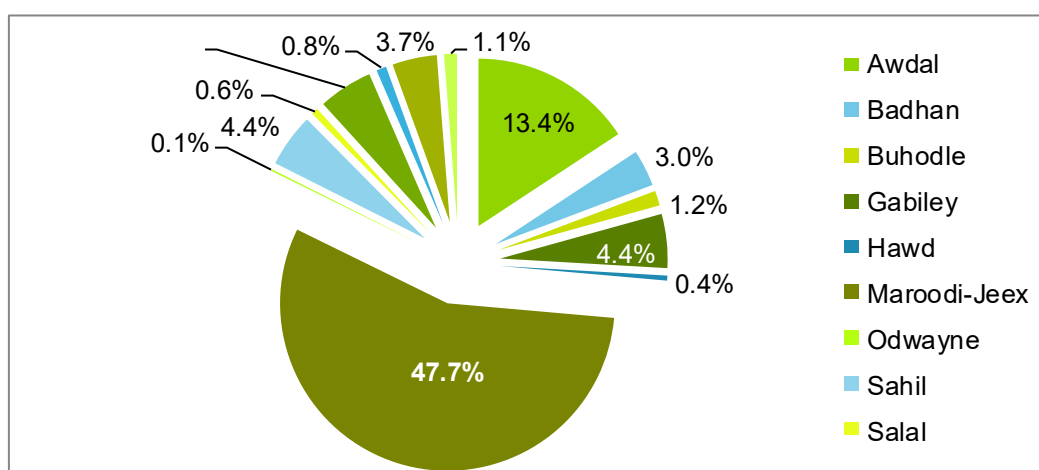


*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

The total enrolment of secondary education in 2011 was 31,072 but this increased over the next four years to 47,913 i.e. by the 2014/15. This represents a rate of growth of 54%, averaging at approximately 13.5% per year.

Figure 52. SECONDARY ENROLMENT FOR 2014/15 –% AGE DISTRIBUTION PER REGION<sup>171</sup>

\*ENROLMENT BY REGION



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

Figures 51 and 52 show that nearly half of Somaliland secondary students are studying in Maroodi-Jeex (i.e. Hargeisa, the capital). Of the remainder, a majority are in the towns of

<sup>170</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>171</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. *Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15*

Gabiley, Boroma, Buroa and Erigavo, with schools mostly operating on double shifts to accommodate demand in urban areas. Schools in smaller settlements such as Garadag or Eyl attract a smaller number of learners, normally small single stream classes. Evidence from several education partners also suggests that “forced” school construction in rural areas without sufficient primary feeder schools contributed to low participation at secondary level.

Figure 53. ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION BY REGION FOR 2014/15<sup>172</sup>

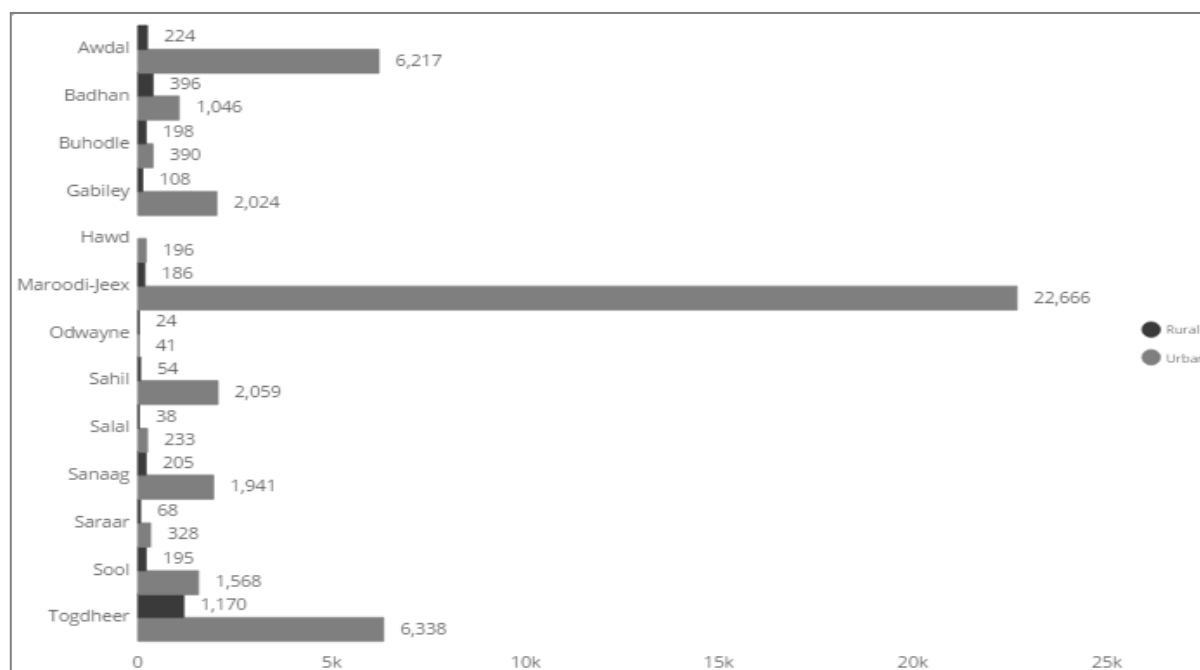
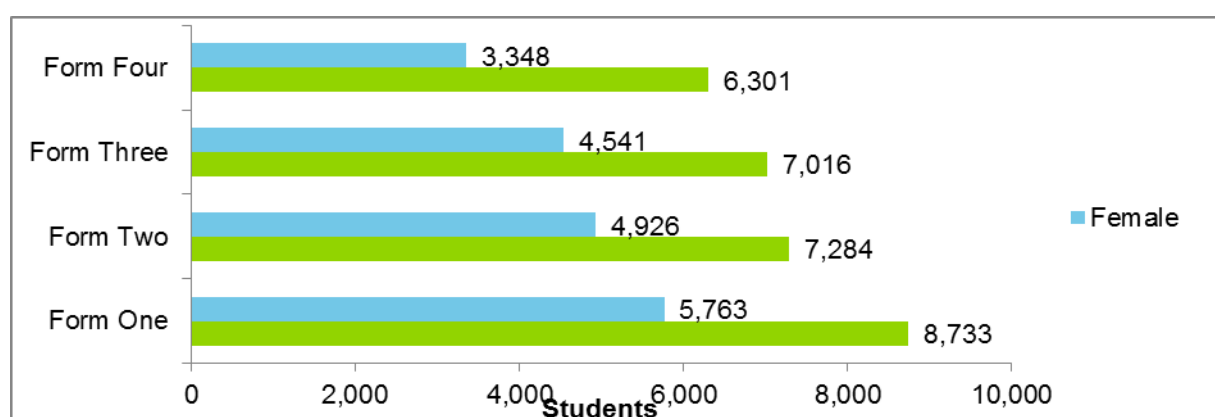


Figure 53 above shows the divide of student enrolment between rural schools and urban schools for each region. The figures show that 94% of secondary school students are found in urban schools. It should also be noted that female enrolment is approximately 7% lower in rural areas.

Figure 54. SECONDARY ENROLMENT BY FORM FOR THE YEAR 2014/15<sup>173</sup>



**Enrolment by Form.** As shown in Figure 54, enrolment in the final year of secondary school is lower than in the first year by approximately 28% for boys and 42% for girls. There is no

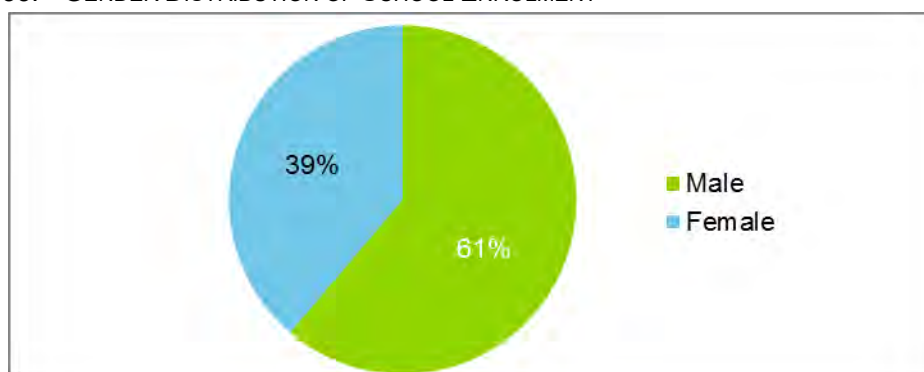
<sup>172</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15

<sup>173</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15

survey data with a cohort study that could confirm the reasons for this difference. However, the report suggests two reasons. Firstly it is the result of the 13.5% increase in enrolment over the past several years resulting in approximately 54% increase in school enrolment over time. This accounts for some of the differences between form 1 and form 4, i.e. it is a result of successful expansion each year. Secondly, dropout rates increase from Form 1 to Form 4, which accounts for the remaining differences between levels. For example, the Somaliland Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (2014) observed that one in every two of the primary school age children are in primary school and this declines even further to one in five of secondary school age children attending secondary school<sup>174</sup>. Again, this observation could be the result of the increases in enrolment each year and/or as a result of dropout.

**Enrolment by Gender.** On average the secondary school enrolment rate for girls is just under 40%, as shown in Figure 54. Gender distribution of school enrolment, 2014-2015<sup>175</sup>

Figure 55. GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL ENROLMENT



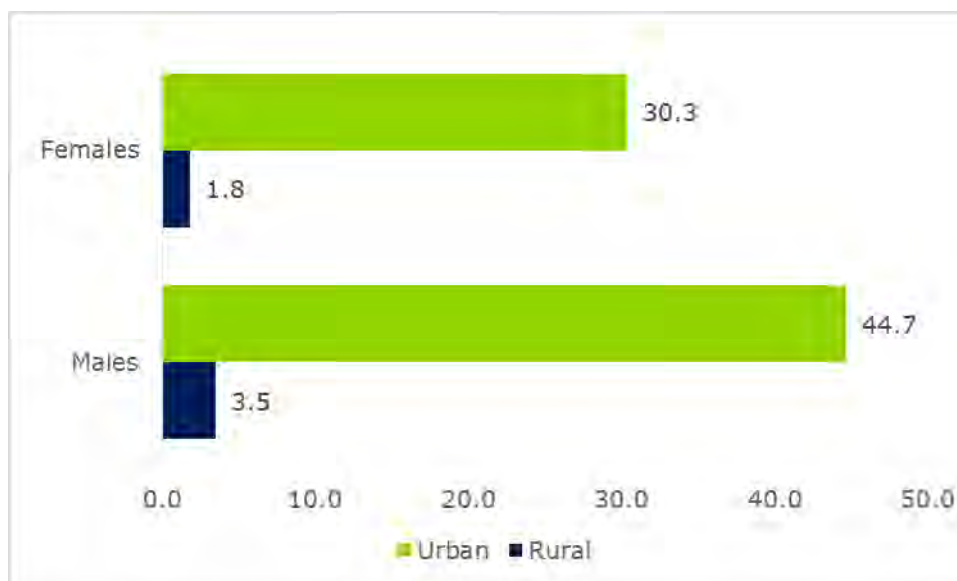
Source: *Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

In addition, the Gross Enrolment Rate for girls in 2015 was approximately 14% higher in urban secondary schools compared to rural secondary (Figure 55).

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<sup>174</sup> Republic of Somaliland Ministry of National Planning and Development, UNICEF. 2014. *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2011: Final Report*, 2014.  
<sup>175</sup> Ibid.

Figure 56. RURAL VS. URBAN DISAGGREGATION OF SECONDARY GER, 2015<sup>176</sup>



**Secondary Enrolment by Ownership.** Just over half (55.6%) of the secondary school students are enrolled in government-owned schools. Thus, private schools play an important role in the secondary sector. Though this is not surprising as the majority of services they provide are in urban areas where economic conditions are better and families can afford higher school costs. Private schools also have better gender equality, with 43.1% of students in private schools being girls in contrast to only 35.3% in government-run schools – though this difference also springs from the reality that public secondary schools are situated in more disadvantaged regions and social barriers are barriers to girl’s participation in education.

Regionally, government enrolment is highest in the Maroodi-Jeex followed by Togdheer, but there is no government secondary enrolment in Hawd region. In more rural or marginalized regions such as Odwayne, Sahil, Salal, Saraar and Soo, there are only government-run and no privately run secondary schools. As such, public schools remain the only means by which adolescents and youth in marginalized areas can access secondary education.

**Secondary Enrolment of Children with Special Educational Needs.** The Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15 categorizes disability into visual, hearing and movement impairment. Figure 56 shows that a total of 650 disabled students were enrolled in secondary school over the 2014-15 period. Of these, 76.9% are visually disabled, 19.8% are hearing disabled and the rest are movement disabled. This indicates that visual disability is the biggest problem in special needs of secondary schools. Therefore, the inclusion of Braille in the curriculum and learning materials, as well as other inclusive measures for students with hearing and mobility impairment in the secondary education sector should continue to be priority areas. The gender distribution of students with special needs in secondary schools is 56.7% (boys) to 43.3% (girls)<sup>177</sup>. Whilst this could indicate that more

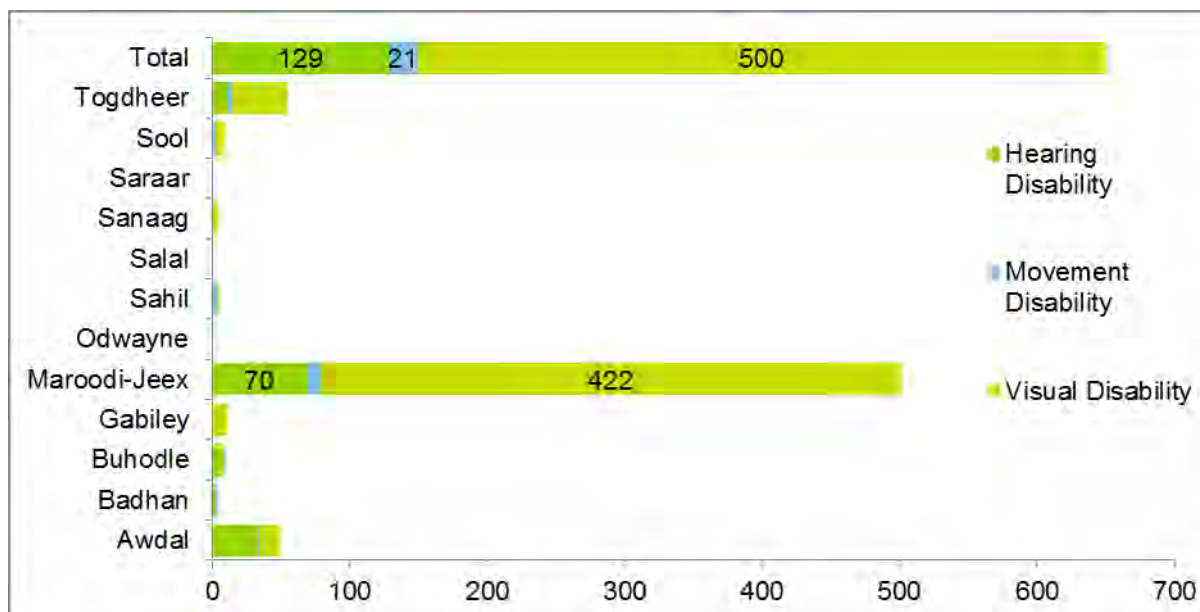
<sup>176</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15

<sup>177</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS Special Needs Education Working Group Consult, October 2016.

boys than girls have special needs in this age group, it could also be a reflection of the higher proportion of boys in school overall. Most secondary schools that provide education for students with special needs are found in the Maroodi-Jeex region.

In addition, the Ministry needs to review its very narrow definition of special needs. Consideration needs to also be given to learners with a range of learning difficulties. Within the Somali context, and especially with the numbers of displaced peoples, far more attention needs to be given to slow learners and those with behavioural problems, especially related to trauma. These are factors that can be very disruptive within the secondary schools.

Figure 57. ENROLMENT OF SECONDARY CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS FOR 2014/15<sup>178</sup>



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

**Enrolment by Distance to School and Mode of Transportation.** Of 47,913 secondary students, more than 45.3% travel two or more kilometers to school, 77.1% of whom travel to school on foot, with only 22.9% using other transportation means. It is evident that larger distance (>2 to 3 hours to walk) poses a barrier to school access, in particular for girls and more so for those in rural areas<sup>179</sup>.

### Impacts of high school fees

**Financial barriers for the poor.** Over the last four years, the number of schools have expanded from 86 to 100, although the places available are still limited and most of the schools are concentrated in urban areas, thus limiting access for children from the rural / pastoralist communities to. The Ministry has set a standard fee rate for public schools of SISH 15,000 (USD 2.35) per month but this is not universally adhered to and many government schools charge up to USD 20 a month.

**Distorting effect on teacher motivation and equity.** High school fees are charged in order to subsidize teacher salaries with private schools charging up to USD 50. Many of the

<sup>178</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15

<sup>179</sup> See, for example: <https://www.globalcitizen.org/en/content/10-barriers-to-education-around-the-world-2/>



best secondary school teachers in public schools also teach in private schools, with the best teachers in public schools transferring to private schools where pay is higher. In this sub-sector, as elsewhere, private tuition also occurs, giving an advantage to those students who can afford it and benefiting teachers who are paid by parents. This practice raises issues of equity (and perhaps the effectiveness of those teachers in their 'normal' classes). However, this practice also keeps the best teachers within the government system as it ensures that they earn a reasonable salary and are thus less inclined to move to private schools. The issues of how to balance private and public partnerships in schools needs to be addressed at policy and stakeholder levels.

## **Recommendations for secondary education enrolment**

The MOEHS states its Policy Priorities related to enrolment as:

- To improve enrolment rates to achieve a newly stated but realistic GER target
- To improve the overall completion rates by reducing dropout and improve transition
- Ensure valid certification of achievement at the end of secondary education
- To ensure acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and attitude that can promote further learning and constructive lifestyles<sup>180</sup>.

Since 2012, there have been signs of improved school enrolment which has increased by a rate of 54% from 31,072 to 47,913. However, there are inequities with enrolment rates between urban and rural localities. The analysis shows that education planners and decision-makers should give more attention to addressing factors that undermine enrolment in rural areas, with the same being true for primary education. Students who travel long distances are most likely victims of the uneven distribution of schools between rural and urban localities. However, improving learning of children at primary level through 'feeder schools', increasing support to pastoral communities, and addressing financial barriers are all key factors to address. Additionally, a new strategy should be designed to cater for special-needs students in terms of skilled delivery (for example, provision of Braille-based learning materials, sign language facilities and a special more inclusive approach to the curriculum for students with learning disabilities. Further research is required in the following areas:

- Improve the EMIS statistics for Secondary schools including studies of cohorts
- Pilot and document workable strategies for serving out-of-school children
- Identifying causes and effects of regional distribution and ownership of schools (i.e. private versus government run schools and effects of school fees on equity and teacher performance)
- Complete a study on the role of secondary boarding schools for improving access, especially for poorer and pastoralist families.
- Evidence on strategies to improve gender equity.

There is also a need to develop a strategy to construct more secondary schools to cater for the growing student numbers in urban areas – though this requires careful consideration so as not to aggravate rural-urban migration pressures.

### **7.3 Internal Efficiency**

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## Teaching and Learning Processes

A survey using purposive sampling techniques conducted by the Somaliland MOEHS Department of Policy and Planning<sup>181</sup> aiming to explore the types of teaching and learning processes being used in classrooms found that:

27.3% [of teachers] used teacher-centered/lecture methods while 59.1% used demonstration methods, experimental method and group work with 13.6% citing other methods. With regard to other methods not currently used in the school for teaching which the schools would wish to adopt: 27.3% recommended use of experiment methods, 27.3% recommended lecturing and group work, and 22.7% recommended use of outings, visual aids display, while 18.2% recommended use of other participatory method.

Whilst the above information may be weak on definitions and not be representative of the Secondary sub-sector, it is illustrative of the challenges faced by teachers when it comes to teaching pedagogy. It may in fact underestimate the extent to which lessons are teacher centered as the understanding of child-centered learning is very wide. “It’s child-centered because the teacher asked them questions” (Quote from an inspector observing peer teaching).

## Teacher Qualifications and Capacity

The draft teachers’ policy document shows that the minimum standard of qualification and certification for secondary education teachers requires at a minimum that teachers hold a diploma in teaching. As of 2014-15182, 993 teachers (55%) are qualified at diploma level or above, as shown in Figure 56. Over a third of teachers qualifications were “not defined”, presenting doubts on the quality of education for students being taught by potentially unqualified staff. This contrasts with 2011 when out of 1,112 teachers only 12%, i.e. 178 teachers were not qualified. Thus, over the last four years, while teacher recruitment has kept pace with increasing enrolment, teacher qualification has fallen behind. Moreover, as shown in Table 33 the distribution of secondary teachers between urban and rural areas shows massive inequities in the provision of services. Some 90% of secondary teachers are stationed in ‘urban’ areas compared to only 10% in rural areas. While this can be understood in a number of different ways, such as limited access and supply of primary education facilities in rural areas decreasing demand at secondary level, it also reflects the impact that inequities in primary education which are reproduced at secondary level and further aggravate vulnerability and risk for young people in rural areas.

Table 31. Secondary Teacher distribution Rural vs. Urban

Region	Urban			Rural			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Somaliland	1,553	70	1,623	173	8	181	1,726	78	<b>1,804</b>
% in group	96%	4%	100%	96%	4%	100%	96%	4%	
Rural vs. Urban			90%			10%			

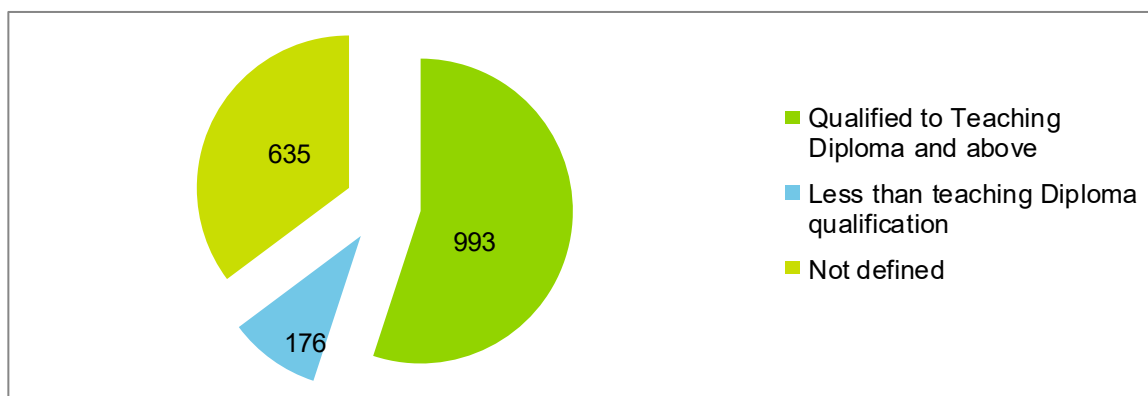
*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

<sup>181</sup> Isaak, M. H. Capacity gaps assessment report for the ministry of education and higher studies of Somaliland. Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, Department of Policy and Planning. 2013.

<sup>182</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS: 2015. Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/2015

The average percentage of qualified secondary school teachers was 55.1%. These comprised of 55.2% of total male teachers and 52.3% of total female teachers. As shown in Figure 57, while the proportion of qualified teachers is higher among female teachers, in absolute numbers this translates to only 2.3% of all qualified teachers being female as only 4% of the total teaching population is female.

Figure 58. TOTAL NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATION STATUS, 2014-15

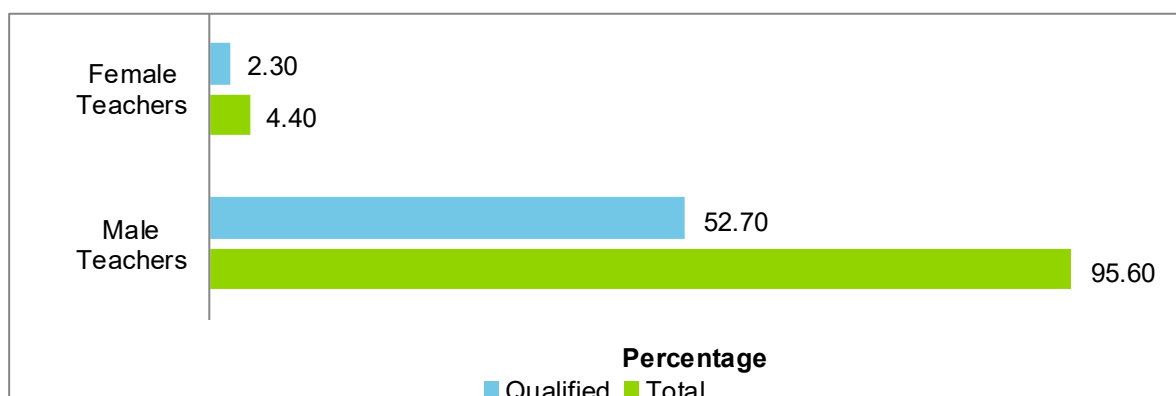


*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

The percentage of qualified secondary school teachers has decreased from 84% in 2010/11 to 55.1% in 2014/15. While this suggests a significant decline, caveats exist due to the accuracy of teachers' data and that the qualification of some teachers is not defined in the ESSP database (i.e. some qualified teachers may be listed as not being qualified). Furthermore, according to the MOEHS Education Sector Strategic Plan (2012-2016), many secondary teachers obtained their training outside Somaliland and thus may not be recorded correctly inside Somaliland<sup>183</sup>.

In Somaliland there are only two secondary teacher training and education facilities at present (Amoud University and Hargeisa University). In terms of demand and supply, a 13.5% annual growth rate in school enrolment requires a similar increase in teachers, i.e. approximately 250 new teachers each year. It is possible for these two institutions to meet this demand if funding is available to develop their capacity to ensure teachers in Somaliland receive appropriate training to meet qualification criteria established by the government.

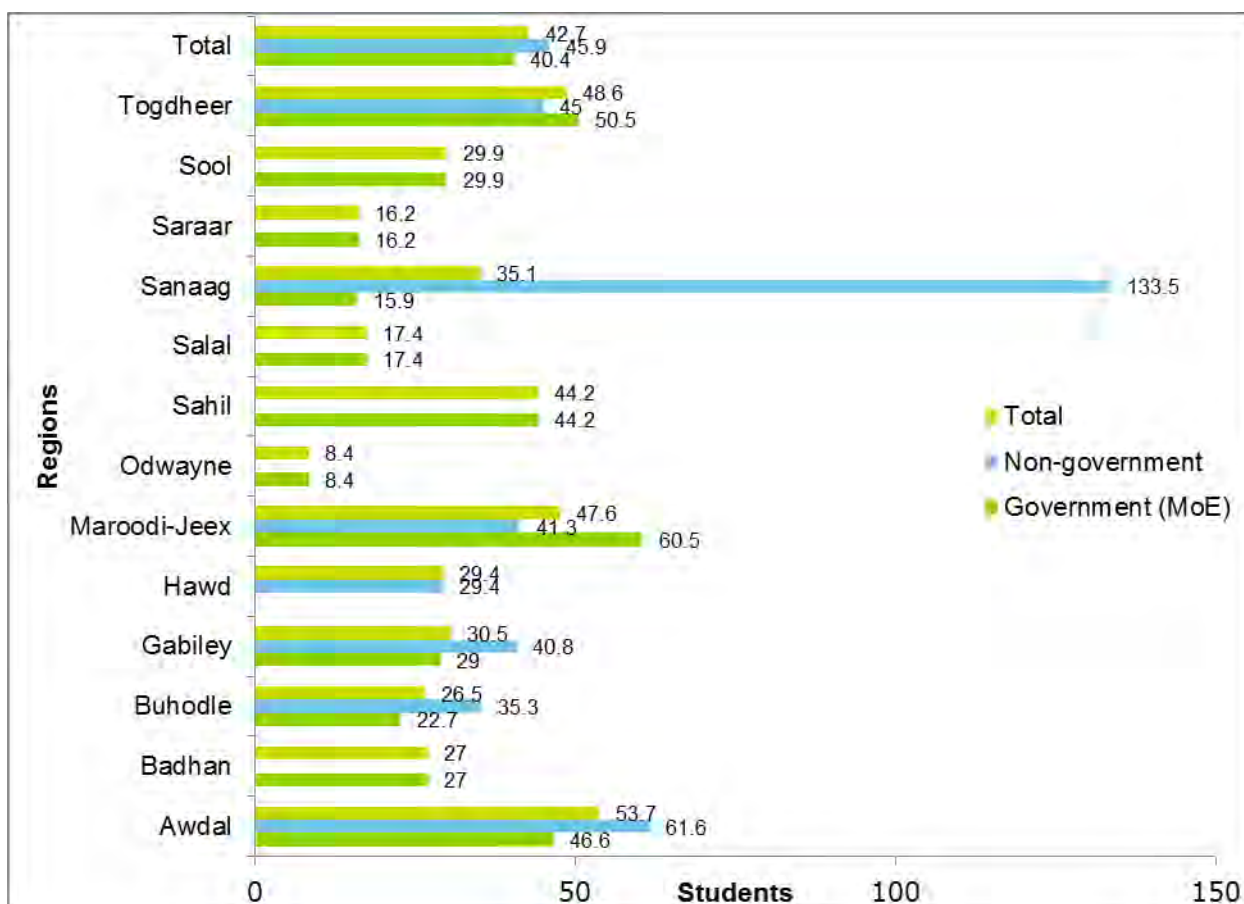
Figure 59. TOTAL TEACHERS AND QUALIFIED TEACHERS BY GENDER



<sup>183</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15

## Learning Inputs

Figure 60. SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPIL-CLASSROOM RATIO FOR 2014/15<sup>184</sup>



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

**Pupil-Classroom Ratio.** In Somaliland, the total secondary education Pupil Classroom Ratio (PCR) is 42.7 students per classroom. The PCR in government-managed schools is 40.4 students per classroom and in the non-government secondary schools it is 45.9 students per classroom. This indicates that on average private schools have slightly larger class sizes than government schools. This is probably because of the small class sizes in rural areas where government managed public schools have a much greater presence compared to private run secondary schools which are concentrated in urban areas. However, in Hargeisa private schools have significantly smaller class sizes than their government equivalents, suggesting the government run-schools are more accessible to poorer urban households resulting in overcrowding.

In addition, as shown in Figure 58 there is remarkable variation between regions. PCR is above the national average in the regions of Awdal, Togdheer, Maroodi-Jeex and Sahil regions. The lowest PCR is found in Odwayne region at 8.4 students per classroom in government schools. As mentioned earlier, Odwayne (along with Badhan, Odwayne, Sahil, Salal, Saraar and Soo Regions) do not have non-government schools (i.e. private schools). In large measure this is because these areas experience greater levels of economic

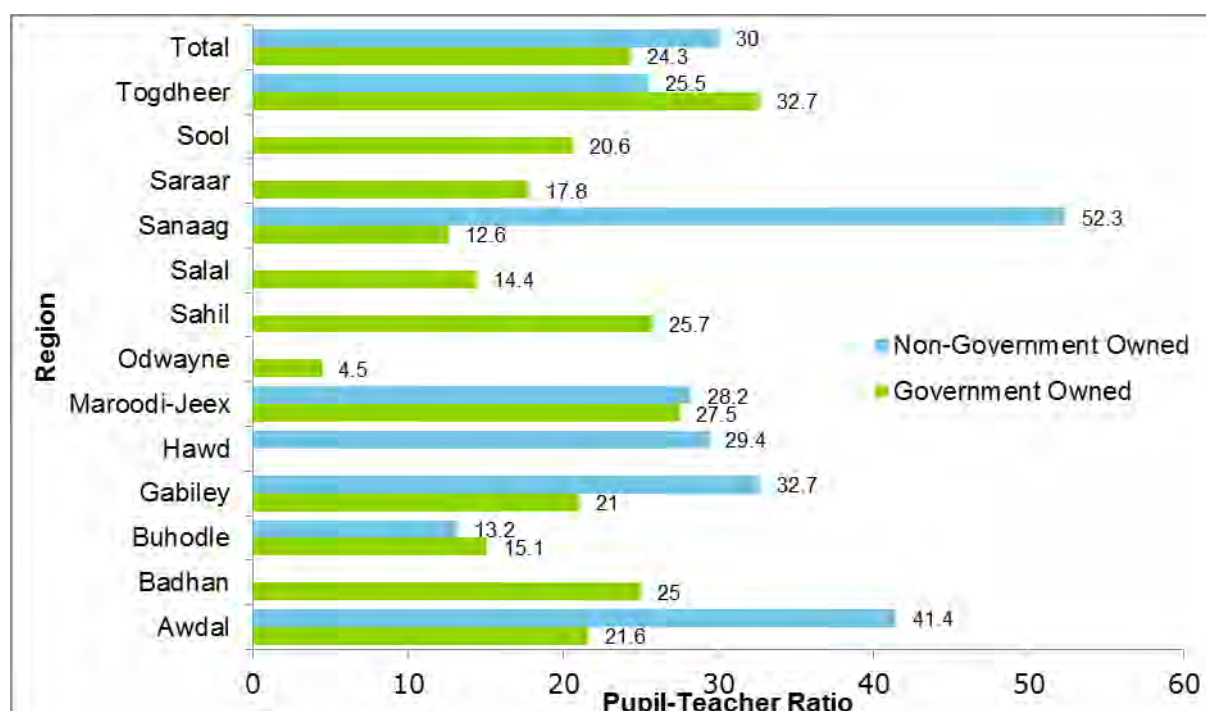
<sup>184</sup> MOEHS EMIS Data

marginalization and poverty, more rural and as such are supported through government services only.

