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of Somalia

Education Sector Analysis

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Foreword

This 2022 Education Sector Analysis (ESA) is the second ESA report that the Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education of the Federal Government of Somalia has produced since 2012. The report has been produced by the Somali national ESA team, with technical support from the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP-UNESCO) and financial support from the Global Partnership for Education through Save the Children International and CARE International.

Despite the challenges imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic, the national team has produced an excellent report, which adheres to international standards and guidelines for the preparation of an ESA. The purpose of this ESA report is to offer a snapshot of the Somali education sector, outlining contextual challenges as well as opportunities across the sector. The report presents key education indicators across the various sub-sectors and provides an evidence base for the identification of policy priority areas and the development of the Education Sector Strategic Plan (2022–2026).

Somalia, as we know, is dealing with many challenging issues such as violence, inequity, limited access to high-quality social services, weak governance and service-delivery capacities, and limited national capacity to mitigate or respond to the environmental problems that hinder the development of the education system in the country. With the ESA findings, I believe that we will devise tangible and suitable programme activities that support the realization of multiple Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) targets related to education (SDG 4), gender (SDG 5), equity (SDG 10), and peace and security (SDG 16).

I am pleased that this report has been developed by a Somali team, with data produced by our own systems, with support from IIEP-UNESCO. I would also like to take this opportunity to thank to all our education development partners for their contributions and support during the preparation of the report.

The education sector is now ready to embark on a course of development that will change the education landscape of Somalia in the next five years.

Eng. Abdullahi Abukar Haji (Arab)
Minister of Education, Culture
and Higher Education
Federal Government of Somalia

Preface

The fundamental mandate of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education (MoECHE) is to educate Somali children and promote their well-being. In the last few years, the ministry has made tremendous efforts towards building its capacity and carrying out its mandate, by creating policies and documents that support the management and delivery of education in the country.

I am pleased to have been part of these efforts. The development of this report was led by a team of Somali national experts, with technical support provided by IIEP-UNESCO. The report paves the way for the improvement of the quality, governance, and delivery of education in Somalia, as well as increased access and equity.

This ESA includes contributions from ministries of education in the Federal Member States, namely Banadir Regional Administration, Jubbaland, South West state, Galmudug, and Hirshabelle. The Federal Member States have been a key stakeholders in this report, bringing their understanding of the landscape of the education sector in their respective states, inputs which will go a long way towards improving the implementation of education-sector plans across the country. I want to thank the Federal Member States for their contributions to the development of the report and for their support.

A considerable amount of work remains to be done to develop the Education Sector Strategic Plan 2022–2026, translate the strategies into an operational plan in line with the enabling documents of the sector (General Education Act, National Education Policy), and then implement the lines of action as programmes. We hope to achieve this in the next five years.

We hope this report will serve as a baseline for international donors and partners and persuade them to consolidate and coordinate the delivery of equitable, high-quality education in the country. In addition, the report should enable development partners to work more closely with MoECHE in building a strong education system for the children and young people of Somalia.

Mohamed Abbi Hassan
General Director
Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education
Federal Government of Somalia

Acknowledgements

A comprehensive Education Sector Analysis (ESA) is the first step in planning for system-wide education improvement. ESA records the status of education at present, highlights critical challenges and examines what remains to be done by providing recommendations.

This ESA was produced through close collaboration between the Federal Government of Somalia, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education (MOECHE) and the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP-UNESCO). This document benefited from the contributions of numerous individuals, teams, and organizations who supported the analysis and drafting, and provided oversight and strategic direction. We are extremely grateful to all those who have supported the process of this ESA 2021.

The ESA was made possible thanks to the dedication and expertise of an important number of institutions from MOECHE, Federal Member States Ministries of Education of Jubbaland, Galmudug, South West, Hirshabelle and Banadir Regional Administration Education Directorate.

The Education Sector Analysis was led by Saida Hassan together with the National Team Consultants. The team included Abdurahman Ali Mohamed, Abdirizak Hassan Ibrahim, Khalid Hassan Samatar, Mohamed Mukhtar Sheikh Mohamud, Mohamed Sharif Ibrahim and Sumaya Abdirashid Mohamed, under the guidance of Mohamud Rage, the Director of Policy and Planning.

The ESA was drafted with the support of a team from IIEP-UNESCO led by Polycarp Otieno, and comprised of: Shannon Lindsey, Amelie Gagnon, Germán Vargas Mesa, and Dr. Sulleiman Adediran.

The ESA team and the Ministry are grateful for the Education Sector Plan Development Grant from the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) which financed the Somali Education Sector Analysis 2021.

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Abbreviations and acronyms

ABE	Alternative Basic Education
ADRA	Adventist Development and Relief Agency
AMISOM	African Union Mission in Somalia
CEC	Community Education Committee
CISP	Comitato Internazionale per lo Sviluppo dei Popoli
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESA	Education Sector Analysis
ESC	Education Sector Committee
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan
FGS	Federal Government of Somalia
FMS	Federal Member State
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IDA	International Development Association
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
ILO	International Labour Organization
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
IQS	Integrated Quaranic School
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
MoECHE	Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NCA	Norwegian Church Aid
NEET	Not in Employment, Education, or Training
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PqTR	Pupil/qualified-Teacher Ratio
PSP	Private School Policy
PTR	Pupil Teacher Ratio
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SDHS	Somali Health and Demographic Survey
SEND & IE	Special Educational Needs and Inclusive Education (policy)
SETS	Strengthening Education and Training in Somalia
SISEND	Somali Institute of Special Educational Needs and Disability
SLE	School Life Expectancy
TPT	Teacher Proficiency Testing
TSS	Technical Secondary School
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNPD	United Nations Population Division
WASH	Water Sanitation and Hygiene

Executive summary

Somalia is undergoing economic and societal rebuilding, with growth being witnessed alongside continuing humanitarian crises.

Somalia's population is estimated to have reached 16 million in 2020, growing at nearly 3 per cent annually. This population is relatively young, with almost half eligible to attend school, and its dependency ratio is nearly 100 per cent. This fast-growing population is driven by large family sizes, with an average of six members per household, as well as a high gross birth rate, with 42 per cent of all women of child-bearing age estimated to have given birth in 2020. This youth and continual growth places demographic pressure on government resources, which are already constrained by years of conflict.

Despite the end of civil war and the creation of the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) in 2013, the country continues to face insecurity within its borders. The largest of these threats arise from the al-Shabaab militant group, which maintains control over areas in regions in the south and west of the country. The continued violence threatens children, with thousands of grave violations, including abduction and the destruction of schools, reported in the past year. Conflict further contributes to internal migration, with an estimated 1.3 million people being displaced in 2020 alone, and the majority citing conflict as the main reason. Alongside conflict, climate shocks are a major driver of migration, with the geographical position of Somalia making it vulnerable to climate shocks including flood and drought. These climate patterns are critical for the livelihoods of nomadic communities across the country, which represented 25 per cent of the total population in 2014. These consistently high levels of internal migration, whether driven by conflict, nomadic lifestyles, or climate shocks, place large portions of the population out of reach of the state, thereby making it more difficult for them to access basic government services.

Poverty continues to be widespread in Somalia, with 69 per cent of the population living below the poverty line in 2018. This is coupled with high levels of food insecurity, leading to serious and critical levels of malnutrition in all regions of the country. While widespread, poverty is not seen to affect all populations equally, with urban populations suffering from significantly lower levels, especially in terms of food consumption poverty. This disparity is further seen in access to public services such as electricity and water, with access among nomadic and rural populations being the most limited. These populations are seen to suffer the most from the weakened government ability to provide basic services, which also spills over to their access to education.

Somalia has rebuilt its economy steadily since 2012, with an average annual GDP growth rate of 4.3 per cent until 2018. This has had a similar effect on GDP per capita, with this figure growing by over 77 per cent in the same period. This growth has been paralleled by the reconstruction of the Somali tax system, with tax revenue increasing 38 per cent from 2012 to 2018, accounting for 58 per cent of total revenue in 2018. Government spending has also increased; however, it remains low in relative terms, at just 5 per cent of total GDP in 2018. This indicates the continued limited size and reach of the federal government, a symptom of

the current process of state reconstruction. The country is also heavily burdened by debt, although this has declined from over 100 per cent of GDP in 2013 to 87 per cent in 2018. This pressure has limited the ability of the state to invest more in development spending, however, and the country reaching the heavily indebted poor country (HIPC) decision-point for debt relief will hopefully signal change in this regard. Somalia's reliance on remittances, especially at the household level, where 62 per cent were receiving international remittances each month in 2017, makes it vulnerable to international economic shocks, including COVID-19. The economic impacts of the pandemic have revised economic growth rates in the country from a projected 3.2 per cent, to a shrinking of −2.5 per cent. There is potential for this to have long-lasting impacts on the already fragile system, as well as to undermine the positive levels of growth and development seen in recent years.

Progress has been made in the institutionalization of the education system despite continuing low enrolment rates

The education system structure was improved through the adoption of the General Education Act on February 2021, which harmonizes the two previous parallel streams: the legacy 6+3+3 (with six years of lower primary, three years of upper primary, and three years of secondary school) and the new 4+4+4 system (four years of lower primary, four years of upper primary, and four years of secondary school). The new Education Act also streamlines the structure of other sub-sectors, including religious education, technical and vocational education (TVET), and components of the general education sub-sector, such as Alternative Basic Education and Adult Basic Education.

The 2016–2017 period saw a steady increase in the number of children enrolled in school at all levels, with a sharp decline in 2019, possibly because of the strong drought period in 2017, and with a strong recovery in 2020. The progression in the number of enrolled children in public schools has shown improvement from 2019 to 2020 at all levels, with 38 per cent of all schools in the five FMSs being public or publicly supported in 2020. The level of the recovery from the 2018 drought varies by educational sub-level, as does the drop in 2019. According to the enrolment numbers, Somalia's primary school gross enrolment ratio (GER) remains low, at 14.3 per cent, especially in comparison to other East African countries which report well over 100 per cent. While the enrolment drop after 2017 affected the overall GER, pre-drought levels are still slightly below the current level, which means that there has been a strong recovery. Administrative data show a drop in GER in 2019, before which the primary school GER was 15.4 per cent and the secondary GER 13.5 per cent for 2017, with a recovery in 2020. Disparities across years and educational sub-levels are more apparent when breaking down GER by level and Federal Member State.

An overview of the evolution of the cross-sectional schooling profile for Somalia in 2016 and 2020 shows a drop at all levels of the grade-specific GER in 2019, with some recovery at upper primary and secondary levels in 2020. As a consequence of the low access and high dropout rates, Somali children expect to receive an average of 1.72 years of school in their life-times, with considerable

disadvantage suffered by girls, who are expected to receive 1.48 years of school compared to 1.95 for boys. The system is characterized by low levels of declared repetition and low levels of internal efficiency, owing to high levels of dropout and likely non-declaration of repetition. In 2020, repetition was rare in Somalia, with only 1.6 per cent of students having repeated the previous year. Furthermore, more than half the school-age children in Somalia are currently out of school, with varying proportions of out-of-school children across states.

Absence of data on children with disabilities renders proportions largely unknown, with big disparities between data sources. Discrimination and community attitudes act as a barrier to education for children with disabilities. Finally, there exists no specific training for teachers of children with special educational needs in Somalia. Further inequalities exist regarding access to education for disadvantaged or marginalized groups, with women, poor households, and rural students being more likely to have never attended schools than their counterparts.

Public expenditure on education remains low, reflective of the size of the public education sector in the country

The Somali government spends well below the UNESCO-recommended allocation of 20 per cent of national expenditure on education, with only 5 per cent allocated in 2020. Spending is actually lower than the amounts allocated in the budget, owing to low levels of budgetary compliance. For example, budget utilization reports demonstrate that in 2020, 40 per cent of the approved education budget was not executed, meaning that only $17 million of the allocated $29 million was actually committed to educational operations. While this indicates limited credibility of public expenditure, it is important to note that absolute spending has increased dramatically, witnessing nearly a tenfold increase since 2016. The largest portion (80 per cent) of public expenditure on education is funded by the government, with the rest originating from development partners as budget support, indicating high levels of governmental commitment to independence. Additionally, the FGS has demonstrated its support for the process of decentralization by increasing funding to state-level ministries of education dramatically in recent years. This said, a large portion of public expenditure on education remains in the control of the FGS, with 73 per cent of spending executed at the FGS level in 2020. This indicates that while the FMSs are being operationalized, the FGS continues to exercise high levels of authority, raising concerns about the effectiveness of the decentralization arrangement in the country.

Expenditure is concentrated on recurrent spending, leaving a gap in the investment needed to expand the public education system

While Somalia is in the process of rebuilding its provision of public education, current spending is almost exclusively focused on recurrent items, leaving very little funding available for the expansion of public schools. Furthermore, all the capital expenditure is focused at the federal level, with no investment in facilities and infrastructure at the state levels, again indicating the constrained nature of the current functioning of state-level ministries of education. Within recur-

rent expenditure, salaries make up over 80 per cent, this being the main driver of the increase in spending in recent years, having increased by over eight times since 2016 with the majority allocated to teacher/instructor salaries. Spending on non-salary items has grown from 8 per cent of total recurrent spending in 2016, to 18 per cent in 2020, which can be considered a positive signal in the context of a system that is seeking expansion and improvement of public service delivery.

Primary and post-secondary education make up 75 per cent of public recurrent expenditure on education, with the remainder allocated to administration, which includes curriculum development, examinations, and quality assurance. At the post-secondary level, the majority of spending is concentrated on the Somali National University, with very little left for administrative functions, limiting the operationalization of the Higher Education Commission and constraining quality assurance functions at this level. In 2019, the government spent an average of $268 on learners attending public primary schools, $117 on secondary school students, and $458 on post-secondary students.

Development partners and households fill investment gaps, with expenditure from development partners overshadowing public expenditure

The majority of funding for education is private, originating both from households and development partners. According to the High-Frequency Survey of 2017, households spent a total of $24 million on education in 2017, nearly seven times the amount spent by the government in the same year. However, this still represented less than 1 per cent of overall household consumption, with household focus being on housing and food. Within the household expenditure on education, tuition and books make up the majority. On average, households spend $28 annually per child attending school, with this varying greatly according to socio-economic status and place of residence. Furthermore, it is clear from household spending that teachers in private institutions are paid significantly less than those in public schools.

Apart from households, development partners are also a key stakeholder in education investment, spending more than $19 million directly on education, which overshadowed the spending by the government in 2020. Expenditure by development partners was concentrated in Jubbaland and South West states, with these two states accounting for two-thirds of total off-budget support. The off-budget spending allocated to capital investments by development partners is greater than the funding allocated to these by the government. The largest portion of government capital spending is focused on construction and refurbishment of classrooms. With particular investment seen in the construction of new classrooms, partners' spending seems to be aligned with the priority of expansion of school infrastructure, which may be filling up the gap left by the government, whose spending is mostly focused on recurrent items.

A lack of learning assessment data, new examination systems, and high pass rates may be hiding nuances and disparities in the quality of education being received

Standardized national examinations are still a relatively recent development in Somalia, with the primary leaving exam-

ination being introduced in 2020, and the secondary leaving examination coming in 2015. Data from 2020 demonstrate that national examination pass rates at both the primary and secondary levels are high, with an average of 89 per cent and 75 per cent respectively. Coverage is also high, with proportions of students sitting these exams compared to total enrolment in respective grades nearing, and even exceeding 100 per cent. Coverage has grown significantly at the secondary level, with the total number of students sitting the exam growing from 3,522 in 2015, to 33,727 in 2020. At the subject level, Somali and social science show the highest average scores, with Somali also seeing the highest averages at the secondary level. Conversely, English has the lowest scores at the primary level, while this is observed to be maths at the secondary.

There are more female students taking end-of-primary examinations, (41 per cent of all students) than end-of-secondary examiniations, where they represent 38 per cent of all candidates. There are high levels of gender parity in pass rates across the majority of subjects at both the primary and the secondary level. However, a lack of disaggregated data by population group may hide some of the gender-related disparities one would expect to see among nomadic and rural populations. This similarly applies to our inability to differentiate between different types of school as regards examination data. Amongst states, performance is seen to be fairly uniform in primary exams, ranging from a low of 84 per cent in Galmudug to a high of 99 per cent in South West state in 2020. Comparatively, pass rates at the secondary level are more disparate, ranging from a low of 69 per cent in Banaadir, to a high of 100 per cent in Jubbaland. As such, there is no clear trend seen in terms of high- and low-performing states in the two examination levels.

While pass rates and average scores in examinations are seen to be high, a lack of data on school-based assessments or regional or global standardized assessments limits ability to come to firmer conclusions on learning achievement. Furthermore, the recent introduction of both these examinations, and the observed processes of standardization and elimination of malpractice at the secondary level, limits the validity of results further. Coupled with the low rates of qualification, high pass rates in standardized exams do not indicate that there is no room for improvement in the quality of education being received in schools.

High proportions of underqualified and unqualified teachers persist while teachers are incorporated into the government payroll

Males dominate the teaching profession, with females representing between 12 and 18 per cent of the total number of teachers at the primary level, and less than 5 per cent at the secondary level. However, there is seen to be an influx of young females into the profession, particularly at the primary level, in recent years. Across both genders, the vast majority of primary teachers are young, with most being under 24, while at the secondary level, they are more evenly distributed across age groups. Teacher salaries remain low, especially among females, with 59 per cent of female and 49 per cent of male primary teachers making below $100 per month. Salaries are slightly higher at the secondary level and actu-

ally favour female teachers, with 36 per cent of female and 23 per cent of male secondary teachers earning between $251 and 500 monthly.

Low rates of fully qualified teachers rates are seen across all types of school types, standing at 36 per cent, 35 per cent, and 36 per cent in primary public, publicly supported (or 'community), and private schools respectively. Furthermore, there are disparities seen among states, with rates of qualification in private primary schools ranging from a high of 48 per cent in Galmudug to a low of 5 per cent in Jubbaland, suggesting similar variations in the quality of education available across other states. Qualification rates are even lower at the secondary level, ranging from a low of 15 per cent in public schools to a high of 30 per cent in private schools. However, under-qualification rates are also seen to be higher at the secondary level, ranging from 30 to 68 per cent across states in public schools. This is indicative of the higher levels of education needed to be considered qualified at the secondary level, and of the high proportion of teachers working at the secondary level who possess teacher training diplomas, which used to qualify them but are now only an accepted qualification at the primary level. Additionally, results from teacher proficiency testing undertaken by the MoECHE demonstrate low levels of pedagogical knowledge among both primary and secondary school teachers, and furthermore, little difference seen between the scores of trained and untrained teachers. This shows the need for the standardization of the teacher-training curriculum and the opening of teacher-training institutes under this framework; a process in which the government is currently engaged in.

Pupil/teacher ratios also vary across different types of school, with highest ratios being seen in public institutions at the primary level, and community institutions at the secondary level. PTRs are relatively high at the primary level, ranging from 32:1 to 60:1, however, these increase dramatically when considering pupil/qualified-teacher ratios as a result of the low rates of qualification observed, reaching a high of 542 pupils to one qualified teacher in private primary schools in Jubbaland. A similar trend is seen at the secondary level, with PTRs being lower overall, presumably as a result of the lower levels of enrolment also seen at this level, yet similarly exploding when considering qualified teachers only. At the school level, teacher distribution in public institutions is highly uneven, with a degree of randomness of 63 per cent in primary schools and almost 100 per cent in secondary. This suggests mismanagement of teacher allocation, with some extreme cases of over and under-concentration of teaching staff observed.