**Pupil-Teacher Ratio.** The total teaching force currently serving in the secondary education sector is 1,804 teachers, of whom only 76 are female (or 4%, see Table 33). This compares with 1, 112 teachers in 2011 and thus represents a rate of increase of 62%. This matches well with the growth in student numbers. The teaching force was expanding by a rate of 62% while student enrolment expanded by rate of 54% resulting in a slightly improved student teacher ratio. However, as in the primary sub-sector this was achieved by using an increasing number of unqualified teachers which may have had a negative impact upon quality of learning in secondary schools.

The total secondary education Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) is 26.6 pupils per teacher. In Government-run secondary schools the PTR is 24.3 pupils per teacher, while in non-government run schools the PTR is 30 pupils per teacher. A higher PTR in non-government-run private schools indicates that such schools overall have slightly larger class sizes compared to public secondary schools. However, reasons for this are similar to PCR above. Class sizes in public schools are on average smaller because of their geographic distribution, more in rural areas, and because of the types of communities they serve, poorer and more disadvantaged. In urban areas, class sizes in public schools tend to be larger than class sizes for private schools. For example, secondary school PTR is above the overall average in the regions of Togdheer, Hawd, Awdal, and Maroodi-Jeex. Conversely, Odwayne has a low PTR of 4.5 and reflective of the low enrolment rates and PCR in this region. This is predictable and is part of the pattern of small rural schools due to a small and dispersed population base.

Figure 61. THE SECONDARY EDUCATION PUPIL-TEACHER RATIOS PER REGION AND OWNERSHIP FOR 2014-15<sup>185</sup>



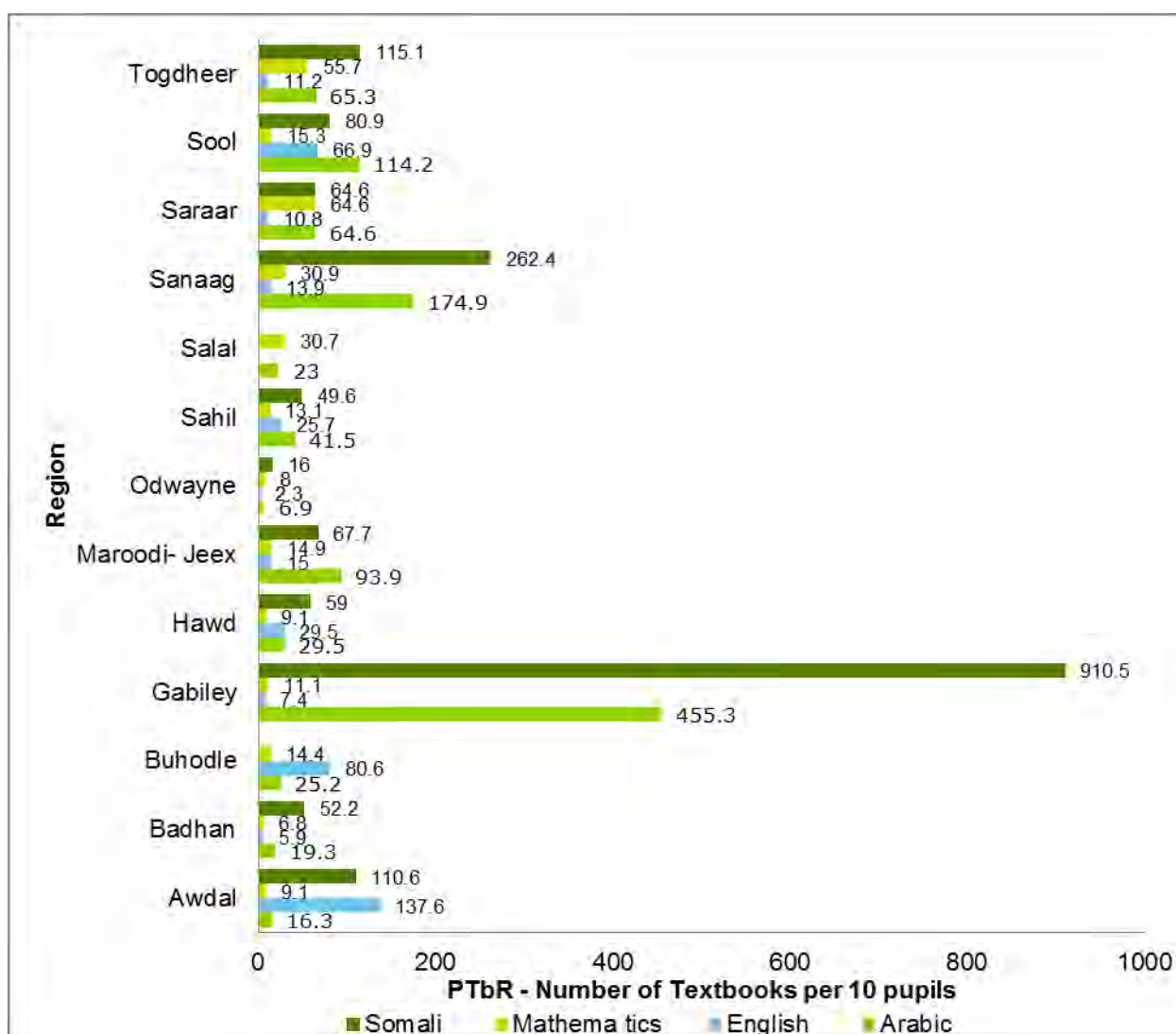
185 MOEHS EMIS Data

**Pupil Textbook Ratio.** Pupil Textbook Ratio (PTbR) shows the number of pupils who have access to textbooks by subject. The Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook for 2014/15 used Mathematics, English, Somali and Arabic as a measure of secondary school PTbR.

The data shows that there is a severe shortage of secondary textbooks in all the subjects. The Ministry needs to agree a realistic policy as to what is an acceptable ratio that will ensure all learners have access to textbooks and how textbooks should be used to enhance learning.

Regarding other educational materials, a purposive survey<sup>186</sup> found that the most common stationery needs to support learning in schools are: *A4 paper, register book, markers, flip charts and chalk, glue and tapes*. These were found adequately supplied in only 27.3% of the schools, while 72.7% of the schools had shortfalls. Those with the greatest shortfalls were public schools and those in rural areas.

Figure 62. PUPIL TEXTBOOK RATIO FOR SOMALI, MATHEMATICS, ENGLISH AND ARABIC TEXTBOOKS<sup>187</sup>



<sup>186</sup> The management University of Africa. (2013). Capacity gaps assessment report for the ministry of Education and Higher studies of Somaliland

<sup>187</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/2015

## Learning Environment

**Schools.** There are 100 secondary schools, most of which are located in urban areas, with 37 private schools and the rest public<sup>188</sup>. Of the 63 public secondary schools, seven operate double shift systems in order to maximize learning spaces and accommodate high student number in urban areas.

**Classrooms.** The total number of classrooms in formal secondary school has increased progressively over the period of the outgoing ESSP, from 679 classrooms in 2010/11 to 1,122 in 2014/15<sup>189</sup>. This consists of growth in both government and private schools combined and represent a rate of growth of 65% in new learning spaces, and exceed the 54% rate of growth in new students in the education system. This is reinforced by the 2014 ratio of classrooms to learners at an average of 43 pupils per classroom (Figure 58).

However, according to a capacity assessment of the Somaliland Education sector conducted in 2014:

100% of the respondents indicated that there were no adequate classrooms for teaching needs. The nature of the shortfall in teaching space capacity includes: a mismatch between classes and number of pupils in the school (reported in 54.7% of the cases), space not enough for students in general (reported 31.8% of the cases) and students and classes mismatch. With regard to office space in the school, 45.5% of the head teachers reported adequacy of currently existing office space while 54.5% reported inadequacy. Most of the schools reporting shortage of office space have no staffroom for teachers (54%) while deputy head teachers are without an office in 20% of the schools.

Nevertheless, available data in Figure 58 suggests that the building of classrooms has kept pace with new student enrolments, and there is generally enough space for students. This however varies with overcrowding in some urban secondary schools. The student-teacher ratio in government schools is also reasonable at 24 pupils per teacher, which suggests that the government has strived to fulfill commitments to address growing needs in secondary schools. Nevertheless, it may be that the majority of new classrooms have been built in rural areas where class sizes are small. As a result, programmes have not met demand in urban areas. Further evidence is needed to address this challenge and overcrowding in urban secondary schools, most of which are likely government-run public schools.

**Use of double shift classrooms, rather than double shift teaching.** Options for addressing overcrowding in urban schools include increasing the use of double-shift class usage – rather than double-shift teaching per se. This ensures a better use of expensive fixed resources including labs, libraries and classrooms and addresses potential grievances that teachers may express by allowing space for newly recruited teachers to take on second shift classes. This will accommodate the need for 5 hours of contact teaching stipulated in

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188 Republic of Somaliland MOEHS, 2015. *Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/15*

189 Republic of Somaliland Ministry of Education and Higher Education, 2015. *Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/2015*

the curriculum framework and can be easily accommodate using a double-shift classroom usage approach.

At present over 90% of secondary schools are single shift, whilst 4.1% are double shift. It can be observed that only 7 double shift secondary schools exist in the urban areas of Awdal, Badhan, Maroodi-Jeex and Togdheer<sup>190</sup>. Thus, an examination of the advantages and disadvantages of a two shift system is needed, including a cost-benefit analysis.

**Curriculum.** The curriculum is of a general academic nature and has not been assessed for its relevance to national development and labor market needs since 2006, which itself was an evaluation of limited scope. In particular, the curriculum needs to be assessed as to whether it produces the skills needed to make a positive impact on the economy and improving resilience and social cohesion at community level.

As a result of the 2006/7-curriculum review, Agriculture and Business Education subjects have been offered as new elective subjects and it was recommended that others be added later. However, this policy is now under review with a significant section of the Ministry arguing that they return to the original 10 academic subjects. Under the new curriculum framework emphasis is placed on mathematics, technology and science. These require equipment and materials that are expensive to obtain and maintain. The same applies to libraries, and other facilities in schools which are generally poor resourced.

**Libraries and laboratories.** All the respondents in a purposive survey<sup>191</sup> indicated that there are insufficient and inadequate learning facilities such as Laboratories and Library in their respective institutions. Further, where these facilities exist, 71% of the schools reported lack of adequate resources and equipment needed to make the facilities useful such as laboratory appliances/apparatus and library books. Up to 45% of the schools reported having library facilities but lacking laboratory facilities while 55% of the schools have neither library not laboratory facilities. Science can be taught without a science laboratory but cannot be taught without practical science equipment.

**Water and Sanitation.** Water and sanitation (often referred to as WASH) in schools aims to improve the health and learning performance of school-aged children – and by extension, of their families – by reducing the incidence of water and sanitation-related diseases. Schools in Somaliland have different sources of water. Some of the sources of water are piping, roof tanks, and wells of which only some are drinkable. Figure 61 shows the percentage of schools with drinkable water by region<sup>192</sup>.

Government monitoring data shows that some 50% of schools<sup>193</sup> lack sanitation and ablution facilities, while in the remaining 50% of schools facilities are deemed inadequate. In 95.5% of schools (including those with adequate sanitation facilities), a shortfall in ablution facilities was reported with 4.5% arguing that tools for digging and construction (such as wheelbarrow, forks and spade) were not available. Only 63.6% of schools report having separate ablution facilities for girls, while 36.4% do not.

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<sup>190</sup> Ibid.

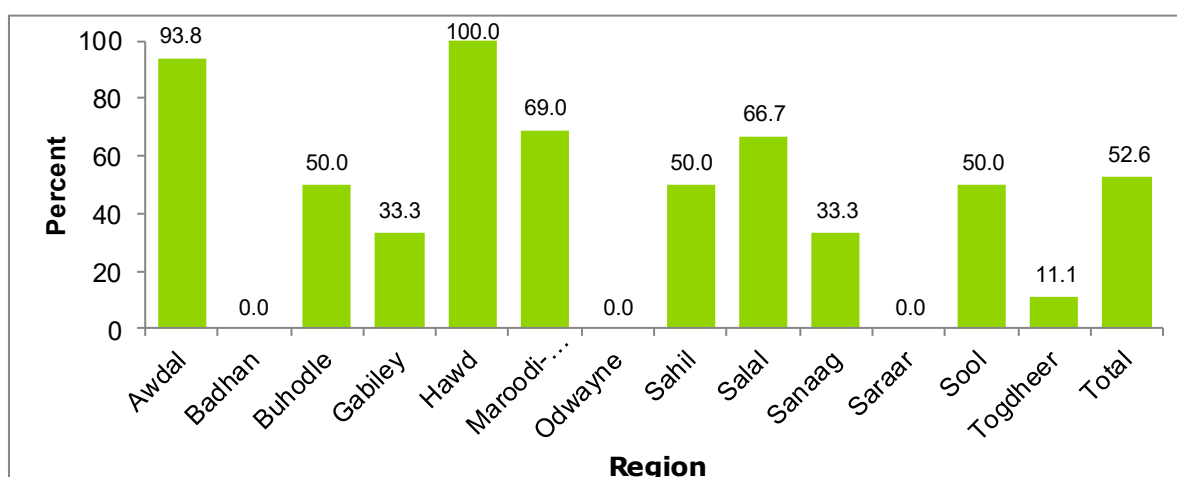
<sup>191</sup> Ibid.

<sup>192</sup> Somaliland MOEHS EMIS Data

<sup>193</sup> Ibid.



Figure 63. PERCENTAGE OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS WITH DRINKABLE WATER PER REGION



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016.* \*Note: 2013/14 water supply data used herein as the 2014/15 water supply data is incomplete.

### Recommendations for improving learning environment and learning-teacher processes

The provision of adequate resources including furniture, equipment, workshops, science laboratories and learning materials or textbooks requires further prioritization in the incoming ESSP period. The funding and procurement of the existing textbooks and procurement of new textbooks by subject should be a main concern of the MOEHS so as to achieve a realistic PTbR in all subjects supported by a policy of how textbooks are to be used to enhance learning. So as to improve learning environments for secondary schools and teaching-learning processes, findings in sections above suggest several useful activities as listed below.

- The MOEHS should carry out school audit and properly budget for the provision of basic teaching/learning aids.
- Head teachers should be encouraged and trained on school development plans so that they can identify needs and solicit required support early.
- The MOEHS should pursue some other alternative teaching aids such as charts, flipcharts, audio books, illustration diagrams and maps, illustrated books, and projectors in addition to ensuring adequate supply of chalk and other basic supplies in schools.

### External efficiencies

Data on secondary dropout/retention and transition/completion rates is limited as the EMIS was not designed to collect this information<sup>194</sup>. However, the Survey of Secondary Education in Somaliland (2008)<sup>195</sup> showed that 84.4% of pupils do not proceed to Form one (S1) from the first year of Primary school while the dropout rate from Form 1 to Form 4 is between 23% and 29%, as shown in Table 32.

<sup>194</sup> Feedback from MOEHS Working Group sessions held with ESA consultants in October, 2010

<sup>195</sup> UNESCO PEER, Somaliland MOEHS, 2008. Survey of Secondary Education in Somaliland 2008.

<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002167/216762e.pdf>



Table 32. Dropout Rate (%) (n=59)

Grade1 to S1	Total	
	Male	81.3
Female	89.0	
S1 to S2	Male	24.4
	Female	19.4
S2 to S3	Male	20.6
	Female	45.1
S3 to S4	Male	25.8
	Female	37.9

*Extracted from Survey of Secondary Education in Somaliland 2008*

As for repetition, a total of 89 students repeated classes in 2007/2008. Boys constituted the 67.4% of total repetitions. Out of the total students who started school in grade 1 in 2001, only 15.6% of pupils proceeded to Form 1. Of these, 18.7% are boys while 11.1 are girls. Transition to other grades/levels is as follows; S1 to S2- 76.7%, S2 to S3- 72.4% and S3 to S4- 71.8%<sup>196</sup>. As of 2012, 5% of females and 12% of males in the population aged 25 and above have attained at least secondary education in Somalia (including Somaliland)<sup>197</sup>.

#### 7.4 Gender Equity in the Secondary Sub-Sector

The GPI for secondary level is now .68, which represents a slight improvement during the period of the outgoing ESSP. In 2010/11, just before the ESSP was implemented, the ratio of boys to girls was just over 2:1. Specifically 31% of learners were girls and 69% were boys. By 2015, this ratio had improved to almost 2:3 with 39% girls and 61% boys. Improvements in the secondary sector gender parity ratio reflects work done and improvements achieved at the primary level in previous years as the secondary sector is always dependent on ratios transitioning from the primary sector

**Private vs. Public sectors.** The private sector has always had a better ratio of girls to boys compared to government schools. In 2011, private school enrolment was 37% girls and 63% boys. By 2015, this improved to 43% girls and 57% boys. However, neither government nor private systems have achieved the desired 1:1 ratio, or 50% of each sex.

One reason for private schools having a better ratio of girls to boys is that poorer families typically tend to send their children to government schools where costs are less. Additionally, boy's education is given priority over girls if a choice has to be made between the two due to financial constraints. Moreover, private school officials claim that parents have greater trust in the security of their girls in private schools, especially the Arabic medium schools. These schools generally have single sex classrooms, which conservative parents prefer, and are therefore more willing to send their girls to school. Overall, poverty, social attitudes to women and early marriages, are often cited as the main social-cultural barriers that reduce girl's participation in secondary education.

<sup>196</sup> UNESCO PEER, Somaliland MOEHS, 2008. *Survey of Secondary Education in Somaliland 2008*. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002167/216762e.pdf>

<sup>197</sup> UNDP. *Somalia Human Development Report, 2012*.

## Analysis of Policy Priorities and Achievements from the ESSP (2012-2016) on Equity and Equality for Secondary level

A range of challenges with improving equity for learners at secondary school level relate to equity dimensions of: relevant quality learning materials, geographic location, and financial barriers. The table below offers a summary analysis of achievements during the outgoing ESSP period, using an equity lens, at addressing key supply and demand barriers levels of achievement during the period of the outgoing ESSP, and recommendations for improvement in the next ESSP period.

Table 33. Equity analysis on Education Resource Distribution for secondary schools.

Policy Priority	Achievement and comments	Recommendations for Improvement
Provision of adequate resources and facilities i.e. furniture, equipment, ICT; technical workshops, science equipment, adequate supply of curriculum materials; sport facilities; security fence, open play grounds, toilets, clean safe drinking water, hygienic environment etc.	<p><b>Partially achieved:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• shortage of secondary textbooks in all the subjects is the main problem of the Somaliland secondary schools. Shortages still severe in rural areas.</li> <li>• 64.0% of the Somaliland secondary schools have access to water</li> <li>• pupil Classroom Ratio (PCR) is 42.7</li> <li>• 5.9% of secondary schools are single shift and the rest are double shift</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provision of sufficient textbooks</li> <li>• Provision of mobile science labs, increased computer labs and other equipment, but caution needed not to redirect investment from cost-effective and high return investments</li> <li>• Establishment of more libraries</li> <li>• Attention needed to ensuring teacher supplemental materials in place such as lesson plans and instructional guides</li> <li>• English text books to be enhanced with Somali language 'tip notes'</li> <li>• Greater attention to provision distribution of resources to rural areas</li> </ul>
Improved supplies of teaching-learning materials	<p><b>Partially achieved</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• regular provision teaching and learning materials in urban areas but not adequate.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase provision of teaching and learning aids.</li> </ul>
<sup>198</sup> Renewal of the curriculum which can be delivered through a range of appropriate textbooks	<p><b>Partially achieved</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• curriculum reviewed and new syllabus developed and disseminated</li> <li>• textbook development ongoing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop and Produce secondary textbooks, teacher guide and teaching.</li> <li>• Further revise curriculum for pastoral/nomadic communities</li> </ul>
<sup>199</sup> Well-equipped/furnished special workrooms	<p><b>Partially achieved</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• new science labs were</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provision of mobile science labs for secondary schools.</li> </ul>

<sup>198</sup> SWES report

<sup>199</sup> Horumarinta ELMiga report; SYLI report

Policy Priority	Achievement and comments	Recommendations for Improvement
such as science laboratories/ computer laboratories/English language laboratories/gymnasium for physical education	<p>developed.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>existing laboratories were equipped.</li> <li>computer labs were established</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Establish more computer labs in secondary schools but not at the expense of addressing inequities in rural areas.</li> <li>Establish E- learning resource centers.</li> </ul>

## 7.5 Student Outcomes

The data on student outcomes is limited and the implications for this are severe, as student performance at primary and secondary levels is a key indicator of external efficiency. However, EMIS has data on the exit level candidates (Form 4) who achieved the minimum acceptable performance of 50% or above.

Data shows that of students who registered for the Form 4 examination (7,799 students), a total of 6,218 achieved 50% or above. This indicates that 79.7% of all Form 4 students registered for the exam, with 81.3% of students who completed the exam achieving scores of 50% and above. Only 1.9% of the registered students were absent from the exam. From the total registered male students, and from the total registered female students, 79.4% and 80.4% respectively achieved 50% and above. This indicates that a slightly higher percentage of female students scored 50% and above compared to males. However, there are significant gaps in the data, including the percentage difference in scores between the highest and lowest percentiles, and disaggregation by subject. Further analysis of learning outcomes at secondary level, or comparisons with 2011 outcomes, is recommended to be completed by the Examination Board within the ministry as it has control of the full results.

It should also be highlighted that the dearth of data on outcome learning available for this assessment is due to insufficient attention to strengthening learning assessment systems. Addressing this gap is an area to be prioritized in the upcoming ESSP period.

## 7.6 Conclusions and Recommendations

There are clear areas in which the government has been successful with goals set out in the outgoing ESSP being either fully or partially achieved. At the same time, persistent challenges have been encountered with achieving results in other areas and thus warrant further research to better understand and overcome barriers to progress. These are summarized below under 'successes', 'challenges', and 'areas that need further research'.

### Successes

- Enrolment rates.** Enrolment increased at a rate of 41% in enrolment over the previous four years. While overall enrolment rates remain incredibly low at 23% and the majority of adolescents and youth out of school, any progress can be considered a success given the low starting base of around 10%. Moreover, as enrolment rates appear to have improved well considering that they have increased irrespective of yearly population growth rates (i.e. enrolment figures have been increasing at a higher level than population growth with explains increased, rather than decreased, GER).

- **School Buildings.** The government has maintained a 65% rate of increase in classrooms, thus keeping up with increased enrolment and demand. As a result, the classroom-to-learners ratio of 43:1 is an acceptable average class size. However, this success may have been undermined if the majority of new classes were built in rural areas where demand is lower and thus not addressing increased demand in urban areas.
- **Teacher recruitment** has kept pace with the rise in student enrolment. There has been a 62% rate of increase in the number of teachers employed in secondary schools, and the teacher-student ratio remains at 23:1 a very good ratio at this level. However, the increase in quantity may well have been achieved at the cost of quality as the percentage of qualified teachers has fallen from 84% to 51%, with many teachers spending much of their time teaching in private schools.
- The **gender parity ratio** has improved significantly from .52 to .68 over the past four years. In 2011 the percentage of girls in schools across government and private schools was 31%. By 2014 this figure had risen to 39% in all schools with private schools having a ratio of 43%. However, using GPI as a standardized measure, the current .68 score still demonstrates major challenges for girls in education.

### Areas of concern

- Although **enrolment** has improved significantly, there remains a major shortfall when measured in terms the GER of 21%. Even when accounting for overage learning in primary school, the majority of 14-17 year olds remain out-of-school (estimated at over 50%).
- There are major **inequities** in the system that need to be addressed. These include both the rural-urban divide and the rich-poor divide. These may be the result of poor distribution of classes and teachers or may be the result of wealthier households able to pay for the best teachers and schools while poorer households are left under-resourced via the public school system.
- There have been major **deficiencies in all areas that deliver quality**. These include a decline in the numbers of teachers who are qualified and a lack of teaching learning materials, textbooks, equipment and general facilities.
- **Inclusive education** is far from being achieved. The definitions of special needs are very narrow and little is being done to address these needs at secondary level.
- The number of **female teachers** in the system is only 78, or only 4% of all secondary school teachers. The lack of female teachers and, therefore, lack of female role models for girls in school is a major source of concern. The ministry needs to address this issue by identifying why women are not being recruited and why they are not retained after being recruited.
- In the training of new teachers, **science and technology** needs to be given priority so that the ambition of putting emphasis on these areas can be fulfilled.
- The Ministry needs to explore the **right policies towards private schools**. These schools are essential to the delivery of education at secondary level in urban areas but, while establishing good quality education for those who can afford it, they must not be allowed to undermine government education or be incidentally subsidized by the government and thus divert resources from poorer households who are only able to access public schools. This is particularly needed to ensure government is able to adequately support adolescents and youth from urban poor households, pastoralist communities, and rural adolescents and youth.

### Areas that need further research

- **Dropout rates.** Further studies are needed into enrolment increases, transition rates and dropout rates. The increases in enrolment suggest that both transition and dropout rates are very low as the decline in class size between Form 1 and Form 4 more-or-less matches the increase in enrolment. However, good cohort studies and some case studies are necessary before this can be stated.
- The quality of the statistics collected for EMIS needs to be strengthened and coordinated across the years. Such statistics need to be collected with clear research questions as their basis.
- Research into the needs for secondary level education in rural areas need to be examined based on grade 5-8 statistics. Where unit size may not be fully economic then alternative strategies need to be discussed including the possibilities of boarding schools, internet or other forms of technologically to deliver courses, or multi-grade teaching at Secondary level and unit costs considered in all cases.
- Advantages and disadvantages of expanding the use of double shift in urban areas need to be discussed with a clear cost-benefit analysis of the alternatives.
- Options for education that can be offered to out-of-school adolescents/youth in this age group in both urban and rural areas needs to be agreed and costed.

### **Recommendations for the new ESSP**

Prior to writing the ESSP the Ministry will need to develop a carefully costed plan for continued expansion of secondary education with improved quality with particularly emphasis on addressing numerous inequities related to gender, wealth, lifestyle and geography. Such a plan will need to use primary enrolment figures to measure future demand and decide and cost the new classroom, numbers of teachers to be trained and learning equipment to be bought. It will also need to:

1. Build upon and continue investing in areas that have been successful under the outgoing ESSP.
2. Strengthen learning assessment systems and ensure teachers are equipped with skills for remedial support to learners based on learning assessments
3. Develop costed plan that addresses priorities related to equity, quality of learning.
4. Recruit and retain a greater number of female teachers
5. Address supply side barriers to education by ensuring that sufficient learning and teaching resources are available, particularly for rural schools.
6. Commission robust follow-up research to better understanding factors limiting progress with enrolment and gender parity.
7. Develop appropriate policy for regulation of privately managed education foundations that balance with need to support poor households in urban areas and children in rural areas.

## 8. Chapter 8 – Alternative Basic Education (ABE)

The United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the Jomtien declaration of Education for All (1990), the Dakar Declaration of Education for All EFA (2000), SDGs and Somaliland Education Act (2007) all state that every child is entitled to education as a basic right<sup>200</sup>. Non-Formal Basic Education (ABE) is a complementary initiative to formal basic education services for marginalized children and those with diverse needs in order to achieve such national and international commitments.

As discussed in the chapter on primary education, the vast majority of the adult population and more than 50% of school-aged children have never accessed formal education. Alternative Basic Education (ABE) is a policy option that allows over-aged children, adults and youth to complete education equivalent to the level of the formal primary education Leaving Certificate.

### 8.1 ABE in the Somaliland context

Most ABE teaching and learning activities are implemented in established learning centers and are designed to cater to a wide range of age groups. ABE access and coverage indicators such as Apparent Intake Rate (AIR), Net Intake Rate (NIR), Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) have been included in the reports of the primary education analysis (See Chapter 6 – Primary Education). However, there are clear differences with ABE programmes of which there are several types. These include:<sup>201</sup>

- Non-Formal Basic Education (ABE), which is defined as “a practical and functional mix of fundamental literacy, numeracy and life skills”.
- Non-Formal Education (ABE), the same as ABE but based on day-to-day methods of learning and working beyond the basic level;
- Alternative Basic Education (ABE), which has several working definitions with a focus on community- or district-based programs that engage out-of-school adolescents and youth in learning in order to equip them with foundational learning competencies related to numeracy and literacy and help them secure livelihoods. However, the most common understanding is rooted around understandings of non-formal Basic Education.
- Internationally, ABE is defined as Accelerated Basic Education, which is a catch-up initiative to assist over-aged children and youth who have missed out on school education to obtain a basic educational qualification through an accelerated modality (in a comparatively shorter period<sup>202</sup>).

**ABE in the Somaliland context.** The ABE programme in Somaliland has been designed as an educational programme that addresses the needs of out-of-school children (and youth) through condensed and integrated curricular, flexible timetables, cost-effective use of resources, and high community participation aimed at improving access, equity and efficiency in the education system.

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<sup>200</sup> Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan (2012–2016), p. 41-45.

<sup>201</sup> For reasons of consistency this report uses the term “ABE”.

<sup>202</sup> Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan (2012–2016), p. 41-45.

Adult literacy programmes that operate in centers and girls' learning spaces have been established to provide education and other services to adults and girls. The age category for this target group is between 15 to 45 years. These programmes particularly aim to improve the literacy and numeracy skills of adults and mainly focus on women and girls, thus empowering them and reducing gender disparity in basic education.

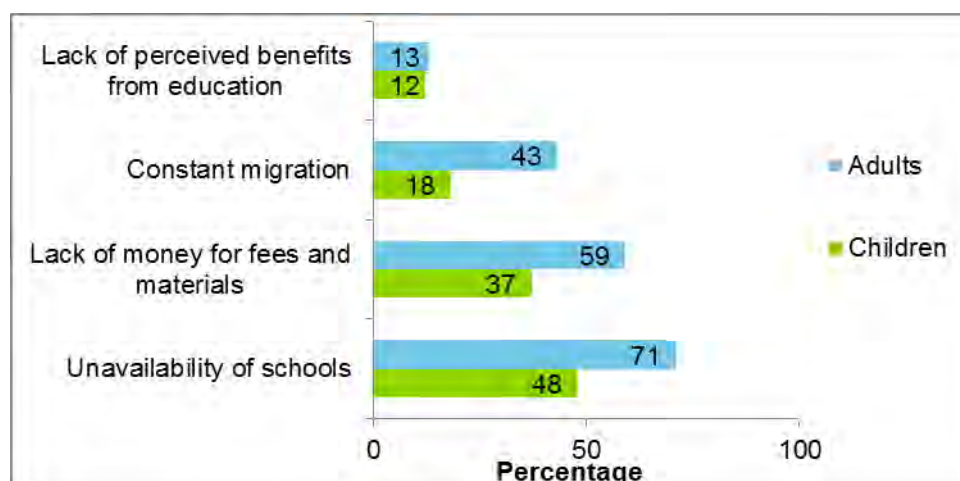
## 8.2 Policy Context

The Somaliland Government is committed to the educational, safety and emotional wellbeing of all its citizens, particularly marginalized children of all categories<sup>203</sup>. It encourages all school-aged children to enroll into formal primary and secondary schools, but acknowledges that there is diversified need of children and adults (e.g. nomadic pastoralists, agro-pastoralists, street children, working children, returnees, internally displaced persons, orphans and adults). The MOEHS thus utilizes ABE as part of its goal to eradicate illiteracy and work towards reaching Education for All (EFA) goals by 2015 – and now SDG 4 targets<sup>204</sup>. The principles of community participations; flexibility; non-discrimination; empowerment; accessibility; adaptability; linkages and transferability govern all forms of ABE programmes.

### Access

In Somaliland, about 48% boys and 40% girls have attended formal school, and the average grade completed is Grade 3<sup>205</sup>. Figure 62 summarizes the reasons given by members of the population for not sending children to formal schools or for never having attended formal education (concerned adults). Key reasons for not attending schools were 'unavailability of school' followed by lack of funds to pay school fees and lack of materials in schools. Much smaller proportions listed migration as a reason for not attending school, particularly among children, while roughly an equally small proportion listed lack of benefits of formal education as a reason for not attending school.

Figure 64. REASONS FOR NOT ATTENDING FORMAL PRIMARY EDUCATION (FPE)



Source: Somaliland MOEHS (2012) Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-2016.

<sup>203</sup> MOEHS: Annual Statistics Yearbook, Annex 1, MOEHS, 2012. Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-16 p. 38-39

<sup>204</sup> Ibid.

<sup>205</sup> MOEHS Somaliland, 2012. Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-16 p. 38-39



Following the MOEHS pastoralists' survey (2012) a sizeable quarter of the respondents (28%) indicated that they attended Qu'ranic schools, whilst fewer than 3% attended mobile schools or ABE centers. Fewer than 2% listened to education broadcasts, attended skills training, correspondence or self-study courses, programmes designed by the Ministry of Health, adult literacy classes or leadership courses<sup>206</sup>.

Only a quarter of women in Somaliland are literate, which varies greatly across regions and place of residence. For example, 45% of women residing in urban areas are literate compared to only 10% of their rural counterparts. This indicates lack of learning opportunities (and other factors, such as traditional, culturally embedded role patterns) available for women in rural areas. Consequently, the National Education Policy 2015-2030<sup>207</sup> expects future design of ABE programmes to address these challenging circumstances and build off of successful experiences in promoting literacy:

- Evidence on the ground shows that ABE programmes address the needs of disadvantaged groups including children from pastoralist communities, out-of-school youth and working children
- Using cost-effective and flexible ABE approaches to expand access has proven useful for states like Somaliland with limited budgetary resources

### **Objectives of ABE in Somaliland**

As stated above, Somaliland's ABE programme seeks to address the needs for out-of-school children through a condensed curriculum, flexible time-table, cost-effective use of resources and high community participation. ABE services are delivered through the public, private and voluntary sector (INGOs, NGOs, CBO, faith groups).

In the new SNEP(2015-2030), the objectives of ABE are to:

- Provide quality equitable education for out-of-school learners by providing appropriate knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to ABE learners, thus contributing to the processes of industrialization and economic recovery
- Offer a second chance for those who discontinued their education at different levels of schooling, thus engaging youth positively to promote social cohesion
- Provide education opportunities for those children who failed to join school at the right age
- Establish a flexible, cost-effective and responsive approach for completing formal basic education system, thus contributing to the attainment of EFA goals
- Design an education programme that fits the life style of the pastoralist, agro-pastoralist, coastal areas, disadvantaged urban/rural children and IDPs, thus promoting education access, equity and inclusion
- Promote gender mainstreaming in education by providing additional learning opportunities to girls and women
- Inculcation of functional literacy, numeracy and life skills
- Promote awareness about civic responsibilities and human rights<sup>208</sup>.

### **8.3 Trends in ABE service provision**

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<sup>206</sup> MOEHS Somaliland, 2012. *Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-16 p. 38-39*

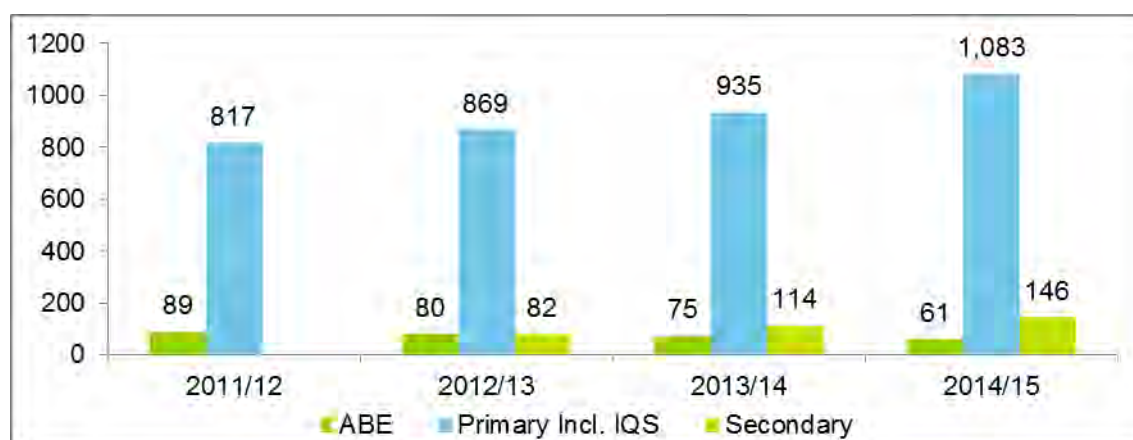
<sup>207</sup> Somaliland National Policy of Education (SNPE), 2015-2030, P.27

<sup>208</sup> SNPE, 2015-2030, P.27



**School and Classroom Trends.** Figure 63 below indicates that the number of ABE schools has declined over the last four years from 89 in 2011/12 down to 61 in 2014/15, or by 32%.

Figure 65. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN SOMALILAND, 2011-2015



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

At the same time, the numbers of FPE/IQS and secondary schools have been rising. As shown in Table 35, the numbers of ABE classrooms indicate a significant increase from 2011/12 to 2012/13, followed by a steady decline from 2012/13 to 2014/15 (246 down to 152). While there may be over-reporting for 2012/13, decreasing numbers of ABE classrooms from 2012/13 onward has not negatively impacted upon class sizes when considering PTR and PCR levels over time. In light of observations in Chapter 7 on overcrowding of classrooms in urban secondary schools, the number of classrooms in ABE centers suggests that construction of learning spaces for this sub-sector has been fairly modest over the past three years and thus unlikely to negatively impact over-crowding in urban secondary schools through the allocation of construction resources to rural areas.

Table 34. Classrooms Trends over the last four years

School Type	Classrooms			
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
<b>ABE</b>	117	246	196	152

Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

**Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) Trends.** Table 36 shows that Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) for ABE seems over-reported in the year 2011/12 but thereafter varies only slightly to 2014/15. Considering only the past three years, the PTR in ABE is fairly stable, but it can be assumed that since 2011/12 it has decreased, to some extent, given investments made in this sub-sector during the period of the outgoing ESSP. This indicates that the numbers of students that are being taught by a single teacher is decreasing and presumably has a positive impact upon the quality of education. Though this needs to be balanced by the proportion of qualified ABE teachers. Unfortunately data was not available for this report regarding ABE teacher training and qualification. It is assumed the most have not completed qualifications.

Table 35. Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR) Trends, 2011-2015

School Type	PTR			
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
<b>ABE</b>	68	29	23	30

Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

**Pupil Classroom Ratio (PCR) Trends.** The general trend, as seen in Table 37, shows that PCR in ABE has decreased over time from 108 in 2011/12 to 35 in 2014/15. The decrease is with an average annual growth rate of 7.2% for formal primary education including IQS and 31.2% for ABE. While concerns exist about underreporting or over-reporting of enrolment or classroom numbers, the overall trend that the PCR has declined due to investments in construction of ABE classrooms during the 2011/12-2012/13 period. Since then, investment in classroom construction appears to have been curtailed as initial objectives of addressing overcrowding in ABE classrooms was achieved early in the period of the outgoing ESSP.

Table 36. Pupil Classroom Ratio (PCR) Trends, 2011-2015

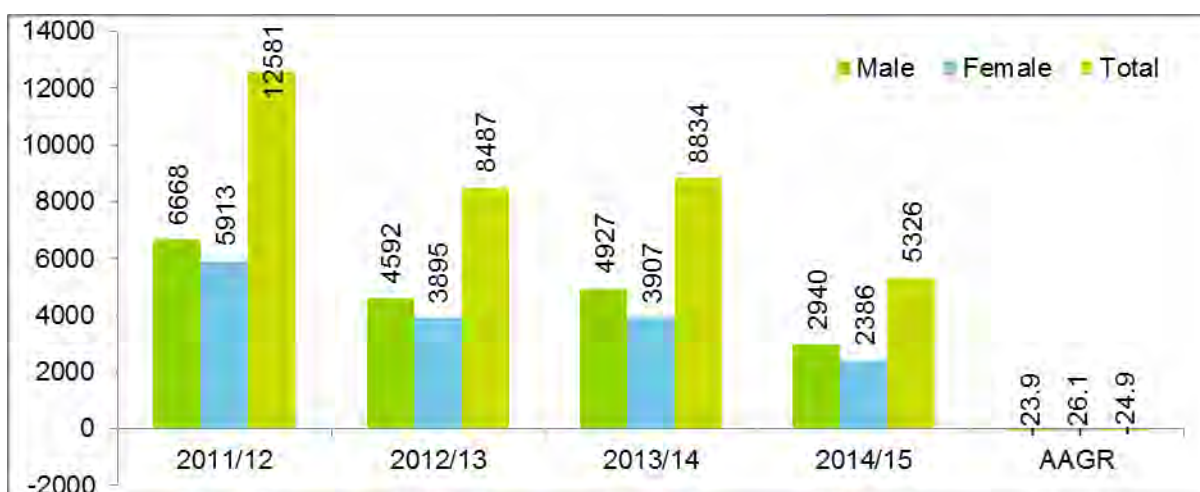
School Type	PCR			
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
<b>ABE</b>	108	16	45	35

*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

### Enrolment, Internal Efficiency and Out-Of-School Children

**Enrolment Trends.** It is not clear from the available data government records regarding the exact number of adult learners and over-aged children in ABE centers. Going forward it is useful for the EMIS to consider disaggregating this data on the basis of age.

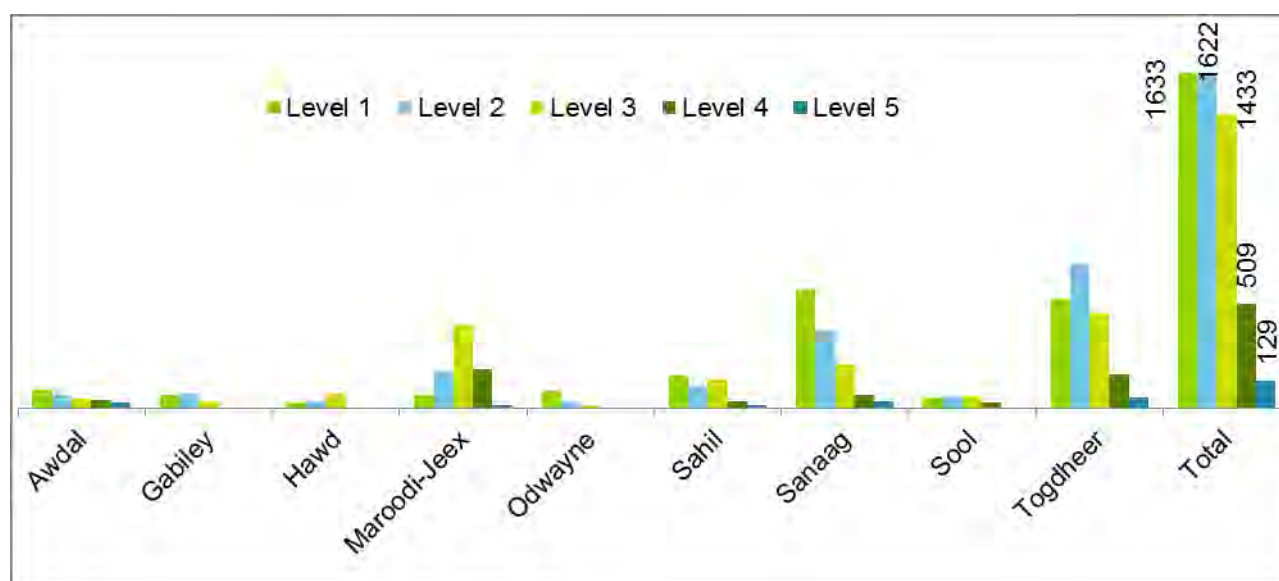
Figure 66. ABE/ABE ENROLMENT TRENDS FROM 2011 TO 2015



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

Figure 64 shows that the rate of enrolment in ABE declined significantly over the last four years by some 58% (from 12,581 to 5,326). In addition to the reduced number of classrooms in ABE centers over the past few years, reduced enrolment explains the sustained gains with improved PCR and PTR cited earlier. However, the reason for declining enrolment was not identified during data collection feeding into this assessment. Given the significant level of decline, detailed research is required to understand why ABE enrolment has decreased and its impacts.

Figure 67. ABE ENROLMENT BY REGION AND LEVEL – 2014-15<sup>209</sup>



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

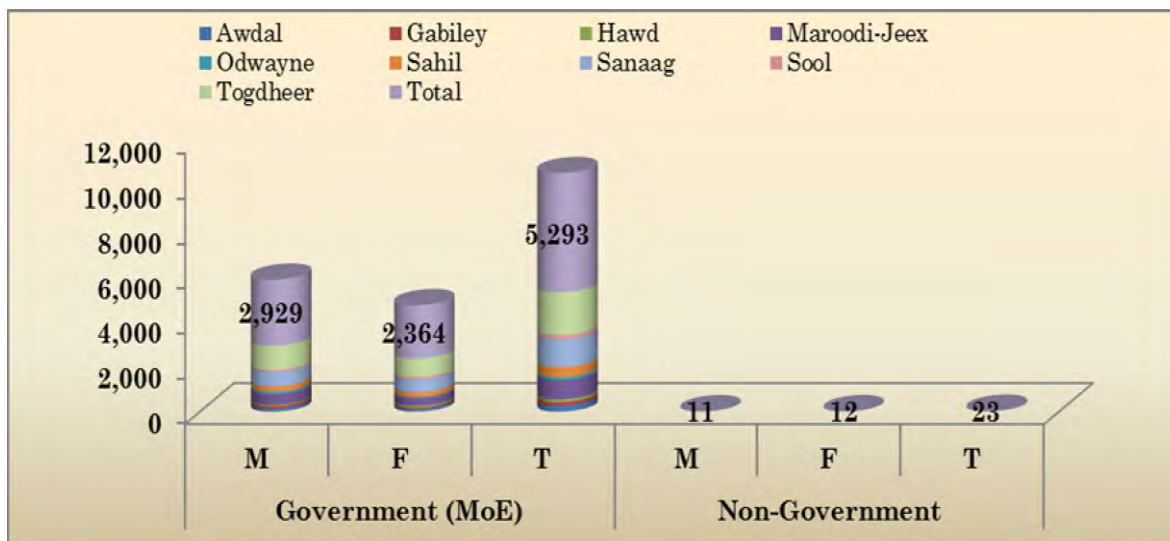
The Figures above show total ABE enrolment for the year 2014/15 at 5,326 learners. From the total 13 regions of Somaliland, only 9 regions have enrolments in ABE. It can be seen that Togdheer region has the highest ABE enrolment followed by Sanaag region, whereas Odwayne and Hawd regions have the lowest ABE enrolment. ABE enrolment constitutes 2.2% of the total for primary education (formal primary, IQS and ABE). The percentage of girls enrolled in ABE is 44.8%, which is roughly equal to the proportion of girls in formal primary education overall (45.6%).

### ABE Enrolment by Ownership

As shown in Figure 66 below, from the 9 regions implementing ABE programmes, only the Sanaag region has both government and non-government ABE enrolment. However, enrolment in non-government ABE facilities is negligible with a total of 23 ABE learners documented. The remainder over ABE learners, nearly 5,270, are all enrolled in government-run ABE facilities. Data thus demonstrates that these services for marginalized children and others are only available due to the important role of government in Somaliland and investments it has made for these communities.

<sup>209</sup> Ibid.

Figure 68. ALTERNATIVE BASIC EDUCATION ENROLMENT BY OWNERSHIP FOR THE YEAR 2014/15

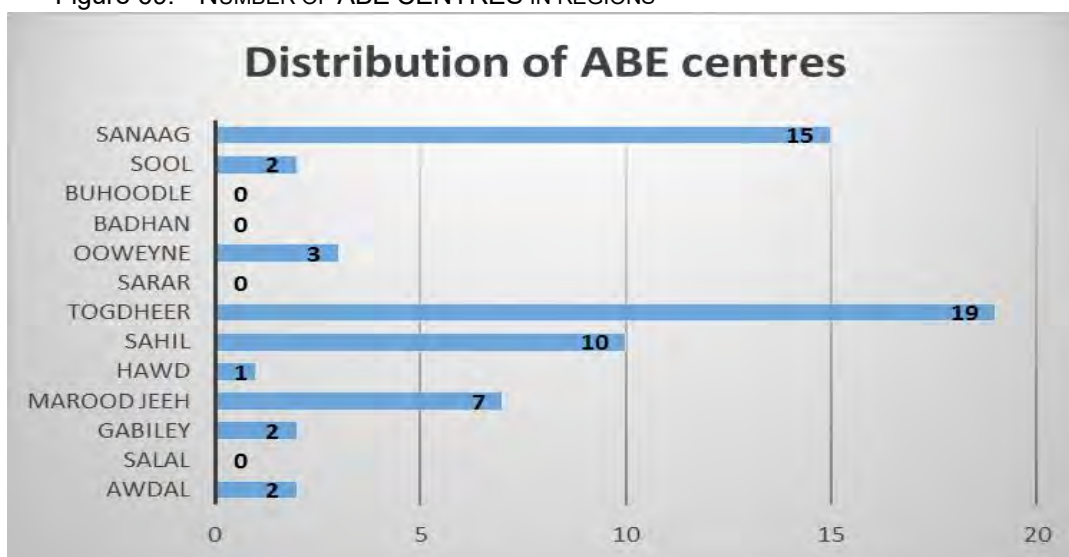


Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

### Regional Distribution

Figure 67 shows the ABE centers for the year 2014/15. It is observed that Togdheer region has the highest number of ABE centers followed by Sanaag region. Hawd region has the lowest number of ABE centers followed by Sool and Gabiley regions. On the whole ABE centers tend to be concentrated in some of the most marginalized rural regions of Somaliland and play and appear to have played an important role in expanding educational enrolment in primary education and helped, to at least a small extend, address inequities in primary education. Nevertheless, the overall proportion of out-of-school children remains extremely high in Somaliland, particularly among rural communities. Evidence therefore also suggests that investment in ABE facilities alone have remained insufficient for making significant gains with achieving education targets for improving access to education.

Figure 69. NUMBER OF ABE CENTRES IN REGIONS



Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016

## Student Attendance and Performance in ABE facilities

There are no census records in the MOEHS EMIS of student attendance in ABE centers. However, data from education partner surveys provide some insights. Mercy Corps, MOHE, and the Somali Youth Learners Initiative (SYLI) conducted one such survey in Feb 2016 to assess student attendance in 17 ABE centers. The report states that progress of learners was good and students showed interest in the courses offered.

The above outcomes raise two points of consideration for policy-makers. Firstly, as it is evident that many ABE students will be mothers with families, it is beneficial for both young children and mothers to provide adjacent or parallel ECE services. This will allow infants and young children to receive adequate care whilst their parents are in school, and will also support the expansion of ECE services to children from poorer households in an affordable manner (See Chapter 5 for further discussion).

Secondly, as drought is a regular occurrence in Somaliland<sup>210</sup>, it is imperative that school programs seek to mitigate drought impacts on basic education indicators, ranging from enrolment to attendance and performance. Moreover, integrating mitigation measures in rural ABE centers will also play a critical role for increasing the resilience and safety of small children who are most vulnerable during periods of crisis. This is especially true as those who are perceived as being most vulnerable to environmental hazards such as drought or flooding are children from rural and pastoralist communities. Moreover, integration resilience and protection measures such as school-feeding programmes will also reinforce gains in enrolment by providing relevant and cost-effective incentives for communities to send children to school in rural areas. This clearly outlines the importance of planning for and incorporating contingency plans to ensure students who are affected by drought are not excluded from the system (see Chapter 3 for further discussion).

## Provision of School-Feeding in ABE centers

Table 38 below shows that there are 3,141 students benefitting from school-feeding programmes, of which 52.9% are girls. ABE school-feeding programs exists in only 5 of the 13 regions of Somaliland as shown below, with the highest number of ABE school-feeding beneficiaries found in the Maroodi-Jeex region.

Table 37. Provision of School Feeding in ABE Centres for 2014/15

Region	No. of Schools	No. of feeding program students		
		Male	Female	Total
Hawd	1	50	77	127
Maroodi-Jeex	2	969	921	1,890
Sahil	3	60	79	139
Sanaag	3	173	357	530
Togdheer	4	227	228	455
<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>1,479</b>	<b>1,662</b>	<b>3,141</b>

*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

<sup>210</sup> Activity Monitoring Report, MOEHS&HS and Mercy Corps, February 25, 2016; Mentoring evaluation and distribution materials about backboard and books, MOEHS&HS and AET, March 08, 2016;

However, conducting a more rigorous analysis yields stark differences between ABE facilities that provide school feeding programs compared to those which do not. Data in Table 38 shows that the vast majority of learners enrolled in ABE facilities are enrolled in schools where regions have school-feeding programmes, with 4,593 learners enrolled this comprises 86% of the entire ABE school cohort. Conversely, only 733 learners are enrolled in regions where ABE facilities do not provide school feeding programs, or only 14% of the entire ABE school cohort. In regions where ABE facilities offer school-feeding, the proportion of students benefitting ranges from 24% in Togdheer to over 100% of students as in the case of Maroodi-Jeex. The proportion exceeding 100% can either be a data error, or represent the extension of school-feeding to children and others. Either way, the data suggests that school-feeding likely plays a critical role in drawing and retaining learners in ABE facilities, and may even have broader community benefits.

No other data was readily available for this assessment which could consider benefits to learners and children such as improved resilience during drought, improved nutritional and health status, or potentially greater learning outcomes compared to non-school-feeding program facilities. Nevertheless, the stark difference in relation to enrollment figures demonstrates how introducing simple measures such as school-feeding can greatly improve performance on key education indicators. These observations support expansion of feeding programmes as measure to encourage more students attending ABE centers and strengthening community-level resilience.

Table 38. Enrolment impacts in ABE facilities, school feeding vs. no school-feeding

	Region	Total Enrollment			Total enrolment by category
		M	F	T	
No school feeding	Awdal	140	121	261	733 learners enrolled 14%
	Gabiley	105	58	163	
	Odwayne	91	35	126	
	Sool	86	97	183	
School feeding	Hawd	50	77	127	4,593 learners enrolled 86%
	Maroodi-Jeex	495	356	851	
	Sahil	242	211	453	
	Sanaag	652	603	1,255	
	Togdheer	1,079	828	1,907	
	<b>Total</b>	<b>2,940</b>	<b>2,386</b>	<b>5,326</b>	

*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

### Student Performance / Assessment

The Somaliland National Examinations Council (SNEC) is responsible for the national examinations system and the accreditation of certificates for primary, secondary, teacher education and tertiary sub-sectors of education and training<sup>211</sup>. No records could be found to show that ABE is formally assessed and neither does the government, despite the ABE centers using the MOEHS curriculum to deliver content, monitor student performance. The centers have their own student assessment systems. The absence of credible records and

<sup>211</sup> MOEHS Somaliland, 2012. Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2012-16



data should be addressed in the forthcoming validation workshop to support improved learning outcomes for children and others attending ABE facilities. Such action will also help to strengthen the overall quality of ABE facilities and mitigate community perceptions that ABE centers provide only 'second rate' education. In fact, lack of investment in learning assessment systems and monitoring of ABE facilities may be one factor that has contributed to declining enrollment in ABE over the past several years.

#### 8.4 Teacher distribution by school type, government vs. non-government

School ownership data in Table 40 is utilized to identify the distribution of ABE teachers across regions and across different types of schools (government vs. non-government), and to identify the proportion of government versus non-government ABE facilities.

Data shows that virtually all teachers are found in government-supported ABE facilities (178 out of 179 teachers). Togdheer Region has the highest number of ABE teachers (67) and Hawd region has the lowest number (five teachers). Only one ABE teacher in Sanaag (0.6%) was from a privately owned ABE center. However, given the average PCR of 35 and average PTR of 30 in 2014/15, it is likely this is only a single classroom owned by a non-government entity, rather than a school or a center per se.

The data also shows that 10.1% of ABE teachers are female. While the proportion of female ABE teachers is low, it is actually nearly as high as in the primary sector and is in fact higher than the proportion of female teachers in the secondary education sector.

The data thus suggests that non-government private foundations have invested very little in addressing inequities by supporting or managing ABE facilities, for the most part leaving government to reach the most marginalized. The Togdheer region, for example, has the higher proportion of ABE teachers and the largest number of ABE learners, and is a community comprised mostly of pastoralists. Moreover, Togdheer demonstrates how engagement of the Diaspora, which has proven supportive of ABE education for pastoralists, can help to improve education services for marginalized communities inside Somalia.

Table 39. ABE teachers by school ownership category – 2014/15<sup>212</sup>

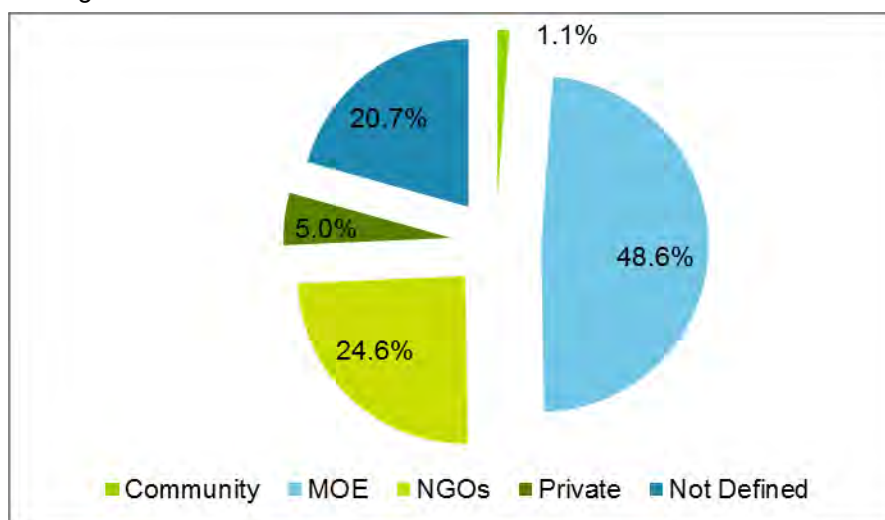
Region	Government (99%)			Non-government (1%)			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Awdal	6	-	6				6	-	6
Gabiley	6	-	6				6	-	6
Hawd	4	1	5				4	1	5
Maroodi-Jeex	19	2	21				19	2	21
Odwayne	6	-	6	-	-	-	6	-	6
Sahil	20	1	21	-	-	-	20	1	21
Sanaag	33	4	37	1	-	1	34	4	38
Sool	8	1	9	-	-	-	8	1	9
Togdheer	58	9	67	-	-	-	58	9	67
<b>Total</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>178</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>179</b>

*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

<sup>212</sup> Somaliland Education Statistics Yearbook 2014/2015)

**Remuneration.** In Somaliland, communities, the private sector, non-government organizations, and the MOEHS pay ABE teachers' salary. Figure 68 shows that about half of all ABE teachers' salaries are paid by the MOEHS, and the rest by communities and non-government organizations. Interestingly, private foundations pay around 5% of ABE teacher salaries, or 9 teachers – which is more than the documented number working in non-government ABE centers (only 1). This suggests that some private foundations may voluntarily contribute to paying teacher salaries in government-run ABE facilities, thus signifying a form of corporate responsibility to their communities. It is not clear who pays nearly 21% of ABE teachers as data was not recorded for this proportion. However, it may be that private foundations contribute to supporting the payment of some of these teachers as well.

Figure 70. ABE TEACHERS SALARY SOURCES – 2014/15



*Somaliland EMIS Statistical Yearbook, 2015-2016*

It is obvious that an education system's partial inability to provide teacher salaries and recruit new teachers to meet the learning needs of students have a negative impact on the quality of the learning environment and student learning outcomes<sup>213</sup>. To strengthen its reach to rural populations, the MOEHS can take charge of paying the salaries of all ABE teachers. This will ensure that learners are supported in a sustained fashion and that teacher welfare, to some extent, is protected. Additionally, given indications that private foundations willingly invest in supporting ABE teachers given the proportion of ABE teacher salaries paid, the MOEHS can explore expanding its partnerships with the private sector to strengthen contributions to ABE facilities and as a means of promoting corporate responsibility to communities in Somaliland.

## 8.5 Synopsis of key policy issues for ABE

The table below provides a brief summary of key policies for ABE that were implemented during the period of the outgoing ESSP, progress achieved, and recommendations for the next ESSP in order to build upon successes. The summary highlights comments of the MOEHS representatives and selected stakeholders / partners drawn from an ESA validation

<sup>213</sup> Buckland, P. 2005. Reshaping the Future: Education and post-conflict reconstruction. Washington DC: World Bank



workshop held in May, 2016 and buttressed by additional review comments during the completion of the ESA report.<sup>214</sup>

Table 40. Synopsis of addressing key policy issues for ABE

Proposed activities to address key policy issues	Achieved - 2012	Comments as of 2016	Actions moving forward
Review the current curriculum and develop a more coherent and locally-relevant one	Yes	No standardized curriculum	Develop standardized curricula
Develop a standard training manual and provide short-term training for all ABE teachers based upon it	No	No	To develop non-formal training manual
Strengthen the institutional capacity of the existing Directorate of Non Formal Education, working through a decentralized structure of the ABE department in partnership with the INGOs and developmental actors	No	No	To strengthen capacity building, by providing tailor-made courses for the directorate.
Provide management and administrative training for ABE officials, implementing effective supervisory mechanisms	No	No	Capacity building for management and administrative staff of ABE.
Create regular ABE learning centres in both rural and urban marginalized areas/communities in order to provide life-long education among male and female children, youth and adults who have not had the opportunity to benefit from the formal system of education	Only Urban	No	To allocate funds in order to create centres in the rural areas.
Facilitate ABE learners with opportunities to access and advance to higher levels of education by establishing relevant linkages (Certification and examination)	No	No	To create a system that facilitates access and advance life-long learning
Raise literacy levels by strengthening ABE as an alternative basic education route for male and female children and youth in difficult circumstances	Yes	No	To return ABE to the government department of education
Revive and operationalize family life education centres	No	High demand for Hargeisa and Burao centres	To revive and fully support schools.
Establish an equivalency certification	No	No	To establish an equivalency

<sup>214</sup> Assessment Report about regions the Awdal, Gabiley M/jeeh Hargeisa, Baligubadle, MOEHS&HS and Mercy Corps, October 2015, Technical Assessment Report for ABE centres in Marodijex, Sahil and Awdal regions; SYLI, October 10, 2015

system for girls graduating from ABE			certification system
Improve on public awareness and appreciation of ABE programs in Somaliland through community mobilization and dialogue	Yes	No	Raise awareness for the ABE through renewed community outreach programs
Encourage parental and community participation in the management of ABE programs	No	No	To encourage parental and community participation. Utilize ABE to expend ECE
Develop and implement a delivery structure based on public-private/voluntary sector partnership, which enables stakeholders to participate in the delivery of quality ABE	No	No	Develop such structures and promote corporate responsibility to generate domestic financing for ABE

## 8.6 Key challenges and recommendations

The challenges in the ABE sector are summarized as follows:

- Insufficient public financial resources and inadequate personnel tends to lower the quality of education services in ABE facilities
- ABE facilities have limited learning materials to support learning
- There is lack of data and documents regarding the achievements of: teacher recruitment, selection, training and development, shortage of relevant educational materials including textbooks and supplementary reading resources, particularly in the rural learning centres.