Textbooks are in short supply, while school infrastructure is improved

Overall, textbooks are in short supply at both the primary and secondary levels, with the highest levels of availability seen in public schools. At the primary level, wide variations are seen among different types of school, with the lowest pupil/textbook ratios being seen for science textbooks in public schools, to a high of 43:1 in private schools. While a lack of 2020 textbook data means that recent primary textbook distribution efforts may not be fully reflected in the data, there has been no similar campaign at the secondary level, resulting in 77 per cent of public institutions reporting having no maths textbooks

at all. Furthermore, where textbooks do exist, it is clear they are unevenly distributed, with very little correlation observed between the total number of books in a school and total enrolment.

There has been mass school reconstruction since the end of the civil war. This may be responsible for the relatively high proportion of schools with access to water, toilet facilities, and electricity, with this not falling below 60 per cent in any of the states. This said, Jubbaland stands out as having the lowest levels of access across all three of these domains, at 70 per cent, 65 per cent, and 54 per cent respectively. Conversely, access to hand-washing facilities remains low, ranging from 11 per cent of schools in Galmudug to 29 per cent in Jubbaland. Access to facilities for children with disabilities is also poor, with a low of 17 per cent in Galmudug and a high of 24 per cent in Banadir. Additionally, while most schools have toilet facilities, a significant proportion do not have enough toilets. For example, among private schools in Jubbaland there is an average of one toilet per 400 students.

A large proportion of eligible young people are not reached by post-secondary programmes in Somalia, with enrolment representing only 5 per cent of the total eligible population

TVET is heavily supported by non-state institutions in Somalia, and provision is concentrated in urban areas. Local NGOs are the most prominent supporters of TVET institutions, followed by international NGOs. Programmes are short, with more than half of trainees enrolled in programmes lasting less than six months. However, the government is in the process of re-entering the sector, with a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) between the MoECHE and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs signed in April 2021, which outlines each ministry's responsibility in the sub-sector. According to this MoU, training programmes of 12 months or less months fall under the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, while those longer than one year are under the mandate of the MoECHE. Through this agreement, it is anticipated that a process of formalization and standardization of TVET will begin, including the production of a TVET policy, a TVET sector strategy, and a national vocational qualification framework.

There is limited financial input from the government at the TVET level, with only one publicly managed technical professional college currently functioning. Expenditure reports indicate that apart from the salaries of five staff, there is no spending on or investments in the sub-sector. Without this government investment, the sector remains small, with a total of 58 centres distributed unevenly across the country. They served more than 11,000 trainees in 2020. Among these trainees, more than half are seen to be female and are seen to prefer training in hair and beauty, art and design, and home management. The subject with the highest levels of enrolment is seen to be tailoring, followed by hair and beauty.

The 2018 labour-market surveys revealed persistent mismatches between the skills acquired by trainees and the expectations of the labour market, an element which it is hoped will be addressed through the harmonization and standardization of the curriculum agreed on in the 2021 MoU. These mismatches are demonstrated by

the fact that only 15 per cent of TVET graduates in South West state, 10 per cent in Jubbaland, and 20 per cent in Galmudug had been absorbed into the labour market in the preceding three years. TVET instructors are largely unqualified, with only two out of three having post-secondary qualifications. This can be related to the lack of harmonization referred to above, with no official policy stating what level of qualification an instructor should have to work in a TVET institution.

Similar arrangements are seen when considering universities in Somalia, with only one public university in existence, surrounded by a fast-growing network of private institutions. While 118 universities are listed in the Education Management Information System (EMIS), it is difficult to determine exactly how many are functioning, with the MoECHE confirming the existence of at least 55 through physical visits, the majority of which are concentrated in Banadir Regional Administration. During the 2019/20 academic year, there were more than 95,000 students enrolled across 47 universities, with only slightly more than 2,000 enrolled in the only public university in the country. The most popular faculties at the university are health and welfare, social science and ICT, which together account for three-quarters of the programmes offered in the university. In terms of funding, the majority of government spending on university education is concentrated on the Somali National University, with university education in total representing 33 per cent of government spending on education in total.

Both TVET and university education are expected to prepare graduates to enter the labour market. However, high rates of out-of-school children across primary and secondary levels of education contributes to a situation where less than half of the working-age population is active in the labour market. Evidence from the High-Frequency Survey of 2017 also points to a degree of skill misalignment, with less than half (48 per cent) of university graduates seen to be active in the labour market as well. Employment for TVET graduates is the most variable according to state, with 70 per cent of TVET graduates in Jubbaland being unemployed, compared to 75 per cent of TVET graduates being absorbed into the labour market in South West state. Overall, 4 in 10 young people are not in employment, education, or training, an element which makes them particularly susceptible to getting involved with violent extremism, given the fragile context of the country. Underemployment is also rife, with 1 in 4 employed persons reporting being available for additional work, again pointing to the low quality of jobs available in the current market. Opportunities are, however, better for university graduates, with this group seeing significantly higher rates of access to salaried positions than groups at all other levels of educational attainment.

Lack of clearly defined roles leads to overlaps and duplications across the educational administration

Although MoECHE has clearly defined mandate, vision, and mission statements, the functions of its departments have not been adequately documented, which has led to overlapping and duplication of functions across them. The staff also identified functions that have not been satisfactorily performed as part of the mandate of MoECHE and adduced reasons for such lapses. A new organizational structure has been released by MoECHE, but

the detailed departmental functions and job descriptions, and the competences for the different positions have not been made available. The main challenges to the policy planning process and to the effectiveness of education policies and programmes, as well as to the implementation of policies by the MoECHE, were identified as the top-down approach to the planning process, poor training opportunities for MoECHE staff, weak linkages between the planning and implementation processes, and an uncertain policy environment.

Nepotism and favouritism remain challenges amid needs for capacity development

System-wide gaps in the EMIS still persist, despite the introduction of the new EMIS at the FGS, FMS and school levels. The challenges identified include weak capacities of EMIS personnel to manage EMIS functions, weak data-gathering procedures at school level, and weak quality assurance and supervision at district and state levels.

The MoECHE has 202 members of staff, of whom 42 (21 per cent) are female, and 1,167 (83 per cent) belong to the administrator/policy-makers bands. Staffing is skewed towards the administrative departments compared to technical/professional departments, with the Finance & Administration Department having 32 (27 per cent) of the total staff strength. As far as job descriptions are concerned, a third of the senior and middle-level officials thought that their job descriptions did not identify the purpose of their work or the key tasks to be performed. This means that the staff functions do not relate well to the ministry's mandate. More than half of the respondents believed that the job descriptions were a mere formality. Furthermore, about half were of the view that the roles and responsibilities were not specific enough to guide the day-to-day tasks to be performed by the individual staff. The major challenges which affect individuals and the overall performance of MoECHE were identified by the stakeholders to include poor motivation (60 per cent), frequent leadership changes (53 per cent), and lack of skills among employees (51 per cent). On the other hand, poor working conditions (57 per cent), lack of clear-cut responsibility (51 per cent), and nepotism and favouritism (50 per cent), were also identified as posing some challenges to staff performance.

Chapter 1
Socio-demographic and macroeconomic context

An education system is inevitably linked to the context in which it functions, including the cultural, social, and economic background. Contextual factors such as population size, public financing, poverty and other social indicators could either constrain or enable universal access to education. As such, it is impossible to ignore the role they play when analysing the sector more broadly. Accordingly, this sectionsection presents an overview of the context in which the current Somali education system is evolving, shedding light on developments in this sector within the larger country context.

This section is organized in three sub-sections, beginning with a discussion on the humanitarian situation in Somalia, which looks specifically at how geographical, political, and conflict-related factors have contributed to instability and humanitarian needs, especially with regard to access to education. Secondly, the section examines key socio-demographic indicators, including population composition and poverty, in order to place the education system within this larger social framework. Lastly, the section reviews the macroeconomic situation in the country at both Federal Government and Federal Member State levels, presenting key economic indicators, revenues and expenditures in order to frame the ensuing discussion regarding public spending on education and the ability of the state to deliver public services.

The findings presented in this section, which form the basis for the discussion of the humanitarian context, come from a range of sources, including secondary data. In the case of social indicators, figures largely originate from the 2017 High-Frequency Survey supported by the World Bank (World Bank, 2019a) and are complemented by 2019 population estimates from the United Nations Population Division (UNPD). Macroeconomic data have been sourced from the Central Bank of Somalia, as well as the ministries of finance in the Federal Member States (FMSs). These serve as the inputs for calculating key economic indicators. Where possible, data have been triangulated in order to ensure robust analysis.

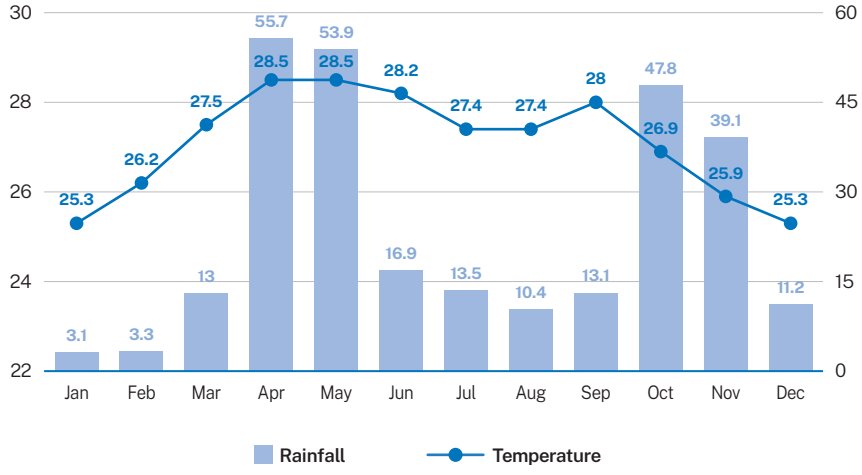
1.1 Humanitarian and political context: Battling legacies of conflict in pursuit of stability

While Somalia has emerged from years of civil war and complete state collapse, it continues to face challenges in the form of climate-related humanitarian crises and enduring conflict. This sub-section highlights some of these lasting issues and the constraints they place on the development of the state and its education sector.

1.1.1 Geography and climate: High levels of vulnerability to climate shocks

Somalia's climate and geographical position have wide-ranging impacts on key measures of human development. Somalia is the eastern-most country in Africa and extends just south of the equator and northward to the Gulf of Aden. Its coastline, which is the longest in mainland Africa, measures 3,333 km (World Bank, 2019b). This position holds geopolitical significance, because the country serves as the gateway between sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East, and south-western Asia. Somalia's location creates a climate of geographical extremes, ranging from hot semi-desert conditions, in the north, where there is less than 10 mm of rain per year in the dry season, to extreme weather events and more than 580 mm of rainfall in one year in the south (REACH, 2018). The topography of the country is generally flat, which facilitates the movement of nomadic populations and their livestock. It is estimated that 23 per cent of the total population is agro-pastoralist, and an additional 9 per cent nomadic (World Bank, 2019a). These populations are reliant on the bimodal rainfall patterns, with two rainy seasons: the *Gu'* season which lasts from April to June, and the *Deyr* season, which lasts from October to December, as can be seen in *Figure 1.1*.

Figure 1.1 Average temperature (°C) and rainfall (ml) in Somalia, 1991–2020

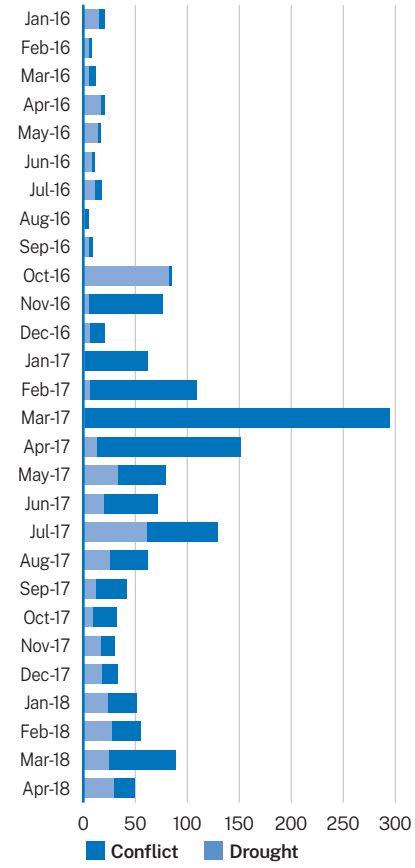


Source: Climate Change Knowledge Portal, World Bank, 2020.

Nomadic pastoralist and agro-pastoralist communities depend on this weather pattern to support their livelihoods, with the rainy seasons watering crops and replenishing natural water sources, and the dry seasons used for planting and harvesting. Climate-related shocks such as flooding and drought, leave a large proportion of the population vulnerable, which can have drastic impacts on their livelihoods. Somalia has experienced three such shocks since 2019 alone, including severe drought in 2019, during which 2.2 million people faced food shortages; flooding in 2019 and 2020; and the desert locust infestation of 2019–2020 (World Bank, 2020b). The High-Frequency Survey conducted in 2017 estimated that 66 per cent of households had experienced at least one type of shock to their livelihoods in the preceding year, with these shocks most frequently related to climate variations (World Bank, 2019a). Similarly, 2021 has brought further climate-related challenges, with the government officially declaring drought conditions in April 2021 and estimating that 1.3 million school-age children would be displaced as a result (UNOCHA, 2021). These shocks are predicted to increase, with the effects of climate change heightening the prevalence of erratic weather cycles, and causing further drought and flooding.

The effects of climate shocks are not just devastating for the economy and livelihoods but are a major contributor to high levels of internal migration and high proportions of internally displaced populations. As seen in *Figure 1.2*, in recent years drought has been a major driver of internal migration, which peaked during the drought of 2017. More recently, heavy *Gu'* rains in 2020 led to flooding in 39 out of 90 districts, affecting 1.3 million people and displacing 505,000 (World Bank, 2020b). This massive climate-related displacement has effects on educational access and continuity, with flooding in 2019 displacing 270,000 residents, 40 per cent of whom were school-age children (REACH, 2020). This flooding is also estimated to have destroyed between 81 and 104 schools, interrupting the education of between 27,500 and 33,701 children (World Bank, 2020b).

Figure 1.2 Causes of migration, January 2016 –April 2018



Source: High-Frequency Survey (World Bank, 2019a).

1.1.2 Political context: The path to state reconstruction through federalism

The political environment in Somalia has been characterized by instability and fragmentation since the collapse of Siad Barre's regime in 1991. This plunged the country into statelessness, without a central government or rule of law, leaving a gap for the proliferation of clan and militia groups, so that the country eventually descended into civil war. While there were multiple attempts to re-establish governance in Somalia, it was not until 2012 that the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) emerged with a provisional constitution. This established a two-tier system of governance consisting of the FGS at the centre, and Banadir Regional Administration and the other four FMSs (South West state, Jubbaland, Galmudug and Hirshabelle) at the second level, as well as the two regions of Somaliland and Puntland. The provisional constitution, while not detailing functional practicalities, devolved much power and authority to the FMSs, with the FGS retaining exclusive control over four functions: foreign affairs, national defence, citizenship and immigration, and monetary policy. Additionally, an informal power-sharing agreement was designed in 2000, which sought to accommodate the strong clan identities that had driven much of the preceding conflict. The agreement established a unique '4.5' system, in which each of the four major clans was given the power to select an equal number of federal parliament members, while the minority groups together were given the authority to select half this number of representatives (0.5). This power-sharing agreement and decentralization through federalism emerged as a viable solution to the mistrust and desire for local control that were heightened by the prolonged civil war (Sharma and Dillinger, 2020).

While the establishment of the FGS marked a turning point for political stability in Somalia, many of the practical functionalities of FMSs were not specified in the provisional constitution. These continue to evolve. Currently, the FMSs largely function separately, with each state having its own elected government, which works in collaboration with the FGS. States support themselves through independent tax structures, foreign aid directly allocated to state-level governments, and financial transfers from the FGS. These transfers, however, have been largely ad hoc, with past years suggesting there is no formula determining the amount allocated, leading to wide variations in total amounts received yearly by the FMSs (Sharma and Dillinger, 2020).

The role of the FMSs in education was concretely defined in 2019 when a communiqué was signed between the FGS and the FMSs that outlined the states' responsibilities for financing their own education systems, and for establishing and running schools, as well as managing school personnel. The FGS retained responsibility for the development and implementation of educational policy, including the curriculum, with the Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education (MoECHE) beginning the roll-out of a national curriculum in 2018, in order to bring consistency across the education system (World Bank, 2019b). Furthermore, the General Education Act, introduced in 2017 and adopted in 2021, enshrined education as a fundamental human right and outlined the government strategy for free, inclusive, and equitable education. While the law covered both non-formal and formal education

from pre-primary to tertiary level, only public primary education was mandated to be free of charge. These new provisions followed the previously fragmented education system that existed during the civil war, which saw the destruction of more than 75 per cent of schools, and the provision of education taken over by communities, NGOs and private entities in absence of a central government (World Bank, 2019b). This continues to have effects today, with community schools, private schools, and NGO-run schools dominating the educational landscape. Section 2 discusses in detail the evolution of the participation of these streams of providers, and highlights the challenges in rewriting these legacies.

1.1.3 Conflict and fragility: Hope for stability in the face of insanity

Despite the establishment of a central state through the emergence of the FGS, Somalia remains one of the most fragile states in the world, ranking at the top of the INFORM global risk index in 2020 because of continuing conflict, high vulnerability to environmental shocks, and weak governance structures (European Commision on Disaster Risk Management Knowledge Centre, 2019; Somalia Education Cluster, 2019). The al-Shabaab militant group has been a major driver of instability in Somalia since the early 2000s, although their power was weakened following the ousting of Islamic courts from the capital, Mogadishu, by Ethiopian troops in 2006 (World Bank, 2020c). Following its explusion form the capital, al-Shabaab moved into rural areas and secondary cities across the FMSs, where it began its guerrilla-like campaign of violent attacks. This change in offensive tactics led to the deployment in 2007 of the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM), a regional peacekeeping mission serving under a mandate to support Somalia in its fight against the group. Under this mandate, AMISOM brought large portions of the country back under the control of the Somali state between 2011 and 2014, although efforts have largely been stalled since 2015 (World Bank 2020c). As a result, al-Shabaab has lost control of major cities in the south-central and southern regions of the country, but remains the dominant authority in many rural areas. The group continues to maintain its influence in these areas through intimidation and violent tactics, thereby maintaining exclusive power in parts of Jubbaland and South West states.

The effects of conflict and instability in these areas of the country are multi-faceted, limiting both access to and continuity of education. Conflict poses a direct threat to education, through attacks on schools, including killing, abduction, and threats against teachers, as well as destruction and looting of school property. The UN verified 195 attacks on schools between 2012 and mid-2016, with an additional 77 in 2018, and 40 in the first half of 2019 (Somalia Education Cluster, 2020). Outside school, children are often targeted by armed groups, with 4,714 grave violations against 3,810 children having been verified in 2020, including the recruitment of 1,407 children by al-Shabaab and the abduction of 1,430 children by armed groups (United Nations, 2021). This contributes to a situation where children are not safe in schools, or on their way to school, creating a further barrier to accessing education. Additionally, alongside climate-

driven disasters, conflict contributes to increased humanitarian needs by driving migration and limiting access to basic necessities. It is estimated that 1.4 million children in Somalia need humanitarian assistance, either to enrol in school or to staythere (Somalia Education Cluster, 2020).

1.1.4 COVID-19 and its implications for Somalia

The global pandemic will weaken efforts to rebuild the economy, with residual effects likely to reach the education sector, which has already changed its day-today operations in order to implement COVID-19 mitigation measures. The spread of the novel Coronavirus of 2019 was officially declared a global pandemic by the World Health Organization on 1 March 2020. Somalia reported its first confirmed case of the virus on 16 March 2020. This was swiftly followed by the official closure of schools and universities on 18 March 2020 (MoECHE, 2020d). The government additionally moved to postpone national exams and announced that schools would not reopen for the rest of the academic year, or at least until August 2020. While official case rates of COVID-19, and deaths related to the virus have tended to be lower in sub-Saharan Africa, including Somalia, there is recent evidence that points to severe under-testing and under-reporting across the continent, with actual infection rates thought to be significantly higher than those being reported in national figures (Nigeria Centre for Disease Control, 2021). Overcrowding in urban centres, large household sizes, and insufficient access to amenities such as water and handwashing facilities have made mitigation of the spread of the disease difficult in Somalia (World Bank, 2020a). The country was subsequently hit by a second wave of the pandemic in late February 2021, leading to another closure of schools for two weeks at the beginning of March. The second wave hit harder than the first, with daily cases exceeding those of 2020, leading to overcrowding in hospitals and a further dwindling of already scarce medical supplies.

Somalia was already vulnerable and its economy weakened before the arrival of COVID-19, as a result of major drought and flooding and the locust invasion in 2019/2020. The economic effects of these climatic shocks were compounded by the emergence of COVID-19, hindering Somalia's economic revitalization, which has been the focus of government actors since the emergence of the FGS. The pandemic changed the anticipated GDP growth, not only in Somalia but generally across the globe and specifically in certain comparable countries. Overall, these countries were projected to have a joint GDP growth of more than 3 per cent in 2020. However, owing to the pandemic, which has affected commerce across all sectors, their economies are expected to contract by nearly 2 per cent (*Table 1.1*). In Somalia, GDP is expected to drop from projected positive growth of 3.2 per cent before the pandemic, to −2.5 per cent, a drop of 5.7 percentage points. The Somali economy was particularly affected by the decline in international trade and travel, because a large proportion of its annual revenue originates from international remittances (see *Table 1.1*). Furthermore, due to the global nature of economic hardship caused by the pandemic, remittances flowing into Somalia were projected to

Table 1.1 GDP growth in selected countries, adjusted for the effects of COVID-19, 2020

Country	Projected growth (%)	Revised growth (%)	Percentage point change
Afghanistan	1	−3.4	−4.4
Burundi	2	1	−1
CAR	0.8	−3.3	−4.1
Chad	−0.2	−5.9	5.7
Eritrea	3.5	−0.7	−4.2
Ethiopia	6.3	3.2	−3.1
Madagascar	5.3	−1.2	−6.5
Mozambique	3.7	1.3	−2.4
Rwanda	8.1	2	−6.1
Somalia	**3.2**	**−2.5**	**−5.7**
South Sudan	−4.3	−18.9	−14.6
Tanzania	5.8	2.5	−3.3
Uganda	5.5	3.3	−3.2
Average	**3.13**	**−1.74**	**−4.07**

Source: World Bank, National Accounts Data, 2021.

decline by 2.5 per cent of GDP in 2020, negatively impacting households who rely on these to access basic services, including education (World Bank, 2020a).

Beyond the economic and health consequences, it is now known that COVID-19 has caused an educational crisis of an unprecedented scale, having a near-universal impact on teachers and learners around the world. However, its effects have not been equal, with low-income countries disproportionately suffering from school closures. For instance, 86 per cent of children in primary education were effectively out of school in the second quarter of 2020 in countries with low human development, compared to 20 per cent in countries with high human development (United Nations, 2021). Following the arrival of COVID-19 in Somalia in March 2020, the FGS announced the closure of schools, and subsequently agreed to end the school year early, eliminating the final four weeks that remained of the academic year. In April 2020, the FGS estimated that 589,559 children were out of school across all levels of education as a result of COVID-19 across the five FMSs (MoECHE, 2020d). The MoECHE sought to develop a distance-learning programme in response, as outlined in their COVID strategy. However, with no pre-existing digital materials, the process moved slowly, and distance-learning materials at the primary level were only made available in March 2021 in time for the second round of school closures. Use of these materials has almost been non-existent; however, the existence of a digital curriculum is a positive step in providing access to education to remote and pastoralist communities in the future.

While the government was largely absent from efforts to provide supplementary learning opportunities during the COVID pandemic, partners and individual

schools attempted to fill the gaps using various methods. As part of its Joint Multi-Cluster Needs Assessment in June 2020, the REACH Initiative conducted household surveys in 17 out of the 18 regions of the country, with almost 10,000 households surveyed. These data indicate that an average of 47 per cent of students were accessing some form of distance learning during the period of school closures (REACH, 2020). However, a much more limited survey, carried out by 35 international, national, and government agencies coordinated by UNICEF in April 2020, found that only 16 per cent of students were accessing remote learning (UNICEF, 2020). This indicates that remote learning may have become more accessible during the period from April to June 2020, although this may also be reflective of over-reporting at the household level. The REACH study further reveals that out of the children accessing remote learning, 37 per cent accessed it 'through school', while 31 per cent accessed it through reading (*Table 1.2*). In this context, school can be understood to refer to both learning materials provided by schools, which are completed at home, and in-person education, i.e. Quranic schools or madrassas, which remained open against government advice. Reading refers to learning materials provided by the government, as well as informal reading activities, including books or textbooks, with limited or no educator guidance.

Schools reopened in Somalia in August 2020, in line with the start of a new academic year. While the effects this prolonged closure have had on student retention and learning outcomes are not clear, owing to a lack of data, reopening under new norms presents a challenge for the existing school infrastructure in Somalia. Reopening guidelines recommend physical distancing in classrooms as well as increased access to handwashing facilities, which both pose problems for schools in the country. As will be discussed further in Section 4, public schools in Somalia suffer from extreme overcrowding, with more than 50 students in one classroom, which increases the risk of COVID-19 transmission. The push for smaller class sizes has ripple effects on teacher management, with a need for more qualified teachers, thereby intensifying needs in an already strained system and funding structure.

Table 1.2 Sources of remote learning, 2020

Source	% of respondents
Reading	30.5
School	37.3
Online	7.7
Learning On	1.8
Radio	9.1
Television	5.5
Audio	0.9

Source: Authors' calculations based on REACH (2020).

1.2 Socio-demographic background: Young people facing enduring human development challenges

For years, during the period of state collapse in Somalia, the population size and overall welfare of the people were largely under-reported because of security-related access issues. Since the establishment of the FGS, great effort has been invested in understanding the composition of the population and the key challenges faced by the people in terms of poverty and food insecurity. This section summarizes the outputs of these efforts, seeking to describe the situations of various population groups in the country, in order to show how their living conditions affect their access to education.

1.2.1 Demographic growth: Unique population groups and migration

According to the United Nations Population Fund, Somalia's population was estimated to be 12.3 million in 2014 (UNFPA, 2014). However, for the purposes of this analysis, United Nations Population Division (UNPD) data are used as they provide yearly estimations, which are unavailable in UNFPA data. The UNPD estimates that the population was close to 16 million in 2020, having grown from 13.4 million in 2014, at an annual average rate of 2.8 per cent (*Table 1.3*). Furthermore, UNPD data do not provide population group breakdowns, and as such, data have been disaggregated here according to UNFPA classifications of rural, urban, nomadic, and IDP populations; representing 22.8 per cent, 41.5 per cent, 25.9 per cent and 9 per cent of the total population respectively.

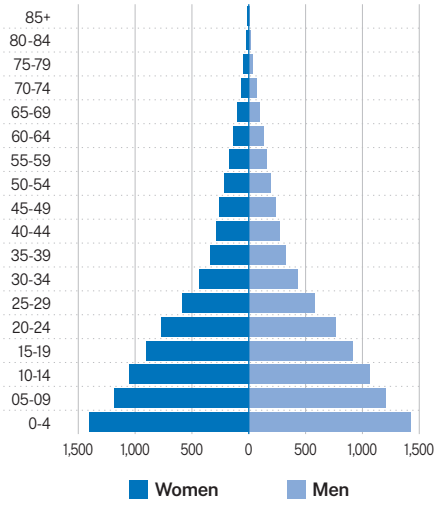
With an average age of 33, the country is considered to have a young population, with near 100 per cent demographic dependency. The youth of the population is manifested in the population pyramid (*Figure 1.3*), which has much of the population at the base and very few at the apex. The pyramid shows that the total active population, or those contributing to the economy through recognized economic activities, is almost equal to the total dependent population, or those under 15 and over 65. As the dependent popula-

Table 1.3 Population growth in Somalia, 2014–2020 (thousands)

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Total population[a]	13,424	13,797	14,186	14,589	15,008	15,443	15,893
Rural							3,622
Urban							6,599
Nomads							4,112
IDPs							1,428
Population growth rate (%)	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9
Active population	6,684	6,903	7,125	7,352	7,587	7,834	8,097
Dependent population	6,739	6,894	7,061	7,237	7,422	7,609	7,796
Demographic dependency ratio (%)	101	99.9	99.1	98.4	97.8	97.1	96.3

Source: UNPD (2019).
Note: [a] This figure includes populations in Somaliland and Puntland even though they are not included in the rest of the analysis.

Figure 1.3 Population pyramid in Somalia, 2020

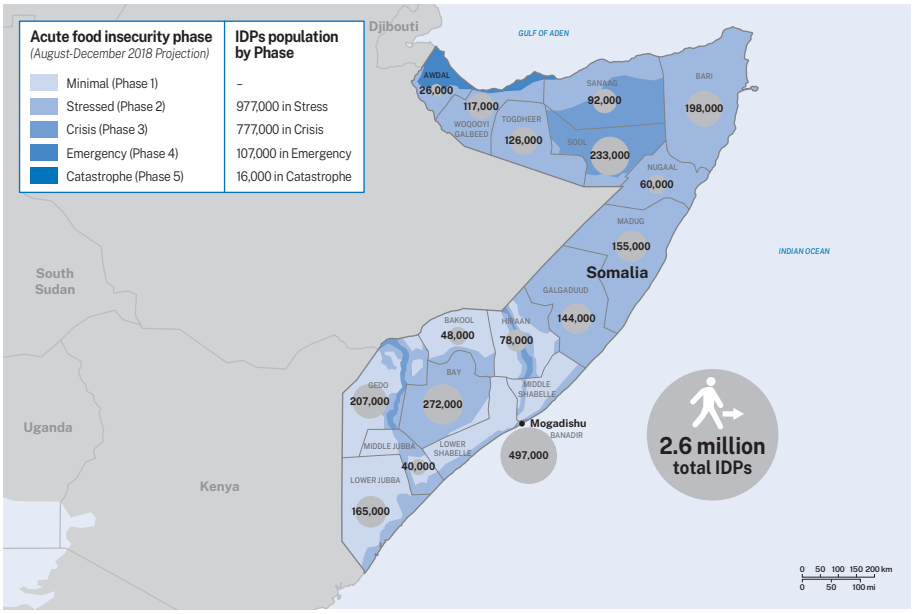


Source: UNPD (2019).

tion is composed mostly of the population under 15 rather than those members who are over 65, this means that the social and economic burden on the active population primarily comprises children and young adolescents. This demographic stress certainly has effects on school access and enrolment, as will be discussed further in Section 2.

The population of Somalia is composed of four broad groups: urban dwellers, rural dwellers, nomadic populations, and internally displaced people (IDPs). Somalia is particularly remarkable for its large population of IDPs: individuals who leave their region of origin but remain within the country, often driven by insecurity and/or climate shocks. In 2020, urban residents were seen to represent the majority of the

Figure 1.4 Estimated IDPs by region, 2018.



Source: UNOCHA (2019).

population, (*Table 1.3*); however, it must be considered that nomadic populations largely occupy rural areas, as a result of their pastoralist livelihoods. As such, if we consider nomadic populations to be rural residents, this would put the split between rural and urban dwellers at around 49/51. This is anticipated to change, however, with growth in urban areas outstripping that in rural ones, at around 4.3 per cent per year, which is estimated to lead to a tripling of the urban population over the next 30 years (World Bank, 2020c).

The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) estimates that IDPs in Somalia numbered 2.6 million in 2019, with the majority concentrated in Jubbaland and South West states (see *Figure 1.4*), the areas that have been the worst affected by both instability and climate-related disasters (UNOCHA, 2019). Furthermore, in 2020 alone an estimated 1.3 million people were displaced, with an estimated 40 per cent of these being school-age children (UNHCR, 2021). Of the total IDP population, it is estimated that 75 per cent live in urban centres, drawn by increased stability and the greater diversity of economic opportunities, with Mogadishu alone estimated to host 20 per cent of the total population of IDPs in 2018 (World Bank, 2020c). IDPs tend to be concentrated in peri-urban areas, often on the periphery of large cities, which limits their access to infrastructure and service provision. UNOCHA estimated that about 62 per cent of all those in need of humanitarian assistance were IDPs in 2018 (UNOCHA, 2019). With 87 per cent of IDPs remaining in their place of settlement for more than a year, the issue is protracted (UNOCHA, 2019). When IDP populations do return to their area of origin, they are called 'returnees' and often face additional issues related to reintegration. Given the massive migration and return seen across the country in the past 30 years, the returnee population is also high, with the number of school-age returnees exceeding the number of refugees and asylum seekers in the same age range, in all five FMSs. This is particularly so for Jubbaland, the Banadir Regional Administration, and South West state (*Table 1.4*). There also appears to be a slightly higher proportion of male returnees, with girls accounting for 48 per cent of the total.

The education budget to meet the funding demands that arise from the influx of

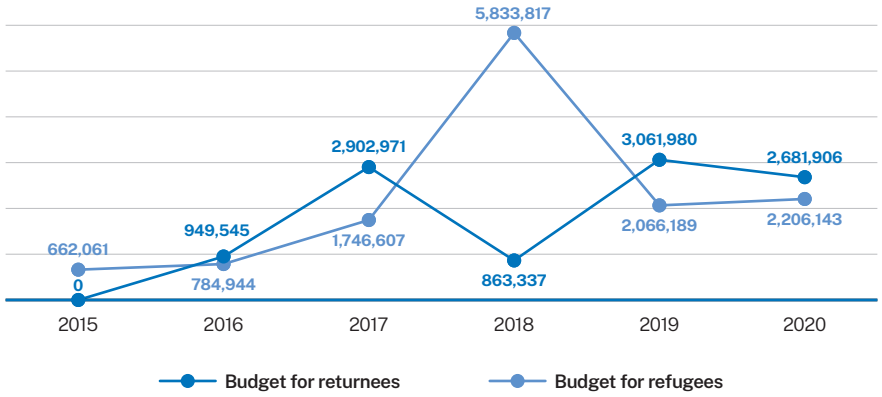
Table 1.4 Refugees, asylum seekers, and returnees of school age

	Refugees /asylum seekers			Returnees			
FMS	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Sub-total**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Sub-total**	**Total**
Jubbaland	-	-	-	16,994	15,632	32,626	32,626
Banadir	495	459	954	4,771	4,369	9,140	10,094
South West	14	21	35	3,300	2,737	6,037	6,072
Galmudug	274	249	523	8	12	20	543
Hirshabelle	20	19	39	54	36	90	129
Total	**803**	**748**	**1,551**	**25,127**	**22,786**	**47,913**	**49,464**

Source: UNHCR, 2021. Data presented as of 25 June 2021.

these groups saw a steady increase from 2015 to 2018, when it reached a total of (US)$6.7 million. Since then, the total budget has decreased, to reach a level just below $5 million in 2020, with a general stagnation between 2019 and 2020. In 2018, as a result of the extreme drought and of conflict, the budget allocated to refugee education surpassed that allocated to returnee education, being 6.8 times higher than the latter.

Figure 1.5 UNHCR education budget from 2015 to 2020 in Somalia (US$)



Source: UNHCR, 2021.

1.2.2 Demographic characteristics: Half of the population is eligible for school

The youth of population in the country is underpinned by a preference for large family sizes, with 91 per cent of women interviewed in the 2020 Somali Health and Demographic Survey (SDHS) considering six or more children to be ideal (Directorate of National Statistics, 2020). This contributes to a high birth rate, with an average of 228 births per 1,000 women of child-bearing age in 2020. This is even higher among nomadic and rural populations, at 244 and 235 births per 1,000 respectively. This can also be inferred from the gross birth rate, with nomadic populations equalling the global high seen in Niger of 46 per cent of all women giving birth in 2020 (Directorate of National Statistics, 2020) (see *Table 1.5*). The average age at first marriage for

Table 1.5 Selected demographic parameters, 2020

Gross birth rate (%)	42.2
Rural	43.9
Urban	38.5
Nomadic	46.3
Total fertility rate (number of children)	6.9
Rural	7.1
Urban	6.4
Nomadic	7.3
Gross adult mortality (per 1,000)	245
Average age at first marriage (years)	21.5
Men	23
Women	20

Source: 2020 SDHS (Directorate of National Statistics, 2020).

men and women is above the projected age of secondary school completion (18). Adult mortality is high, at 245 per 1,000, meaning 24.5 per cent of Somalis who reach the age of 15 are expected to die before their 50th birthday. Overall, demographic pressures tend to be greater in rural areas and among nomadic populations, although trends over time are not considered here due to a lack of reliable data from before 2013.

High birth rates and an overall young population put acute pressure on the education system, most notably by driving up the school-age population, which represents nearly half of the overall population in Somalia. Primary students, or those aged between 6 and 13, represent the bulk of this population, at 45 per cent, followed by pre-primary at 21 per cent, secondary at 18 per cent and post-secondary at 16 per cent (see *Table 1.6*). This is illustrative of the 3-8-4-4 structure currently employed in the country, which consists of three years of early childhood education, eight years of primary school, four of secondary school and four of higher education. Somalia has the second-highest proportion of school-age children (aged 3–18) to population in East Africa, at 44.4 per cent, with a regional average of 41.5 per cent (UNPD, 2019). This highlights the demographic pressure on the education system in the country, which will only increase with the improved enrolment and transition rates sought through the Education 2030 Agenda. Furthermore, while the available data limit the ability to make population growth estimates, the current youthfulness of the population indicates a continuation of high educational demand for many years to come, illustrating the need for Somalia to prepare for an increased burden upon its already strained education system.

Table 1.6 School-age population, 2015–2020 (thousands)

	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Pre-primary	1,475	1,515	1,554	1,592	1,630	1,669
Primary	3,040	3,125	3,214	3,303	3,393	3,482
Secondary	1,231	1,264	1,295	1,326	1,359	1,396
Post-secondary	1,066	1,102	1,138	1,174	1,210	1,248
School-age population	6,812	7,006	7,201	7,395	7,591	7,794
as % of total population	49.4%	49.4%	49.4%	49.3%	49.2%	49.0%

Source: Authors' calculations using World Pop. estimates (UNPD, 2019) adjusted.