**Key recommendations:**

- In order to raise the quality of services the MOEHS's Quality Assurance and standards department should include ABE centres in their monitoring plans and should provide more training for the ABE sector personnel;
- Scale up school feeding programmes
- Government/MOEHS to take up greater proportion of payment for ABE teacher salaries
- Ensure ABE facilities are well-resources with teaching and learning materials
- Ensure ABE teachers receive minimum qualifications
- Ensure that there is effective supervision and monitoring of ABE facilities
- Learning assessment systems should be developed to promote effective learning in ABE facilities
- Utilize ABE facilities to strengthen community resilience and expand affordable ECE services to communities via ABE facilities

## 9. Chapter 9 – Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET)

It is widely assumed by many global actors that TVET can, and should cater for approximately 40%-50% of the youth as an alternative path to lifelong learning. This is critically important in a fragile and conflict-affected context where youths are largely unemployed and are exposed to numerous pressures that impact upon their development.

As will be further discussed in this section, there is no basic data (regularly collected nor stored at institutional level) nor reliable secondary information that was readily available during consultations for the ESA. This chapter thus relies on secondary information and data from various project reports and data gathered through interviews with stakeholders. It also describes the challenges the sector presently faces and will make recommendations to address these in the next ESSP period.

### 9.1 Preliminary findings

Following the devastation of the country during the civil war, education efforts were largely concentrated to build a broad foundation of basic education (in all forms, including ABE). Before the war a number of functioning TVET centers (e.g. in Hargeisa and Borao and elsewhere) had existed (also with international assistance, e.g. through the bilateral German Assistance), but were largely destroyed. After the war it took 15 years before the first TVET programmes were launched, with international assistance from the UN, the EU, and later expanded by USAID (and others). Consequently, the sector has recently undergone significant growth and gained popularity, and the present trainees in TVET courses, in classrooms, center workshops, and real work places are estimated to be around 10,000<sup>215</sup>. While a relatively small proportion in comparison to the total number of out-of-school adolescents and youth, it is assumed that many of these beneficiaries are from the high risk groupings who, without the support of TVET, would resort to negative coping strategies that would undermine the peaceful development of Somaliland.

Moreover, a recent World Bank Study observes that “*Skills shortages are widespread and cover every type of skills, from customer service to engineering and maintenance to management*”<sup>216</sup>. The same survey reports that a number of businesses employ expatriates as the local personnel do not possess the required level of skills. The report further notes that the lack of skilled local personnel serves as a barrier to expand foreign investment in the country, thus suggesting the important role that TVET also plays in strengthening the national economy.

A full description of the status of the (sub-) sector depends on the availability of comprehensive, reliable data. A total of four field missions (including the recently concluded national validation workshop discussions (8 and 9 October 2016) resulted in limited data provided for this assessment (on data questionnaire see Annexes 4).

From the information available the following profile of the sub-sector is provided:

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<sup>215</sup> This figure seems inflated, as will be discussed in this chapter.

<sup>216</sup> World Bank: *Somaliland's Private Sector at a Crossroads*, 2016, page 32.

Table 41. TVET Sector Profile

Key indicator	Planned (ESSP 2012)	Actual (2016)	Comment/observation
<b>Access to TVET/ Participation</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Enrolment by gender</li> <li>Enrolment programme level</li> <li>Enrolment by region: urban / rural</li> <li>Level of qualification</li> </ul>	4,267 trainees (1,822 female) (as per log-frame linked to the ESSP)  One institute per annum to be established.	Estimates range from 5,000 to 10,000 enrolled;  Under government control only Hargeisa Technical Institute founded and upgraded (with assistance from implementing partners; Borao Technical Institute revamped, with international assistance; multiple private (unknown) providers exist.	No distinction in duration of programme type, level, duration, region,  No documentation available if/how duration of courses is annualized (for comparison).  Documentation of all training providers required.
<b>Organization of training:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Alignment with labor market (informal and formal) needs</li> <li>Based on occupational analysis, led by industry</li> <li>Based on sector committees</li> <li>Provided in institute/ industry/ intermittent</li> </ul>	No indicator(s) defined.	No comprehensive recent labor market study available.  Implementing partners are planning to contract this;  Unknown involvement of government.	Presently a comprehensive labor market survey is under preparation, but managed by a consortium of Implementing Partners;  Involvement of MOEHS/ TVET Authority and industry not known.
<b>Examinations and qualifications</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Theory and practice examinations</li> <li>Performed under supervision of external examiners</li> <li>Practical exam jointly set and supervised with respective industry</li> </ul>	No indicator(s) defined.	Theory examinations through the National Examinations Board;  No validation with industry of practical examination.	The whole organization of the final examination should be managed by the TVET Authority, with full involvement of industry.
Monitoring of performance of the sector/ Quality assurance management:	No indicator(s) defined.	Comprehensive monitoring done by IPs, e.g. tracer studies for all courses and trainees, suggesting 70% placement rates	A sub-sector wide M&E system is presently not in existence;  Urgent capacity development recommended
<b>Governance of the sector</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>National</li> <li>Regional/district</li> </ul>	No indicator(s) defined.	Not known	Not known
Training of instructors and center managers	At least 20 TVET trainers p.a. trained.	No comprehensive, sub-sector-wide implementation plan exists; No min. standards for instructor and manager qualification. T  Training provided via	The recommendation for establishing should be carefully analyzed against the longer-term training needs. Only if the sector experiences very substantial growth, the proposed establishment of a TVET instructor training

		consortium of Implementing Partners (92, of which 17 are female) in vocational pedagogy.	institute should be considered, with full participation of industry.
Equity policy issues	No indicator(s) defined.	No information available on rural vs urban TVET delivery;  No information available on integrating persons with disabilities	Needs integration in ESSP formulation stage.
Legal framework:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• TVET Qualifications Authority Bill (2014)</li> <li>• Technical, Vocational Qualifications Authority</li> </ul>	Comprehensive draft available, awaiting legislation and implementation;  Office building created; offices equipped and available, but only partially staffed	Urgent payroll provision and capacity development required
Qualification framework	No indicator(s) defined.	A comprehensive study and subsequent reader laying out the features of the introduction of the VQF is available (2011).	Implementation of the VQF and expansion to a National QF is strongly recommended, on the basis of the documented proposal.
Risk analysis related to out-of-system participants/ learners	No indicator(s) defined.	No information available	Area should be analyzed in more detail through a study.

Recent developments in Somaliland also support the growth of TVET programmes and include:

- The MOEHS has established a Directorate for TVET as the Implementing Authority for all matters regarding TVET, housed in the campus of the MOEHS;
- A legal Framework regulating the full scope of the affairs in the sector has been tabled before Parliament, known as the 'Technical & Vocational Qualifications Authority Bill 2014', but not yet gazetted.

These developments provide a basis to strengthen the sector and can make TVET an attractive alternative for out-of-school older adolescents and youth wishing to continue post-primary and post-secondary education, and for adults who seek new qualifications or employment skills leading to credible, certified qualification. Through the existing pre-requisites, notably a formal Vocational Qualification Framework (developed with EU support in 2011, reviewed in 2013), at the TVET level, there is a nucleus in place on which the sector can be built further.

It is important for the new phase of ESSP to build on these developments so that TVET is not misconceived as a branch of non-formal education, which had occurred in the past. Until recently TVET was not seen as an alternative pathway to access a variety of advanced levels of training.

**Streams of Training in the TVET Sector.** There is a broad distinction in TVET offering two streams of trainings: 1) enterprise- based centers (EBC) and 2) institute-based centers (IBC). In EBC, trainees learn skills 'on-the-job' through real projects, which is (in TVET terms) very relevant. Moreover, 'on-the-job' training allows for trainees usually a small

income to be received, thus creating an economic incentive for young people to participate. However, the danger is that the learner is exposed to repetitive works is often given minimal support to acquire a full spectrum of skills subject knowledge in a particularly technical field. The IBC represents the traditional better-known centres of skills and knowledge acquisition, very similar to schools. Too often, as stated by many stakeholders in interviews, these are de-linked with the private sector – at least in the context of Somaliland.

The (nascent) TVET Authority maintains a database, but is lacking reliable, readily accessible data as (reportedly) most of the communication is exchanged between the training providers and the sponsoring (I)NGOs. Their information suggests that a total of 43 TVET providers is operational in the country. However, only in two of these MOEHS recruited staff are actively engaged in TVET programmes<sup>217</sup>. All other staff in the TVET sector are recruited and managed by INGOs. The following provides a rudimentary picture.

The TVET sector is comprised of two distinct, but interlinked areas: vocational training and technical education and training. Vocational training is generally related to manual trades where technological development does not implicate extensive general knowledge. Three distinguished levels of qualifications have been defined in connection with the development of the VQF<sup>218</sup>:

- Vocational Training – Basic Level Certificate
- Vocational Training- Intermediate Level Certificate
- Vocational Training- Advanced Level Certificate

In addition, as defined in the VQF, a fourth level exists, which internationally falls into the prerogative of TVET :

- Technical training- Technician / Diploma Level

This level is related to trades, which require modest scientific and technological skills, and hence necessitates more extensive general education. No training has been delivered so far at this level. Presently, the bulk of training is provided at basic and intermediate level. Training at advanced level was offered in the past but later discontinued due to insufficient demand. ESA working group discussions suggest that there is a need to regulate the award of certificates and diplomas. Presently, there are courses offered by private service providers that offer diplomas after one year of training. This may explain low demand for all forms of advanced training, including the technician (diploma) level, for which there are presently no courses available.

Almost all TVET activity in Somaliland has been in the domain of external partners, mostly INGOs<sup>219</sup>. Training is largely seen as a tool to create immediate employment opportunities, by raising the employability of the youths. This is a sound rationale against the backdrop that

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<sup>217</sup> This information is based on face-to-face interviews with the staff of the TVET Authority in lieu of access to documented data. The two training centres are Hargeisa and Borao Technical Institute.

<sup>218</sup> Classification according to Ministry of Education and Higher Education: Vocational Qualifications (VQF) Framework for Somaliland, 11/2011

<sup>219</sup> Even in a public sector institute like the Hargeisa Technical Institute, there are very strong interventions from INGOs influencing services provision in TVET. Most of the trainers are on the payroll of these INGOs, based on interview information during ESA validation workshops, October 2016.

most of the participants are from the most disadvantaged segments of the Somaliland society, and often experience difficulty to sacrifice work for training. More advanced, specialized training however, is usually of much longer duration and often leads to higher attrition rates. This experience needs to be reflected when offering more advanced programmes, by breaking down the programmes into a modular structure with partial-recognized qualifications.

## 9.2 Recent developments

The MOEHS has given the TVET sector as evidenced by recent policy interventions. These include:

- Creation of the Vocational Qualifications Framework (VQF)<sup>220</sup>, forming the nucleus for an education sector wide National Qualification Framework, albeit omitting the crucial Technician level
- Legal framework in the form of a draft bill for the creation of a TVET Authority, although strongly emphasizing Government control, thus weak affiliation with the private sector
- Revision of curricula towards output/outcome, or results-based, with defined skills and knowledge competencies, albeit without full involvement of the industry (economy) through (for example) sector committees
- Specification of occupations or trades (with recognized qualification profiles), albeit without ensuring national and regional recognition (gazetting, standards)
- Creation of the TVET Agency/ Authority (2014 Draft Bill), but implementation of the novelties is lagging behind.

However, at the time of this writing this report, these initiatives were awaiting official endorsement and funding. One reason explaining the extreme delays and missed opportunities in the TVET sector could be found in the complexity of the sector. In addition to the education component, TVET is characterized by the need to train for employability, incorporating labor market needs.

## 9.3 Key observations

With necessary caution, as already discussed earlier, the following key observations are noted below.

**Participation rates (gender disaggregated).** The estimated number of enrolled trainees in TVET is probably below the modest target of the ESSP 2012 (4,267 as reflected in Table 41 above). However, information from ministry officials received during ESA validation workshops put the figure anywhere between 5,000-10,000 adolescents and youth. The targeted gender participation of roughly 30% cannot be verified due to lack of data. While it is arguable that greater enrollment in TVET is required given the high proportion of out-of-school and unemployed adolescents and youth, existing interventions in this sector have proven very costly with significant sums of funding utilized by UN and INGO-implemented programmes. Corresponding funds investment via the ministry, as a comparison, have benefitted a much larger number of children at primary level and through

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<sup>220</sup> MOEHS: Vocational Qualifications Framework for Somaliland, study financed by EU and implemented by SCI, 11/2011.

ABE programming. As such, the ministry faces significant dilemmas in prioritizing investments considering 'return on investment' and scope of impacts being achieved.

**Linkages with the employment system.** Industry linkages are not evident in either the development of courses or the content of final examinations. Nor do employment sector committees exist that could develop occupational profiles for the most relevant trades and occupations that could become the basis of TVET training programmes delivered.

The existing breadth and depth of the occupations (or occupational fields) is rather narrow, and limited to basic level of training, rather short courses designed to promote immediate employment. It appears that the actual programmes offered via existing TVET programmes are not fully linked to opportunities in the economy<sup>221</sup>. The present course offerings are limited to:

- Electricity, electronics (combined in one occupation)
- Mechanical engineering, including welding, sheet metal processing, automotive
- Building & construction, including: masonry, carpentry, joinery
- Tailoring, dressmaking
- Beautification: henna, hair treatment
- Accounting, banking services

This list should be widened, in light of the on-going Labour Market needs survey. Markets are dynamic, and labour market opportunities are changing. Therefore, it is imperative that the training providers anticipate the changes in the market, and adapt their training programmes accordingly. Not an easy task, as technical schools and training centres are teaching according to curricula and on equipment that cannot (but should) be adapted. Similarly, trainers have a certain spectrum of skills and knowledge and cannot switch easily to match emerging market demands. In this regard, TVET trainers need to upgrade their knowledge and skills as the technology in the market is constantly progressing<sup>222</sup>.

For practical reasons and to ensure alignment between TVET training programmes and employment opportunities, labor (employment) market analysis needs to be clustered into occupational sub-sectors. Those sectors with high potential sustainable growth have been identified as follows<sup>223</sup>:

1. Fisheries
2. Livestock
3. Apiculture (honey)
4. Construction (carpentry+ joinery), metal fabrication, electrical installation, plumbing, masonry, marine motor and vessel repair)
5. Agriculture
6. Food [processing)
7. Health services
8. ICT

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<sup>221</sup> MOEHS: *Vocational qualifications framework for Somaliland, 2011, in particular pages 53 ff.*

<sup>222</sup> This can (unfortunately) be witnessed by training in motor cars without any reference to computer-based diagnostics, or more general, the whole area of ICT which is completely absent in TVET in too many countries, due to lack of resources.

<sup>223</sup> MOEHS: VQF 2011, page 53.



**Quality assurance.** One of the key methodologies to assure high quality of services is to trace the results of the training through graduate or tracer studies. It is reported that these are regularly done (at the end of the respective courses with an average gap of about 3 months after completion to allow sufficient time for graduates finding their employment. However, the documentation could not be provided at the time of the ESA interview.

**Qualification profiles of the existing TVET trainers/** instructors and standardized policies for teacher training (training of instructors) are presently under development; study tours to neighboring Tanzania, Kenya, Ethiopia are progressing. It should be observed that final policies should be crafted with full participation of the industry, on a sector-by-sector level (see below the description for the need of sector committees).

**Governance of the sector.** Overall, there are approximately 40 NGOs (partly international) engaged in the TVET sector who largely finance the sector activities. Their contributions should be better (systematically) coordinated, and guided by **sector-wide** oriented Government policies and effective quality assuring measures and management, including reporting standards (and templates developed by Government).

#### **9.4 TVET Trainers and Managers**

**Training of managers and trainers.** International experience in TVET teaches that the biggest challenge in learning is the lack of practical exposure. The essence of TVET, at the basic level, is imparting skills on the trainees. And for this to happen, competency of the instructor in the craft technology is required (not theoretical knowledge about certain phenomena). If the teachers have acquired the necessary theoretical credentials, they need to be exposed to acquiring the practical knowledge (through their own attachments, possibly with groups of students to real work places). Where this is not possible, trainers need to be attached to the relevant training in the region. The on-going assistance and experience vested in the INGOs operating in Somaliland would be instrumental in identifying such training attachments. The MOEHS (and the TVET Authority) should ensure that all provider are included into such a continuous training scheme. It is not recommended to integrate TVET for trainers to the universities or other general education institutions as these might not address the specific characteristics of TVET, but rather promote an “academic” oriented education. We will discuss training of trainers in more detail in the following chapter.

**Training of teachers and managers.** There is no data available on teacher training programs for TVET available for this assessment. Moreover, the outgoing ESSP has not provided policy direction to the training of TVET trainers. However, ESA Working Group discussions suggest that project-linked training activities have been performed<sup>224</sup>. This is evidence that a clear-cut policy outlining the conceptual and regulatory framework for the TVET profession needs to be developed as a matter of urgency. In light of the recent increased attention Development Partners, notably the EU, are giving to the development of the TVET sector, there is even a greater need to develop the structures and avoid piecemeal approaches.

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<sup>224</sup> The workshop documentation (of 26/05/2016) mentions that “managers and instructors were trained in subject and pedagogical training; a study tour for TVET centre managers and the TVET Directorate was organized.

Given the experience in the multi-annual SCOTT teacher training interventions (at primary and secondary education level) it could be advisable, in the longer-term to establish and mandate a National Institute of Technical Education (NITE) with the task of teaching and managing training in TVET centers. Should the country embark on a pronounced policy of “educational vocationalisation” for economic growth and employment, with a chain of training centers and growing needs for qualified trainers and managers, such a National institution could be feasible.

It is important to recognize that the TVET sector differs fundamentally from the other education sectors due to the proximity of the private (employment) sector. Lessons learned should be taken into good consideration. One of the comprehensive sources observes that:

*“Being a TVET teacher in one of the five selected countries (and generally speaking in most countries across the [African] continent) means having a low status, poor salary and sometimes facing challenging groups of learners. As a result, it is difficult to attract qualified technical teachers to TVET. Teachers leave the profession because they can earn higher salaries in the private sector or in management positions. Higher TVET levels face fewer difficulties than lower levels of TVET. Low status and a negative image are detrimental to quality TVET as the sector struggles to attract and retain qualified staff.”<sup>225</sup>*

Training of TVET teachers (and instructors) also differs from other education facilitators due to the combination of progressively changing technologies- the technical and occupational dimension, the pedagogical dimension, and the need to have industry relevant and experience.

The technological dimension is characterized by the occupational area (field), and can have a vast range of occupational specializations, which, for training purposes, will be clustered to occupational/ vocational fields (excerpt):

- Technological: for example, mechanical engineering (e.g. welding, motor vehicle engineering), electrical engineering, civil construction, ICT, and many more
- Commercial services: for example: accounting, banking/monetary services, insurance, hotel and restaurant services ...
- Social services: home economics, pedagogical services (e.g. kindergarten nurses)
- Medical services: hospital nurses, laboratory assistants
- Construction: masonry, plastering, tiling, wood construction etc.

#### **“The job profile of vocational teachers<sup>226</sup>**

In synoptic form the following elements should mark the profile of TVET teachers/trainers/ instructors:

- The job profiles of general subject teachers are similar, and do apply. Both have to develop, plan, implement and evaluate instruction, assess learning outcomes,

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<sup>225</sup> EU Commission: TVET Education in Africa, Synthesis report 2015

<sup>226</sup> Excerpt from: GiZ: Development of Standards for Vocational Teachers at Bachelor level in Lao PDR, 8/2014

participate in the development of education programs, create appropriate and adapted learning environments, and have to participate in school development processes;

- For the TVET teacher there are additional elements constituting his/her professional profile:

- Full technical (subject/ profession related) competency

The major part of teaching has to refer to **occupational tasks** and the **knowledge, skills and attitudes required for accomplishing them**. The teachers therefore need a **profound knowledge of the occupational tasks** and their integration in work and business processes of the economic or industrial sector for which they educate their students. Ideally they themselves would be able to practically accomplish such tasks at an appropriate level of sophistication, especially in mainly school-based vocational education systems. Considering the speed of development in the world of work, instruction should be up-to-date or even advanced with respect to the development level found in the sector graduates are expected to work in.

- Teachers should also support and enable self-directed learning. Searle asks: “Are TVET Professionals Facilitators of Learning or Deliverers of Knowledge and Skills?” (2009, p. 1259). **They should be both** within the ability to choose the appropriate way of teaching.
- The development of education programmes, especially for vocational education, increasingly lies in the hands of the vocational school. While often requirements imposed by national occupational standards have to be met, in many countries schools in addition are asked to **adapt curricula to the needs of the local economy**<sup>3</sup>. Also, vocational schools are often engaged in offering further education and training in their field of expertise, in addition to their programs of initial vocational education and training. This means that vocational schools should have the capacity to **act in a market-oriented manner**. Therefore profound knowledge of the sector in question as well as capabilities for **conducting needs analysis and market surveys**, i.e. conducting the necessary research, are indispensable<sup>4</sup>.
- Learning environments in vocational education and training differ from those in general education, in that they do not have to consider general pedagogical and didactical principles only, but they also have to provide opportunities to the students for making experience, which are relevant for their future work. Considering the structural reality-gap between school and industry and the often limited resources of schools in terms of up-to-date facilities, **cooperation with the private sector**, i.e. companies, in that respect should be considered indispensable, even where such cooperation is not mandated by corresponding legal regulations. But also **students’ internships in companies**, when they are foreseen in the curricula, require a close cooperation of vocational

education staff with companies in order to acquire internship places and to organize the internship itself, so that it becomes a valuable learning experience for the students (cp. Billet 2009b).

- With school development there is a similar situation as in the other areas of duty. A vocational school is successful, when a high share of its graduates is readily accepted in the labor market. **Career guidance** for the students therefore is an important task, including the cooperation with firms and companies in order to assure an appropriate qualification of the graduates and to facilitate job placements. To be a trusted partner of companies requires professionalism in managing the cooperation with the outside world at least at the same level on which the industrial partners act, as well as understanding their needs and their business fields.

In conclusion: Areas of duty which are specific to vocational teachers thus include providing vocational skills training, remaining up-to-date with requirements of economy and work places, **cultivating collaboration with companies**, providing **career guidance and counselling, conducting a special type of labor market research**, developing curricula for initial and further vocational education and training, and possibly assuming their role in a TVET institution based center of excellence.”

TVET schools/ colleges will specialize in certain occupational fields and occupations, and their teachers must have a relevant technical/ commercial/ social science background. They should have at least a Diploma (preferable a Bachelor Degree Level background), plus at least three years of relevant experience in the occupational field before they qualify as a Vocational Teacher because the real competences requested by the employers<sup>227</sup> lie in the ability of the trainee (or fresh graduate) to solve **practical** problems. That is another affirmation of the need that TVET trainers need to spend regular periods in the practical area they are teaching.

In addition, TVET trainers should have a pedagogical qualification, usually a post-graduate Diploma in Vocational Pedagogy (Andragogy), usually a two-year study.

Contrasted with the reported limited information on the ground<sup>228</sup> it would suggest that many of the instructors may not meet the proposed requirements. Solutions need to be identified in order to facilitate a transitional process which allows the present teaching staff in vocational training institutions to upgrade their existing technological and pedagogical competences to the desired minimum levels. In addition, given rapid technological changes and the constant need to foster good relations with those businesses students are attached to as part of their work-place training, in the form of apprentice- or internships, teachers need to maintain regular contacts with these. Over time, such introduction of quality ensuring minimum standards will effectively address the teaching quality.

## 9.5 Priorities for the forthcoming ESSP

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<sup>227</sup> Evidenced by own experience; see also for example: GIZ: TVET teacher education programme, Laos, 2015; internet: <https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/17468.html>.

<sup>228</sup> This is based on the discussions in the various working group meetings on TVET.

## **Making TVET an attractive alternative to (academic) education, supporting disadvantaged adolescents and youth**

For decades TVET was subsumed under the portfolio of Non-Formal Education, reflecting the 'neglect' this sub-sector experienced. This observation concurs much with the (already mentioned) international observation of education systems whereby TVET is perceived with inferiority and often given a status of last educational resort. A global in-depth research into TVET practices and standards implemented by Boston Consulting Group confirms this phenomenon:

*...TVET suffers from the perception that it is inferior to the general academic education (GAE) provided by traditional four-year universities. In most countries, students, parents, and career advisors still hold a strong bias in favor of degrees from traditional universities and see TVET programs as a "second tier" option that is suited for students with lower aspirations or lesser academic abilities...<sup>229</sup>*

However, the same study confirms that a *well-designed* TVET system can help overcome some of the existing negative perceptions of this sub-sector. One of the key measures is the existence of a Qualifications Framework with clear-cut pathways and equal status of all forms of learning. In order to adjust the image of the widespread stigma of TVET as an education opportunity of last resort, TVET qualifications need to be equated with other forms of education through the VQF, and open career patterns. Programme services must be delivered at high quality through competent instructors meeting high industrial professional standards. In addition, career advisory services through the existing schools and other channels should be provided.

It is noteworthy to mention that TVET programmes targeting youth will usually first and foremost serve the interest for otherwise neglected segments of the society. Promoting well-structured TVET systems, offering pathways to advanced learning, skills training and education development will be well aligned with equity anchored principles and will be effectively promoting disadvantaged segments of the society. In addition, TVET promotion will tend to broaden the basis for economic activity and gainful (self-) employment and reduce the high associated risks with unemployment, unlawful or unwanted engagement of youth in questionable activities, and others.

**Adapting international experience.** The following checklist should be considered for the forthcoming discussion of the ESSP. It is based on international experience<sup>230</sup> and suggests the following key determinants in designing a functioning, well responsive, high quality education and training services delivery TVET system to be taken into good

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<sup>229</sup> Boston Consulting Group: Vocational Education- The missing link in economic development, 2012.

<sup>230</sup> Adapted from: Asian Development Bank: Good Practice in TVET, 2009, and amended by the ESA team based on experience; similar best practices can be derived from existing national TVET strategies and sector surveys, readily published on the internet. Another standard source of profound information is UNEVOC and its comm. platform for TVET: <http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/go.php?q=e-Forum+-+Message+Board&thread=3412#7>;

Similar: World Bank: Performance drivers for TVET, 10 essential elements of any good TVET system, [http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EDUCATION/Resources/278200-1121703274255/1439264-1242337549970/6124382-1288297991092/7513543-1291073600228/Performance\\_Drivers\\_for\\_TVET\\_Summary\\_Session\\_2-Bob\\_McGough.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EDUCATION/Resources/278200-1121703274255/1439264-1242337549970/6124382-1288297991092/7513543-1291073600228/Performance_Drivers_for_TVET_Summary_Session_2-Bob_McGough.pdf)

consideration. The status quo/ fact- finding analysis should address these, as a starting point:

Table 42. TVET Checklist

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Linkage with Employment is the Single Most Important Factor in Training Success</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Regular Labor Market Analysis and Graduate Destination Surveys (tracer studies) are essential for Proper Direction and Feedback in programme development (curricula revision) and to keep pace with technological and social changes</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Success in Training for the formal and informal sector rests mainly with Pre- and Post-Training Activities; this should include entrepreneurial training and support to business start-ups</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Private Training Providers should be supported by the relevant public institutions, starting with analysis of regulatory and other constraints; the MOEHS must not be the provider but the guarantor for quality and transparency (standards)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enterprise-based Training has been Crucial in raising workforce skills in industrial countries</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Standards and methodology are critical to effectiveness; this will include examination standards and the participation of the private sector industries</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reforms in training organization and management can be instrumental in raising system performance</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Financial transfer mechanisms can be powerful means to improve system performance; in many countries a training levy/ grant system has been introduced to encourage industry to contribute to improved workmanship and qualified workers;</li> </ul>

The keys to successful execution of reforms and projects are (financial) incentives and political will, by the Government/ MOEHS and private sector. These quality parameters should be useful when designing achievement indicators for the ESSP 2017-2021.

**Mobilizing additional sector finances.** Currently, funding from the National budget for the education sector is roughly 7% of the national budget (see chapter 4 on funding). Given that TVET unit costs are significantly higher than those of primary and secondary education, it is not surprising that practically all funding for the TVET sector is through INGOs and their funding Development Partners. However, as suggested in Chapter 4 on Cost and Financing, all funding to Somaliland should become transparent so that the full costs of TVET operations (capital and recurrent) are identified. This is a prerequisite to allow for reasonable analysis and judgments on the efficiency of operations in the TVET sector.

Various reports by the INGOs have suggested that trainees in their courses (theoretical and practical) have benefited from TVET and acquired relevant competencies to support their (and their families') living, with tracer studies often reporting around 70% of beneficiaries finding some type of livelihood activity upon completion. Course are designed to impart marketable competencies at very basic levels in core / basic occupations, such as tailoring and dress making, agriculture and husbandry, services for motor cars and household appliances, house construction and other craft level occupations, all with marketable prospects.<sup>231</sup> However, studies also demonstrate that employment programmes can have

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<sup>231</sup> This is supported by: Claudia Pomper, ODI 2014, *ibid*.

very mixed results, with training programmes often neglecting traditional economies and capitalizing on animal husbandry and pastoral economies. Additional, youth training programmes can also be unsustainable and can in some case generate conflicts among youth and communities over who should be included in training programmes.<sup>232</sup>

While investments in TVET can yield significant returns, any investments in this area need to be carefully thought through so as to avoid doing harm and capital on potential 'peace dividends', rather than generating conflict over access to financial resources/opportunities.

**Planning and policy setting through statistics and identification of cohort flows.** The outgoing ESSP recognizes the role of TVET in education systems, as an alternative, equitable pathway to more advanced forms of applied learning and skills development for the 'world of work', i.e. the labour market offering self- and wage employment opportunities. It sees the growing number of TVET trainees in the sector in the first decade (2000-2010) ultimately at a level of (quote): "10,000 trainees<sup>233</sup>".

The working group on TVET in the May 2016 workshop during the ESA mission (5/2016), however provided the information that the total number of students registered in TVET amounted to 4,267 (1,822 female trainees, 43%). Even this figure could be challenged since another information obtained during the same exercise stated the total number as 2,152 (1,081 female).

This suggest that there are no reliable statistics available to reflect the developments in the sector as a whole sector. In connection with the discussion on the limitations of the EMIS it has already been suggested that the full spectrum of the education sector should be captured by the system (maintained by the MOEHS as discussed in Chapter 12). The outgoing Strategy confirms this dilemma: it states for the period 2012-2016 six planned achievements (formulated as activities, not as results, and lacking precise, verifiable indicators), and five objectives (again mostly as activities, no benchmarks set)<sup>234</sup>. This calls for more realistic setting of achievements, coupled with clear, verifiable indicators.

On the other side the paper sets a number of structural elements which should indeed be pursued to build a stronger TVET sector, (a cohesive, well structured, well-articulated sector), that can be seen as an alternative for academic education and opens pathways to forms of advanced learning and qualification through the linkages with the National Qualification Framework. These elements have been described above<sup>235</sup>, part of the structures have been already designed. It is important now, in the forthcoming ESSP phase to put the elements together and implement on the basis of the Action Plan 2017-2019.

**Quality assurance of sector operations.** The key instrument for external feedback on the operations of the training providers' services are tracer studies<sup>236</sup>, also called graduate

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<sup>232</sup> Monaghan, C., King, E. (2015). *Youth Education Programming and Peacebuilding in Dadaab Refugee Camp: Results and Lessons Learned*. Kenya: UNCFPEAP.

<sup>233</sup> MOEHS: Somaliland's Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012-2016, page 53: TVET has grown from very low levels at the turn of the century to more than 10,000 trainees ... at present".

<sup>234</sup> MOEHS, Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012-2016 2012, rev. 2015, pages 59f/ 57 respectively.

<sup>235</sup> See Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012-2016, chapter 11 on TVET, in particular pages 60 ff.