1.2.3 Poverty and measures of development

Somalia has one of the highest poverty incidences in sub-Saharan Africa and widespread food insecurity, with an average of 69 per cent of the population living below the poverty line in 2018. Across the African content, Somalia has the sixth-highest incidence of poverty (see *Figure 1.6*). Poverty is similar across IDP settlements, and nomadic and rural populations, with only urban populations outside Mogadishu witnessing a significantly lower rate (*Table 1.7*). More children are likely to be living in poverty than youth or the adult populations, with UNOCHA

estimating that 2.5 million children, or 34 per cent of the entire school-age population, needed humanitarian assistance in 2018 (UNOCHA, 2019). Furthermore, the food consumption poverty index speaks to the particular concerns related to food insecurity in Somalia, where 40–50 per cent of the population in all groups–except urban residents outside Mogadishu, and IDPs, who are even more food-insecure – would not be able to equal average food expenditure, even if they spent all their money on food.

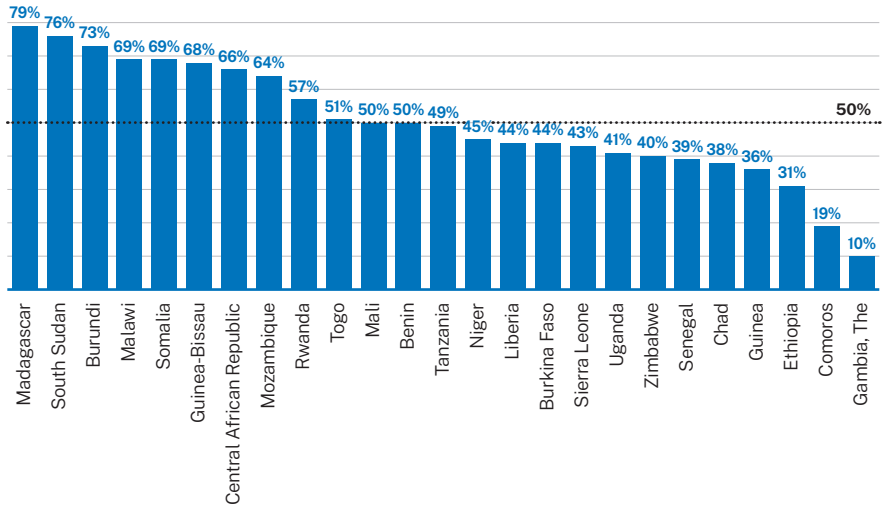
The issue of food poverty and food insecurity is a particular challenge in Somalia, mainly because climate-related shocks impact food production. In 2020, Somalia recorded levels of global acute malnutrition that were classed as 'above acceptable', with such malnutrition reaching critical levels in Banadir and near-critical levels in Hirshabelle. Moreover, it is estimated that 23 per cent of children under the age of 5 were suffering from malnutrition in 2020, with this having negative effects on children's health and resulting in high

Table 1.7 Selected measures of poverty, 2018 (%)

Type of poverty	Rural	Urban	Nomads	Mogadishu	IDPs	Total
Child poverty (0–14 yrs)	76	64	71	76	80	73
Youth poverty (15–24 yrs)	70	57	77	71	69	68
Poverty incidence	73	60	72	74	76	69
Food consumption poverty	44	22	41	43	75	49

Source: High-Frequency Survey (World Bank, 2019a).

Figure 1.6 Regional comparison of poverty incidence

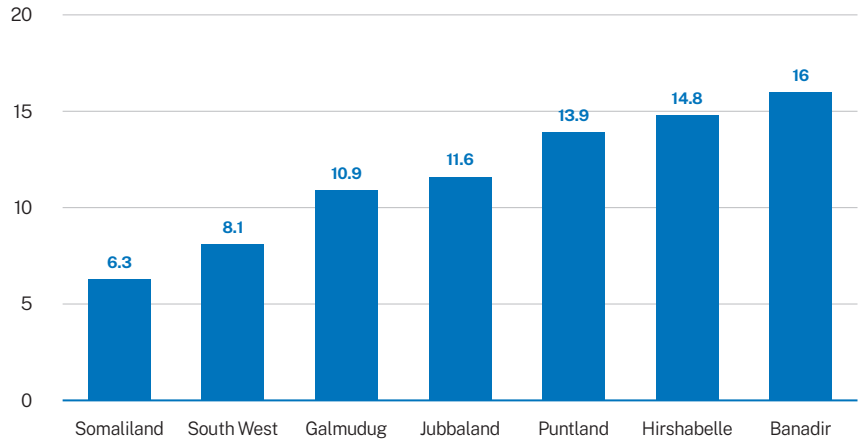


Country key : SSD-South Sudan, BDI-Burundi, MDG–Madagascar, CAF–Central African Republic, COD-Democratic Republic of the Congo, MWI-Malawi, GNB-Guinea Bissau, MOZ–Mozambique, RWA-Rwanda, LBR-Liberia, SLE-Sierra Leone, BEN-Benin, TGO-Togo, MLI-Mali, NER-Niger, TZA-Tanzania, TCD-Chad, BFA-Burkina Faso, UGA-Uganda, SEN-Senegal, GIN-Guinea, ETH-Ethiopia, ZWE-Zimbabwe, COM-Comoros.
Source: High-Frequency Survey (World Bank, 2019a).

levels of stunting, wasting, and low weight (Directorate of National Statistics, 2020). Of the 2.7 million people in Somalia facing acute food insecurity in 2021, approximately 839,000 are estimated to be children (FSNAU, 2021). Food insecurity has been evidenced to have negative effects on educational access, with the 2019 Joint Multi-Cluster Needs Assessment finding that households which were able to get enough food were more likely to keep their children in school compared to households that were unable to do so (REACH, 2018).

In an effort to address malnutrition, while also encouraging school attendance in recovery situations, the World Food Programme has been running a school-feeding programme in Somalia since 2003, in partnership with MoECHE. In 2021, the programme reached nearly 50,000 children in 112 schools across the country, which is slightly lower than the numbers recorded in 2020 (*Table 1.8*).

Figure 1.7 Global acute malnutrition by FMS and region, 2020



Source: FSNAU (2020), Nutrition Data Set 2020/gu
Notes: Acceptable <5%; Alert 5-9.9%; Serious 10–14.9%; 15–29.9%; Very critical >=30%.

Table 1.8 School-feeding beneficiaries by FMS, 2019–2021

	2019/2020 school year				2020/2021 school year			
		No. of pupils enrolled				No. of pupils enrolled		
FMS	Schools	Male	Female	Total	Schools	Male	Female	Total
Hirshabelle	15	3,174	3,466	6,640	16	3,476	3,671	7,147
Jubbaland	56	10,118	9,298	19,416	56	10,786	10,311	21,097
Galmudug	42	7,072	8,456	15,528	27	3,469	3,908	7,377
Banadir	16	4,496	5,532	10,028	13	6,966	7,195	14,161
Total	**129**	**24,860**	**26,752**	**51,612**	**112**	**24,697**	**25,085**	**49,782**

Source: World Food Programme data, 2020.

1.2.4 Household characteristics

Access to basic services is limited among some population groups, notably rural and nomadic communities. While poverty and nutrition data present an overview of the precarious situations many households find themselves in, infrastructure-related statistics allow contextualization of these obstacles and a comprehensive understanding of the capacities of government in social development and public service. It is apparent that government provision of basic services is limited and that their reach does not encompass most rural and nomadic populations (see *Table 1.9*). This is especially relevant when considering the new set of challenges which have arisen as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic in terms of distance learning.

Households are composed of an average of six persons in Somalia, with the largest households seen in urban areas, an element that can be related to high rates of migration to these areas. Household sizes are inflated by the high proportions which have foster and orphan children, illustrating more diffuse familial networks and indicating that many children live with guardians rather than their biological parents.

Analysis of household characteristics reveals large variations in access to basic

Table 1.9 Household characteristics, 2017 (%)

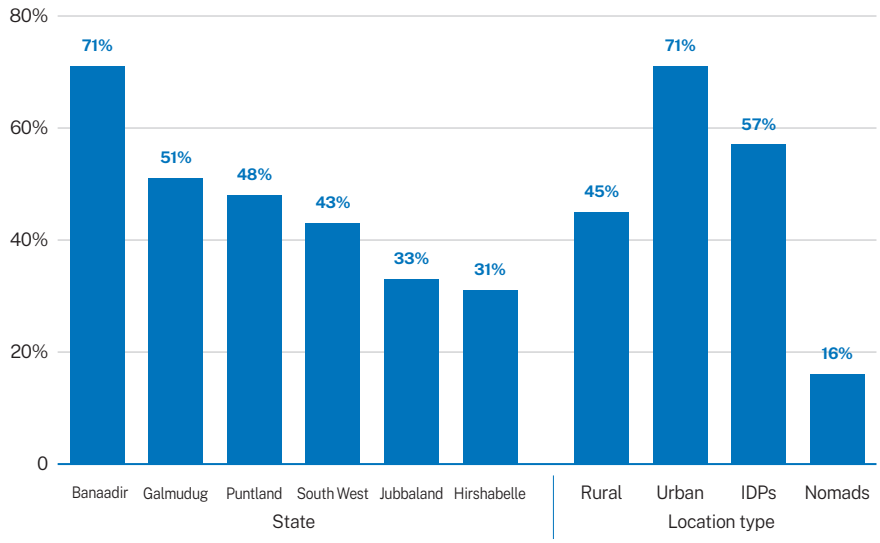
	Type of resident				
	Urban	Rural	Nomadic	IDP	Total
Household headship					
male-headed households	67.2	67.3	72.0	49.9	68.8
female-headed households	32.8	32.7	28.0	50.1	31.2
Mean size of household	6.6	5.7	5.3	6.0	5.9
Households with orphans and/or foster children	31.6	23.1	24.2	n.d.	26.3
Households with access to electricity	66.2	17.2	0.1	48.2	32.9
Households with school-age children with access to electricity	79.0	26.0	13.0	48.0	42.0
Households with access to the internet	18.6	2.3	1.2	12.9	8.7
Households with school-age children with access to the internet	26.8	6.1	1.2	12.9	11.7
Households with access to improved water source	76.2	55.3	24.5	75.5	57.9
Households with school-age children with access to improved drinking water	86.0	56.0	63.0	77.6	71.0
Households with access to improved toilet/latrine facilities	72.3	49.2	1.0	35.4	39.5
Households with school-age children with access to improved toilet/latrine facilities	69.8	43.7	8.8	36.0	39.5
Households experiencing some hunger	22.0	43.0	50.0	64.6	44.9
Households with school-age children experiencing some hunger	30.5	51.4	50.8	64.1	49.2

Source: Authors' calculations from High-Frequency Survey (World Bank, 2019).

necessities among population groups, with nomadic populations consistently having lower levels of access (*Table 1.9*). This can be viewed partly as a result of their livelihoods, which see the majority of nomadic populations only staying in one location for less than six months, with less than 1 per cent having access to electricity, 25 per cent having access to an improved water source, and only 1 per cent having access to improved toilet or latrine facilities. While rural and urban dwellers generally enjoy better access to infrastructure than their nomadic counterparts, provision of electricity and internet remains low across all population groups, with an average of 33 per cent of households having access to electricity and 9 per cent access to the internet across the country.

IDP households tend to have levels of access similar to those of urban households, which can be attributed to the fact that the majority live in urban areas. However, IDP populations have the highest rates of hunger, with over 60 per cent having been short of food at least once in the preceding 30 days (*Table 1.9*). Additionally, IDP populations have lower access to improved toilet or latrine facilities than other sub-groups of the population. This can be explained by the fact that many IDP households share their toilet facilities, as they are inhabiting settlements or camps, which means their toilets are not categorized as 'improved' according to World Health Organization standards. Interestingly, IDP families are more evenly split between female- and male-headed households; perhaps this is a symptom of displacement, which sees males more likely to remain in the area of origin or to have been the victims of conflict.

Figure 1.8 Literacy rates for ages 6 and over, 2017 (%)



Source: High Frequency Survey (World Bank, 2019a).

In households with school-age children, results indicate improved access to infrastructure, including an improved water source and electricity, across all population groups. The more worrying statistic is that households with school-age children are more likely to experience hunger, again highlighting the issues of hunger and food insecurity among children in the country.

In terms of literacy rates, half the population is estimated to have been literate in 2017, regionally ranging from a low of 26 per cent in the Gedo region of Jubbaland, to a high of 71 per cent in Banadir, as seen in *Figure 1.8*. This parallels the trend seen across population groups, with the highest rates being seen among urban dwellers and the lowest among nomadic populations.

1.3 Macroeconomic context: Progress has been made in rebuilding taxation but more remains to be done

Somalia has had to rebuild both its state structure and its economy since the establishment of the FGS in 2012. This has included adapting to a new economic system, which shares revenue-generation between the FGS and FMSs. This section examines how both the tax-collection systems and other revenue-gathering mechanisms have evolved in the FGS and FMSs, with specific attention given to the reliance on remittances which is prevalent in the country. It further highlights the main areas of FGS expenditure, framing discussions of educational financing to be seen in Section 3.

1.3.1 National and per capita income: Significant national growth, low in relative terms

GDP in Somalia is estimated to have reached almost $6 billion in 2018, having grown by 65 percent from under $4 billion in 2012. This demonstrates a strong recovery with an average GDP growth rate of 4.3 per cent annually (*Table 1.10*). Growth in constant GDP (in 2017 prices) is seen to be higher from 2012 to 2015 than at current prices, which indicates higher inflation in 2017 than at 2018 prices, a trend that is confirmed by examining the Consumer Price Index.

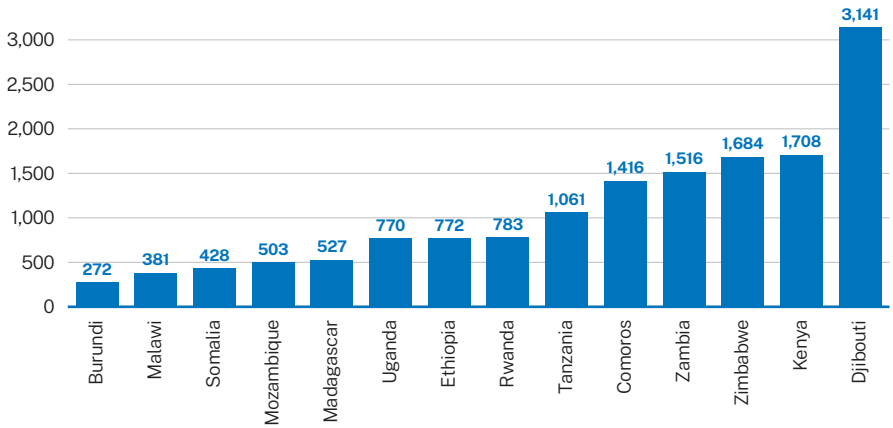
Table 1.10 Evolution of GDP, 2012–2018

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
GDP current (US$ millions)	3,864	4,125	5,039	5,362	5,504	5,609	5,989
GDP constant (2017 prices, US$ millions)	4,586	4,762	5,023	5,255	5,486	5,609	5,893
GDP growth (%)	n.d.	3.8	5.5	4.6	4.4	2.2	5.1
Per capita GDP current (US$)	326	339	403	417	416	412	428
Per capita GDP (2017 prices, US$)	387	391	402	409	415	412	421
Consumer Price Index	n.d.	4.5	1.3	–1.2	0.0	5.3	3.5

Source: Central Bank of Somalia (2018).

Income per capita has grown by almost $100 since 2012 at current prices, reaching a high of $428 in 2018. In constant 2017 prices, per capita GDP increased by $34 over the same period, the difference between the real and current averages absorbed by apparent inflation in the formative years (2012–2014). Although per capita GDP (2017 prices) has grown over the years, it is not clear whether this small increase in household wealth has been enough to make social services such as education and health more affordable. Additionally, in relative terms, Somalia continues to have one of the lowest per capita GDPs in East Africa, falling well below the average of $1,061 in current prices in 2018 (see *Figure 1.9*).

Figure 1.9 Comparison of current per capita GDP among East African countries, 2018 (US$)



Source: World Bank, National Accounts Data, 2021.

1.3.2 Federal government and federal state revenues

Total revenues at FGS level have increased 2.8 times since 2013, reaching a total of $297 million in 2018, with 58 per cent of this in tax revenue. Growth in foreign support has paralleled total growth trends, increasing three times since 2013 and varying between multilateral and bilateral donors. However, while domestic revenues have represented most of the revenue, with a seven-year average of 59 per cent, this is low in relative terms, demonstrating a dependence of the FGS on external support. The greatest source of domestic revenue has consistently been taxes on international trade, largely composed of livestock,[1] although tax streams are seen to have expanded to include taxes on goods and services and a reestablishment of capital gains tax over the time period considered here. Despite these positive steps, the tax-to-GDP ratio in 2018, at 2.1 per cent, is far below the 13 per cent found by the IMF to be conducive to development growth globally, indicating weak tax policy and low tax rates, which serve to limit the state's ability to increase revenue, and associated social spending, further (Gasper, Jarmilio, and Wingender, 2016).

In the federal structure, each state retains significant levels of control over their public finances, most notably the right to establish their own taxes. As exhibited in *Table 1.12*, the amount of revenue generated through taxes as a share of state spending varies greatly among the FMSs, ranging from a high of close to 54 per cent in Jubbaland, to a low of 22 per cent in South West state. This difference is made up by the amount received in transfers from the FGS, with a high of over 12 million received in the South West state. The proportion of revenue received from the FGS demon-

1 Agriculture, including the rearing of livestock, is the largest sector in the country as well as the largest export earner (Central Bank of Somalia, 2018)

Table 1.11 Evolution of FGS revenue, 2013–2018 (US$ millions)

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Total revenue	110.8	145.2	199	167.8	260.2	297.2
Domestic revenue	**69.1**	**84.3**	**113.8**	**112.7**	**137.6**	**172.6**
Tax revenue	65	73.8	85.7	88.6	113.6	127.9
Tax on income, profit and capital gains		1.1	4.7	2.4	4	7.2
Tax on goods and services						19.4
Taxes on international trade		64.3	70.3	76.3	95	94.5
Other indirect taxes		4.8	6.4	2.9	8.1	
Other taxes		3.6	4.3	7	6.5	6.8
Non-tax revenue	4.1	10.5	28.1	24.1	24	44.7
Foreign support	**41.7**	**60.9**	**85.2**	**55.1**	**122.6**	**124.6**
Bilateral	41.7	59	35.4	31.1	38.1	43.5
Multilateral		1.9	49.8	24	84.5	81.1
% Domestic revenues	62.36	58.06	57.19	67.16	52.88	58.08
Total revenues as % of GDP current	2.69	2.88	3.71	3.08	4.64	4.96
Tax revenues as % of GDP current	1.58	1.46	1.60	1.63	2.03	2.14
GDP current	4,125	5,039	5,362	5,440	5,609	5,989

Source: Central Bank of Somalia (2018).

Table 1.12 Revenues collected by FMSs, 2019 (US$)

	Galmudug	Hirshabelle	Jubbaland	South West	Banadir
Revenue and grants	6,476,734	5,984,825	38,431,463	21,335,204	25,641,333
Tax revenue	3,098,620	1,455,024	20,876,272	4,737,286	8,099,686
Tax revenue as % of total spending	48%	24%	54%	22%	32%
Taxes on income, profits, and capital	-	-	425,119	305,223	1,358,104
Taxes on payroll and workforce	-	273	1,080,260	804,415	
Taxes on goods and services	2,132,221	800,805	9,616,220	1,716,210	3,901,724
Taxes on international trade	499	653,946	9,644,551	1,250,727	2,839,858
Other taxes	896,950	-	110,122	329,661	-
Other revenue	68,950	-	452,322	331,050	2,026,078
Grants	3,378,114	4,529,800	17,102,867	16,597,918	15,515,568
From international organizations	2,359,034	-	11,748,887	4,288,742	-
From other governments units	1,019,080	4,529,800	5,353,980	12,309,176	15,515,568
Non-tax revenue as % of total revenue	53%	76%	46%	88%	68%

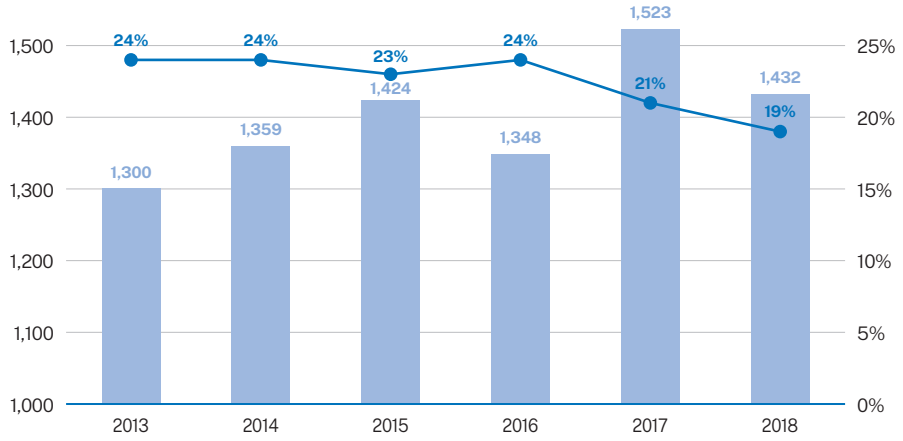
Source: FMS financial data, 2019.

strates diverse levels of dependence, with Hirshabelle being reliant on these transfers for over 75 per cent of its total revenue. Furthermore, the actual value of total revenue is also hugely variable, meaning the amount available to states to spend on social goods such as education is also divergent. As such, this confirms the need for an FMS-level approach to educational financing and planning.

1.3.3 Remittances: Near-universalism and high levels of dependence

Somalia is dependent on internal and external remittances, with nearly a fifth of its GDP coming from remittances. Most Somali households receive remittances, with 62 per cent receiving international remittances once per month in 2017 (World Bank, 2019a). Remittances are therefore the main source of income for many Somali households, with families receiving an average of $743 per year in international remittances in 2017, 1.8 times the average GDP per capita in the same year (World Bank, 2019a). As seen in *Figure 1.10*, remittances stood at above $1,432 million, or 19 per cent of GDP in 2018. International remittances are seen to have a significant impact on education and health expenditure, with households that receive international remittances being 67 per cent more likely to increase expenditure on education than non-recipient households (World Bank, 2019a). With one of the greatest impacts of COVID-19 expected to be a drop in international remittances, it will be important to monitor, and where necessary compensate for, decreases in levels of educational accessibility as a result.

Figure 1.10 Remittance transfers, 2013-2018, amount (US$ millions) and percentage of GDP



Source: Central Bank of Somalia (2018).

1.3.4 Federal government and federal state expenditure

Government expenditure has grown by over 2.5 times since the emergence of the FGS. This has been driven by an increase in the remuneration of employees and a more than fourfold increase in the amount transferred to the FMSs in the form of grants. Project expenditure, including spending on development and infrastructure, has seen immense growth, from being almost non-existent in the first years of the FGS.

Table 1.13 Evolution of FGS expenditure, 2013–2018 (US$ millions and %)

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Total government expenditure	117.5	151.1	199.0	171.0	245.7	297.0
Recurrent government spending	117.5	150.9	184.5	165.1	228.0	263.0
Remuneration of employees	50.4	77.2	79.1	55.1	124.6	145.0
Use of goods and services	56.1	57.6	75.8	64.4	67.2	76.4
Consumption of fixed capital					1.0	2.8
Transfers to the FMSs	7.5	10.1	15.2	9.4	23.4	32.9
Contingency	3.5	3.8	2.7	2.1	4.0	4.4
Repayments of arrears and advances	0.0	2.2	11.7	34.1	7.8	1.5
As % of GDP constant	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.6%	0.1%	0.0%
Project expenditure	0.0	0.2	14.5	5.9	17.7	34.0
Remuneration of employees					0.3	0.9
Use of goods and services					12.0	20.3
Purchase of non-financial assets					5.4	12.7
Grants					0.0	0.2
Project spending as % of total	0.0%	0.1%	7.3%	3.5%	7.2%	11.5%
Total spending as % of GDP constant	2.9%	3.0%	3.7%	3.1%	4.4%	5.0%
Development as % of GDP constant	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.1%	0.3%	0.6%
Recurrent as % of GDP constant	2.9%	3.0%	3.4%	3.0%	4.1%	4.4%
Total as % of revenue	106.1%	96.1%	100.0%	101.9%	94.4%	99.9%
Balance	−6.7	−5.9	0	−3.2	14.5	0.2
Balance as % of GDP constant	−0.2%	−0.1%	0.0%	−0.1%	0.3%	0.0%

Source: Central Bank of Somalia (2018).

Recurrent expenditure continues to dominate spending, accounting for 88 per cent of total public spending, with remuneration of employees representing the bulk, at 48 per cent of total spending. Goods and services represent the second-highest proportion of recurrent expenditure, at 29 per cent in 2018, followed by consumption of fixed capital and repayment of arrears and advances, at 1 per cent and 0.5 per cent respectively. At 5 per cent, total spending as a percentage of GDP is incredibly low, indicating the limited size and reach of the FGS; this is

reflective of the current process of state reconstruction and the federal nature of the system. Spending has been consistently between 100 per cent and 90 per cent of GDP from 2013 to 2018, indicating an overall balanced budget with a slight surplus in some years.

Expenditure at the FMS level tends to follow a similar pattern, with remuneration of employees making up the greatest category across all states, reaching a high of 90 per cent in Galmudug (see *Table 1.14*). Project expenditures are non-existent across all states considered here, potentially as a result of the federal system, which sees infrastructure investments made at the FGS level. All states spend above 95 per cent of their total revenue, indicating a maximization of inflows. Only Jubbaland has a significant deficit, with the other states maintaining surpluses or

Table 1.14 Expenditure by the FMSs, 2018–2020 (US$)

State	Expenditure classification	2018	2019	2020
Galmudug	Total expenditure	-	226,567	1,140,812
	Total recurrent expenditure	-	226,567	1,140,812
	Remuneration of employees		220,007	994,740
	As % of total expenditure		97%	87%
	Goods and services		6,560	146,072
Hirshabelle	Total expenditure	2,000	6,000	446,882
	Total recurrent expenditure	2,000	6,000	446,882
	Remuneration of employees	2,000	6,000	346,056
	As % of total expenditure	100%	100%	77%
	Goods and services			100,826
Jubbaland	Total expenditure	637,766	677,644	822,504
	Total recurrent expenditure	637,766	677,644	822,504
	Remuneration of employees	530,292	578,121	616,713
	As % of total expenditure	83%	85%	75%
	Goods and services	107,473	99,523	205,791
South West	Total expenditure	49,886	176,554	597,806
	Total recurrent expenditure	49,886	176,554	597,806
	Remuneration of employees	49,886	176,554	481,042
	As % of total expenditure	100%	100%	80%
	Goods and services			116,764
Banadir	Total expenditure	24,463,571	25,513,344	30,132,770
	Total recurrent expenditure	24,463,571	25,513,344	30,132,770
	Remuneration of employees	11,811,225	12,366,422	16,411,063
	As % of total expenditure	48%	48%	54%
	Goods and services	4,797,697	5,378,168	5,598,633

Source: FMS financial data, 2021.

slight deficits. Without GDP breakdown at the FMS level, it is not possible to analyse expenditure in terms of overall spending. However, as a result of the nascent nature of the FMSs, one would expect to see a similar pattern, with limited government presence in the economy and a minimal tax system, especially given the high levels of fragility and low levels of accessibility in some states.

1.3.5 Public debt: Commitment to debt repayment higher than education spending

Somalia is classified as 'debt-distressed' in 2021; one of only seven low-income countries globally to be labelled as such (World Bank and IMF, 2019). Total debt exceeded GDP in 2013, and has since sat above the 80 per cent mark. Most of this debt is owed to bilateral lenders, majority Paris club creditors including the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States (Central Bank of Somalia, 2018). Repayment of public debt has represented an average of 6 per cent of all spending from 2013 to 2018, far exceeding the average percentage of GDP spent on education, as will be discussed further in Section 3, with the actual value of debt increasing by 19 per cent over the same period. However, positive progress was made in 2020 when Somalia reached the heavily indebted poor country (HIPC) decision-point (World Bank, 2020a). As a result, debt is expected to decrease in coming years, lifting some of this financial burden.

Table 1.15 Evolution of external public debt, 2013–2018 (US$ millions)

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Multilateral	1,556	1,507	1,468	1,442	1,504	1,520
Bilateral	3,566	2,887	2,946	2,935	3,081	3,714
Total	**4,394**	**4,394**	**4,414**	**4,377**	**4,585**	**5,235**
Percentage of GDP current	106.5%	87.2%	82.3%	79.5%	81.7%	87.4%

Source: Central Bank of Somalia (2018).

1.4 Chapter summary

The macroeconomic picture that emerges of Somalia through the preceding discussion reflects the rebuilding of the Somali state. While great strides have been made in terms of overall revenue and tax systems since the establishment of the FGS, this government continues to be relatively small in terms of its economic capacity and presence across the country. The majority of household spending continues to sit outside the federal tax system, meaning that levels of such household spending are low in proportion to GDP. To fill some of this gap, the population has looked towards both internal and international remittances to help them to access of basic services. There is hope, however, as seen in the expansion of the national tax system, the strengthening of the system of transfers to the FMSs, and the anticipated decrease in public debt. Somalia will need to continue these positive trends in order to maintain its progress towards establishing an economy which is able to support the education system at the scale its population demands. It is further hoped that Somalia and its development partners will be able to mitigate the negative economic effects of COVID-19 in order to ensure it does not cause a reversal in these positive growth trends.

Chapter 2
Access, internal efficiency, and out-of-school children

The purpose of this section is to look retrospectively at the recent patterns of access (intake), participation, and completion in general education, and to better understand performance and efficiency from a quantitative point of view. This section focuses on different disparities within the general education system and is divided into four main sections, the first discussing the structure of education and the various programmes delivered in the presented structure. This section also addresses data requirements and availability, data collection, and limitations that the present data-management practices have created as far as this section is concerned. The second section discusses access patterns and internal efficiency, as well as out-of-school children, focusing on the evolution of associated parameters and comparing Somalia with other countries of similar standing. The third section focuses on inclusive education, looking at the provisions of the Special Educational Needs Policy, access to education for children with special needs, and adaptation of schools to accommodate such children. The final section looks at equity in and exclusion from general education, assessing differentials in terms of gender, location, and socio-economic status.

2.1 Structure of education in Somalia

Somalia welcomes a new direction in education with the adoption of new legislation. The Somali Parliament adopted the General Education Act of the Federal Republic of Somalia on 8 February 2021. The Act targets the delivery of education at lower and upper primary, secondary, and higher education levels. Until the adoption of this Act, the education system was regulated by the General Education Act of 30 July 2017. At the FGS level, education is managed by the MoECHE. In each of the FMSs, the ministries of education and the Banadir Regional Administration (Education Directorate) are responsible for the provision of education at the state level. The regional education officers and quality assurance officers provide support to strengthen the education system at the regional level, while at the district level, the district education officers are expected to oversee the school system. Until 2020, the sector had a 6+3+3 system, i.e. six years of lower primary, three years of upper primary, and three years of secondary, in parallel to a 4+4+4 system, i.e. four years of lower primary, four years of upper primary, and four years of secondary. The new law has harmonized the entire education system to a structure of four years of lower primary education, four years of upper primary, and four years of secondary. Accordingly, the education system is divided into the following three orientations:

1. General education, which comprises seven sub-sectors:

a) **Early childhood education** encompasses programmes that are 'typically designed with a holistic approach to support children's early cognitive, physical, social and emotional development and introduce young children to organized instruction outside of the family context' (UIS, 2011). This level of education lasts for three years and has a theoretical entry age of 3 years. According to the General Education Act, 2021, the purpose of pre-primary education is (1) to teach the basics of Islam and instill in children a love of Islam; (2) to instill in children good behaviour, such as respect, kindness, friendship, and safety of property; (3) to strengthen their physical, mental and emotional well-being; (4) to encourage creativity, interaction with their peers and love of people and country; and (5) to teach reading, writing and numbers.
b) **Lower primary** is compulsory and is intended for children aged 6–9 years. The entry requirement for this level that children have attained the age of 6 years. Lower primary education lasts four years, i.e. Grades 1–4, and does not result in a certification or diploma.
c) **Upper primary** is compulsory and is intended for children aged 10–13 years. It covers Grades 5–8, with successful completers getting a Level 1 certificate at the end of Grade 8. Apart from learners who join Grade 5 having been promoted from Grade 4, learners who complete the Learning and Literacy Programme, a non-formal programme for adults aged 18 or over, can take an entrance exam to join Grade 5.
d) **General secondary education** is intended for children or adults who have a Level 1 certificate. It has a theoretical entry age of 14 years, and a theoretical duration of four years, going from Form 1 to Form 4. Students who successfully complete this level of education are awarded a certificate of secondary education.
e) **Higher education** is the last stage of formal education and can be accessed by students who have completed their

general secondary education or technical secondary education, or who have successfully graduated from Islamic institutes or professional schools. At this level, successful students are awarded Bachelor's degrees, which range from three to four years.

f) **Alternative basic education (ABE)** is a formal education stream parallel to general primary education, with an entry age of 9 years, and which allows learners to sit the Primary Examination at the end of the cycle. The ABE programme is a modification of the formal primary school Grade 1–8 cycle. It offers a flexible learning opportunity in that it enables students to complete primary education in only four years instead of the stipulated eight years. It is characterized by a condensed syllabus, a faster learning process, flexibility in the learning process and calendar, and multiple entry and exit points. The ABE programme has four levels, each level covering competences equivalent to two grade levels in the formal stream.

g) **Adult basic education** is an adult education programme targeting young people who have dropped out of school or who missed it altogether. It is a modification of the formal primary school Grade 1–8 cycle. It offers a flexible learning opportunity in that it only lasts three years instead of the stipulated eight years of formal primary education. It is characterized by a condensed syllabus, a faster learning process, flexibility in the learning process and calendar, and multiple entry and exit points. The adult programme has three levels, the first two covering learning competences equivalent to three grade levels in the formal stream and the third covering the equivalent of two years, with the minimum entry age for the first level being 18 years.

2. Religious education, which is divided into three components:

a) **Integrated Quaranic schools (IQSs)** are pre-primary education institutions with a theoretical starting age of 3 years and a duration of three years. Learners who complete IQS can transition to lower primary school. The content delivered in IQSs is oriented towards religious knowledge and preparation of learners for primary school.

b) **Level 1 Islamic institute** is a non-formal education institution which provides upper primary education. It has an entry age of 13 years and lasts two years. This programme can only be accessed by students who have completed the Halaqat programme.[2] Students who complete Level 1 programmes at Islamic institutes are awarded the Islamic primary certificate and can only transition to other Islamic institutes for Level 2 programmes.

c) **Level 2 Islamic institute** lasts for four years, after which a certificate can be awarded. It runs parallel to general secondary education, and awards an Islamic secondary education certificate.

3. Technical and vocational education, which is divided into four sub-sectors:

a) **Vocational training institutes** have a theoretical entry age of 18 years, require at least a lower primary certificate or a numeracy and literacy programme certificate (for a programme of

2 *Halaqat* is a religious gathering or meeting for the study of Islam and the Quran in mosques.

between 3 and 12 months), and have a duration of one to two years.

b) **Technical secondary education** is a Level 2 programme requiring a Level 1 completion certificate. The minimum age of entry is 14 years of age. It is centred around technical areas of knowledge, focusing on subjects like engineering, fishing, and agriculture. The programme has a duration of four years, with successful completers being awarded a technical secondary certificate.

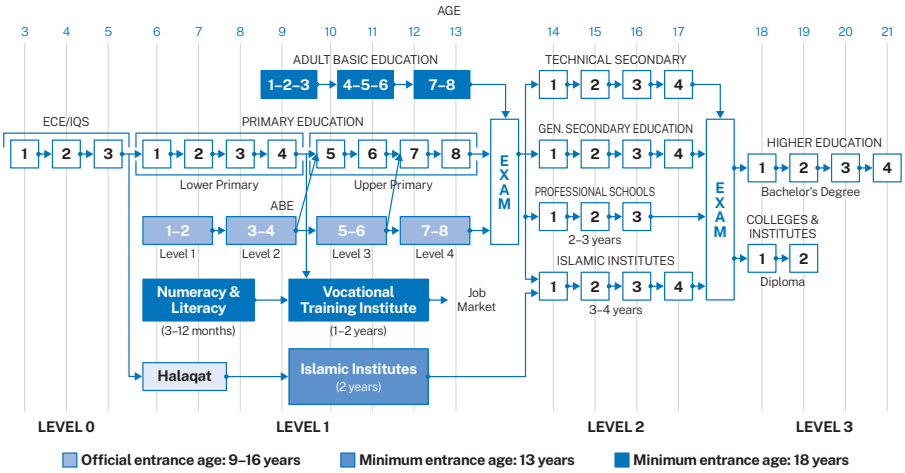
c) **Professional schools** run parallel to technical secondary education, have 14 years as the theoretical age of entry, and focus on subjects such as nursing. The programme can last for two or three years and awards a professional secondary certificate to successful completers.

d) **Colleges and institutes** are dedicated to the training of the teaching workforce and other professionals. Programmes in these institutions last two years, with the minimum entry requirement being a secondary certificate, and the minimum enrolment age 18 years. They provide training for future professionals and for teachers who wish to teach at all levels of the education system except for higher education.

This division is shown graphically in *Figure 2.1*.

Annex 1 shows how programmes are structured in the 2021 General Education Act (MoECHE, 2021) published by the MoECHE, including their minimum entrance requirements, duration, and age of entry. The details confirm that the Somali education system structure is in line with Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4, which aims at ensuring compulsory basic education for all, as well as access to affordable tertiary education, as shown by its advocacy of flexible learning pathways and different tracks. Lower and upper primary schools are compulsory, and multiple channels exist for families to access good-quality education for their children, offering multiple avenues to reach tertiary education.

Figure 2.1 Structure of the Somali education system, 2021



Source: MoECHE.

2.2 Access, internal efficiency, and out-of-school children in general education

This sub-section presents access patterns and internal efficiency, as well as out-of-school children, focusing on the evolution of intake rates, completion, and repetition. It covers these parameters in all the FMSs, namely Banadir Regional Administration, Galmudug, Hirshabelle, Jubbaland, and South West state.