<sup>236</sup> See for example: Harald Schomburg: Key methodological issues of tracer studies, 2014, internet: <http://www.nvf.cz/assets/docs/ee55c2515f5533d2bb629ce8fa2f5d94/623-0/shomburg-tracer.pdf>

surveys or exploration of employers' satisfaction levels<sup>237</sup>. The instrument has (or should) become a standard for all education and training providers, including higher education institutions to measure external efficiency, which represents the bedrock of TVET and Higher Education institutions as these are directly targeting the employment (external) system. There is multiple experience available in the application of this methodology, also in Somaliland, as a number of INGOs have undertaken these studies, albeit mostly by contracted consultants. Also the source below suggests strongly that the instrument is even more effective if applied by the staff of the TVET institute. It becomes a crucial source of feedback on operations for the respective TVET centre: better cooperation with employers, relevance of curricula, teaching quality, governance/management of the TVET center and more. It is important to note that the information generated is summarized and validated and become a quality standard to be performed by all TVET training providers<sup>238</sup>.

**Promoting pathways to work places.** Given the limited intake capacity of secondary education, and the fact that adolescents have a diversity of talents, not always in the academic dominated- secondary education area, TVET should be a conscious, equal alternative to secondary education to the individual adolescent. This important area should be researched and quantified, in terms of training places, programmes, costs and financing, and this should feed-into **career counseling** of children in grade 7 to 8 primary education, but also in Labour information offices, or similar for a (job markets, even telephone information services) on job opportunities for further training.

Presently, there is no policy rationale available to address this. Various sources of information, including the ESA Workshop discussions identified a very strong need for the training of managers of TVET institutions, but also their trainers. The fact is that a number of Implementing Partners have actually organized such trainings, over longer periods. It is therefore recommended that this experience is systematized, documented and molded into policy. As already emphasized, TVET, more than other (sub-) education sectors requires constant updating of technical knowledge and skills to keep abreast with often fast changing technologies.

For the center managers the training should also include standard management training. The TVET centers should be organized similar to commercial organizations and cost/income centers. In addition to standard teaching services, the centers should also provide services and production for marketable services. This would allow to train students in real work situation under supervision of the instructor and equip learners with hands-on experience. In addition, trainees should be also prepared to become self-employed in business start-ups, and therefore real contacts with real customers will be provide them with a better match of skills they need to become successful entrepreneurs.

**Promoting linkages with the employment system.** The quality of TVET and learning is largely dependent on an active network of contacts with the 'world of work'. It is therefore upon the training center to forge such linkages. Organization of and participation in job fairs

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<sup>237</sup> Both segments are traced: the graduate and his/her employer(s) or rather form of employment/unemployment (formal and informal, also self-employment). It gives very valuable feedback to all operational themes in the design and operations of TVET centres from curricula to teacher quality, governance/management of the TVET centre, and more.

<sup>238</sup> The same rationale applies to Higher Education providers, and with the necessary modifications to all other education providers as an important instrument in quality assurance and management.



(as has been done in Somaliland) are good entry points, but are lacking lasting complementary impact. In addition, all forms of attachments for the trainers, and most importantly for the trainees should be sought, e.g. in the form of apprentice- or internships or other attachments. Apprenticeships have a history in Somaliland and should be revitalized as they are effectively serving good placement rates, and directly impacting on the productivity of the company. International experience clearly demonstrates that systems with strong apprenticeship arrangements (with dual training places, on-the-job and at the center) have comparatively lower youth unemployment rates<sup>239</sup>.

Participation of employers in the above referred sector committees is another resourceful modality to forge linkages. At the level of the training center it is important to have an institutional linkage through representation of selected employers (but also the community) at the school/center board/ management committee.

**Systemic considerations and improved governance.** The cost of TVET is prohibitively higher than other forms of education; estimates state that training costs in TVET are (per capita) 5 times of a learner in primary and 3 times of the learner in secondary education<sup>240</sup>. So far in Somaliland, TVET has been largely financed by Development Partners, notably the EU, UNICEF, USAID and others, and their Implementing Partners<sup>241</sup>. Co-financing with the direct beneficiaries, the learners is a (socially and developmental) problematic option as TVET trainees are mostly entering the training with a socially disadvantaged background and milieu; experience in TVET projects in Somaliland has taught that trainees are in dire need of food and living allowances as they simply cannot afford to leave their jobs (mostly in the informal economy), i.e. their opportunity costs are prohibitive to join the training when they are the ones who are actually targeted. This drives the cost of training even higher (and any income from sales of products or services, as already mentioned, is rather modest). Subject to verification with the information on public financing we can conclude that TVET may remain largely the domain of the Development and their Implementing Partners, and other sponsors. The role of the MOEHS and its related TVET Authority, could therefore remain limited to assure quality management in the sector. In order to do that in a competent manner the MOEHS should embark on comprehensive capacity **development** (organization) and training path. This should ensure that a gradual transition of responsibilities towards the MOEHS is indeed happening.

**MOEHS/ TVET Authority: Policy enforcement (monitoring) and revision.** It is the prerogative of the MOEHS and its TVET Authority to formulate policies, and verify that these are implemented/ applied. This goes without saying that regulatory development, monitoring and enforcement should be strengthened through the TVET authority, while implementation

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<sup>239</sup> Many publications in the EU, OECE support this statement, e.g. <https://www.bibb.de/en/24808.php>

<sup>240</sup> Deon Filmer, Louise Fox: Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa; internet research: [https://books.google.com.lb/books?id=7s\\_RAgAAQBAJ&pg=PA99&lpg=PA99&dq=Cost+of+TVET+vs+primary+education&source=bl&ots=UrCR7smUAR&sig=7dCvdwA4hHg01Wy9OevsmSCNiik&hl=en&sa=X&redir\\_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Cost%20of%20TVET%20vs%20primary%20education&f=false](https://books.google.com.lb/books?id=7s_RAgAAQBAJ&pg=PA99&lpg=PA99&dq=Cost+of+TVET+vs+primary+education&source=bl&ots=UrCR7smUAR&sig=7dCvdwA4hHg01Wy9OevsmSCNiik&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Cost%20of%20TVET%20vs%20primary%20education&f=false)

<sup>241</sup> See Somaliland: Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012-2016, updated in 5/2014, page 102 f; the table reflects solely contributions from international Implementing Partners; the 2016 Somaliland National Education Policy Paper 2015-2030 does not attempt to provide information about the financing of a set of very ambitious projects such as (for example) to have one TVET centre in each region; with 13 regions and a capital cost of at least some 3 million USD, this would appear just unrealistic.

of training and post training can be coordinated by the INGOs and other private sector bodies under the overall coordination of the Authority.

Standards to be created and followed include the following:

- All forms of statistics in the sector and data and studies collection and dissemination
- Competency based training curricula to be applied by all providers for forms of training , testing and examinations; alignment with the VQF, and equality of TVET with academic education through the pathways of the NQF
- Equal examinations standards of admission, testing (with participation from the private sector);
- TVET center managers and trainers: Conditions of services, promotion, and training
- Minimum standards for training providers and inspections of adherence
- Equal standards for students/ trainees in terms of: occupational health and safety, food allowances, training allowances

Technology and economies are changing; therefore curricula have to undergo revision. For this reason and for ensuring better quality assurance enforcement, TVET providers should forge alliances with reputable institutions outside the country, e.g. with Kenyan/ Ethiopian institutions. The MOEHS, thought the TVET Authority should facilitate such alliances, and make them binding policies. The linkages with industry should be institutionalized through active Advisory Boards attached to the providers.

**Expanding the funding base/ Financing of the sector.** The MOEHS and its TVET Authority should seek to broaden the basis for TVET (see above the discussion on creating an integrated MOEHS Development Fund) and at least make a start to create one TVET center per region. Even this may have to be reconsidered as TVET centers need to have a vibrant economic environment, the proximity to the employment system, which may prove to be difficult to demonstrate in secluded regions.

One way to make a modest start would be the introduction of a (modest) levy, for example on the petrol price (as a “Solidarity fund for the Youth”, and this fund should be effectively managed through a public-private mechanism to achieve full transparency and accountability. The same fund should satisfy the international fiduciary conditions to facilitate donor contributions to be channeled into the same fund. Summary findings and recommendations.

## **9.6 Summary Findings and Recommendations**

### **Key Findings**

The short section below summarizes key findings drawing upon available data.

#### Key recommendations

The recent announcement of a major support programme targeting the strengthening of the TVET sector reform, funded by the EU, will give a major boost to the development of the

sector. Many of the recommendations and underlying rationale below align with works to be done based on EU programme documentation<sup>242</sup>.

- Observations herein should be the start of a comprehensive labour market survey that identifies status and trends in the employment market and relates these to design of the corresponding TVET as well as Higher Education. Additionally, the technical education and training should not be limited to employment opportunities in the country, but in the region and beyond<sup>243</sup>. This should be done in full cooperation with and by strengthening the existing nascent structures, including providing the necessary budget requisites for the TVET staff in the sector, at the central and training level.
- A Labour Market Survey currently being planned by a consortium of Implementing Partners should be carefully reflected by MOEHS / TVET Authority. The survey should be done jointly with the Ministries of Finance and Planning and the private sector (chambers, employers and workers associations, the Social Partners).
- Based on survey findings, the curricula (training plans/syllabuses, learning materials (books, and other materials/ media) need to be developed, or, where existing, upgraded and revised. All modules should be output/outcome/competency based, meaning that the learner has to demonstrate a degree of professionalism in the relevant trade/ subject.
- TVET programmes at institute level should be developed in modular form, based on demonstrable competencies and outcome (output) oriented, aligned to the occupational standards developed by the relevant sector committees. The level of qualification needs to be aligned with the existing (draft) VQF. It is important that all training programmes are harmonized, and one standardized award (certificate or diploma) will be aligned to testify industry linked qualifications.
- The MOEHS and its TVET Qualification Authority should enter into a partnership agreement with neighbouring (e.g. Kenya, Ethiopia) TVET providers to align technical standards across countries.
- Entrepreneurial training should become compulsory in order to equip trainees with the necessary skills (and knowledge) to start their own small business (mostly in the informal sector). Given that the Somaliland economy is largely informal, chances are high that many graduates will be forced to start in this sector, and this reinforces the need to equip them with the skills profiles required there.
- Training centres should expand their scope of programming and take the form of business incubators, by providing start-up capital, as often recommended<sup>244</sup>. A side effect is that the training centres would create a source of modest income<sup>245</sup>.
- Many TVET learners will arrive with very insufficient basic education levels<sup>246</sup>. Basic Literacy and Numeracy, but also general skills of good communication and

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<sup>242</sup> The EU is currently in the formulation phase of the future **Somali Education Sector Support Programme (SESSP)**, funded through the 11<sup>th</sup> EDF ((2014-2020); see Education Sector Committee circular, and EU Somalia home page for more details.

<sup>243</sup> Investments in TVET and Higher Education and related 'brain drain' is often a strategy to contribute to balance of payments, thanks to increased remittances transfers; already now these contribute significantly to the Somaliland economy, see, for example: UN-OHRLLS 2016, internet research: "remittance is by far the biggest contributor to the economy (i.e. 54% of the country's GDP). In Kenya, remittances are revealing a similar observation; see: Central Bank of Kenya, 4/2016".

<sup>244</sup> This was strongly articulated in the ESA workshop, and previously.

<sup>245</sup> This type of combined training with production has been practiced in a number of developing countries, with often good success. The key variable to success is proper management. GIZ/GTZ or UNEVOC have vastly documented this approach.

reasonable interaction (so-called 'life skills') are essential pre-requisites to make TVET a meaningful alternative to secondary education.

- The coming phase of the ESSP should fully realize the potential of TVET as a policy tool to reduce youth unemployment and recognizing TVET as a tool for capitalizing upon the untapped economic potentials of youth.<sup>247</sup>
- A comprehensive set of studies should be conducted under the auspices of the Government to explore potential economic growth sectors, coupled with increased value added chains, and niches of regional comparative advantage and needs to attract qualified human resources.
- In the area of **Data management** full collection of data (gender disaggregated) should become the prerogative of the MOEHS/ TVET Authority, according to international standards. This should be aligned with regional data collection, in particular Kenya and Ethiopia to allow comparative analysis and exchange of data.
- Sector councils should be established to serve as links between the economic/employment (demand) system and the training (delivery) system and strengthen industry leadership in the sector.
- A selection of the leading national universities should be integrated with TVET so that they increasingly manage the TVET teacher training. In-service training through leading national universities should be started applying competency-based approaches and learner centred vocational pedagogy.

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<sup>246</sup> While hard data evidence is presently not available to support this, it is a safe (cautious) assumption for the planner, and general experience (also the author's own) support this.

<sup>247</sup> P. Middlebrook: The economic future of Somalia, 2016; many of the arguments apply in Somaliland, more pronounced due to the differential in peace and stability.

## 10. Chapter 10 – Cross-cutting issues: Management, School Quality Assurance and Learning Assessment Systems

Over the past several years, the trend globally in education has been to focus on learning outcomes of children. This is strongly reflected in SDG 4 development targets and underpins priority goals of the GPE. This is based on the growing realization that a failure of MDG education-related strategies for increasing access was that the strategies utilized ignored the learning dimension of education and often undermined the quality of learning. As a result, many children in developing and fragile settings completing years of primary education without gaining foundational skills in numeracy and literacy.<sup>248</sup> Moreover, recent evidence on the role of education in fragile and conflict-affected settings demonstrates that the quality and content of education plays a critical role in supporting sustainable peace and development, or conversely can contribute to fragility and aggravate risks of marginalization and forms of violence.<sup>249</sup> These understanding underpin the political commitments made by Somali education ministry officials in a Pan-African political communique by which the ministries of 13 countries committed to strengthening the role of quality education in supporting the achievement of SDG 4 and strengthening the resilience of children, young people and communities.<sup>250</sup>

Social and political risks related to institutional capacities with education sector management and governance have been examined in Chapter 3. To compliment those findings and further assess outgoing ESSP goals for strengthening education systems in Somaliland, this chapter briefly examines the capacity of the MOEHS to deliver effective curriculum, strengthen learning assessment systems and learning outcomes as well as quality assurance mechanisms through school supervision. Numerous studies demonstrate the linkages between these areas with improved learning outcomes and, by extension, strengthening resilience of children and communities.<sup>251</sup> These capacities are critical determinants for supporting quality learning of children and young people and supporting sustainable peace and development in Somaliland.

### 10.1 Governance Structure of the MOEHS

The Ministry of Education and Higher Studies is composed of the Ministry of Education, Higher Education and Commission for Higher Education. A Minister leads it with the assistance of a Vice-Minister and a State Minister. The entities of Education and Higher

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<sup>248</sup> UNICEF, World Bank 2009, *Abolishing School Fees in Africa: Lessons from Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, and Mozambique*, World Bank, Washington D.C.

<sup>249</sup> UNESCO, Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011, *The Hidden Crisis: Armed Conflict and Education*, UNESCO Publishing; Novelli, M., M.T.A. Lopes Cardozo, A.A. Smith. 2015. *A theoretical framework for analysing the contribution of education to sustainable peacebuilding: 4Rs in conflict-affected contexts*. Amsterdam: University of Amsterdam.

<sup>250</sup> UNICEF, *Peacebuilding, Education and Advocacy in Conflict-Affected Contexts Programme: Pan-African Symposium on Education, Resilience and Social Cohesion – Strengthening Education Policies and Programmes to achieve SDGs and Africa's Agenda 2063, Outcome Report*. UNICEF WCARO/ESARO.

<sup>251</sup> UNICEF 2013, *'We Like Being Taught': A Study on Teacher Absenteeism in Papua and West Papua, Indonesia*. UNICEF, Indonesia, pp. 79,127.

Education each have a Director General who deals with policy. There are 12 departments in the Ministry. These departments include:

1. Planning and Policy
2. Primary school Programming
3. Secondary School Programming
4. Non Formal Education
5. Technical and Vocational Training (TVET)
6. Higher Education
7. Private School and Licensing Oversight
8. Curricula and Teacher Development
9. Quality Assurance and Standards
10. Gender
11. Human Resource
12. Administration and Finance

There is also a National Examination Board that is autonomous to this structure and reports directly to the Minister of Education.

In terms of structure this provides a workable model with presumably clear division of tasks between the different departments so that it is clear which department is responsible for monitoring and delivery of each section of the outgoing ESSP and future plans.

The terms of reference and the divisions of responsibility at the highest levels, i.e. Minister, Assistant Minister and Director General may need greater clarity in order to avoid conflicting lines of authority, which has at times emerged as a challenge – not least of which due to the manner in which traditional clan power structures have merged into formal state governance structures. As a result, there is often a balance of power within the ministry geared toward ensuring harmony and cohesion among clans through shared responsibilities over ministry authorities. The autonomy of the exam board strengthens the security of examinations and means it can avoid pressure on results and reduces the likelihood of leaks within the system.

While the overall structure of the ministry is sound and promotes social and political stability through implicit clan-based power sharing arrangements, there are a number of organizational capacity deficits that undermine the ability of the ministry to perform effectively. Some of these organizational weaknesses in relation to the Planning and Policy Department are outlined in Chapter 12, which looks at data management and monitoring capacity of the ministry. Weaknesses relates to insufficient budget and operational resources, poor staff management and training policies, confusion between units within the ministry, and insufficient systems and coordination mechanisms for day-to-day operations. Many of these weaknesses are common across the ministry. Because of the important role played with quality assurance of learning for children and school management, several key observations on the two departments responsible for these areas are made here: the Quality Assurance and Standards Department and the Curricula and Teachers Development Department.

### ***Policies and procedures.***

There exist key policies and procedures that have been laid out by the Ministry that guide and steer activities in the Education Sector towards key goals and objectives that the Ministry wishes to achieve. The Somaliland National Policy of Education (2015-2030) not

only lays down the vision, mission, objectives, goals and strategies of the Education System but also defines the policy framework around curriculum development and implementation, examinations, textbooks, syllabus and language policy. It also defines the roles and functions of the Commission for Higher Education, Quality Assurance and Standards Department, Planning and Policy Department and Somaliland National Examination Council (SNEC)<sup>252</sup>

Generally, policies and procedures have been clearly laid out in the policy documents developed. In some cases, there are challenges in the roll out and the implementation of such policies and guidelines. For instance, a comprehensive Quality Assurance framework has been developed complete with a supervision and minimum standards checklist. Whereas all these seem like an incredibly progressive move, gaps in the implementation process render such policies ineffective. Additionally, the checklist is not harmonized with School Supervision Handbook thus undermining harmonization of supervision activities at school level.

Furthermore, QASS has limited authority over privately managed schools, with supervision activities thus far only extending to government-run facilities. This has undermined a comprehensive framework and only added to the on-going fragmentation of the education system, which, for all intents and purposes, remains unregulated as a result.

In spite of the quite elaborate procedures in the QAAS checklist, Many of the supervision teams also failed to conduct any Focus Group Discussions with Community Education Committees (CECs), which could have provided information on Indicator 5 of the school supervision checklist. At the same time, some of the trained supervisors did not participate in supervision exercises and were replaced by REOs without consultation of the central ministry or QASS department. All these reveal critical gaps in the implementation of such policies and guidelines across the various decentralized systems as well as both private and public sectors.

**Resources and budgeting.** As suggested in Chapter 4, the MOEHS is generally underfunded, which limits its capacity to function effectively. Despite recent expansion in facilities and office space with assistance from some donor and partners, office space remains a challenge with some of the departments not having sufficient room to host all its staff. The budget for office maintenance has remained stagnant at \$3768 over the past five years (2012-2016) leading to a considerable strain in the Ministry meeting its office maintenance needs and purchase of office supplies and equipment.

### **Staffing.**

The MoEHS faces considerable challenges in attracting and retaining qualified staff both in the Ministry and the teaching workforce. Some noble initiatives such as The Integrated Capacity Development for Somalia Education Administrations (ICDSEA) Programme, a three-year (2010-2013) multi-phased programme funded under the EU Education Sector Development Support Programme for Somalia (EDF10) and which targeted institutional capacity development of the MOEHS has reported mixed results. This multi-phased programme which was part of the larger effort under the Somalia Special Support Programme (SSSP) focusing specifically on capacity development of the Ministries of Education in the core areas

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<sup>252</sup> Somaliland National Policy for Education (2015-2030)



of Policy; Planning; Finance; Human Resource Management; Quality Assurance; and Standards and Gender<sup>253</sup>.

In this programme, 10 ministry staff were taken through training capacity building programmes and later posted to key ministry departments. However, by 2016, only 5 of the 10 trainees remain attached to the Ministry

Considerable investments in the ICDSEA programme notwithstanding, the MOEHS also relies on the services of Technical Advisors (TAs) in the same departments targeted by the ICDSEA. There are TAs attached to the Policy and Planning, Quality Assurance and Curriculum Development departments supported by donors and partners. There have been gaps in formulating clear knowledge and skills transfer from the T.As to the Ministry staff in consideration of the (supposed) limited periods of engagements technical advisors should have.

In some departments requiring specialized skills such as EMIS unit, there is no capacity within the unit to customize data collection forms used by the ministry, which means that old data collections form are used despite the need to update tools in order to collect relevant data. Indeed the department has relied on an external consultant to carry out data analysis and produce the Statistics Yearbook over the past 3 years without a demonstrated knowledge and skills transfer to the Ministry staff.

**Role of central vs. Regional level.** The ministry also remains somewhat centralized with regional administration remaining generally weak and under resourced.

In 2014, the Government of Somaliland approved the Somaliland Decentralization Policy 2013-2020, which provided the political, administrative and financial scope to decentralize service delivery, to districts with sufficient capacity and prioritizing social sectors, which are health, education and water management. The decentralization policy also outlines the direct election of District Councils based on open, competitive, and non-discriminatory selection and campaigning for local council offices with elections scheduled in Somaliland in 2017.

The National policy of decentralization recommends that decentralization of education services will be based on a phased approach defined by capacity assessments of the local governments at each classification category. The decentralization of the primary education will be decentralized to the Category A local governments in the initial phases based on the assessment of their capacities as determined by the Ministry of Education.

The policy further recommends that Category A<sup>254</sup> local governments will have responsibility for the operating licensing of pre-primary schools, nurseries and kindergartens buildings and facilities on the basis of responsibility for the health and safety of the children. They will not have any responsibility for overseeing the educational content or quality of the services provided to the children in these facilities. The Ministry of Education, or the Ministry of Religion in the case of Koranic schools, will be responsible for the quality and content of the curriculum and teaching in these schools.

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<sup>253</sup> *Final Evaluation report: The Integrated Capacity Development for Somalia Education Administrations (ICDSEA) Programme, UNICEF*

<sup>254</sup> *Bashir Tani: Somaliland Decentralization Policy*



The decentralization policy also recommends that Category B local governments will only be responsible for primary education. Category B local governments will be responsible for licensing and inspections of pre-primary nurseries and kindergartens to enforce health and safety of the children in these facilities.

The content and quality of the teaching and curriculum will apply to Category B local governments as for the Category A local governments. Category C and D local governments will be responsible for primary education based on their capacity assessment to provide primary education within their districts. Otherwise, the Ministry of Education will assume responsibility for the provision of primary education in these districts.

Despite such a comprehensive framework, various challenges exist with the implementation and monitoring of the decentralization policy. For instance, the policy has not specified in details how the devolved functions will be financed. The MOEHS budget spends 85% of it is budget on salaries and the rest on recurrent and capital costs leaving no budget for strengthening decentralized units. To accelerate the implementation process and clarify who does what in decentralized contexts, it is necessary to legalize the expenditure and financing dimensions of local governments and how local governments finance expenditures, either through own revenues, shared revenues, or transfers from the central government.

## 10.2 Education curriculum framework

In many contexts education curriculum can be a source of social tension and even conflict because of its contested nature, its content or the way it is taught, or it can fuel inequity in society by exercising form of cultural violence that alienate marginalized groups and thus undermine individual and societal resilience.<sup>255</sup> With support from the EU, the MOEHS launched a curriculum development process to update the national curriculum framework for primary education. This process was subsequently supported by UNICEF in partnership with AET to develop quality, relevant and inclusive education curriculum in Somalia to support life-long learning so that children can become productive citizens able to contribute to the development of the nation.<sup>256</sup> The MOEHS took full coordination and ownership of the project.

The Ministry has since finalized a clear curriculum framework within which all the departments can work and education quality and purpose can be measured. The framework provides guidelines on a wide range of areas including:

- Values and goals, contents and learning areas, skills and cross cutting issues developed to provide an overarching direction to guide the constructive civic development of learners schools.
- School timetabling and contact hours, learning outcomes and key levels.

These are outlined briefly below and have been described where relevant to learning outcomes.

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<sup>255</sup> Patta-Scott Villiers et al. (2014).

<sup>256</sup> Knezevic and Renders (forthcoming), 'The potential of conflict-sensitive education approaches in fragile countries – the case of curriculum framework reform in Somalia' – Practitioner's Note, *Journal of Education in Emergencies*. New York.

## National Vision, Mission

**Vision:** Somaliland envisions education as means to prepare all learners to become life-long learners equipped with the skills, knowledge and attitudes to be successfully productive citizens.

**Mission:** The mission of National Education of Somaliland is to provide a quality and relevant education that will prepare every student to be success in life with partnership of its parents and communities

**National Education Goals:** To promote within society the acquisition and application of relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to fulfill its potential for development in a continuously changing world:

- Concern for proper management and utilization of the physical environment.
- A sense of responsibility for peace and improved relations at the individual, family, community, national and international levels.
- The growth of civic consciousness in an informed and socialized citizenry committed to mutual understanding, a culture of peace, and collaboration an acceptance of diversity, and toward resolving differences without violence.
- Values of loyalty, self-reliance, tolerance, co-operation, diligence, openness, inquiry, critical thought, honesty, justice, fairness and peace.
- Awareness of the need for and the active promotion of social justice, in the context of Islam

**School Calendar and Minimum Contact Hours.** The curriculum framework allows for the Ministry to determine the school calendar dates each year for formal schools and specifies the minimum contact hours and weeks that each school, private or government should achieve. It also provides an allowance for the timing to vary by region according to weather and season as long as the total contact hours are attained. The non-formal sector will vary this in line with needs and context according to the needs and context of those learners. The minimal contact hours and their distribution by week and semester against which any quality assurance officer should monitor schools are specified in the National Curriculum framework.<sup>257</sup> The framework is thus intentionally designed to accommodate the varied learning needs and lifestyles of children from different backgrounds in Somaliland and support more equitable education service delivery.

**Curriculum Scope and Learning Areas.** The curriculum framework provides clear learning outcomes for each learning area and for each level, Lower Primary (Grade 4), Upper Primary (Grade 8) and Secondary Form 4. These outcomes can be referenced in the Curriculum Framework where the Learning Areas are also divided into subjects. Their appropriateness is also discussed in the chapter on Primary and Secondary Education. These are to be used as the basis for any assessment including the national examinations. A key consideration underpinning learning areas was ensuring ‘cultural and economic relevance’ so that learners gain skills that can accommodate varied backgrounds and economic needs. Key areas of the curriculum are shown below.

Table 43. Core Curriculum areas

Core curricular areas	Core cross-cutting themes
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<sup>257</sup> National Education Curriculum Framework for Transformation

Science	Peace and conflict studies
Creative and Performing Arts	Child & human rights, including of those impacted by gender and disability
Religion	Environment
Social Studies	Health and nutrition
Mathematics	Civic education
Languages	Global issues
Technology	Culture & heritage of our country
Physical Development	Arts and Design

**Language Policy and Medium of Instruction.** It is widely accepted that the use of ‘mother tongue’ (or the language that a child speaks in the home from the time of birth) is a major advantage in the development of literacy, overall learning and conceptual development for children. This is particularly true at ECE and early grade levels of primary school as it improves learning outcomes and retention throughout later years of school and contributes to life-long learning. However, many countries have policies and assessment systems in which children and young learners are required to learn in a ‘dominant’ national language that can ‘marginalize’ minority languages. Alternatively, as in the case of Uganda may require children at some stage to switch to a ‘foreign’ language of instruction, such as English. In the case of Uganda, such language an approach has been demonstrated to have disastrous impacts upon survival rates and learning outcomes, particularly at Grade 4 level when children switch from mother tongue instruction to English, at which point high dropout rates are observed and learning outcomes decline dramatically<sup>258</sup>

A clear understanding of, and rationale for, the national language of instruction policy in Somaliland and challenges with its implementation is therefore essential for the MOEHS if quality education is to be delivered on an equitable basis. Informed policy choices in tis areas will help to prevent poor performance of children in school, including reducing the rates of dropout at early grade levels and contribute to improved learning outcomes at later stages of the education system.

The Somaliland National Education Policy (2015-2030) and the National Curriculum Framework outline the language policy, and thus the medium of instruction in education and training, as follows:

- Somali language will be the language of curriculum instruction from grade 1-4.
- Arabic language and Islamic studies shall remain as subjects from grade 1-8.
- English will be taught as a language in primary schools from Grade 2.
- In addition, and reflected in the National Education Policy, the ministry is suggestion that English is used as a medium of Education from Grade 5 if and when there are sufficient trained teachers with good English to teach in English. This condition is unlikely to be achieved in the next five years and therefore unlikely to be a realistic option within the next ESSP.

The current policy is, at present, only partially applied as there are still schools that use Arabic and English medium from Primary 1. At the same time, the Ministry has had limited power to implement policy over private schools, which have varied language policies that

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<sup>258</sup> National Education Curriculum Framework for Transformation

sometimes fall outside of government frameworks and where Arabic remains the medium of curriculum instruction. While the ministry will need to decide whether it will implement the language policy in private schools as well as government schools during the next ESSP, language of instruction may be a contested area that poses broader social and political challenges that have yet to be resolved and spring from the contested 'ideological' nature of education.<sup>259</sup>

A further challenge to the language policy is the low level of achievement in English. Reports from employers and universities complain about the very low level of English competencies of school graduates and inspectors reports that most secondary schools and universities use Somali rather than English when teaching and English is only used as the written medium. However, this highlights the difficulties of learning when introducing a 'foreign' language of instruction in contexts where teachers are not equipped to teach effectively in another language due to instructional guidance materials for classroom teachers (e.g. structured/scripted lessons plans) and in which learning materials to support effective learning are missing. For example, most English textbooks are simply reproduced in original text without any language adaptation or Somali language 'tips' provided in textbooks to help learners understand foreign concepts or terminology. No studies on the impacts that 'foreign language of instruction' has had upon Somali children was available for this ESA. However, based on comparative examples such as Uganda and the sparse evidence from employer reports cited above, it seems that current language of instruction approaches have a negative impact on children's learning. In turn, this may contribute to fragility by undermining children's resilience and adding to numbers of out-of-school children due to high attrition rates at primary school level.

### **10.3 Quality Assurance Systems, Standards and Supervision**

*Developing standards in education and maintaining the desired quality remains a major challenge across education systems throughout the world. Quality in Education is the degree to which education can be said to be of high standard, satisfies basic learning needs, and enriches the lives of learners and their overall experience of living (UNESCO, 2000)*

The Somaliland National Education Policy defines Quality Assurance as a systematic way of developing and maintaining quality improvement as an integral and sustainable part of systems or organizations. It also sees its purpose in identifying strengths and weaknesses at school and wider institutional levels so that problems can be addressed and schools may maintain effective management systems, improve the quality of education provided, and raise the educational standards achieved by pupils. The policy further outlines two policy statements in regards to quality assurance;

- The Curriculum Development Institute (previously the Inspectorate) is the only one mandated, under the Somaliland National Education Policy to prescribe the norms and minimum standards related to the quality of education at centres of learning.
- The Quality Assurance Officer (QAO) has the power to enter and inspect any school at any time, with or without notice

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<sup>259</sup> Barakat et al. (2014).