2.2.1 Schools and enrolment rates: Private providers dominate service delivery in the education sector

Public or publicly supported schools were attended by 4 in 10 learners at primary level and 1 in 4 at secondary level. School ownership in Somalia can be categorized into three groups, namely public, publicly supported (or 'community'), and private. Public schools were first recognized in 2019; the term relates to schools owned and managed by the ministries of education in the federal states. All teachers in these schools are paid entirely from the public coffers. The second category includes schools receiving some form of financial support from government, especially the ministries of education in the FMSs. They are registered as 'public' schools within the Education Management Information System (EMIS). The other category is private schools, which could be run by the community, local NGOs, or international NGOs. *Table 2.1* shows the distribution of schools by type of provider, educational level, FMS, and region in 2020. At primary level, the majority of schools (6 in 10) are privately owned and/or managed,

Table 2.1 Distribution of schools by type of school and level of education, 2020 (%)

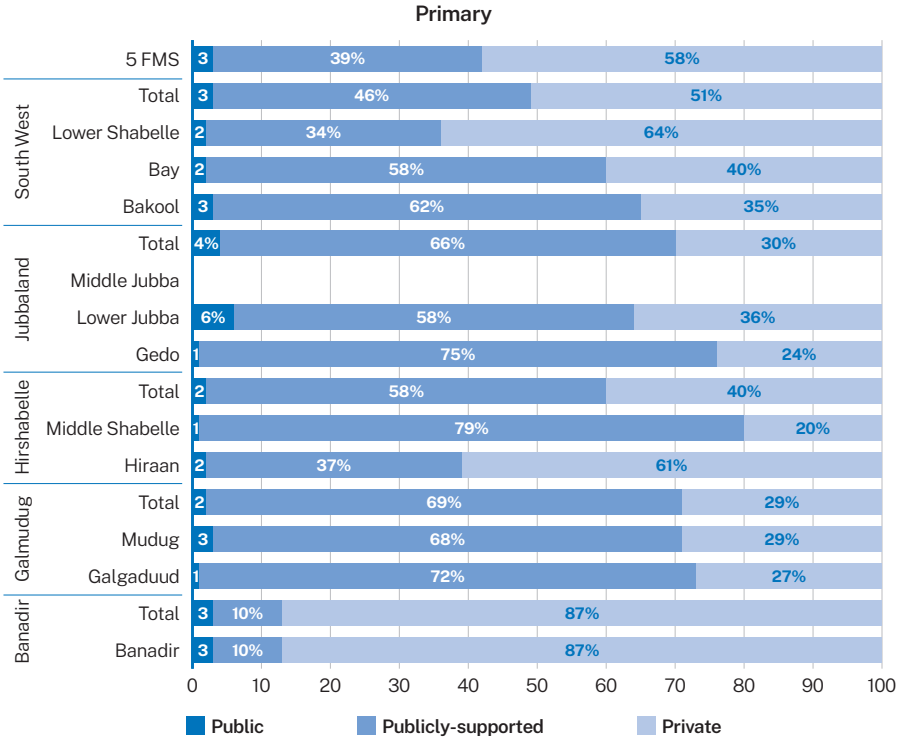
FMS	Region	Primary			Secondary		
		Private	Publicly supported	Public	Private	Publicly supported	Public
Banadir	Banadir	87	10	3	90	7	3
Galmudug	Galgaduud	27	72	1	36	60	4
	Mudug	29	68	3	43	55	2
	Total	**29**	**69**	**2**	**40**	**56**	**4**
Hirshabelle	Hiraan	61	37	2	85	15	0
	Middle Shabelle	20	79	1	59	38	3
	Total	**40**	**58**	**2**	**76**	**23**	**1**
Jubbaland	Gedo	24	75	1	20	73	7
	Lower Jubba	36	58	6	18	67	15
	Middle Jubba	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Total	**30**	**66**	**4**	**20**	**67**	**13**
South West	Bakool	35	62	3	67	0	33
	Bay	40	58	2	48	48	4
	Lower Shabelle	64	34	2	45	53	2
	Total	**51**	**47**	**3**	**47**	**49**	**4**
All FMSs		**58**	**39**	**3**	**73**	**22**	**5**

Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020) and MoECHE teacher department list (2019, 2020).

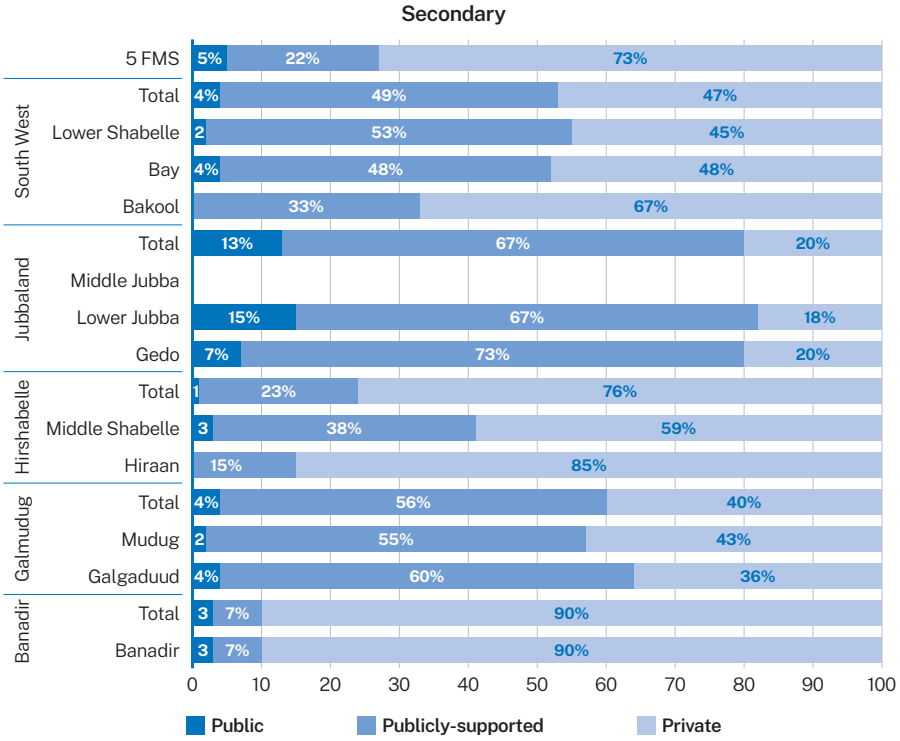
and only a tiny minority (3 per cent) are fully public, while 39 per cent are publicly supported, bringing the total proportion of schools which the government has a hand in running to 42 per cent. There is stark variation between the regions in the proportion of private schools present, ranging from 9 in 10 schools in Banadir to 2 in 10 in Middle Shabelle. A similar pattern is exhibited among secondary schools, where nearly three-quarters of the schools are privately owned, with only a paltry 5 per cent fully owned by the public. As with primary schools, there are large variations in the share of privately owned secondary schools, with 90 per cent of schools in Banadir being private, compared to 18 per cent in Lower Jubba region. The move to provide more support to schools that are not owned by government is perhaps one that will enhance stability as far as service delivery is concerned, because schools can then be accountable to the government, as opposed to the current situation, where they have a high degree of autonomy.

Figure 2.2 further shows the diversity of school configurations across the four FMSs and Banadir Regional Administration, based on the three categories of schools. There are large differences between the proportion of public schools in certain regions. For example, only 1 per cent of Galmuduud's primary

Figure 2.2 Distribution of schools by type of school and level of education, 2020 (%)



Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020) and MoECHE teacher department list (2019, 2020).



Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020) and MoECHE teacher department list (2019, 2020).

schools are public, while 33 per cent of Bakool's secondary ones are.

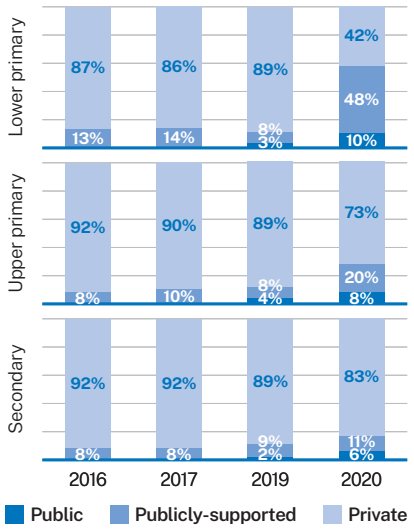
The pattern of enrolment levels in the recent years is marked by periods of growth, regression, and recovery. As shown in *Table 2.2*, enrolment in the four FMSs and Banadir Regional Administration grew by 5 per cent between 2016 and 2017. This growth was uneven at different levels of education, with secondary growing by only 1 per cent, in contrast to the 10 per cent growth in upper primary. The second phase of evolution is observed between 2017 and 2019, with a sharp drop in enrolment in 2019, possibly due to the strong drought that occurred in 2017. The three levels of education saw a 19 per cent drop in enrolment between 2017 and 2019, with diverse rates in the three sub-levels. For instance, lower primary schools experienced a 22 per cent drop, upper primary schools a 9 per cent drop, and secondary schools a drop of 18 per cent. The third phase is characterized by a rebound in enrolment, with a total increase of 28 per cent, mostly attributable to upper primary and secondary schools, whose enrolment rates increased by 43 per cent and 47 per cent, respectively, while lower primary schools saw an increase of 8 per cent. This recovery also saw public and publicly supported schools register strong comeback. The number of children enrolled in public and publicly supported schools increased sixfold at lower primary level, more than tripled in upper primary schools, and more than doubled in upper primary schools in the course of a single year.

Table 2.2 Student enrolment in general education by level and type of school, 2016–2020 (N. and % private)

		2016	2017	2019	2020
Lower primary	Total	194,173	202,656	157,471	170,594
	Public	-	-	5,021	16,818
	Publicly supported	25,502	29,370	12,469	81,820
	Private	168,671	173,286	139,981	71,956
	% of private	87%	86%	89%	42%
Upper primary	Total	102,752	113,018	103,138	147,139
	Public	-	-	3,634	11,200
	Publicly supported	8,269	10,876	7,954	28,879
	Private	94,483	102,142	91,550	107,060
	% of private	92%	90%	89%	73%
Secondary	Total	103,330	104,473	86,056	126,768
	Public	-	-	1,990	7,593
	Publicly supported	8,037	8,592	7,317	14,269
	Private	95,293	95,881	76,749	104,906
	% of private	92%	92%	89%	83%
Total	Total	400,255	420,147	346,665	444,501
	Public	-	-	10,645	35,611
	Publicly supported	41,808	48,838	27,740	124,968
	Private	358,447	371,309	308,280	283,922
	% of private	90%	88%	89%	64%

Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020) and MoECHE teacher department list (2019, 2020).

Figure 2.3 Share of children enrolled, by type of school, 2016–2020



Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020) and MoECHE teacher department list (2019, 2020).

Apart from the recovery exhibited in *Table 2.2*, there has been a steady increase in the proportion of students enrolled in public or publicly supported schools in the four FMSs and Banadir Regional Administration. As illustrated in *Figure 2.3*, the proportion of students enrolled in schools receiving any form of support from government increased significantly at lower primary level and considerably at upper primary and secondary level. In 2016, only 13 per cent of enrolled students were attending public lower primary schools, and 8 per cent in upper primary and secondary. In contrast, the 2020 figures show that government reached nearly 60 per cent of learners in lower primary schools, 28 per cent in upper primary and 17 per cent in secondary schools, giving credence to the efforts of the FGS to strengthen devolved services and consolidate education

services in the country. Notably, enrolment in public schools has also increased since the introduction of the new categorization of schools. While strictly publicly owned schools enrolled 3 per cent of learners at lower primary level in 2019, the share more than tripled to 10 per cent in 2020; at upper primary level, the share doubled from 4 per cent in 2019 to 8 per cent in 2020; and at secondary level, the share tripled, rising from 2 per cent in 2019 to 6 per cent in 2010.

2.2.2 Enrolment rates: Despite recovery, school coverage remains low

Enrolment rates remain low, showing that many children eligible for school are not getting opportunity to learn. The administrative data show that there were nearly 171,000 learners enrolled in lower primary schools in 2020 against the eligible population of almost 1.2 million,[3] resulting in a gross enrolment ratio (GER) of 14 per cent (*Table 2.3*). A similar pattern is apparent in upper primary and secondary schools, where the GER is 14 per cent at both levels. This means that the inferred capacity of the education system is far too low to accommodate all the eligible children. Across the years, there has been a general decline in the GER at lower primary level. It dropped nearly 4 percentage points between 2016 and 2020, and even with the recovery between 2019 and 2020, this level of education has yet to get back to the GER levels observed before the 2017 drought. In upper primary schools, the GER seems to have resumed its initial gradual rise. The 2017 drought, which saw food insecurity and poverty rise across the FMSs, may have pushed families to take their children out of school; hence the drop in the GER in 2019. It is important to note, however, that even before the drought, the GER was quite low across all three levels of education, which may be indicative of the long-lasting effects of the protracted civil conflict in the country. Nevertheless, Somalia must now find a way out of this conflict if the promise for universal education is to ever be fulfilled in the country.

There exist large disparities in GER between the FMSs, at all three levels of education across the years of analysis. For instance, in lower primary schools in 2016, there is a 30.9-percentage-point gap between the GER in Banadir (39 per cent, highest) and South West state (8.3 per cent, lowest) (*Table 2.4*).

Somalia's low enrolment ratios are not similar to those of its peer countries from East Africa. After years of effort towards the expansion of access to basic education, African countries have recorded significant progress in the recent past. Four comparative East African countries reported a combined GER of 109 per cent in 2020 for primary schools, compared to 14 per cent registered by Somalia. Although the gap is lower at secondary level, the rate of the comparator countries

3 Note that the school-age population displayed for the calculation of the respective GERs corresponds to the year of the beginning of each learning cycle. This means that the population presented for the calculation of the 2016 school year corresponds to the total population for the specific age range in 2015; the population presented for the calculation of the GER in 2017 corresponds to 2016; and so on. Also note that the totals presented correspond to the four FMSs, with the exclusion of Middle Jubba, where no information on students was available, so the population estimates were adjusted to reflect this.

Table 2.3 Gross enrolment ratio by education level, 2016–2020

	2016	2017	2019	2020
Lower primary				
No. of students	194,173	202,656	157,471	170,594
School-age population	1,079,297	1,110,065	1,168,304	1,196,188
GER	18.0%	18.3%	13.5%	14.3%
Upper primary				
No. of students	102,752	113,018	103,138	147,139
School-age population	908,757	933,526	991,466	1,022,209
GER	11.3%	12.1%	10.4%	14.4%
Secondary				
No. of students	110,018	111,533	86,056	126,768
School-age population	804,824	826,467	866,675	888,482
GER	13.7%	13.5%	9.9%	14.3%

Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020).

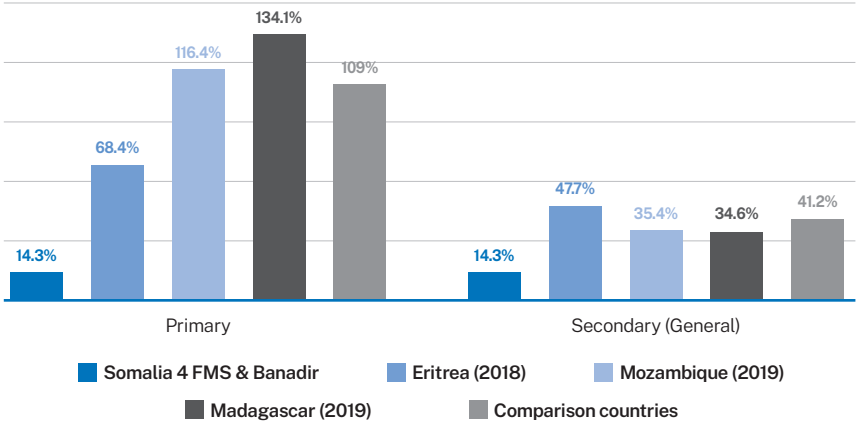
Table 2.4 Gross enrolment ratio by state, 2016–2020 (%)

	2016	2017	2019	2020
		Lower primary		
Banadir	39.0	37.7	26.7	24.1
Galmudug	9.6	9.3	10.5	10.3
Hirshabelle	12.5	12.3	9.4	7.6
Jubbaland	30.6	33.7	26.6	26.6
South West	8.3	8.7	4.7	9.1
		Upper primary		
Banadir	36.8	38.5	32.3	46.4
Galmudug	6.1	7.0	6.9	7.9
Hirshabelle	5.2	5.0	5.3	5.1
Jubbaland	10.8	12.7	10.1	9.7
South West	3.6	3.9	3.3	7.0
		Secondary (General)		
Banadir	50.6	49.4	38.1	57.4
Galmudug	3.9	4.0	5.2	5.9
Hirshabelle	5.5	5.2	4.5	4.0
Jubbaland	4.6	5.1	4.3	4.0
South West	4.0	3.9	2.3	4.6

Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020).

is three times higher than that of Somalia, with the former reporting a combined GER of 41 per cent compared to 14 per cent for Somalia (*Figure 2.4*). Some countries have closer estimates. For instance, Eritrea has a primary GER of 68 per cent, while Madagascar has a secondary GER of 34 per cent.

Figure 2.4 International comparison of GER by level of education



Source: EMIS (2020); UIS (2021).

2.2.3 Internal efficiency of the general education system

2.2.3.1 Schooling profile: Fairly good retention amid low access rates

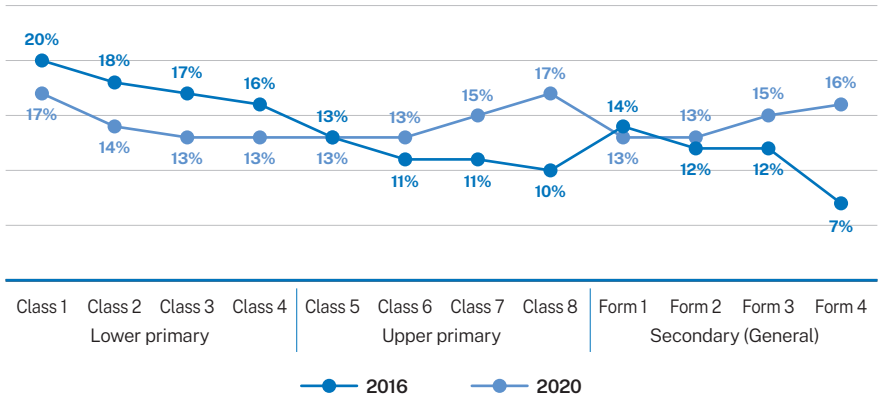
While GER is a good indicator for gauging the system's enrolment capacity for different age groups and educational levels, it fails to present a picture of schooling patterns. Cross-sectional schooling profiles, such as those presented in *Figure 2.5*, provide a visual representation of school careers, and allow for comparisons of access with completion. The intake rates in each of the grades presented in a schooling profile are calculated by dividing the number of non-repeaters in each grade by the population for the theoretical age of the said grade, so as not to inflate the quotient by repetition. For the calculation of the intake rates, administrative data from the 2016, 2017, 2019, and 2020 school censuses in were used, together with Somalia's UN-adjusted population obtained from WorldPop unconstrained estimates,[4] which were broken down by applying the Sprague multipliers.[5]

4 WorldPop is an organization that provides open, high-resolution geospatial data on population distribution. Information on the different methodologies they use can be found here: www.worldpop.org/methods/top_down_constrained_vs_unconstrained

5 The Sprague multipliers is a data interpolation technique that takes five-year age groups and breaks them down to single years of age, which can be then used to reconstruct school-appropriate age groups for any administrative unit. See Gagnon & Vargas, 2021.

Access to school in Somalia is characterized by low intake rates and significant loss of learners from all grades across the years. The impact of the 2017 drought cannot be over-emphasized, its consequences on patterns of access and completion across the levels of general education being quite evident in Figure 2.5, which shows an evolution of the cross-sectional schooling profile for Somalia in 2016 and 2020. The gross intake rates are 20 per cent and 17 per cent in 2016 and 2020 respectively, confirming that the low averages seen in the GER are not only a function of the loss of children from school, but a residual of low access. The intake of 20 per cent in 2016 shows that 4 in 5 children anticipated from the eligible generation did not enter school, and this drops in 2020, possibly as a result of the protracted effects of the 2017 drought. What is also observable from the two schooling profiles is the general decline in the intake rates as the grades advance. In 2016, the intake rate at the end of primary school drops to 10 per cent, implying that half of the children who begin primary school are unlikely to see the end of this cycle, and by end of lower primary, 2 in 10 children who began school have dropped out. The 2020 schooling profile is characterized by irregularities across the grades, possibly indicating a pattern of return to school by the older children first. For instance, the intake at Grades 7 and 8 is much higher than those of preceding grades. This could also be the effect of non-declared repeaters, since the intake rates are computed based on non-repeaters.

Figure 2.5 Evolution of cross-sectional schooling profile, 2016 and 2020 (%)

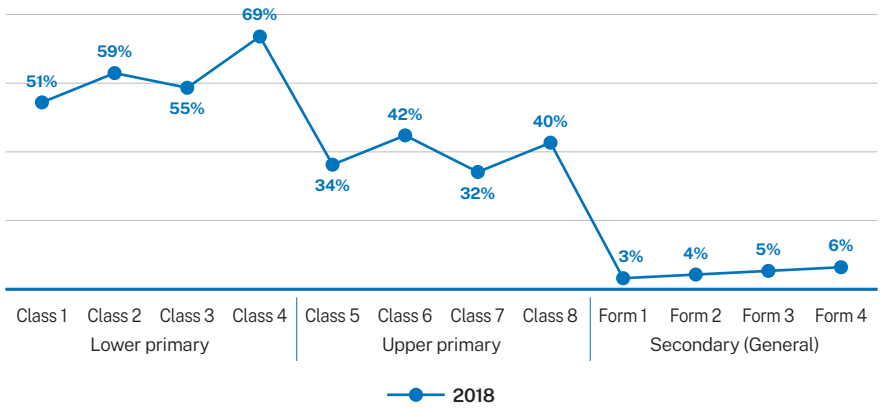


Source: EMIS (2016, 2020).

Contrasting the schooling profile from the administrative source with the 2018 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), which allows the construction of a probabilistic schooling profile for 2018, there are stark disparities in the access levels but similar patterns in general retention (see *Figure 2.6*). The intake rate from the 2018 DHS for instance is 51 per cent, compared to 17 per cent in 2020. This disparity might be caused by multiple reasons. One is that the information from the 2020 school census is incomplete, with many schools failing to report infor-

mation. Another reason may be the quality of the interviews conducted during the DHS. The results show a big difference between lower and upper primary, with the average level for each being 59 per cent and 37 per cent, respectively. This difference is even bigger between primary and secondary, with a drop from an average GER of 48 per cent to just 5 per cent.

Figure 2.6 Probabilistic schooling profile, 2018 (%)



Source: Demographic and Health Survey, 2018.

Table 2.5 Grade-specific GER according to different data sources (%)

		Administrative data	
	DHS 2018	2016	2020
Lower primary			
Grade 1	51.2	20.3	16.9
Grade 4	68.7	15.7	13.0
Upper primary			
Grade 5	33.8	12.8	13.3
Grade 8	39.7	10.0	16.6
Secondary			
Form 1	3.1	14.2	13.3
Form 4	6.3	7.3	16.4

Source: Demographic and Health Survey, 2018; EMIS 2016, 2020.

This difference between the administrative school census data and the data obtained from the DHS is also shown in *Table 2.5*, which presents the grade-specific GER for the first and last grade for each educational level, both from administrative sources and from the 2018 DHS. It also reflects the change in both indicators from 2016 to 2020, according to the administrative data.

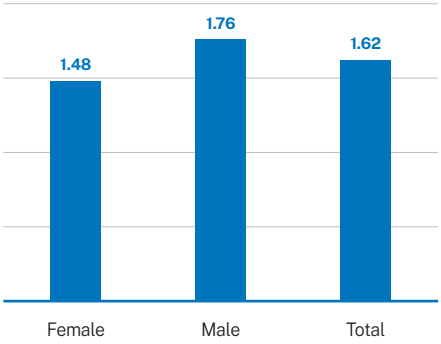
2.2.3.2 School life expectancy: Insufficient schooling to guarantee functional literacy

An average child in Somalia receives less than two years of schooling, with a clear advantage for boys over girls. School life expectancy is the number of years of learning children of school age expect to receive in their lifetime, under the assumption that during that period enrolment rates will remain unchanged. (For an explanation of how school life expectancy is calculated, see *Box 2.1.*) As expected from the low enrolment ratios

observed in 2020, children of school age can expect to receive an average of 1.72 years of education, against the ideal of twelve years of primary and secondary schooling. Moreover, with the gender bias against girls on the enrolment ratios, girls can expect to receive less education (1.48 years) than boys (1.95 years). To put this into perspective, boys can expect to spend 30 per cent more time in school than girls, as shown in *Figure 2.7*.

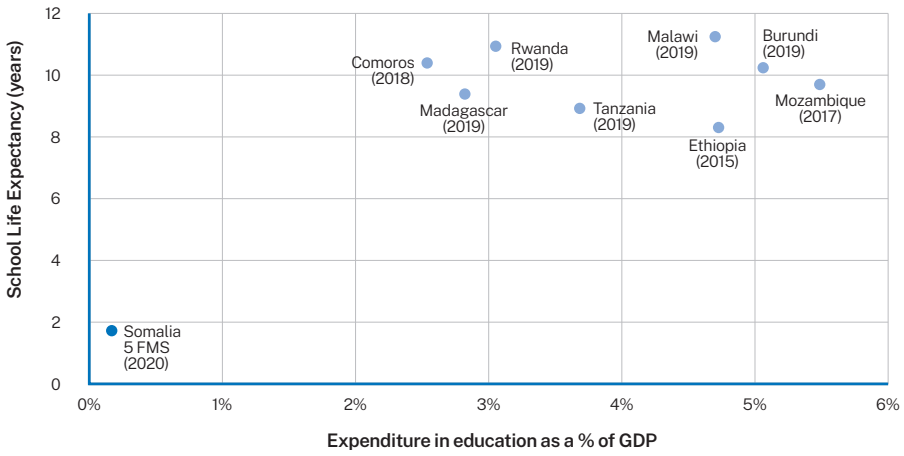
This low school life expectancy demonstrates how far back the civil war put the education system in Somalia and also signals the need for the next phases of sector planning to dedicate a great amount of effort not only to expanding access to education for the eligible population, but also to ensuring that children can stay in school. Attention also needs to be paid to the gender differentials observed in the life expectancy. As shown in *Figure 2.8*, countries that have committed more resources to the education sector have recorded higher school life expectancy. Compared to its peers in the region, Somalia has the lowest school life expectancy, as well as the lowest investment in education (education spending as a percentage of GDP), with the gap between Somalia and its peers quite stark.

Figure 2.7 School life expectancy by gender, 2020 (years)



Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020).

Figure 2.8 Education expenditure vs school life expectancy in selected East African countries



Source: EMIS, 2020; UIS (2021)

BOX 2.1

Method for calculating school life expectancy

School life expectancy (SLE) is the average number of years a student is expected to spend in the education system, should the enrolment patterns prevailing at the time they enter school be applied to their individual experience, and is constructed by adding up all the age-specific enrolment rates for the education system as a whole. It can also be calculated for individual levels of education. Its purpose is to 'show the overall level of development of an educational system in terms of the average number of years of schooling that the education system offers to the eligible population, including those who never enter school' (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2009).

The formula to calculate this indicator is presented below:

$SLE_a^y = \Sigma_{i=a}^{n} \frac{E_i^t}{P_i^t}$, where

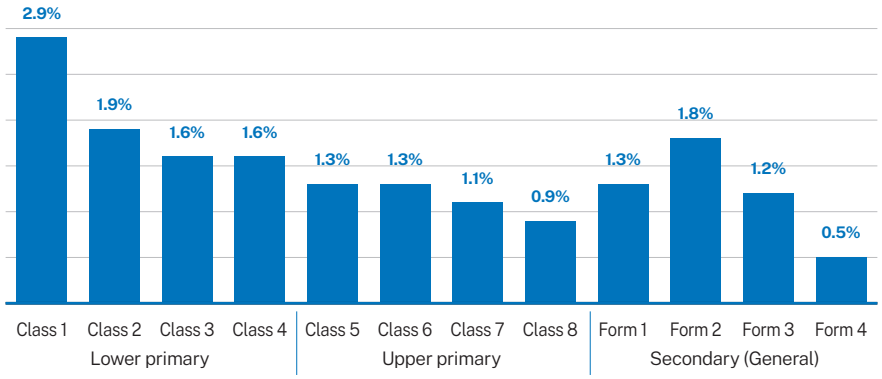
SLE_a^y is the school life expectancy at an age a in year t;
E_i^t is the enrolment of the population of age i (for $i = a, a+1, \ldots, n$) in school year t;
n denotes the theoretical upper age-limit of schooling; and
P_i^t is the population of age i in school year t. Age of Level l denotes the total school-age population of that level.

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2009: 7).

2.2.3.3 Internal efficiency and grade repetition

Somalia's education system is characterized by low levels of declared repetition and low levels of internal efficiency, owing to high levels of dropout and likely non-declaration of repetition. Every education system should strive not only to get children into school but to have them finish their learning cycles within a set number of years. Being unable to do so is not only detrimental for the children's school careers, but for the system at large, since having students drop out or repeat grades is a waste of resources. Analysing repetition and dropout is key to understanding where inefficiencies exist within the education system and allows policy-makers to design policies to address them. In 2020, repetition was rare in Somalia, with only 1.6 per cent of students having repeated a grade. As illustrated in *Figure 2.9*, the proportion of repeaters varies across grades. Students in Grade 1 of primary school were almost six times more likely to repeat than students in Form 4. Overall, the proportion of repeaters in lower primary school was 2.1 per cent, while in both upper primary and secondary school it was 1.2 per cent.

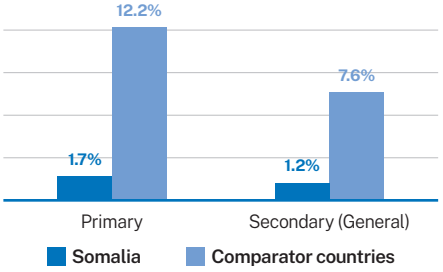
Figure 2.9 Proportion of repeaters by grade and education level, 2020 (%)



Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020).

Comparison between Somalia and its peer countries shows that there are more students repeating grades in the comparator countries than the children in Somalia. As seen in *Figure 2.10*, children in primary school are seven times more likely to repeat a grade in comparator countries than in Somalia. Similarly, in secondary school, students are six times more likely to repeat in comparator countries than in Somalia.

Figure 2.10 International comparison of share of repeaters, 2019 (%)



Source: Source: EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020). UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2021).

2.2.4 Out-of-school children: The majority have never attended school

Out-of-school children are a worrisome phenomenon in any education system and society. Being out of school means that children are being denied the right to education, which increases their likelihood of participating in child labour, being forced into early marriage, or being recruited into armed and criminal groups, among other things. Being out of school also reinforces the poverty cycle, and usually affects most those who are already in precarious situations. It is therefore important to determine who is out of school, and where they are. It is also fundamental to determine the characteristics of children of school age who are not enrolled, to better target policies aimed at enrolling or re-enrolling them. For the calculation of out-of-school children, two main methods can be used: self-reported school attendance, or administrative data. With the first, declarative surveys, such as the DHS, are used to estimate the proportion of children declared as not going to school over the total number of school-age children surveyed, after applying expan-

sion factors. With the second, the total school-age population is calculated from the population projections and the total number of students is deducted. For the purposes of this ESA, the first method, using the 2018 DHS database, is used.

More than half the children eligible for school in Somalia are not attending. *Table 2.6* presents the population eligible for lower and upper primary school as well as those eligible for secondary school, alongside the learners currently enrolled in school. We can also see the proportion of learners enrolled in school by school-level age group, as well as the number of out-of-school children, and the proportions that have never attended school and have dropped out. The proportion of children enrolled in formal education decreases with age group, ranging from 45 per cent in the 6–9 age group to 25 per cent in the 14–17 age group. Notably, the proportion of children who have dropped out is observed to be moving in the other direction. In addition, while there appears to have been some improvement across generations in the proportion of children who have never enrolled in school, going from 50 per cent of children aged 14 to 17, to 45 per cent of those aged 6 to 9, the issue remains that 6 in 10 children eligible for primary and secondary education in Somalia are outside the education system, with almost half having never attended school in the first place (46 per cent). Given this situation, the children who never enrol, or who enrol and later drop out before obtaining any type of certification or diploma, could be a priority for educational policy in Somalia.

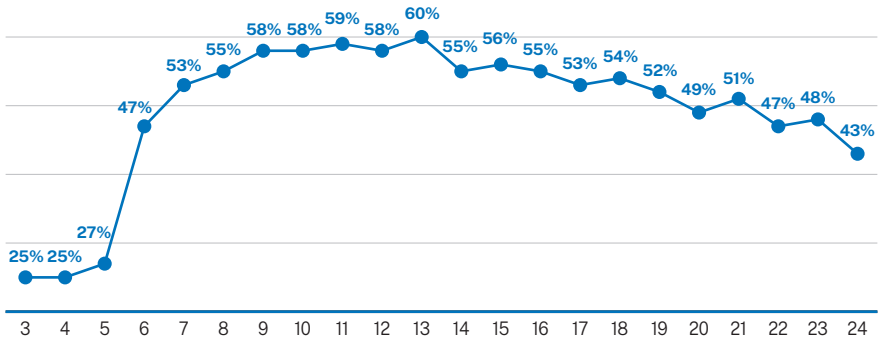
One of the reasons for this high volume of out-of-school children is late entry to school, with many children entering formal education after the age of 6 and up to age 13. Most of those who haven't entered by age 6 never enrol without targeted interventions. This slight improvement across time is more explicit when looking at *Figure 2.11*, which shows that after low levels of uptake at an early age (those aged 3 to 5), which is to be expected, since the official entrance age to Grade 1 is 6 years of age), the proportion of children and young people having reported to have ever been in Grade 1 declines slightly from a high of 60 per cent to 43 per cent at age 24. While this speaks of an overall improvement in access to the education system across time, the reality remains that the levels of out-of-school children are still high in Somalia.

Table 2.6 Out-of-school children by age category

				Out of school		
Age	Total population	No. Enrolled	% Enrolled	Total	Never attended (%)	Dropped out (%)
6–9	1,168,304	519,699	44.5%	648,605	44.6%	10.9%
10–13	991,466	399,999	40.3%	591,467	44.9%	14.8%
14–17	866,675	218,171	25.2%	648,513	50.2%	24.7%
6–17	**3,026,445**	**1,193,508**	**39.4%**	**1,888,585**	**45.9%**	**14.7%**

Source: DHS, 2018.

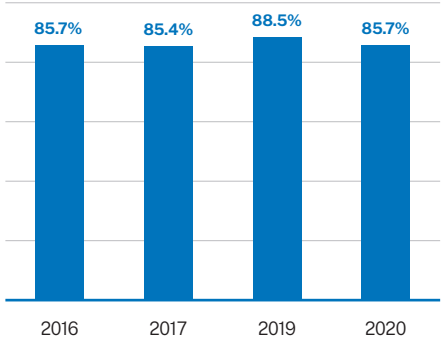
Figure 2.11 Children and young people who have ever been in Grade 1 (%)



Source: DHS, 2018.

When looking at administrative data, which enable us to compare the number of children not enrolled in primary or secondary school with the total number of children of that age group for the four FMSs and Banadir Administrative Region, it is evident that the 2017 drought had a slight detrimental effect on enrolment, as shown in *Figure 2.12*. Somalia went from having an average proportion of children not enrolled in school of around 85 per cent to over 88 per cent in 2019. The results of the same analysis using the DHS data show that overall, 61 per cent of children and young people aged 6 to 17 are out of school, with 46 per cent reporting never having attended, and 15 per cent reporting having dropped out. It is important to note that this is constructed not using enrolment data but declarations of attendance, and might be subject to usual survey bias (such as socially acceptable answers), with families reporting their children as attending school.

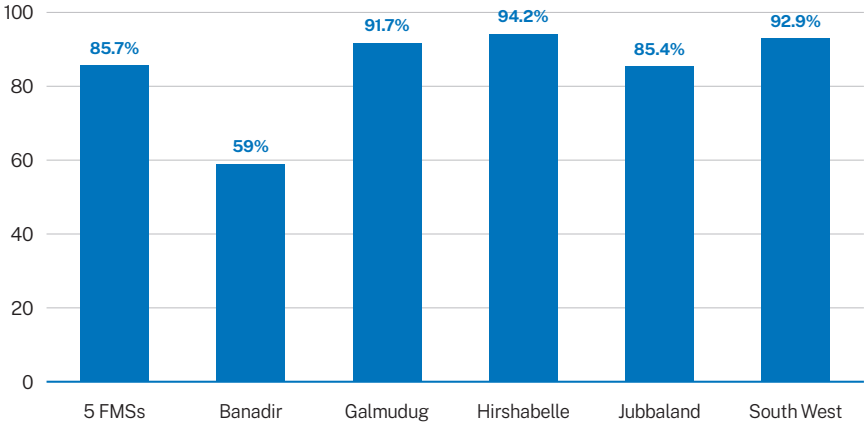
Figure 2.12 Proportion of out-of-school children, 2016–2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS (2016, 2017, 2019, 2020) and WorldPop (2021).

These levels are not homogeneous across the four FMSs and Banadir. For 2019, while the average proportion of out-of-school children was 86 per cent, Banadir had a level below the national average in 2020, of 59 per cent, while states such as South West state or Hirshabelle had levels closer to 95 per cent, as shown in *Figure 2.13*.