The QASS is a department of the MOEHS in charge of Quality Assurance and Standards. The department has developed a comprehensive quality assurance checklist that guides school visits by quality advisors. The checklist has been developed in line with basic quality standards for education institutions and provides a broad list of items to be used in supervision and quality assurance in education delivery. Thus, the comprehensive checklist provides a measure of the extent to which the schools are achieving minimum standards across five indicators. Their reports provide excellent data for the Chief Inspector and Director General so that they know the standards achieved under each heading and the number of schools that are succeeding or failing. The indicators are:

- School Leadership, Management and Governance
- Teaching and Learning
- Teaching and Learning Materials
- The School environment
- Community Relation

The checklist complements the school inspector's handbook and the school supervision guidelines. This handbook and the guidelines are designed to help QAOs to give advice to schools on how to improve their schools and their teaching and assumes a more in depth supervision with the emphasis on guidance rather than measurement.

**School Support and Supervision.** While the systems and objectives for quality assurance are sound well thought out, their implementation has encountered numerous challenges that undermine their effectiveness. Strengthening school level supervision was a stated policy objective of the outgoing ESSP, with a target that at least 50% of accessible government schools receive annual supervision visits with reports and recommendations produced on improving quality at school level. No mention is made of supervision of private schools, thus raising questions regarding the overall regulatory authority of the MOEHS over the sector as a whole and risks of fragmentation. The plan also required that regular supervisory visits produce action plans to follow-up on addressing weaknesses identified at school level so as to support regular quality improvement of school management and children's learning.

The planned supervision visits began only recently, with the second school support and supervision exercise completed in 2016. This supervision was also only made possible by funding support from UNICEF. The lack of budget allocation from the ministry, and potentially other development partners, thus acted as a critical barrier to launching planned visits in earlier years and completing them on an annual basis.

**Challenges encountered with School Support and Supervision.** School supervision exercises that have been conducted thus far across the regions experienced several implementation challenges.

1. The allocated time for the school supervision was sufficient but not utilized as planned. The amount of time allocated, had it been well utilized would have been sufficient to complete the exercise.
2. Some of the trained supervisors did not participate in supervision exercises and were replaced by REOs without consultation of the central ministry or QASS department. These were local arrangements made between the trained supervisors and REOs which meant that the REOs stepped in to carry out tasks meant for the trained supervisors and this was neither approved nor communicated to the Ministry.

3. No official letter were issued from MOEHS indicating that Quality Assurance Officers are to perform this exercise
4. The checklist and the Handbook used for school supervision exercises needs alignment to ensure that minimum standards for school improvement. During school supervision exercises there were sometimes conflicting guidance provided from the different resources – which resulted in some confusion during supervision exercises for benchmarks with school improvement and related recommendations and guidance provided to school managers.
5. Some of the supervisors involved in the exercise spend less time on school supervision than was planned. For example, in some schools the teacher's classroom observation captured data on less than five teachers, with no time for discussion with teachers or the students to gather their views, Many of the supervision teams also failed to conduct any Focus Group Discussions with Community Education Committees (CECs), which could have provided information on Indicator 5 of the school supervision checklist.
6. REO and DEOs were expected to fully participate in supervision exercises, but this did not occur as planned. Generally gaps in planning and coordination led to some cases of exclusion of REOs and DEOs.
7. Weak logistical support and management was reported with rental vehicles which. In some instances, personnel left duty stations in the middle of school supervision exercises and, as a result, some schools could not be visited (e.g. in Sanaag). It is not clear whether this occurred due to security-related risks in places such as Sanaag, or personnel using rented vehicles for personal reasons not related to their duties.
8. In some instance, supervisors and drivers were paid without completing their assignments, which meant that not all schools could not be visited. It is not clear why personnel were paid without completing their assignments.
9. In some regions, regional quality assurance focal points were inactive or did not exist. In such instances, the participation of regional authorities was not maximized and amounted to lost opportunities for strengthening capacities for education service delivery at decentralized level.

The challenges experienced with the implementation of school supervision activities highlight several critical challenges with the MOEHS' capacity to exercise its quality assurance function at school level. As summarized in Table 45 below, these spring from: coordination and lack of clarity over roles between different levels of government and limited engagement of some regional offices, insufficient funds to carry out routine school supervision because of reliance on donor funding and limited allocations from the MOEHS budget (no specific budget line item from school supervision activities could be identified in the Cost and Financing Analysis of ministry expenditures for the education sector (see 'Supervision costs' in Table 17, government expenditure is nil), a need to improve the professional implementation of supervision activities by utilizing time as planned, conflicting guidance in various tools used, and perhaps most importantly weak follow-up with action plans designed to improve school management and education quality at school level. As a result, while the overall approach and design of quality assurance systems developed are sound and logical, the capacity weaknesses within Department of Quality Assurance and Standards Services has undermined effective implementation and the overall quality assurance role of the MOEHS.

Table 44. Summary of organizational capacity constraints – Quality Assurance and School Supervision

Issues & objectives – 2012	Status as at 2016
<p>MOEHE will employ more young qualified QAAS officers and pay well to motivate and retain them.</p>	<p>Recruitment of officers with the right skills yet to be done. Mentoring and on-the-job-training not actualized.</p> <p>Remuneration low with inconsistent funding resulting in reliance on donors and partners to pay directly to personnel through incentives or other mechanisms.</p> <p>Staff morale reportedly low among young staff members as a result which undermines commitment and energy to supervision activities.</p>
<p>At least 50% of accessible government schools receive annual supervisory visits that produce reports and recommendations, leading to actions that contribute to school level improvements</p>	<p>Accessible schools have been visited twice in the previous years and there is a plan to make follow-ups upon submission of supervision reports. However, this has not met the initial targets set in the previous ESSP with only two years of visits being completed by 2016.</p> <p>Not clear that school supervision reports have been produced and utilized by schools leading to school level improvements.</p> <p>Insufficient budget allocation from the MOEHS to support the operational implementation of activities (budget analysis of MOEHS expenditure shows nil for ‘Supervision activities’.</p> <p>Harmonization of school supervision plans yet to be done.</p>
<p>Lack of a comprehensive common framework for inspecting educational institutions which can be used uniformly by all inspectors in Somaliland</p>	<p>Comprehensive school supervision checklist developed but not harmonized with School Supervision Handbook thus undermining harmonization of supervision activities at school level.</p> <p>Decentralization of QAOs by providing means of transport and stationery to the regions and districts as well as decentralization of the budget has not been achieved.</p> <p>QASS has limited authority over privately managed schools, with supervision activities thus far only extending to government-run facilities. This has undermined a comprehensive framework and only added to the ongoing fragmentation of the education system which, for all intents and purposes, remains unregulated as a result.</p> <p>Not clear that school supervision reports or data generated is incorporated into an integrated data management system managed by the Department of Planning and Policy within</p>

	the MOEHS.
The Directorate of QAAS faces financial and infrastructural constraints	<p>The department continues to face constraints in terms of the resources allocated. For instance, there are insufficient resources to enable the QASOs reach as many schools as needed. Supervision remains dependent on donor funding. Lack of government investment in this area undermines government ownership and accountability over effective implementation.</p> <p>As a result, those schools not reached by supervision activities tend to be from the most rural and marginalized communities. This lack of investment thus amounts to a form of inequitable resource distribution that further marginalized the most disadvantaged community by not providing them with government supervision and quality assurance support.</p>
Majority of the QAAS officers lack the required modern knowledge, skills and competences to add value to the standards and quality of education in the institutions	<p>The assessment report reveals the extent of the gaps in modern knowledge and skills among the QAAS officers. These include gaps by the Supervision staff on the supervision checklist, quality assurance framework and minimum standards. However, the recommendations of the report are yet to be implemented.</p> <p>No routine training or professional development programmes for staff, and no established codes of conduct to regulate the work of officer identified during this ESA evaluation.</p>
There has not been the provision of routine professional development, encouragement, guidance and counselling to teachers through visits to schools and in-service trainings.	<p>Professional encouragement and counselling have not been rolled out by QASS. There have been some on-and-off training and mentoring programmes for teachers and school principals based on donor funding in the place of continuous capacity building.</p> <p>MOEHS has not developed guidance materials/resources that can be used by school managers that can be used on a day-to-day basis at school level.</p>

#### 10.4 Examinations and Learning Achievement Tests

Strengthening examination and learning achievement-testing systems is recognized as a priority for improving the quality of learning outcomes for children. In recent years this field has increasingly been supported as a priority intervention area for international donors and development partners. Somaliland has, however, already focused on this area for several years to varying levels of success, as discussed below.

The Somaliland National Examinations Council (SNEC), established in 2011, is responsible for the national examinations system and the accreditation of certificates for primary, secondary, teacher education and tertiary sub-sectors of education and training. The management of overseas scholarships has also been added to the scope and functions of



the Council. It aims at providing fair and transparent exams that will accurately measure the achievements of students in both the formal and non-formal sectors of education. Through the exams, SNEC aims to promote high standards of education, greater skills and provides recognition of academic achievement in general. The draft SNEC Act, which in mid-2012 was yet to be enacted, provides the legal basis for the overall status, mandate and functions of the SNEC. Through the SNEC, the MOEHS is responsible for the assessment and certification of final examinations of public and private education institutions.

The overall design of the examination system is sound and fit-for-purpose. It manages and delivers quality exams at Form 4 level. It has a high-cost model that relies on rigid and expensive supervision and quality marking as well as a number of strict security systems to avoid leakage of examinations and protect the integrity of the examination system. Since 2012, the MOEHS has also increasingly invested much more of its own funds to this area, increasing from USD 18,333 in 2012 to USD 385,500 in 2016, an increase of some 2048% over four years. Presumably this increased funding is primarily utilized for the printing, distribution of exams across different school levels and categories and, importantly, protection mechanisms along different points of the supply chain.

However, there are numerous challenges with the examination system as well as uncertainties about its ability to cater to the needs of marginalized communities. First, examination distribution systems seem not to reach ABE centers in rural areas – examination and learning assessments appear absent from ABE facilities as suggested in Chapter 8. No evidence was available for this assessment as to whether examinations are distributed to IDP communities, or what proportion of IDP children who are in school are able to complete exams. Additionally, no evidence was available to assess whether exams are appropriate for pastoral and other traditional communities and thus potentially reproduce cultural inequities toward traditional communities and lifestyles (i.e. content of examination materials may be designed in a way that will ensure poor educational performance of such communities). The examination model is yet to be updated to cater for pastoralists and IDPs as well as the extremely marginalized members of the community. Additionally, although the outgoing ESSP identified the importance of updating evaluation systems to include formative assessments during different periods of the education cycle/school year, examination processes still rely on summative final examinations. As a result, children's holistic learning is not promoted and many learners can be unfairly assessed on the basis of only one data point – the final exam. An important area not addressed in examination systems also seems to be with Early Grade Reading Assessments (EGRA). Considering evidence from Chapter 6 on Primary Education and high attrition rates up to Grade 5, building on initiatives around EGRA seem critical to address a key point at which children are lost from education – the early grades.

There are also burning questions about sustainability and accountability of the examination system. Even though national budget to allocations to SNEC have increased dramatically over the years, it still receives at least 70% of its funding from donors. Assuming this is a proportion of the total annual budget of USD 385,500, the government allocates USD 115,650 of its own funds with the remaining USD 269,850 coming from donors. This places the MOEHS, and ultimately children and learners, in a highly vulnerable position. If donor funding in this areas reduces, the capacity to administer the examination system in an equitable fashion will be further diminished beyond current conditions. Additionally, given the amount of funds involved which, in the context of Somaliland are substantial, risks (such

as those outlined in Chapter 3) related to procurement, contracting and supply of exams needs much greater consideration than is possible here. Moreover, little information was available for this assessment regarding selection processes for scholarships administered by SNEC, and to degree these have been equitably and fairly distributed to promising young students in Somaliland. This is an area that should not be neglected. The control of these resources can generate social and political conflict and reproduce political and economic inequities within Somali society by excluding those who are not from the well-connected political classes of different clans.

While there have been commendable gains in strengthening examination systems in Somaliland, the incoming ESSP will need to address funding sustainability issues as well as conduct in-depth analysis of transparency and accountability processes of SNEC related to procurement and supply to mitigate sector management risks outlined in Chapter 3 and how the MOEHS has been able to balance political demands with procurement processes. Additionally, further research is required on how issues of inequity can be better addressed through the distribution of exams to vulnerable communities such as pastoralists and IDS and whether the content and design of examinations may reproduce insufficiently pay recognition to traditional livelihoods and economies.<sup>260</sup>

The table below gives a summary of the achievements and shortfalls in this key area under the outgoing ESSP.

Table 45. Organizational and capacity development needs of the Somaliland National Examinations Council (SNEC)

Issues & objectives – 2012	Status as at 2016	Recommendations
<sup>261</sup> Reliable, accurate and relevant examinations enhanced through consultations with all stakeholders by 2016	<p>The draft SNEC Act has not been forwarded to parliament for approval, wide consultations thus not completed and approved</p> <p>The SNEC board is semi-functional and does not meet regularly unless there is an emergency situation, thus undermining effective coordination and consensus building</p>	<p>Engage parliament to endorse the draft SNEC Act</p> <p>Ensure that all stakeholders contribute to the SNEC Act, including marginalized communities (pastoralist, IDPs, urban poor, etc.), to mitigate form of cultural exclusion and promote equitable representation in education content</p> <p>Ensure that all the education stakeholders adhere to and operationalize the SNEC Act</p>
<sup>262</sup> SNE operational costs should be mainstreamed in the	<b>Partially</b> 30% funded by government, while 70% by donors	Incorporate the budget for primary, secondary and tertiary exams annually in the MOEHS

<sup>260</sup> *Novelli et al*, Exploring the Linkages between Education Sector Governance, Inequity, Conflict, and Peacebuilding in South Sudan, *University of Sussex, UNICEF ESARO, 2016*

<sup>261</sup> *Somaliland National Examination Council (SNEC)*

<sup>262</sup> MOEHS Finance Department

Issues & objectives – 2012	Status as at 2016	Recommendations
government budget by 2013	Inadequate financial support from the MOEHS and unpredictable long-term funding support from NGO's and donors causes delays in setting, marking and moderating exams, with risks of aggravating inequities if donor funding ceases;	budget in full  Strengthen accountability and transparency mechanisms of procurement processes
<sup>263</sup> Enhance close collaboration and links among the examination, curriculum, syllabi and textbooks systems and the inspectorate for all sub-sectors examined by the SNE	<b>50% partially achieved.</b> Poor relationships between the SNEC and the Curriculum Development Centers and inspectorate departments  Poor record keeping resulting from the use of manual data keeping system and lack of adequate space. This has recently been digitalized but still needs to be verified	Ensure that there is close collaboration between the examination system, curriculum, syllabi, textbooks and quality assurance system across all subsectors of education that fall under the mandate of the SNEC  Review and update content of exams to align with new curriculum framework and promote inclusion and equity by addressing cultural and economic representation of different groups in examination content
<sup>264</sup> Upgrade the technical and resource capacity of the SNE  Provide conducive working environment for examination setting, marking and moderation	<b>Partial.</b> Inadequate educational facilities (furniture and space) in schools for Grade 8 exams which compromises the validity, reliability and fairness of the assessment and examination instruments. This is particularly true for children from public schools that are less well-resourced compared to private schools.	Continue long-term technical assistance to provide training and capacity building  In close collaboration with the International partners in education, invest in building the knowledge, skills and competence levels of the SNEC staff and recruit more young professionals to join the commission

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<sup>263</sup> Somaliland National Examination Council (SNEC)

<sup>264</sup> Somaliland National Examination Council (SNEC)

Issues & objectives – 2012	Status as at 2016	Recommendations
<p><sup>265</sup>Move from the current manual operational system into modern electronic and technology assisted operational system for data collection and analyses</p>	<p><b>Partial.</b> The MOEHS has shifted from manual operations to modern electronic technology with the creation of an ICT unit.</p> <p>However, manual signing of the certificates is still practices and creates delays and inconvenience for parents and students because of lengthy processes with securing signatures from senior officials</p>	<p>In close collaboration with the International partners in education, invest in an electronic/ technology assisted operational system and in the training of all SNEP staff in that system;</p> <p>Adopt an electronic system for signing national education certificates.</p> <p>Integrate assessment results into database for Department of Planning EMIS Unit, ensuring data is disaggregated by gender and region (see Chapter 12)</p>
<p>Provide intensive capacity building programmers to the existing staff, segregating roles and responsibilities and creating curriculum and examination subject units and panels within the SNE</p>	<p><b>Partial.</b> Insufficient attention paid to formative assessment in examination. In practice, therefore teachers tend to ignore aspects of learning that are not examinable, even if they are emphasized in the curriculum, and are important for the learners' holistic development</p>	<p>Devise and apply mechanisms that ensure that all teachers understand relevant educational measurement and evaluation principles paying much greater attention to formative assessment throughout the education cycle, not only summative examinations (i.e. final exams).</p>
<p>Reform the current assessment and examination systems, particularly secondary and tertiary to give sufficient attention to formative assessment and examination</p>	<p><b>Not Achieved</b> In current practice, teachers ignore aspects of learning that are not examinable, even if they are emphasized in the curriculum, and are important for the learners holistic development</p>	<p>Update evaluation system so that formative examinations form a component of overall final student learning assessments, rather than relying only on one data point (i.e. final exams)</p> <p>Early Grade Reading and Assessments (EGRA) have in recent years been introduced to Somaliland. EGRA is critical to improve early grade learning and address high attrition rates and requires significantly more investment than has been the case</p>

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<sup>265</sup> Somaliland National Examination Council (SNEC)

Issues & objectives – 2012	Status as at 2016	Recommendations
		to date

## 10.5 Key Findings and Recommendations

Over the period of the outgoing ESSP the MOEHS with support of development partners and donors has made significant progress with strengthening systems for quality assurance and learning assessments. The overall structure governance structure of the MOEHS is sound and fit-for-purpose in terms of strengthening curriculum, quality assurance and supervision of schools through the QASS, and examination and assessment systems. If managed and implemented effectively these mechanisms within the ministry will make a tremendous contribution to improving the quality of services in schools and improve learning outcomes for children. In doing so, critical dimensions of fragility related to weak governance capacity to deliver effective social services will be addressed. In turn, this will promote resilient communities and support children in breaking with chronic patterns of vulnerability and minimize their exposure to numerous risks that are man-made or environmental.

### *Key Findings*

- The MOEHS has made significant progress at improving the content and quality of the education curriculum. It has addressed contentious historical and social issues by developing a competency-based curriculum that promotes inclusion, social cohesion and equity and will support learners in becoming constructive citizens – if effectively implanted in classrooms and day-to-day lesson plans.
- Flexible scheduling for schooling has been recognized as a means of increasing access to education, while subject matters in theory promote culture recognition of different communities and increase constructive forms of citizenship that will help support Statebuilding and sustainable peace and development.
- Key challenges, however, remain around issues of language of instruction, which need further assessment in terms of how this impacts upon children’s learning. Moreover, overall authority over the sector remains weak, particularly with the sector oversight by the MOEHS, particularly over private foundations.
- There also remain numerous with the language policy, which has its roots in contested ideology over language of instruction and the role of education in shaping future citizens of the country.
- Policies on the use of English language at higher grade levels may also undermine quality learning outcomes for children and adolescents.
- While the MOEHS has a sound system for quality assurance and supervision, organizational weaknesses pose a challenge for the MOEHS to carry out functions effectively. Government investment in school supervision, for example, has remained at nil over the past several years. Moreover, activities thus entirely dependent upon donor funding and partner support.
- Commendable progress has been made with strengthening examination and assessment systems, with budget to this Department increasing from USD 18,333 in 2012 to USD 385,500 in 2016, an increase of some 2048%. However, it still receives at least 70% of its funding from donors, making the system highly dependent and vulnerable to collapse if donors withdraw.

- There are issues related to equity that may be problematic in relation to examination systems. Groups such as IDPs, pastoralists or those attending ABE may not have access to examinations due to resource distribution.
- The management of resources such as scholarship and contract allocations for production and distribution of exams pose governance risks that merit further study.

### **Key Recommendations:**

In addition to the more detailed recommendations provided in summary boxes found in the body of the chapter, several priority recommendations are identified as follows:

- Capacity deficiencies identified in this chapter tend to cut across all departments of the ministry, though to varying degrees. A robust capacity assessment should be conducted to support the MOEHS and donors in developing a holistic capacity development strategy to improve management and service delivery of the MOEHS.
- Across most areas the government needs to ensure that sufficient resources are allocated to the department responsible for managing the critical functions explored in this chapter. Many of the policy and structures are sound and can be very effective, but evidence shows that critical capacity gaps spring from insufficient resources invested to effectively implement activities.

### ***Curriculum***

- The MOEHS should conduct a full-fledged study of its language of instruction policy, as well as its implementation, and this impacts learning outcomes for children and impacts upon the ministry's ability to regulate the overall sector.
- English as a medium of instruction can only be addressed in the next ESSP if more resources are put into English teaching both in Primary schools and at the point of transition to English medium, with greater attention to training of teachers and supplying children with appropriate learning materials that better support transition to English language learning.

### ***Quality Assurance Systems, Standards and Supervision***

- Recruit qualified QASS officers and ensure funding for their salaries is a part of recurrent government expenditure, rather than dependent on stipends provided by partner agencies.
- Strengthen regional capacities by allocating sufficient resources for transportation to regions to conduct school supervision.
- Establish an enforceable code of conduct for school supervisors.
- Develop mechanisms to share school supervision reports directly with school and integrate school findings into the EMIS system managed by the Department of Planning and Policy within the MOEHS.
- Strengthen sector coherence by expanding school supervision exercises to private schools. However, as with language policy, careful dialogue is needed to generate consensus among all stakeholders to avoid generating societal conflict.
- Develop guidance materials/resources that can be used by school managers on a day-to-day basis at school level.

### ***Examinations and Learning Achievement Tests***

- Review and update content of exams to align with new curriculum framework and promote inclusion and equity by addressing cultural and economic representation of different groups in examination content
- Current examination systems should be buttressed with EGRA. Evidence shows that attrition rates in primary school are highest up to Grade 5 level. EGRA will help address this problem
- Update evaluation system so that formative examinations form a component of overall final student learning assessments, rather than relying only on one data point (i.e. final exams)
- Integrate assessment results into the EMIS database managed by the Department of Planning and Policy's EMIS Unit, ensuring data is disaggregated by gender and region (see Chapter 12)
- The MOEHS should commission an assessment/audit to strengthening procurement and resource allocations systems of the National Examinations Council (SNEC).

## 11. Chapter 11 – Higher Education

### 11.1 Background

The Higher Education (HE) sector is relatively new in Somaliland. As a result, data on university education in Somaliland is extremely limited due to lack of regulation of institutions and insufficient Ministry involvement.

The first university, Amoud University, was launched in 1998. By 2011, the number of higher education institutions registered with the MOEHS reached 16, with a total student population of about 15,000<sup>266</sup>. Each of the original six regions now has at least one university.<sup>267</sup> There are seven public universities located in each of the Somaliland regions<sup>268</sup>. Additionally, the number of private universities has increased to 35 to accommodate public demand for tertiary education<sup>269</sup>.

### 11.2 Policy Objective

The MOEHS states its vision for the HE subsector as “Centers of academic excellence that meet the development needs of the country”. Its mission is to strengthen quality HE programmes that promote research, knowledge transfer, lifelong learning, and produce individuals who are competitive and innovative with high moral values to meet the nation’s aspirations<sup>270</sup>. The MOEHS goals for the subsector are to:

- Improve the legal framework and enabling organisational infrastructure that support higher education
- Improve the financial capacity of the public higher education institutions by 500% within the next 5 years
- Increase equitable access and retention in higher education by 50% within the next 5 years by advocating for merging of universities to strengthen faculty capacities in terms of finance and human resources
- Improve the quality of teaching and learning (academic and research programmes) for enhanced students achievement
- Promote and expand the provision of science and technology faculties and ensure that higher education opportunities match with the socio-economic needs of the nation and are competitive in the international labour market
- Promote technical education at secondary level to conduct applied research in promising economic sectors
- Provide female students and other disadvantaged students with special opportunities to access higher education
- Improve physical facilities, training infrastructure and support services that relate to higher education

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<sup>266</sup>JPLG\_geopolity\_report\_SL, page 37

<sup>267</sup>Based on discussions in ESA workshop meeting held 5/2016, it is believed these have increased to 27.

<sup>268</sup> Ref: Revised and Merged National Ed. Policy 5, Somaliland National Policy in education, 2015-2030

<sup>269</sup> UN Habitat. 2014. *Assessment report on the capacity of Somaliland University Law Schools to effectively undertake enrichment and expansion initiatives in their law curriculum.*

<sup>270</sup> Republic of Somaliland MOEHS. 2012. *Education Sector Strategic Plan (2012-16)*



- Ensure good accreditation and standardization of higher education institutions and programmes to fulfil quality assurance standards of the higher education commission;
- Develop competent, efficient and effective senate governing bodies for higher education institutions;
- Create and expand linkages between local higher education institutions and international universities, organizations, research institutes and Somaliland diaspora communities.

### 11.3 Current status

#### Overview Higher education institutions

Available data on higher education institutions is provided below, listing a total of 17 across Somaliland.

Table 46. Higher Education Institutions in Somaliland

Name	Location	Camp uses	Established	Ownership	Website
Amoud University	Borama Somaliland	3	1998	Non-profit, started by Community elders and business people	<a href="http://amouduniversity.org">http://amouduniversity.org</a>
University of Hargeisa	Hargeisa Southwest Somaliland	2	2000	Public	<a href="http://www.huniversity.net">www.huniversity.net</a>
Gollis University	Hargeisa	7	2004	Non-profit, supported by World Bank, African Development Bank and UN agencies	<a href="http://www.gollisuniversity.com">www.gollisuniversity.com</a>
Admas University College	Hargeisa	No Data	2006	Private-owned Ethiopian	<a href="http://www.admashmc.com">www.admashmc.com</a>
Burao University	Burao, Togdheer	No Data	2004	Non-profit, supported by World Bank, African Development Bank and UN agencies	<a href="http://universityofburao.com/">http://universityofburao.com/</a>
Nugal University	Las-Anod	No Data	2004	Public	<a href="http://www.nugaaluniversity.com/">http://www.nugaaluniversity.com/</a>
Eelo American University	Borama	No Data	No Data	No Data	No Data
International Horn University	Hargeisa	No Data	No Data	No Data	No Data
Addis Ababa Medical College	Hargeisa	5	2008	Private-owned Ethiopian	No Data
Tima'ade University	Gabile	No Data	No Data	Community-owned	<a href="http://www.university-directory.eu/Somalia/Tima-ade-University.html">http://www.university-directory.eu/Somalia/Tima-ade-University.html</a>
Hope University	Hargeisa	No Data	2008	Public	<a href="http://hope-university.org">http://hope-university.org</a>
Sanaag University	Erigavo North of Somaliland	No Data	2009	Public for Republic of Somaliland	<a href="http://4icu.org/reviews/12336.htm">http://4icu.org/reviews/12336.htm</a> <a href="http://www.tertiaryonline.com/sanaag-university-science-">http://www.tertiaryonline.com/sanaag-university-science-</a>

Name	Location	Campuses	Established	Ownership	Website
					technology-reviews/
Abaarso Tech University	Hargeisa	No Data	No Data	No Data	No Data
Alpha University College	Hargeisa	No Data	2009	Private-owned Ethiopian	No Data
New Generation University College	Hargeisa	No Data	2010	Private, owned Community-	No Data
Edna University Hospital	Hargeisa	No Data	No Data	No Data	No Data
Bader College	Hargeisa	No Data	2008	Non-profit Community-owned	No Data

### Regulatory framework initiatives

In the attempt to enhance implementation of the ESSP goals and regulate the quality of HES, the Directorate of Higher Education (in 2015) developed draft higher education framework guidelines, and a functional review by the Directorate was carried-out to improve the delivery of services. An organizational structure of the Directorate General overseeing five departments headed by a Director with departments comprising of: Planning and policy, University Oversight, Technical Education, Administration/Finance and Research.

The Directorate's first mandate was to develop "Minimum Standards for Universities" criteria by which universities will be assessed annually, starting in 2016. By September of 2016 the Minimum Standards Assessments had not yet been conducted, with MOEHS officials citing a lack of technical support and financial capacity as the reasons. This challenge was echoed in a number of shortfalls of the HE sector goals set at the inception of the 2012-16 ESSP, as discussed later in this chapter.

For short- and medium- term planning, the Directorate of HE developed a 2016 annual plan with 4 outcomes:

- Improved standard of universities in Somaliland
- Improved quality of graduates through standardized university curriculum
- Improved access to post-secondary school technical education and professional skills development
- Increased access of marginalized communities to university education, including gender equity

No documentation is available as to the actual achievement of these outcomes. It is noted that without clear-cut performance parameters or benchmarks the degree of achievement is difficult to verify.

### Enrolment in HE

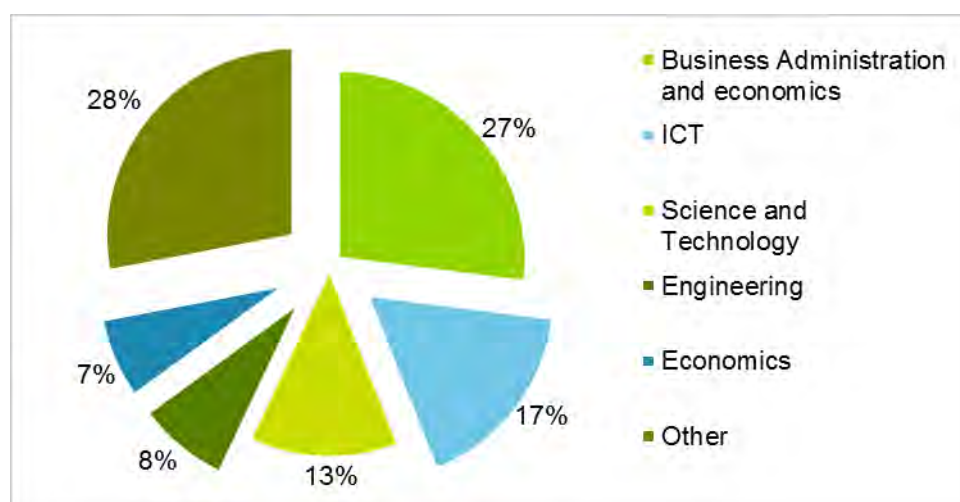
A 2014 Joint Review<sup>271</sup> of the education sector noted that HE participation rates had improved significantly with high admissions recorded, especially in the Bachelor of Arts courses. In 2011/2012 a total of 4,484 students were enrolled which had increased to 5,256 in 2012/2013. Universities such as the University of Hargeisa maintained double-shift programmes to accommodate demand. However, findings also suggest that student admission process are not guided by a clear and rigorous policy, i.e., there are no standard criteria applicable to guide the admission of students.

Students undertaking undergraduate courses constituted approximately 95% of the student population in universities. The JRES also noted that access to university education was skewed along gender lines with a significantly higher male student population. The JRES consultations noted that the significant rise in secondary enrolments and completion rates would likely lead to a substantial expansion in the tertiary sector. The extent to which the HE institutions in Somaliland are prepared to cope with this expected expansion was also a key discussion point during technical working group discussion for HE that fed into this ESA report

### Distribution of HE learners by faculty/ programmes/ electives

As noted above and in discussions on EMIS, the MOEHS presently lacks a database for the HE sector across the country. Data from multiple non-government sources reveal that there are some 10,500 male and 4,900 female students in Somaliland enrolled across the 17 institutions listed above<sup>272</sup>, with 902 teaching staff and 416 non-teaching staff. The most popular courses are Business Administration, ICT, Science and Technology, Engineering and Economics. Figure 69 shows the distribution of students by types of courses offered. Less than 0.5% of the courses are at Master's level. It is also noted that 'education science' is not a popular course at university level, probably attributable to the poor working conditions and remuneration for teachers in the country<sup>273</sup>.

Figure 71. STUDENT DISTRIBUTION BY MAJOR



<sup>271</sup> MOEHS, Aide Mémoire Joint Review of the Education Sector (JRES) Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) February 24th – 25th 2014

<sup>272</sup> As noted below, there are no accurate gender disaggregated official statistics; app. one third of the student population are female.

<sup>273</sup> Focus Group Discussion with MOEHS HE Working Group, Hargeisa, August 2016.

## HIPS\_Higher\_Education\_ENGLISH August 2013 Faculty – Student ratios

A 2013 survey<sup>274</sup> on HEIs in Somalia (Including Somaliland) revealed the following information on select universities: Hargeisa, Amoud and Gollis, which represent the three largest universities in Somaliland. Table 43 summarizes the number of lecturers provided per year in the three universities. There are clearly regional disparities in terms of student population and student-lecturer ratio. In Gollis university, despite having the smallest student body and fewest lecturers, the student-lecturer ratio is highest.

Table 47. Lecturers in Hargeisa, Amoud and Gollis Universities

HEI	Students	Lecturers	Student/Lecturer Ratio
Hargeisa University	4,000	200	20:1
Amoud University	3,887	212	18:1
Gollis University	2,778	25	111:1

## HIPS\_Higher\_Education\_ENGLISH August 2013 Lecturer qualifications

In Somaliland's three largest universities, lecturer qualifications range from Bachelor's Degree to PhD degree, as shown in Table 26.

Table 48. Lecturer Qualifications in Hargeisa, Amoud and Gollis Universities

HEI	PhD		Master's Degree		Bachelors Degree		Total
Hargeisa University	3	1.5%	10	5.0%	187	93.5%	200
Amoud University	10	4.7%	146	68.9%	56	26.4%	212
Gollis University	8	32.0%	11	44.0%	6	24.0%	25
<b>Total</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>4.8%</b>	<b>167</b>	<b>38.2%</b>	<b>249</b>	<b>57.0%</b>	<b>437</b>

HIPS\_Higher\_Education\_ENGLISH August 2013 Whilst the data above is not representative considering the few number of universities surveyed, it is reflective of realities experienced by the three most established public universities in the country. Of 437 recorded university lecturers, a total of 57% only have a Bachelor's Degree. The university with the greatest proportion of lecturers with a bachelor's degree is Hargeisa University, with 97%, with Amoud and Gollis each with around 25% of lecturers have a Bachelor's Degree. While just under 5% of all lecturers hold a PhD, Gollis University has the highest proportion with 32% of lecturers hold a PhD (8), compared to Hargeisa University which has only 1.5% of lecturers having a PhD (3). Even though Hargeisa University has a much larger number of lecturers, the total number of those with a PhD (only 3) suggests that, unlike Gollis, Hargeisa University does not have a clear policy or intent to recruit lecturers who have PhDs. While faring better, Amoud University has just under 5% of its lecturers with a PhD (10). However, Amoud has a large proportion at Master's level (almost 70%, or 146), compared to 44% (or 11) in Gollis. Hargeisa University thus appears to have least invested in hiring of lecturers

<sup>274</sup> Heritage Institute for Policy Studies. 2013. *The state of higher education in Somalia: Privatization, rapid growth, and the need for regulation*. Mogadishu: HIPS.

with higher academic qualification as only a combined total of lecturers have either a PhD (3) or Master's (10). The remaining 187 lecturers are all Bachelor degree holders.

While analysis of lecturer qualifications shows interesting variations across universities, there is no discernable pattern demonstrated by the data. The only clear observation is that some universities have invested more in ensuring that lecturers have higher academic qualification compared to others and it is surprising that Hargeisa University, being in the capital of Somaliland, is not among these. This does however help to explain the low lecturer-learner ratio for Hargeisa University cited in Table 44 and would further suggest significant inefficiencies in human resource management. There may therefore also be other valid reasons to the staffing pattern in Hargeisa University related to political and social dynamics that go beyond considerations for efficiencies in staff recruitment and lecturer-learner ratios.

Observations JRES consultations conducted in 2014 and reinforced during ESA validation workshop discussions suggest several means of improving the qualifications of lecturers and quality of education in universities. These include:

- Mobilize financial resources to train lecturers to doctoral level
- Most universities do not, as a policy, ensure that external moderators and evaluators are part of the summative examinations and this should be corrected in the future
- The Commission for Higher Education (CHE) should be strengthened to enable it enforce accreditation processes for lecturers. In addition, all universities must be accredited by the CHE and MOEHS
- The CHE should constitute a University Inspection Committee to conduct regular inspections and ensure quality assurance and compliance which regional and international standards

### **Infrastructure and programmes**

The JRES findings in 2014 indicate that infrastructure in most Somaliland universities is inadequate for the provision of quality programmes. Universities lack adequate library resources, lecture hall spaces, essential texts and other media, and science laboratories. Although efforts have been made to address these needs, such as in 2013 when the government provided capital for the construction of a lecture hall in Nuugal University<sup>275</sup>, insufficient investments have been made over the years.

### **Financing**

During the period of the outgoing ESSP, the government instituted a policy for increasing budget allocations to universities for conducting research that would enrich the quality of higher education and contribute to the economic, social and political development of the country. This was intended to support research grants to promote Somaliland natural resources such as fisheries, dry land agriculture, animal by-products and energy alternatives to land degradation. This policy goal was not achieved with few funds being allocated as planned.

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<sup>275</sup> MOEHS, Aide Mémoire Joint Review of the Education Sector (JRES) Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) February 24th – 25th 2014

The CHE states that the current government budget appropriation for the year 2016 amounted to USD 450,000. According to the Government's National Revenue Funding document, the projected budget to Higher Education for 2016 was given as USD 1,043,196. Whilst no explanation for this discrepancy could be found, it indicates considerable inter-departmental miscommunication at best, and might suggest other questionable practices at worst. Ultimately the result is lower research capacities suggesting insufficient capacity to support higher education given competing priorities in the education sector and the government's need to focus on primary education, particularly for disadvantaged and vulnerable children.

In this regard, a key dilemma faced in the government is that diverting resources to finance HE will inevitably aggravate inequities in lower levels of the education system and contribute to intergenerational patterns of risk, vulnerability and poverty which have trapped the majority of Somalis for decades.

### **Diversification of HE institutions and Polytechnics**

According to consultative workshops related to the HE sector, there has been a partial improvement 20% on the state of Higher Education since 2012. Working Group participants highlighted the need to allocate a technical advisor to the Higher Education sector to improve capacity in sector management.

Participants to ESA consultations also stated that the government should find means of supporting the expansion of technical education institutions linked to Somaliland's natural resources for post-secondary students. Thus far, higher education opportunities and training have been focused mainly on Art and Humanities courses and technical education has been limited. Only three universities, Amoud University, Burao University and Golis University, offer courses related to Animal Science, Agriculture and Environment. However, given that some 35% of the Somaliland population is pastoralist (with an additional 11% classified as 'rural'), and the largest contribution to GDP is livestock and agriculture (estimated at 60%), there should be more emphasis at university level at increasing the population's capacity to exploit these opportunities. As emphasized previously, full research should be undertaken into the natural resources of Somaliland geared to unmasking the potential for sustainable economic development based on traditional communities and livelihood practices. Additionally, the creation/expansion of polytechnics can help to support young people in securing affordable qualifications and specialized skills aligned to employment opportunities in a way that will capitalize upon Somaliland's untapped economic potentials.

### **Research and publications**

No university reported being engaged in research activities. Publications and research are usually considered a key indicator of institutional and academic capacity. Only a small number of well-trained PhD holders is in place. During ESA validation meetings workshop it was recommended to enhance university capacities to carry out applied research and development. In this regard, a key recommendation is to advocate with the donor community and aid agencies to ensure all research consultancy contracts are carried out through the auspices of local public universities at the regional level – as much as possible and contingent upon local researchers being suitably qualified. In cases where local institutes cannot fully manage research contracts they can, nevertheless, be engaged on research teams to support capacity development locally. This will provide added value and mainstreaming of knowledge to the local academic institutions.

## **Accreditations, affiliations and other institutional relations with partner institutions**

A networking conference took place in 2015 attended by East African Universities, followed by a study tour to Ethiopia by the HE Directorate and commission staff. In 2016, the Association of Arab universities based in Amman, Jordan and representing over 30 universities carried out extensive visits to local private and public universities in Hargeisa, Berbera, Burao, and Borama. These and other activities suggest potential for building linkages with Ministries of Education in the Arab region and elsewhere. To further build networks, key activities should focus on:

### **11.4 National Commission for Higher Education**

The National Commission of Higher Education (NCHE) was established in 2011 and is responsible for advising the Minister on all matters relating to the accreditation of Higher Education institutions. It is also responsible for monitoring and evaluating the quality and standards of higher learning institutions. The university legal framework has been completed and validated and became operational in 2015. At the same time, other relevant quality assurance assessment tools such as the minimum university standards guidelines and the career development guidance manuals have been completed and are now operational.

However, the HE sector is severely underfunded. The ESA validation workshop confirmed the need to increase the MOEHS' focus on higher education by supporting the minimum universities standards assessments to be carried out by the Directorate of Higher Education (DHE) in collaboration with the Commission (Higher Education). At the same time the DHE will carry out career guidance sensitization workshops in all secondary schools in Somaliland. The key objective is to guide high school students on employable career development options such as marine studies, health care services, veterinary and so forth. The Directorate plans to advocate for the introduction of higher technical and vocational courses for post-secondary school leavers. This should become subject of further analysis as international practice is to allocate the Diploma level of Technician Training in the area of TVET.

ESA validation workshop participants felt that while the NCHE sector works well with international organizations, its relations with the HE directorate needs to be improved, and regular consultations should become the rule. This would facilitate a joint discussion and formulation of regulatory frameworks, such as the Education Act or the proposed Higher Education quality assurance and standards system.

### **Functions of the Commission for Higher Education (CHE)**

Several functions have been conferred on the Commission of Higher Education under Presidential Degree. CHE exercises the following key functions:

- Accreditation and regular inspection of universities
- Setting up of quality assurance and standards for higher education institutions
- Co-ordination and regulation of admissions to universities;
- Co-operate with the government in the planning of human resources development through accredited higher education institutions
- Advise and make recommendations to the Minister on matters relating to higher education.

- To meet market and industry needs. A key role is to ensure the academic independence of internal autonomy of universities to discharge their duties.
- Quality assurance: The commission and with the support of the directorate will carry out minimum universities standards assessment this year and issue compliancy reports. Universities failing to meet the standards will have their accreditation revoked or at the least their viability will be judged by market competitiveness which is quite high.
- University Curriculum standards and admission criteria – This area requires technical support but is integrated in the existing work plan
- Skewed student enrolment in arts and humanities
- The need to review existing policies: the purpose is to explore achievements under current policies and identify effective practices.

These functions should be amended by an agreed framework of Quality Monitoring. In addition, the Commission should address the following challenges in the forthcoming ESSP period:

- Unclear and often overlapping roles and responsibilities of directorate of higher education and HEC.
- Implementation of existing frameworks: Currently the mandates and functions of the HEC are not enacted in any bill therefore the commission finds legally difficult to conduct evaluation of higher education institutions.
- Weak coordination between the commission of higher education and the higher education institutions.
- Insufficient provision of funding: Currently the Commission is totally under-funded.
- Inadequate professional knowledge and skills to effectively perform the core institutional functions (e.g. inspecting and auditing of higher education institutions); the Commission should re-think its recruitment policies and make the necessary changes.

The following table provides a summary of discussions regarding the Commission that were collected as part of the ESA data collection and consultations:



Table 49. Policy priorities and strategies mandated to the CHE to pursue by 2016

Objective	Base line 2012	Achievement at 2016 and Comments	Evidence/documents and reference	Recommendations for Improvement
In close collaboration with the directorate of HE, the Commission is committed to developing Higher Education Act and the Universities Act so that the commission is legally empowered in carrying out its mandate	Yes	Not yet approved by the parliamentary council	Higher education Act	
The commission is committed to and will develop and implement in the near future a HE quality assurance and standards system	Yes	Well achieved	Minimum standards	
The NCHE will invest and develop its own organizational infrastructure necessary to effectively carry out its mandate;	Yes	Partially achieved	No document	Needs to be finalized for the coming years
The NCHE will invest in the development of the technical capacity of its existing staff as well as recruit 5 more specialised professionals in the field of HE	Yes	Achieved	Human section	Needs to increase the specialized professionals staff in the field of HE
The Commission will maintain close working relationship and networking with the directorate of higher education, international development agencies and other international bodies that work in higher education	Partially	Not achieved		Since 2012, the roles and responsibility of higher education and commission for higher education are unclear and this problem damages the relationship between HE and CHE . But NCHE works well with international organizations

## 11.5 External efficiency

Available programmes offered to learners in universities remain subject to revision given their weak results in producing employable graduates. Annually, over 2,000 fresh job-seekers are produced of which only 10% are absorbed by the local employment market. Of the 10% finding employment immediately, around half are science-based graduates from the fields of medicine, while the rest are business and administration graduates. As noted by technical working groups during the ESA validation,

It has become fashionable for citizens to complain that expatriates are occupying positions which rightfully belong to locals but what is not mentioned is that the expatriates are here because their particular skills are not available in the country because the multitude of institutions are in competition to provide business administration and ICT courses only. We need polytechnics that provide not necessarily degrees but diplomas and certificates in studies pertaining to nutrition, mechanics, draughtsmanship, clinical officers, electronics, accountancy etc. These are the jobs that drive a nation forward.

## 11.6 Key findings and recommendations

It is reiterated that the Somaliland context requires clear strategies to take full advantage of the given natural opportunities and resources, and build a diversified skilled workforce that can access all forms of further education and training by opening technical institute pathways and standardized quality university education.

The MOEHS has largely focused on supporting formal basic and secondary education. Whilst this is a sound approach to build the basis of the “education pyramid”, it also generates socio-political pressure and momentum for higher education systems, which need to cater for the needs of students transiting from basic/secondary education.

### Key findings

- The draft of higher education ACT for the Commission developed and HE policy developed and in cooperated into the Education Policy
- In the past decade, the Government has been offering and still does, cash subsidies worth 354,000 to 18 Public and private universities. Each gets an average of \$22,000 per year.
- Universities increased from 6 to 35 in the last 5 years due to private sector capital investment with increased access outcome
- 1- Full research should be undertaken into the natural resources with sustained potential for economic development; but
- 2- No university reported being engaged in research activities. As publications and research are usually considered a key indicator of institutional and academic capacity.
- 3. Small number of well-trained PHD holders is in place.
- So far, only three universities: Amoud University, Burao University and Golis University offer courses related to Animal Science, Agriculture and Environment. However, given that over 60% of the Somaliland population is pastoralist, and most of Somaliland’s resources are utilized for livestock and agriculture, there should be more emphasis in increasing the population’s capacity to exploit these opportunities, using state-of-the-art but applicable methods
- Limited scholarships Government available with high demand for financial aid. No coherent criteria established for getting scholarships

- The Government provides subsidies to public universities in the form of rent – free use of public land, and buildings. Unlike the private universities who rent premises for their campuses, the public universities have benefited from community and local government contributions. The six public universities are equitably located in the regions of Somaliland
- All universities must be accredited by the CHE and MOEHS
- The Somaliland Universities are part of the Association of Arab Universities (AArU)

### **Key Recommendations**

- Provide knowledge learning and sharing –
  - a) Advanced Project Management Cycle
  - b) Policy and Planning
  - c) Report writing, skills (training, developing and/or harvesting knowledge) and quality assurance
  - d. Study tours in relations to other counter-partners internationally.
- Government subsidies to higher education institutions to be increased and should be regulated with conditions including compliance to mandatory minimum standards and research development activities and commitments. Faculty Deans must be published academic research at least twice a year.
- Advocate for merging of universities to strengthen faculty capacities in terms of finance and human resources Q/A
- Enhance universities capacities to carry out applied research and development. Advocate for donor community and aid agencies to ensure all research consultancies contracts are carried out through the auspices of local public universities at the regional level. This will provide added value and mainstreaming of knowledge to the local academic institutions.
- Increase the number of PHD holders
- Promote technical education at secondary level and universities to conduct applied research in promising economic sectors.
- Government will provide scholarships (clear criteria are required for selection of awarded applicants) to all local universities and others. Scholarships will be aim to increase the entry of following studies and sectors for economic growth and development, such as marine studies (fisheries), dry land agriculture, livestock by-products, food pressing, energy, geology (mining and gems) and petroleum.
- Private universities should invest more in financial capital to build their infrastructure, After five years the universities must operate in suitable learning environment. All universities must accommodate the physical needs of the students attending their facilities (e.g. special needs youth).
- All universities must be assessed using the developed university minimum standards checklist. At the same time standard curriculum framework with Somaliland identity and culture must be developed and applied.
- Continue to expand collaboration and membership into the Association of Arab Universities (AArU) by local universities both in Higher education institutions and Government to provide resources for the continuation of this collaboration.



## 12. Chapter 12 – Tools for effective education sector planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E)

The Somaliland Education Sector Strategic Plan 2012–2016 acknowledges the importance of quality Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E). This covers measuring educational outcomes across regions and population groups in the country, for measuring functional outcomes across departments within the Ministry, and for Quality Assurance purposes across the sector. This heavily relies on the successful utilization of the Ministry's EMIS as a means of verifying and monitoring progress with defined performance indicators. EMIS data collected by the MOEHS include basic information about schools and teachers. Other types of data for example assessment and financial data are not integrated into EMIS. Each year, MOEHS sends out a 21-page school survey to all schools to be filled and returned to the Ministry for data entry and analysis. EMIS contains school-level statistical information on student enrolments and teachers, with data disaggregated by gender, school type, and student head counts to collect student information.

This chapter reviews existing monitoring systems and identifies capacity weaknesses that need to be addressed to strengthen the ability of the education sector to better monitoring progress with its programming and, in turn, provide a stronger evidence-based for programme delivery over the period of the incoming ESSP.

The EMIS is a unit within the Directorate of Planning and Policy. To assess EMIS, the sector analysis employed a SABER-EMIS<sup>276</sup> assessment methodology, which is built on four key policy areas essential to effective EMIS. The policy areas are:

1. Enabling environment
2. System soundness
3. Quality data
4. Utilization for decision making

To conduct the EMIS assessment, a review of written policies and technical documents as well as conducting oral and written interviews with key stakeholders was done. Different stakeholders were included ranging from the staff at the EMIS Unit, Monitoring and Evaluation Unit, statisticians as well as the consumers of the EMIS data within the MOEHS. A questionnaire was circulated specifically to the EMIS Unit staff given their frequent interactions with the software.

### 12.1 Policy Area 1: Enabling Environment

Somaliland's EMIS enabling environment was assessed in the following criteria:

1. Legal framework
2. Organizational structure and institutionalized processes
3. Human resources
4. Infrastructural capacity
5. Budget

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<sup>276</sup> SABER Education Management Information Systems Solomon Islands Country Report 2015. [http://wbfiles.worldbank.org/documents/hdn/ed/saber/supporting\\_doc/CountryReports/EMS/SABER\\_EMIS\\_Solomon\\_Islands\\_CR\\_Final\\_2015.pdf](http://wbfiles.worldbank.org/documents/hdn/ed/saber/supporting_doc/CountryReports/EMS/SABER_EMIS_Solomon_Islands_CR_Final_2015.pdf)

## 6. Data-driven culture

### **Legal framework**

The legal framework for EMIS is largely non-existent. However, there exists Education Sector Strategic Plans that address EMIS as a key component towards achievement of quality education that is accessible to all.

The existing legal documents including the Education Act do not explicitly refer to EMIS as the single source of data collection, processing and dissemination. There exists a draft EMIS policy document that is yet to be presented to the relevant authorities for validation and approval.

### **Human resources and bottlenecks**

Monitoring potentially comes under the work of two units, the M&E unit and EMIS unit. There is understaffing that both are under the line authority of the Planning and Policy Department. The Planning and Policy department has eleven (11) staff with none of them having a formal training on ICT. Staff report challenges working with existing monitoring systems and tools. For example, there is no capacity within the EMIS unit to customize data collection forms used by the ministry, which means that old data collections form are used despite the need to update tools in order to collect relevant data.

The EMIS unit staff is responsible for manually entering information captured using paper based questionnaires. They also generate data findings of the EMIS system based on ad hoc requests and through the Education Statistics yearbooks. There exists only one user account defined in the system. It is this account that is used to access the system by all users. This introduces a challenge in regards to data privacy and security since any user can edit or delete data. None of the EMIS staff has the requisite capacity to make modifications to the system or the questionnaire.

Professional development is generally lacking within the EMIS unit. Since the MOEHS is highly dependent on donors, it does not invest in professional development activities of staff (e.g. training and special courses). Additionally, only limited amounts of training materials for EMIS software are provided to staff.

### **Budget**

There is no standalone budget dedicated towards EMIS operations. Much of the MOEHS activities are funded by donor organizations. For example, over the past few years UNICEF has been one of the largest contributors to data collection and EMIS development processes in Somaliland (as well as Puntland and the Federal Government), contributing hundreds of thousands of dollars to this areas of work. Within the MOEHS, no budget figures or documents could be provided to show the percentage of funds provided by the Ministry to support EMIS (see Chapter 4 on identified government expenditures). While the contributions of some partners to this area are commendable, investment into the system such as software upgrades and training are thus donor dependent and, by extension, unsustainable. This is particularly true if only one or two partners have prioritized improved data management and EMIS systems for investment. Increasing domestic financing by having a separate MOEHS budget allocated to the EMIS unit will therefore ensure sustainability of the system.

### **Data-driven culture**

There is no policy document detailing how data accuracy can be verified within the MOEHS. School principals who are the chief sources of data from school level do not have a means through which they can verify that data they provided in printed questionnaires format is was entered correctly into the EMIS. Nor does there exist a policy document detailing how EMIS data will be expanded to capture information for the missing education sub-sectors such as ABE, TVET or ECE.

There also exist parallel information systems within the MOEHS geared toward addressing other needs. These systems are not integrated and sometimes duplicate points of data being collected. For example, there is a teacher profile database that stores details about teachers, while school profile data is also collected separately but contains similar information related to teacher profiles. Data is thus duplicated with little effort having been made address data inconsistencies.

## 12.2 Policy Area 2: System Soundness

The 'system soundness' of Somaliland's EMIS was assessed using the following analytical criteria:

1. Data architecture
2. Data coverage
3. Data analytics
4. System flexibility
5. Serviceability

MOEHS has used data software called Pacific Island Nation Evaluation Analysis Policy and Planning Leveraging Education Statistics (PINEAPPLES) since 2011. This is the primary software used to capture data collected from schools during annual school census surveys. It is based on Microsoft SQL Server technology and is compatible with Microsoft applications such as Microsoft Excel to perform statistical analysis and Microsoft Word to create and publish documents. The system was donated by the Australian government to the government of Somaliland through UNICEF.

Several challenges exist with the software as it is not several years old, with newer technologies being available. The major challenges relate to difficulties with software upgrades and fixing 'system bugs'. It is also difficult to modify the questionnaire used to conduct school surveys independently of the database tables as doing so requires a high level of technical ability. Because of lack of financial investment in improving the system by the MOEHS the system has not been reviewed continuously for software upgrades, with the software last updated in 2014. Additionally, there is not a maintenance contract with the software vendor to support system upgrades and technical trouble-shooting. Many features of the system are not used by EMIS unit because of insufficient staff training, also resulting in the ministry being heavily dependent upon individuals who have some function skills in using the software with significant risks that the entire system would become useless if such staff were to leave the EMIS Unit.

### Data aspects

**Architecture and data coverage.** The school questionnaire used by the MOEHS is designed to collect basic data on students, teachers and schools. Relevant non-educational databases such as workforce (especially to inform TVET policies) and internship data are not collected, neither are they linked with the EMIS system.

Common IDs for teachers, subjects and schools, among others, are not used in a consistent fashion, which would help data integration and support more reliable data analysis. Combined with the use of multiple databases, this creates risks of data errors and incorrect data analysis.

## **Data analytics**

PINEAPPLES is capable of performing basic tabulations in Microsoft and Excel. The system produces pivot tables and pivot charts using the EMIS data to conduct descriptive analysis, tabulations and identify data relationships. Data can be disaggregated by parameters of gender, school types, regions and districts. Ratios are also calculated, such as teacher-student ratio. No advanced simulations and projections are performed by the EMIS, such as projecting enrolment rates for the next five years. The lack of advanced data analytics is supplemented by performing analysis with Microsoft Excel spreadsheets. It has typically been the case that external consultants will perform data analysis for the MOEHS once all data has been entered into the system.

**System flexibility.** From a software perspective, PINEAPPLES is a standalone desktop application that has not been integrated with any other systems within the MOEHS. Different departments in the Ministry collect different data of which some elements are already captured by EMIS. As it is difficult to upgrade the system the MOEHS is constrained in its ability to adapt the system to emerging needs and align with other data collection efforts. From a perspective data perspective, the same questionnaire has been in use since 2011. While using the same data gathering tool have benefits related to comparability of data over time, it is common that minor adjustments to tools are made from year-to-year to capture additional data deemed important based on changing circumstances and needs on the ground. This adaptation of the system has not occurred.

**Serviceability.** Compiling data into EMIS is a lengthy process and can involve duplication of information and data errors. There are few EMIS staff tasked with compiling and inputting questionnaire data. As a result, data entry can take up to 45 days. The manual entry of data also exposes the process error and incomplete data entry due to fatigue of EMIS staff.

## **12.3 Policy Area 3: Quality Data**

The quality of data for Somaliland EMIS was assessed in the following areas

1. Methodological soundness
2. Accuracy and reliability
3. Integrity
4. Periodicity and timelines

### **Methodological soundness**

The annual school census questionnaire contains data on students, schools and teachers. The questionnaire is a 21-page paper-based survey (not updated since 2011). Data collection takes a minimum of 5 days when if school principals are gathered in a central regional location to complete the survey. Alternatively, if questionnaires are delivered to school principals by REOs and DEOs the process takes more time and can vary. Once completed, questionnaires are to the Ministry headquarters for data entry.

### **Accuracy and reliability**



There does not appear to be any mechanism to minimize data errors throughout this process. The manual questionnaire does not enforce skip logic, consistency checks or basic data validation. Data inconsistencies are identified when data is entered into the system, with data verification at the point being a difficult process requiring school principals to be contacted directly, not all of whom can be contacted. Additionally, there are no validation mechanisms at regional levels to monitor the quality of data entered into the questionnaires. However, the EMIS has the capability to flag data outliers.

Since PINEAPPLES can output data in Microsoft Excel formats, the EMIS statistical staff can use other open source software tools, for example R, to perform high level analysis to identify data outliers. Such outliers can be verified with the school principals, REOs and DEOs before the publication of the annual school census report. Additionally, there does not seem to exist a framework for auditing and verifying the outputs published by the EMIS unit.

### **Staff integrity**

EMIS staff is not bound by any professional code of conduct, specifically related to data collection and data management and there is not an EMIS or M&E policy document to guide how data is to be collected, verified and captured in an ethical and professional manner. The lack of the policy documents means that there is no means of measuring the compliance of the data collection process.

### **Periodicity and timelines**

The turnaround time between data collection and dissemination is long. Data entry takes an average of 45 days while the data collection takes a minimum of 5 days under the best of circumstances. Time required for data analysis varies greatly and is dependent on an external consultant brought into Somaliland to perform the analysis.

The absence of enforceable policies relating to timelines within which school principals should submit their completed survey forms also adds to the time for completing analysis. Infrastructural issues also contribute to delays as REOs and DEOs can only visit a limited number of schools per day given the road network and the transport challenges existing within rural Somaliland – meaning that more time is required to complete data collection and subsequent data analysis.

## **12.4 Policy Area 4: Utilization for Decision-making**

The utilization of Somaliland's EMIS data is assessed in the following areas:

1. Openness
2. Operational use
3. Accessibility
4. Effectiveness in disseminating findings

### **Openness**

EMIS data is currently accessible only to the central government MOEHS and the donor organizations supporting the education system. The public only has access to the EMIS outputs through the annual ESY report, which is normally published a year after the data collection exercise. Local education authorities do not have access to data and consequently cannot use the information to manage their schools and hold them accountable.

## **Operational use**

MOEHS uses EMIS to publish and disseminate the annual ESY. The report is used by MOEHS to assess the progress made in achieving the set priority objectives as laid out in the ESSP. Donor organizations use the report to assess progress of the sector and also objectively measure the impact of their programs.

## **Accessibility**

The ESY is distributed to a limited number of institutions, most being education stakeholders, MOEHS and donor organizations. There is no online platform where reports can be accessed.

School principals do not have access to the ESY report and therefore are not able to assess the progress their individual schools are making. Potentially one of the most powerful benefits of EMIS data is usage at school level to improve performance for children. This requires a feedback mechanism so that schools can access or receive data in a timely fashion, which does not seem to be in place. As a result, school principals are not able to take action to address issues that may be detected from data and that could improve school management and learning outcomes for children.

## **Effectiveness in disseminating findings**

Efforts could be made to improve the dissemination of data so that users are more aware of and understand the benefits of data and reports produced based on EMIS. The available data could be published for different audiences including parents, school heads, DEOs and REOs. However, there does not seem to be a communication strategy within the MOEHS to achieve this result. As a result, the lack of outreach and communication undermines effective community participation in decision-making processes in school management process and parental involvement in children's learning.

## **12.5 Key findings and recommendations**

While numerous challenges exist with the monitoring of education results and existing EMIS, the MOEHS has made significant gains over the past few years. This is true particularly when considering the low starting point several years ago. The MOEHS now collects school data on an annual basis and produces statistical yearbooks which are used by many partners for assessing performance of the sector and their respective programmes. There is now high level commitment with the MOEHS to strengthen monitoring of results with a growing appreciation of the role that data has for improved planning and achieving results in education by helping to set priorities and develop relevant and targeted services for the most disadvantaged. Moreover, when considering the challenges of data and EMIS globally, the commitment and progress made in Somaliland is somewhat remarkable and highly commendable.

It should also be highlighted that challenges with EMIS spring from the original design phase of the outgoing ESSP and weaknesses with monitoring system initially established. The outgoing ESSP did not clearly define or outline a M&E framework on which a cohesive M&E system could be developed. As a result, monitoring indicators for Action Plan's and related targets lacked precise timelines and clear linkages between objectives and results. At the same time, indicators listed in the logical framework were not quantifiable (for example, one indicator is "Year-by-year increase in employment" without specifying the rate by which the target increases). Issues such as these were compounded by organizational capacity weaknesses within the Directorate of Planning of the MOEHS and tools used to monitor results. Consequently, the potential benefits of EMIS were not fully realized. Below is a brief summary of key

challenges experienced with EMIS, followed by a short listing of strategic recommendations to build upon the many successes achieved during the period of the outgoing ESSP.

## **Key findings**

The PINEAPPLES software for EMIS has served the MOEHS well over the year, but not without challenges. Those challenges were also compounded with a weak regulatory environment and limited government investment in EMIS coupled with weaknesses around staff management and training systems. These challenges have been:

- No clear policy was in place to regulate data management and EMIS and ensure quality control and coordination. As a result, multiple databases were used with little integration and few controls in place.
- Personnel with the MOEHS charged with EMIS duties have not received training, and have often been under-resourced during periods of managing data from the field.
- Limited domestic financing through MOEHS budget allocations to EMIS have resulted in a high level of donor dependence for EMIS-related activities, including publication of materials, which has also undermined a communications strategy around EMIS data.
- No established communication strategy to disseminate EMIS reports inside Somaliland that could foster community participation in decision-making processes and children's learning processes. In a related manner, the lack of a communication strategy has undermined the capacity of the MOEHS to advocate for increased budget allocations to the education sector from the national budget.
- Design and Architecture. The system was designed to work from a single desktop or within a local area network and is not accessible to a wider pool of users. The data software also lacks offline working capability and is only accessible through a single user account which creates risks of data loss and raises privacy concerns.
- There is no feedback mechanism in place to schools to allow them to improve school performance and learning outcomes for children by addressing report findings disaggregated to individual school level.
- Adaptability of the EMIS software system is problematic with reports tied to specific variables in questionnaires used for annual school census exercises and have not been adapted since 2011. This has created challenges for adapting survey questions to the Somaliland context.
- Maintenance and support for updating or troubleshooting the PINEAPPLES software is difficult as the MOEHS does not have a direct link to the vendor but relies on networks in UNICEF to communicate needs.
- The current EMIS only captures data for primary and secondary schools, thus excluding important areas such as ABE, ECE, and TVET.

## **Recommendations**

The following are key recommendations to address some of the key challenges listed above:

- Develop an overall EMIS policy for quality assurance and regulation purposes.
- During the design phase of the incoming ESSP, ensure that indicators, targets and means of verification are realistic and achievable and logically tied to sector objectives.
- A plan to either improve or replace the PINEAPPLES system should be put in place (see Annex 3 for options outlining 'pros' and 'cons' of some of the available options).
- With the emergence of free online courses, MOEHS staff should sign up to data management and M&E courses to improve their technical skills while MOEHS management should encourage their staff to pursue this option. Additionally, the MOEHS should buttress free

online learning options by allocating a small budget line item for professional development of EMIS personnel. This will also break the ministry's dependency on any single staff member for the workability of EMIS.

- The MOEHS should allocate sufficient budgetary resources to improve upon EMIS systems pending a decision on which policy option to adopt for EMIS improvement.
- Data collection tools should be updated to better fit with conditions of Somaliland and include important information that is not being captured via the annual school census.
- Data collection tools used by the MOEHS should be rationalized and integrated to avoid duplication and data analysis errors.
- Develop a communication strategy for EMIS that can be used to share results with communities and to also help advocate with government to increase budget allocations to the education sector. This should also include developing a feedback mechanism to schools to share EMIS report results disaggregated to school level so that actions can be taken at school level to improve performance and learning outcomes for children.

## **13. Chapter 13 – Summative recommendations for developing the new Somaliland ESSP 2017-2021**

Each of the main chapters of the ESA provides a series of key findings and recommendations to draw upon for the forthcoming ESSP in Somaliland. As such, this chapter provides several overarching comments to support the prioritization of investments and guide MOEHS officials in moving beyond fragility by strengthening education services. While there is no shortage of need, shortages with domestic financing and donor funding require clear prioritization of future interventions. This prioritization should be framed around addressing key barriers and determinants that impact upon children’s learning, the resilience of adolescent and young people, and will improve sector performance and efficiencies so that results achieved will be sustainable.

Many of the plans laid out in the 2012-16 ESSP for the primary sector were based on the assumption that there would be a major increase in enrolment resulting from the declaration of free primary education in 2011. Increased construction of classrooms envisioned in the 2012 ESSP has been largely achieved leading to improved classroom to learner ratio just like significant gains have been made in teacher learner ratio and gender parity. The new curriculum rolled out in 2016 is also a major milestone and the fact that new syllabi developed and textbooks printed caps it all.

There are however drawbacks in the fact that the enrolment rates have not been as significant as they should for any country declaring free primary education. Concerns remain on the quality of instruction and learning and the ability of Somaliland learners to compete with other learners in the region.

In Early Childhood Education, great sensitivities should be applied in the development of the Action Plan to ensure a smooth transition and increasing responsibility of the MOEHS. The anticipated positive effects in terms of equity (supporting children from lower social strata), better transition, higher enrolment, higher attrition and others should be explored and validated

In the Secondary sub-sector, careful consideration has to be done on the varied needs of rural and urban learners and how best to retain learners in school. Advantages and disadvantages of expanding the use of double shift in urban areas need to be discussed with a clear cost benefit analysis of the alternatives. Additionally it is essential to develop a carefully costed plan for continued expansion of Secondary education with improved quality. Such a plan will need to use primary enrolment figures to measure future demand and decide and cost the new classroom, numbers of teachers to be trained and learning equipment to be bought.

There are clear funding constraints for NFE, TVET and Higher studies sub-sectors and a paradigm shift is required to ensure that young adults not only acquire knowledge and skills that will make them competitive in the region but also are gainfully employed to decrease chances of being radicalized or engaged in criminal activity.

### **13.1 Prioritize areas that yield high return on increasing equity and quality learning outcomes**

The outgoing ESSP has prioritized primary and secondary education based on strong rationales and global evidence regarding the benefits that basic education has upon social and economic indicators. Given that roughly half of all children and adolescent remain out-of-school, this overall priority remains highly relevant. However, there has been less clarity on the prioritization of focus areas within the basic

education sector. Given high rates of school attrition and poor learning outcomes, as well as weak capacities to deliver effective services, greater thought is needed to focus on key determinants across these areas. Children and young people from rural areas, pastoral communities, IDPs, the urban poor, and girls, still face many barriers to accessing education and effective learning.

### Proposed Actions:

- Re-think strategies for primary, ABE and secondary education enrolment to ensure sustained growth in access and attainment, including a rigorous analysis addressing quality and efficiency issues throughout the sector. Critical among these is addressing high rates of attrition at early grades in the formal education system and supporting early childhood development.
- The education sector needs to examine the role of the private sector in greater detail and capitalize on potential partnerships without losing focus on supporting the most marginalized and disadvantaged children or inadvertently making education costs inaccessible to the poor.
- At the same time, given the commitment to engage with the youth, and poorest segments of the society, including illiterate adults and particularly women, any effort should be made to integrate young people into training, skills development and self –entrepreneurial economic engagement.

### 13.2 Identify state-building modalities to promote an effective and efficient education system

Several section of the ESA identify weaknesses with insufficient budget allocations to the education sector and extreme donor dependency. These weaknesses should be addressed as a matter of priority to guard the gains already made the sector. As the GDP of Somaliland has grown over the years, so too has the national budget. Yet the proportion of the national budget allocated to the education sector has remained stagnant at around 7%. This leaves sufficient fiscal space for domestic financing to be added to the education sector. Such action from the government of Somaliland will help to ensure gains made are genuinely sustainable, fill financing needs to address some of the main education priorities, and promote national ownership and greater control over the education sector.

In relation to donor funding, for some twenty years Somaliland has had an impressive track record with international development partners<sup>277</sup> and has worked to comply with state-building principles along the OECD-DAC committed principles of state-building in fragile environments<sup>278</sup>. However, whilst a multi-donor Development Fund (SDF) under the Ministry of National Planning has been created since 2012, such is yet to be realized for the education sector. There has been a coordination forum in existence (the ESC), chaired by the MOEHS management, however the fact is that a strategy committed to empower the MOEHS as **the** management institution for the sector is yet to be developed. Furthermore, donor funding is almost exclusively channeled through INGOs, with significant transaction costs and INGOs often working around government systems, rather than through them.

Accountability systems remain weak within the MOEHS, both in terms of reporting on results and utilization of resources. Regular reporting (strategy vs. actual achievements) based on robust data for all sub-sectors needs to be strengthened. The annual JREs (introduced with the GPE support) are a good

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<sup>277</sup> The UN, the EU and its Member States, notably Denmark, Sweden and Norway assistance programmes have been on the forefront; in the middle of the last decade the US AID assistance programme joint quite visibly.

<sup>278</sup> ESSP 2012-2016, pp. 23 ff.

start to develop processes and systems that are fully owned by national stakeholders and build effective partnerships that will achieve equity and quality outcomes for the sector.

#### **Proposed actions:**

- Identify national priorities based on the strength of the respective rationale, ensuring that strategies developed will promote equitable access to education and distribution of educational resources.
- Build capacity of education officials to become fully familiar with sector planning principles and the importance of EMIS to support effective implementation of strategies.
- Develop sub-sector plans on a robust basis with a sound rationale for prioritization: based on quantified sufficiently costed and financed plans (what cannot be financed, should not be planned, or should be reflected as an alternative plan).
- Review the experience of the SDF and develop a concept for a similar fund concerning the education sector, or combined with an extension of the SDF (should be it be decided).
- Explore with development partners and NGOs the modalities of operations so that partners work through ministry systems as much as possible to support capacity development of the education sector and governance systems.
- Strengthen government accountability and transparency mechanism in the education sector to ensure greater levels of donor funding can be channeled through government systems directly.
- Specific focus should be given to ensure effective government oversight and quality assurance over the education sector to build synergy and coherence, including over teacher training and management.
- MOEHS should develop a domestic advocacy strategy to mobilize more funding for education from the national budget using evidence from the ESA as a basis for resource mobilization.

### **13.3 Moving beyond fragility by strengthening education and the resilience of children and communities**

Discussion of risks and their mitigation in education policy development and management has demonstrated that such risks cut across education service delivery and sector management. Risks related to governance, learning and inequity are addressed above and, if incorporated into the next ESSP, will contribute to national development priorities for building a peaceful and prosperous Somaliland.

Evidence also demonstrates that environmental and man-made hazards have had significant impacts upon children's education, yet government capacities to plan for and mitigate impacts remains weak to non-existent. At the same time, greater action is needed from the international humanitarian actors and donors to support rapid responses to the immediate education needs for children, or risk another lost generation in Somaliland.

- The MOEHS should integrate conflict sensitive and risk reduction approaches across its sector development policies and practices so as to bridge the 'divide' between education development programming and humanitarian action.
- It is important to strengthen institutional mechanisms and capacities in the education sector at national, sub-national and local levels and systematically incorporate risk reduction approaches into the implementation of emergency preparedness, response and recovery programmes in the education sector.
- Humanitarian actors and donors, as a matter of urgency, must invest more in the education of children and young people affected by crises such as displacement, drought and conflict.

Adopting integrated area-based programming approaches in high risk or affected areas using education as an entry point will protect the rights of children and address factors driving migration and displacement of affected communities.

- Further research is required to better understand how education sector management and governance contribute to inequities and aggravate pressures underpinning fragility and fuel vulnerability of young people.



## Annex 1 – Somaliland 2011/12 - 2014/15 Educational Indicators with Rural/Urban and Gender Disaggregation

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12			2012/13			2012/13			2014/15		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
<b>Secondary GER</b>	n/a	n/a	n/a	13.8	7.3	10.7	24.9	15.7	20.5	25.1	17.1	21.3
Secondary GER (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	3.8	2.0	2.9	8.5	4.4	6.6	3.5	1.8	2.7
Secondary GER (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	23.0	11.8	17.6	39.7	25.6	32.8	44.7	30.3	37.7
<b>Secondary NER</b>	n/a	n/a	n/a	6.9	4.2	5.6	10.8	8.0	9.5	11.6	9.0	10.4
Secondary NER (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	1.9	1.1	1.5	3.7	2.3	3.0	1.6	1.0	1.3
Secondary NER (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	11.5	6.9	9.2	17.3	13.0	15.2	20.7	16.0	18.4
<b>% of Qualified Primary teachers</b>	<b>51.8</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>50.3</b>	<b>50.1</b>	<b>35.0</b>	<b>47.3</b>	<b>40.1</b>	<b>28.3</b>	<b>37.8</b>	<b>38.9</b>	<b>41.2</b>	<b>39.3</b>
% of Qualified Primary teachers (Rural)	50.4	34.5	48.1	47.4	21.7	43.1	33.3	15.5	30.2	25.5	28.1	26.2
% of Qualified Primary teachers (Urban)	52.6	47.0	51.7	52.1	43.2	50.3	45.1	35.5	43.1	44.5	47.0	45.7
<b>% of Qualified Secondary teachers</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>52.0</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>49.1</b>	<b>48.3</b>	<b>28.6</b>	<b>46.6</b>	<b>55.2</b>	<b>51.4</b>	<b>55.1</b>
% of Qualified Secondary teachers (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	59.1	12.5	55.8	40.5	15.8	37.9	48.8	52.7	49.0
% of Qualified Secondary teachers (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	49.9	20.0	47.2	50.7	33.0	49.3	56.5	51.6	56.3

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12			2012/13			2012/13			2014/15		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12			2012/13			2012/13			2014/15		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
<b>Primary Grade 1 GIR [incl. IQS &amp; ABE]</b>	<b>101.2</b>	<b>100.7</b>	<b>101.0</b>	<b>112.3</b>	<b>116.2</b>	<b>114.1</b>	<b>101.0</b>	<b>104.9</b>	<b>102.8</b>	<b>93.2</b>	<b>97.9</b>	<b>94.4</b>
Primary Grade 1 GIR [incl. IQS & ABE] (Rural)	62.2	61.7	62.0	73.6	78.7	75.9	63.8	66.3	64.9	54.6	56.9	55.6
Primary Grade 1 GIR [incl. IQS & ABE] (Urban)	136.5	134.6	135.6	147.4	148.8	148.1	134.7	138.4	136.4	128.2	133.6	130.7
<b>Primary Grade 1 NIR [incl. IQS &amp; ABE]</b>	<b>19.9</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>27.1</b>	<b>28.9</b>	<b>27.9</b>	<b>21.3</b>	<b>22.7</b>	<b>21.9</b>	<b>23.2</b>	<b>23.9</b>	<b>23.5</b>
Primary Grade 1 NIR [incl. IQS & ABE] (Rural)	12.2	12.3	12.3	17.8	19.6	18.6	13.4	14.3	13.8	13.6	13.9	13.7
Primary Grade 1 NIR [incl. IQS & ABE] (Urban)	26.8	26.9	26.8	35.6	37.0	36.2	28.4	29.9	29.1	31.9	32.7	32.3
<b>Primary GER [incl. IQS &amp; ABE]</b>	<b>50.3</b>	<b>38.1</b>	<b>44.3</b>	<b>48.2</b>	<b>38.8</b>	<b>43.5</b>	<b>48.2</b>	<b>39.1</b>	<b>43.6</b>	<b>48.5</b>	<b>40.1</b>	<b>44.3</b>
Primary GER [incl. IQS & ABE] (Rural)	29.9	22.6	26.3	30.6	25.7	28.2	30.4	24.7	27.6	28.4	23.3	25.9
Primary GER [incl. IQS & ABE] (Urban)	68.8	51.7	60.2	64.1	50.2	57.1	64.3	51.6	57.9	66.7	54.8	60.7
<b>Primary NER [incl. IQS &amp; ABE]</b>	<b>33.0</b>	<b>26.0</b>	<b>29.0</b>	<b>37.0</b>	<b>31.0</b>	<b>34.0</b>	<b>36.2</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>33.3</b>	<b>36.3</b>	<b>31.0</b>	<b>33.7</b>
Primary NER [incl. IQS & ABE] (Rural)	19.4	15.3	17.4	23.6	20.4	22.0	22.9	19.1	21.0	21.3	18.0	19.7
Primary NER [incl. IQS & ABE] (Urban)	44.8	35.0	39.9	49.3	39.9	44.6	48.3	40.0	44.1	50.0	42.4	46.1

**Somaliland 2011/12 - 2014/15 Educational Indicators with Rural/Urban and Gender Disaggregation (Contd)**

<b>Primary Promotion Rate</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>86.8</b>	<b>84.0</b>	<b>85.6</b>	<b>93.2</b>	<b>92.3</b>	<b>92.8</b>
Primary Promotion Rate (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	67.7	65.1	66.5	80.0	80.3	80.2
Primary Promotion Rate (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	93.5	91.4	92.6	98.7	97.5	98.2
Primary Repetition Rate	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.6
Primary Repetition Rate (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	12.9	12.3	12.6	4.3	4.6	4.4
Primary Repetition Rate (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	1.1	1.4	1.3	3.4	3.0	3.2
Primary Drop out Rate	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	9.7	12.1	10.8	3.1	4.2	3.6
Primary Drop out Rate (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	19.4	22.6	20.8	15.7	15.2	15.3
Primary Drop out Rate (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	5.3	7.1	6.1	0.2	0.9	0.5
Primary Grade 1 Dropout Rate	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	16.5	20.5	18.4	8.2	11.0	9.5
Primary Grade 1 Dropout Rate (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	19.7	27.2	23.2	17.1	18.7	17.9
Primary Grade 1 Dropout Rate (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	10.3	13.3	11.7	1.1	2.3	1.8
Primary Survival Rate to Grade 5	52.5	45.8	49.4	53.9	50.1	52.1	62.9	57.3	60.3	72.7	68.8	70.9
Primary Survival Rate to Grade 5 (Rural)	34.8	31.2	33.2	35.5	33.7	34.7	36.6	35.6	36.1	45.3	43.4	44.5

Somaliland 2011/12 - 2014/15 Educational Indicators with Rural/Urban and Gender Disaggregation (Contd)

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12			2012/13			2012/13			2014/15		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T

Primary Survival Rate to Grade 5 (Urban)	64.6	54.9	60.1	67.6	61.8	64.9	77.2	66.5	72.1	86.4	81.7	84.2
Primary % of Government School Enrolment	79.3	75.8	77.8	77.1	75.3	76.3	77.3	74.1	75.9	74.0	70.1	72.6
Primary % of Government School Enrolment (Rural)	93.3	91.4	92.5	86.3	83.7	85.1	89.0	85.7	87.6	93.7	91.9	92.9
Primary % of Government School Enrolment (Urban)	73.8	69.9	72.1	73.1	71.6	72.5	72.3	69.3	71.0	66.5	62.2	64.6
Secondary % of Government School Enrolment	n/a	n/a	n/a	73.0	66.9	71.0	57.0	50.1	54.4	59.1	51.3	55.6
Secondary % of Government School Enrolment (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	70.3	62.8	67.9	83.4	84.9	83.9	92.4	87.3	90.8
Secondary % of Government School Enrolment (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	73.4	67.5	71.5	51.9	44.8	49.2	56.7	49.4	53.8
Primary % of Government School Teachers	82.3	86.7	83	81.5	86.2	82.4	84.1	83.3	83.9	77.5	75.0	77.2
Primary % of Government School Teachers (Rural)	74.1	81.0	75.3	92.4	92.9	92.5	93.8	95.0	94.0	96.3	94.7	96.2
Primary % of Government School Teachers (Urban)	95.3	97.8	95.6	73.3	82.1	75.1	77.0	76.6	76.9	66.0	68.8	66.5
Secondary % of Government School Teachers	n/a	n/a	n/a	74.3	75.8	74.4	60.0	73.5	61.1	59.9	77.1	60.7
Secondary % of Government School Teachers (Rural)	n/a	n/a	n/a	68.4	75.0	68.8	81.9	84.2	82.1	88.5	100.0	89.0
Secondary % of Government School Teachers (Urban)	n/a	n/a	n/a	76.1	76.0	76.0	54.4	69.7	55.6	56.8	74.6	57.5

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
<b>Primary Pupil Textbook Ratio [Maths]</b>	<b>2.7:1</b>	<b>2.2:1</b>	<b>1.6:1</b>	<b>2.3:1</b>
Primary Pupil Textbook Ratio [Maths] (Rural)	1.7:1	1.5:1	1.5:1	1.6:1
Primary Pupil Textbook Ratio [Maths] (Urban)	3.4:1	2.7:1	1.6:1	2.8:1
<b>Secondary Pupil Textbook Ratio [Maths]</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>20.9:1</b>	<b>15.0:1</b>	<b>9.6:1</b>
Secondary Pupil Textbook Ratio [Maths] (Rural)	n/a	15.5:1	14.9:1	6.5:1
Secondary Pupil Textbook Ratio [Maths] (Urban)	n/a	22.0:1	15.1:1	9.9:1
<b>Primary Pupil Teacher Ratio</b>	<b>31.1</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>27.0</b>	<b>30.9</b>
Primary Pupil Teacher Ratio (Rural)	22.9	21.9	19.6	23.5
Primary Pupil Teacher Ratio (Urban)	36.1	36.5	32.1	35.0
<b>Secondary Pupil Teacher Ratio</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>22.5</b>	<b>24.8</b>	<b>26.6</b>
Secondary Pupil Teacher Ratio (Rural)	n/a	13.0	18.0	15.8
Secondary Pupil Teacher Ratio (Urban)	n/a	25.2	26.6	27.8
<b>Primary Pupil Classroom Ratio</b>	<b>58.7</b>	<b>59.7</b>	<b>52.7</b>	<b>45.5</b>
Primary Pupil Classroom Ratio (Rural)	42.9	42.5	37.6	33.6

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
Primary Pupil Classroom Ratio (Urban)	68.4	72.6	63.6	52.6
<b>Secondary Pupil Classroom Ratio</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>63.0</b>	<b>55.3</b>	<b>42.7</b>
Secondary Pupil Classroom Ratio (Rural)	n/a	39.5	48.1	25.5
Secondary Pupil Classroom Ratio (Urban)	n/a	69.1	56.9	44.6
<b>Primary % of School with Access to water</b>	<b>21.8</b>	<b>47.8</b>	<b>46.3</b>	<b>46.3</b>
Primary % of School with access to water (Rural)	20.9	41.2	44.1	44.1
Primary % of School with access to water (Urban)	23.1	54.7	46.6	46.6
<b>Secondary % of School with access to water</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>44.0</b>	<b>64.0</b>	<b>64.0</b>
Secondary % of School with access to water (Rural)	n/a	31.6	58.1	58.1
Secondary % of School with access to water (Urban)	n/a	51.7	66.3	66.3
<b>Primary Gender Gap</b>	<b>12.2</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>8.4</b>
Primary Gender Gap (Rural)	7.3	4.9	5.7	8.4
Primary Gender Gap (Urban)	17.1	13.9	12.7	11.9
<b>Secondary Gender Gap</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>8.0</b>
Secondary Gender Gap (Rural)	n/a	1.8	4.1	1.7
Secondary Gender Gap (Urban)	n/a	11.2	14.1	14.4

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
<b>Primary Gender Parity Index</b>	<b>0.76</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.81</b>	<b>0.83</b>
Primary Gender Parity Index (Rural)	0.76	0.84	0.81	0.82
Primary Gender Parity Index (Urban)	0.75	0.78	0.80	0.84
<b>Secondary Gender Parity Index</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>0.52</b>	<b>0.63</b>	<b>0.68</b>
Secondary Gender Parity Index (Rural)	n/a	0.53	0.52	0.64
Secondary Gender Parity Index (Urban)	n/a	0.51	0.64	0.69
<b>Primary % of female students</b>	<b>42.5</b>	<b>44.4</b>	<b>44.6</b>	<b>45.1</b>
Primary % of female students (Rural)	41.9	44.8	44.2	44.3
Primary % of female students (Urban)	42.8	44.1	44.8	45.4
<b>Secondary % of female students</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>37.1</b>	<b>38.8</b>
Secondary % of female students (Rural)	n/a	32.4	32.3	32.1
Secondary % of female students (Urban)	n/a	32.7	37.9	39.2
<b>Primary % of female teachers</b>	<b>15.9</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>19.5</b>	<b>14.3</b>
Primary % of female teachers (Rural)	14.1	17.0	17.2	9.5
Primary % of female teachers (Urban)	17.0	20.0	21.1	17.0
<b>Secondary % of female teachers</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>8.7</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>4.3</b>

Indicators by Rural/Urban	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
Secondary % of female teachers (Rural)	n/a	6.9	10.4	4.3
Secondary % of female teachers (Urban)	n/a	9.3	7.8	4.3
<b>Primary % of Government Schools</b>	<b>89.2</b>	<b>87.0</b>	<b>87.9</b>	<b>86.4</b>
Primary % of Government Schools (Rural)	97.5	96.5	96.5	97.3
Primary % of Government Schools (Urban)	77.2	74.4	75.8	71.9
<b>Secondary % of Government Schools</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>75.6</b>	<b>66.7</b>	<b>64.4</b>
Secondary % of Government Schools (Rural)	n/a	89.5	83.9	91.7
Secondary % of Government Schools (Urban)	n/a	71.7	60.2	58.3



## Annex 2 - Somaliland Summary Education Trends

School Type	2011/12			2012/13			2013/14		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Primary Incl. IQS	107,742	80,218	187,960	114,861	91,683	206,544	118,130	95,239	213,369
ABE	6,668	5,913	12,581	4,592	3,895	8,487	4,927	3,907	8,834
Secondary				14,837	7,220	22,057	27,368	16,133	43,501
<b>Total</b>	<b>114,410</b>	<b>86,131</b>	<b>200,541</b>	<b>134,290</b>	<b>102,798</b>	<b>237,088</b>	<b>150,425</b>	<b>115,279</b>	<b>265,704</b>
Primary Incl. IQS & ABE	114,410	86,131	200,541	119,453	95,578	215,031	123,057	99,146	222,203

School Type	2014/15			AAGR		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Primary Incl. IQS	128,471	105,657	<b>234,128</b>	6.0	9.6	<b>7.6</b>
ABE	2,940	2,386	<b>5,326</b>	-23.9	-26.1	<b>-24.9</b>
Secondary	29,334	18,579	<b>47,913</b>	40.6	60.4	<b>47.4</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>160,745</b>	<b>126,622</b>	<b>287,367</b>	12.0	13.7	<b>12.7</b>
Primary Incl. IQS & ABE	131,411	108,043	<b>239,454</b>	3.2	4.2	<b>3.7</b>

### Teachers Summary Trends

School Type	2011/12			2012/13			2013/14			2014/15		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Primary Incl. IQS	4,987	948	<b>5,935</b>	4,831	736	<b>5,567</b>	6,364	1,541	<b>7,905</b>	6,498	1,088	<b>7,586</b>
ABE	149	35	<b>184</b>	254	38	<b>292</b>	303	81	<b>384</b>	161	18	<b>179</b>
Secondary				740	23	<b>763</b>	1,608	147	<b>1,755</b>	1,726	78	<b>1,804</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>5,136</b>	<b>983</b>	<b>6,119</b>	<b>5,825</b>	<b>797</b>	<b>6,622</b>	<b>8,275</b>	<b>1,769</b>	<b>10,044</b>	<b>8,385</b>	<b>1,184</b>	<b>9,569</b>

School Type	AAGR		
	Male	Female	Total
Primary Incl. IQS	9.2	4.7	8.5
ABE	2.6	-19.9	-0.9
Secondary	52.7	84.2	53.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>12.4</b>	<b>30.4</b>	<b>14.9</b>

### Schools Summary Trends

School Type	Schools				AAGR
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	Schools
Primary Incl. IQS	817	869	935	1,083	9.9
ABE	89	80	75	61	-11.8
Secondary		82	114	146	33.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>906</b>	<b>1,031</b>	<b>1,124</b>	<b>1,290</b>	<b>12.5</b>

### Classrooms Summary Trends

School Type	Classrooms				AAGR
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	Classrooms
Primary Incl. IQS	3,300	7,788	4,046	5,144	15.9
ABE	117	246	196	152	9.1
Secondary		570	786	1,122	40.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,417</b>	<b>8,604</b>	<b>5,028</b>	<b>6,418</b>	<b>23.4</b>

### PTR Summary Trends

School Type	PTR				AAGR
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	PTR
Primary Incl. IQS	32	37	27	31	-0.9
ABE	68	29	23	30	-24.2
Secondary		29	25	27	-4.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>-5.7</b>

### PCR Summary Trends

School Type	PCR				AAGR
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	PCR
Primary Incl. IQS	57	27	53	46	-7.2
ABE	108	16	45	35	-31.2
Secondary	0	39	55	43	5.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>-8.6</b>

### Average School Size Summary Trends

School Type	Average School size				AAGR
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	
Primary Incl. IQS	230	238	228	216	-2.1
ABE	141	106	118	87	-14.8
Secondary		269	382	328	10.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>230</b>	<b>236</b>	<b>223</b>	<b>0.2</b>

#### Primary incl. GER Trends

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
2011/12	50.3	38.1	44.3
2012/13	48.2	38.8	43.5
2013/14	48.2	39.1	43.6
2014/15	48.5	40.1	44.3
AAGR	-1.2	1.7	0.0

#### Primary incl. NER Trends

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
2011/12	33.0	26.0	29.0
2012/13	37.0	31.0	34.0
2013/14	<b>36.2</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>33.3</b>
2014/15	<b>36.3</b>	<b>31.0</b>	<b>33.7</b>

#### Primary incl. GPI and GG Trends

Year	GG	GPI
2011/12	12.2	0.76
2012/13	9.4	0.80
2013/14	9.1	0.81
2014/15	8.4	0.83

#### Secondary GER Summary Trends

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
2012/13	13.80	7.20	10.60
2013/14	24.90	15.70	20.50
2014/15	25.10	17.10	21.30

AAGR	34.9	54.1	41.8
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### Secondary GG and GPI Summary Trends

Year	GG	GPI
2012/13	6.60	0.52
2013/14	9.20	0.63
2014/15	8.00	0.68

### Secondary NER Summary Trends

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
2012/13	6.5	4.4	5.5
2013/14	10.8	8.0	9.5
2014/15	11.6	9.0	10.4

### Qualified teachers in primary and secondary

Qualified teachers	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	AAGR
Primary including IQS	51.3	50.7	37.8	39.3	-8.5
Secondary Education		47.8	46.7	50.0	2.3

## Annex 3- Options on data systems

Upgrade PINEAPPLES	Replace PINEAPPLES
<p><b>Pros:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There will not be a need to fully retrain the EMIS staff on use of the software</li> <li>• Little or no possibility of disruption of the activities of the EMIS unit that normally result in times of system change over</li> </ul>	<p><b>Pros:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Possibility of adopting the current technologies thus addressing inherent limitations of PINEAPPLES for example, offline capability and support for hand held devices</li> <li>• Possibility of improving accessibility by developing a web based software</li> <li>• Possibility of improving adaptability by having the software designed generically with possibility of form and report customization</li> <li>• Possibility of better audit trails</li> <li>• Possibility of simplified data import and export features</li> </ul>
<p><b>Cons:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Requires redesign of the front-end to allow accessibility from web browsers and devices</li> <li>• Difficult to build extensibility of forms into the software without completely re-writing the source code</li> <li>• Microsoft Access and VBA are old school technologies and support in future will be non-existent, thus limiting the extent to which the software can be upgraded. Microsoft has discontinued these technologies.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Cons:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Require a comprehensive user training</li> <li>• Possibility of interruption of EMIS unit activities during the change over</li> <li>• Possibility of high budget to finance the development of the system and user training</li> </ul>

## 14. Annex 4 – Analysis of Policy Priorities and Achievements from the ESSP (2012-2016) on Equity

While it is often used interchangeably with the related principle of *equality*, equity encompasses a wide variety of educational models, programs, and strategies that may be considered fair, but not necessarily equal. It has been said that “equity is the process; equality is the outcome,” given that equity—what is fair and just—may not, in the process of educating students, reflect strict equality—what is applied, allocated, or distributed equally.

Table 50. Equity Analysis on Access to Basic Education

Critical constraints that need attention	Preferred solution	Impact of solution	Feasibility of implementation
The existing few schools in hard to reach rural and coastal areas are far short of addressing the problem of long travel to school. Parents are thus reluctant to send their children to school and many children enroll late when they are well above the right age.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Construction of feeder schools to minimize walking distance and facilitate enrolment at the right age. –Support for innovative Alternative Basic Education approaches such as Mobile schools: to reach children migrating with parents.</li> </ul>	These approaches will take education to the hard to reach communities. They have the potential to reach more children in a short time with cost effective educational setups, ensuring active community management. Using lessons learned it will be easy to scale up as long as funding is provided. Ensures safety of children and parents’ confidence.	This will build on existing experience with more learning from the experience of neighboring countries with pastoralist communities (e.g. Kenya, Ethiopia). It benefits from the technical and practical experience as well as financial support of organizations operating in Somaliland.
The formal education system is not flexible enough to fit into the life style of the pastoralist communities. Hence children of the pastoralist livestock herding communities have very limited access to education.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Cluster boarding schools: for Nomadic and coastal regions</li> <li>Flexibility in classes to capture herding and working children who couldn’t go to school at regular time and introduce multi-grade teaching to address classroom and teacher shortage</li> </ul>	If parents send their daughters to school at the right age the girls will benefit from more years of schooling and the risk of drop-out will be minimized.	The simplified school structures (mobile schools) will encourage the involvement of locals and will require less time for construction thus reaching more children with less cost and fewer challenges.

<p>There are economic, social and cultural barriers against certain disadvantaged groups. For example, some parents do not send their daughters or children with disabilities to school.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provision of scholarships for needy girls to facilitate retention and completion of their education</li> <li>• Promotion of inclusive education through campaigns and provision of girl- and disability-friendly schools e.g. WASH facilities and separate latrines for girls.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· If campaigns are coupled with concrete improvements in children's performance, parents will see the value of education and will send more children to school.</li> </ul>	<p>Partners can support the government at HQs level and in various geographical areas until the Ministry's capacity has improved enough to fully take over. In particular, external financial support will be needed over the short and medium term while gradually being phased out as the government's own resources improve.</p>
<p>In urban areas the classes are often over-crowded with double shifts thus severely impeding the quality of teaching and learning taking place. This not only hinders teachers to attend to individual children with learning difficulties but also causes extra damage to rooms and furniture.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The expansion of formal primary schools will minimize the number of over-stretched schools and the quality of learning will improve accordingly</li> </ul>		<p>The existing girls' support systems will be strengthened and a safe and protective environment promoted.</p>





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