Figure 2.13 Proportion of out-of-school children by FMS, 2020

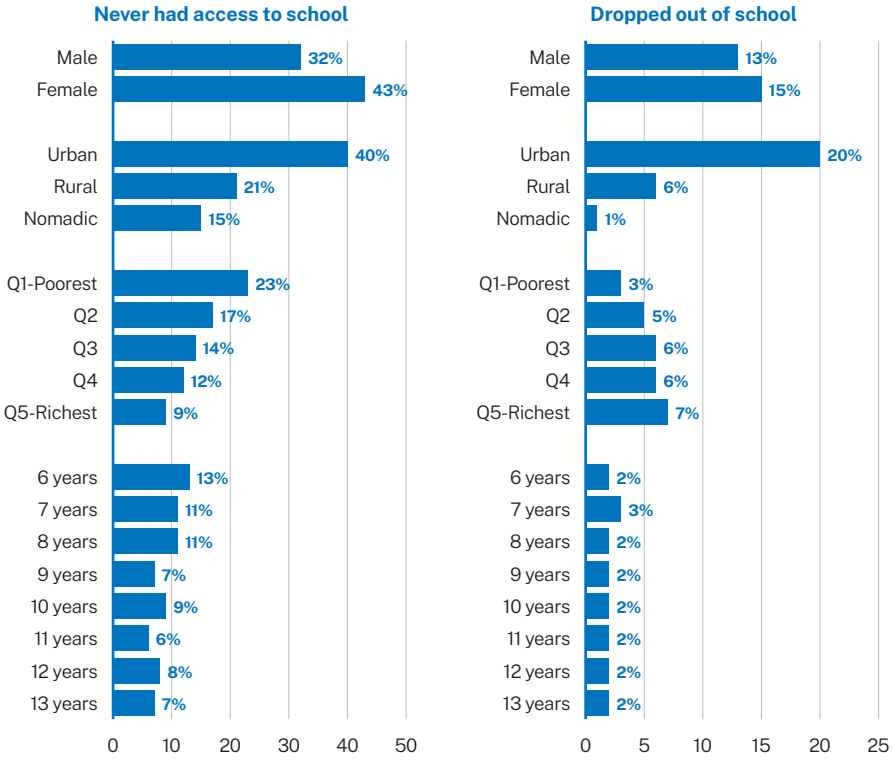


Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS (2020) and WorldPop (2021).

Once the out-of-school children have been identified, it is necessary to find out more about why they are not attending, in order to formulate targeted, specific policies to encourage them to enrol or re-enrol. *Figure 2.14* presents the disaggregation of the out-of-school children aged 6 to 14 years by sex, location, wealth, and age, both for those who have never enrolled in school, and for those how have dropped out. In the first case, we see that girls are at a marked disadvantage: they are 1.35 times more likely not to enrol in school than boys. Urban children are also far more likely not to enrol, with nomadic children only failing to access school 15 per cent of the time. Poorer children are also more likely not to access school, with poorer students more than twice as likely not to enrol as richer ones. Finally, we see that there is a nuanced downward correlation between age and likelihood of not accessing school, consistent with earlier discussions relating to *Figure 2.11*. As for children who enrol and then drop out or are pushed out of school, girls are at a slight disadvantage compared to boys (with a 2-percentage-point difference). Regarding the geographical location of children, the difference between urban, rural, and nomadic children is stark. Boys and girls in urban areas are 2.5 times more likely not to access school than nomadic children. For those who do enter the education system, urban children are 20 times more likely to drop out than nomadic students. In contrast to the first scenario, rich students are more likely to drop out, and there seems to be no direct correlation between age and the likelihood of leaving school.

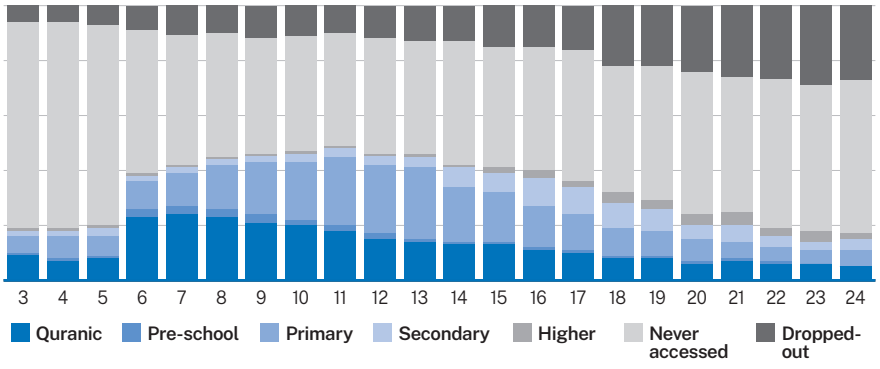
Finally, *Figure 2.15* presents the proportion of Somali children who have (1) attended Quranic school; (2) participated in pre-primary education; (3) attended primary school (regardless of whether it was lower or upper); (4) attended secondary school; (5) participated in higher education; and (6) never attended school at all. The graph appears to show that the biggest challenge to access and retention appears to be an access problem for children of primary-school age, followed closely by of increasing levels of dropout as children get older.

Figure 2.14 Prevalence of out-of-school children by sex, location, wealth, and age (%)



Source: Demographic and Health Survey, 2018.

Figure 2.15 Retention in education by age



Source: Demographic and Health Survey, 2018.

2.3 Inclusive education: In the shadows of Education 2030

2.3.1 Persons with disabilities in Somalia: Prevalence of disability largely unknown

Somalia officially identified persons with disabilities as a vulnerable population in its Humanitarian Response Plan for 2020, signifying its recognition of the challenges such people face in accessing public services (Humanity and Inclusion, 2020). However, the proportion of the population living with disabilities remains unclear. On a global level, persons with disabilities are estimated to represent 15 per cent of the population, and children with disabilities are estimated at 10 per cent, with this rising in humanitarian contexts and developing nations, both of which apply to Somalia (Independent Advisory Group on Country Information, 2020). In 2014 the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency estimated the proportion of persons with disabilities in Somalia to be close to 20 per cent, while the 2020 Somali Health and Demographic Survey estimated that just 3.6 per cent of the school-age population had some form of disability (Directorate of National Statistics, 2020). In further contrast, a study by the Somali Institute of Special Educational Needs and Disability (SISEND) reported that in 60 per cent of households, at least one child was living with a disability (SISEND, 2020). In the first instance, it is clear that if Somalia is to address the specific needs of the disabled population, and particularly children with disabilities, an accurate picture of their representation in the population is needed.

2.3.2 The special needs education policy framework

The provisional constitution of Somalia enshrines rights for all citizens regardless of disability status. This was explicitly extended to the right to education in the FGS's Special Educational Needs and Disability and Inclusive Education (SEND & IE) Policy of 2018. The policy outlines a vision of Somalia as 'a nation where all children with special needs and those out of school are supported to develop fully in their potential' (MoECHE, 2018). It goes on to outline its mission to mainstream special needs education, including ensuring the accessibility of physical infrastructure, introducing a responsive and adaptable curriculum, providing community sensitization activities and education around disabilities, introducing specific training for teachers in SEND & IE and the provision of fee-free education in public institutions for learners with special needs and disabilities. It further recognizes the need to include development partners in mainstreaming activities as a result of the large role they play in Somalia in ensuring access to education. In 2020, there were five special educational needs schools in Somalia, which focused on specific disabilities such as hearing or visual impairment. One of the main constraints remains the lack of a standardized teacher training curriculum, which obviously limits the extent to which children with disabilities can access services run by qualified staff. The FGS has been unable to fulfil its goal of introducing specific SEND training and certification.

2.3.3 Children with disabilities and access to education

As with the total population, it is not known what proportion of the total school-age population consists of children with disabilities. In reviewing the most prominent sources, it is clear that this issue may be related to the confusing definition of children with disabilities, and a lack of access to health-care infrastructure related to identifying disabilities, as well as the persistence of community norms which may dissuade parents from identifying their children as disabled. In an attempt to overcome some of these challenges, SISEND conducted screening and assessment of students in 60 schools across the four FMSs and Banadir, so as to identify those who were living with a disability without having an official diagnosis and to combat some of the social pressures surrounding identification. Results demonstrated varying proportions of disabled children across the FMSs, ranging from a high of 26 per cent of boys having a disability in Banadir to a low of 3 per cent of girls in Hirshabelle. In total, just over 9 per cent of students enrolled in the sampled schools were identified as having a disability, with the most common being hearing impairment, followed by visual impairment (SISEND, 2021).

Table 2.7 Prevalence of disabilities among children attending school, by FMS and sex, 2021 (%)

FMS	Boys	Girls
Banadir	26	15
Galmudug	11	7
South West	7	6
Hirshabelle	6	3
Jubbaland	12	8

Source: SISEND (2021).

Using international estimations of children with disabilities, at 10 per cent, SISEND data suggest that a higher proportion of the disabled population is attending school. However, using SDHS estimates of 3.6 per cent, this would indicate over-representation, which, within the context of barriers to access as discussed below, is unlikely. The SDHS estimates may also be affected by the lack of knowledge surrounding disability as well as the societal pressures that may constrain identification. This under-reporting of children with disabilities was seen in similar research conducted in Kismayo, where only 15 children were reported to have a disability, whereas if WHO estimates had been used, which put the proportion of the population with a disability at 14 per cent of, the total disabled population in Kismayo would have been 11,957 (Shikuku, 2017). This can be explained in part by the fact that the role of reporting children with disabilities for each school falls to the head teacher, who might not be aware of the actual number of students with disabilities beyond the most obvious cases.

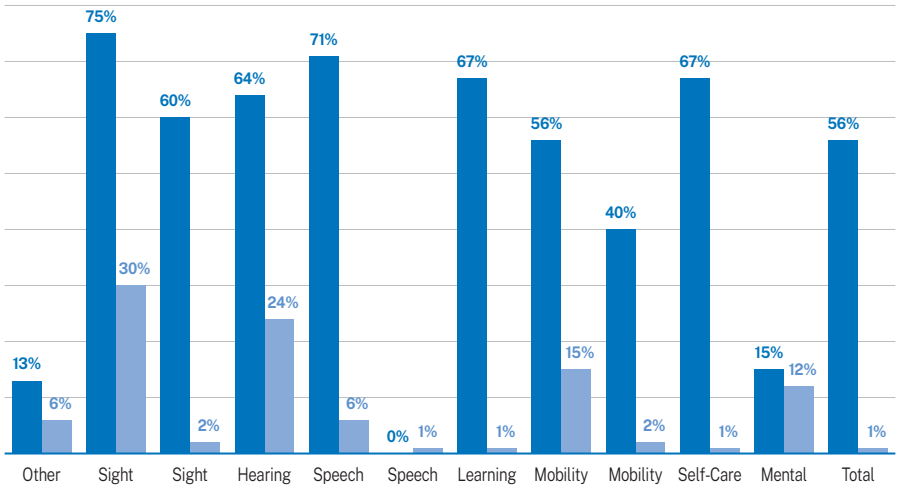
One of the facets limiting the identification of students with disabilities in Somalia is that this indicator was not included in EMIS data before 2019. There is only one year of EMIS data to work with in examining proportions, complemented by the 2019 GPE school mapping data, which also included information on children with disabilities, albeit in primary schools only. As seen in *Table 2.8*, the two datasets present varying proportions of students with disabilities, with the highest prevalence rates among enrolled learners reaching around 2.3 per cent in

Table 2.8 Share of children with disabilities enrolled in primary school, by type of disability, 2019 (%)

Data source	FMS	Mobility impairment	Hearing impairment	Visual impairment	Speech impairment	Mental impairment	Overall prevalence
GPE	Banadir	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.5	-	2.1
	Galmudug	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.4	-	2.1
	Hirshabelle	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.5	-	1.8
	Jubbaland	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.6	-	2.3
	South West	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.3	-	1.6
EMIS	Banadir	0.1	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	0.2
	Galmudug	0.1	0.1	0.0	-	0.0	0.2
	Hirshabelle	0.0	0.0	0.1	-	0.0	0.1
	Jubbaland	0.1	0.1	0.0	-	0.1	0.4
	South West	0.1	0.8	0.0	-	0.0	0.9

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) (2019) and EMIS (2019).

Figure 2.16 Proportion of school-age population with disabilities, by type of disability, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on SDHS data, 2020.

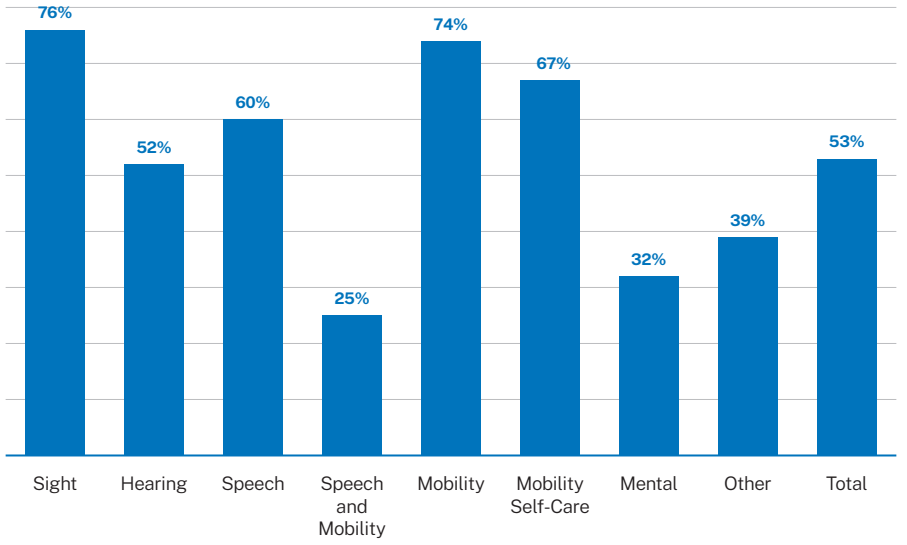
Jubbaland, which contrasts starkly with the proportion identified by SISEND in the screening process. Using international estimates of 10 per cent, which seem more robust than the SDHS estimates, the proportion of students with disabilities enrolled in education is lower than the estimated proportions of the total disabled school-age population. This would suggest children with disabilities are under-represented in the school population, pointing to the existence of barriers to education for this population. To estimate the overall proportion of chil-

dren with disabilities that are enrolled, one method is to compare that number to the overall population enrolled.

While the above evidence suggests that they are not represented in the school population in the same proportion estimated in the general population, the SHDS suggests relatively high proportions of the school-age population with disabilities are currently attending school, with an overall average of 56 per cent, as shown in *Figure 2.16*. However, this must be considered in the light of the limitations seen around self-identification of living with a disability, which most likely under-represents total proportions and therefore would lower the overall enrolment rate. Without an accurate count of the children with disabilities in the four FMSs and Banadir, it is impossible to accurately calculate access and enrolment rates.

Further evidence from the SDHS indicates that of the children with disabilities who are currently not enrolled, the majority have been in some form of education, suggesting that greater proportions drop out rather than never attend school, as shown in *Figure 2.17*. Across both sets of data, students with mental disabilities and speech- and mobility-related disabilities are seen to have the lowest levels of educational access, both currently and previously. This indicates that there are particular challenges associated with these types of limitations, which make educational access less likely, as will be explored in later sections.

Figure 2.17 Share of out-of-school children with disabilities who dropped out of school, by type of disability, 2020 (%)



Source: Authors' calculations based on SDHS data, 2020.

2.3.4 Discrimination and community attitudes bar children with disabilities from education

While evidence is mixed regarding the proportion of children with disabilities who are able to access education in Somalia, additional research suggests there exist many levels of discrimination and some physical barriers to access to schools. The FGS recognized this in the SEND & IE policy, citing a variety of challenges children with disabilities face in accessing education, including poverty, lack of school preparedness, isolation and hiding of children with disabilities, physical barriers, and negative teacher and community attitudes (MoECHE, 2018). SISEND research on children with disabilities confirmed this, with 25 per cent of parents citing bad or negative attitudes on the part of teachers, the school administration and the broader community as the primary reason for keeping their disabled children out of school. It is also recognized that girls with disabilities are particularly liable to be excluded from education, with boys with disabilities tending to get the few opportunities available for students with disabilities overall (Manku, 2018).

Those girls with disabilities who do manage to access formal education face high levels of discrimination, with 92 per cent of the girls with disabilities in the SISEND study reporting that they had experienced some form of discrimination at school (SISEND, 2020). These negative attitudes are seen to be prevalent across the whole community, even among parents of students with disabilities, with many stating they did not believe that persons with disabilities would ever be able to contribute to the household after completing the education cycle, because of social norms present in the community that would prevent them from being successful, regardless of their educational accomplishments (SISEND, 2020). Taking this into account, it would seem that parents have limited motivation to enrol their children in education, even where opportunities and barrier-free access do exist.

2.3.5 School accessibility and adaptation: Varying signals from different sources

While official policy indicates the intention to have all schools made accessible by and adapted for students with disabilities, the majority of schools still present many physical barriers. In an assessment of 58 schools across the four FMSs and Banadir, SISEND found that 68 per cent of schools did not have accessible toilet facilities and only 38 per cent had accessible sources of clean drinking water (SISEND, 2020). No schools in the study had access to braille books, audio books or hearing loops, which are particularly relevant given the dominance of visual and hearing impairments. More promisingly, 43 per cent of schools stated that they ran parental education or awareness-raising sessions regarding children with disabilities at the school. Sixty per cent reported running these sessions for students and 22 per cent for community members. Similar results were seen in the other SISEND study, with 47 per cent of schools reporting having accessible toilet facilities, while 63 per cent said they had introduced community sensitization activ-

ities and 58 per cent said they ran parent disability-education activities (SISEND, 2021). This suggests that while many schools continue to lack adapted facilities, there is some movement in terms of sensitization programmes, which are equally necessary for encouraging the enrolment of children with disabilities.

EMIS and GPE data demonstrate varying proportions of schools having at least one disabled student. This may be related to some of the issues around the robustness of EMIS data collection, as previously discussed. Proportions of schools with accessible facilities are seen to be similar, with this including elements such as ramps and rails, as well as accessible toilet facilities. Interestingly, EMIS data show that there are more schools with adaptations for children with disabilities than there are schools with such children enrolled. This may suggest that even if facilities are accessible, there exist other elements, such as community attitudes or school-based discrimination, that serve as bigger deterrents to enrolment. Conversely, GPE data evidence a much lower proportion of accessible schools in comparison to schools with children with disabilities enrolled, offering the reverse issue of high demand and low supply. In both GPE and EMIS data, there are more schools with children with disabilities, and more schools with adaptations than those with both, suggesting some misalignment in supply and demand in terms of accessibility. This indicates the potential need for redistribution of students with disabilities to accessible schools, where geographically feasible.

Table 2.9 Share of schools with disabled learners and accessible facilities, by FMS, 2019 (%)

Data source	FMS	Schools with disabled learners	Schools with accessible facilities	Schools with disabled learners and accessible facilities
EMIS	Banadir	9.2	23.4	3.5
	Galmudug	7.9	17.1	3.6
	Hirshabelle	4.9	19.4	2.9
	Jubbaland	15.7	19.9	0.5
	South West	11.0	21.1	2.8
GPE	Banadir	63.4	33.1	21.8
	Galmudug	50.3	11.5	8.9
	Hirshabelle	54.7	19.5	11.1
	Jubbaland	55.7	10.0	6.4
	South West	40.2	27.1	14.9

Source: Authors' calculations based on GPE data (2019) and EMIS data (2019).

2.3.6 Teacher preparation: No specific teacher training for special needs

While schools may be adapted to the needs of students with disabilities, this does not mean teachers are similarly prepared to accommodate the special needs of these students. Research across the sector has pointed to a lack of knowledge and skills among teaching staff to address these needs, with SISEND stating that none of the teachers in the 18 schools considered in its survey had received training on special educational needs (SISEND, 2020). The research further highlighted that teachers working at the al-Basiir School for the Blind and Deaf-Blind in Mogadishu, one of the SEND institutions considered in the study, had all received their training at the Kenya Institute of Special Education, suggesting no programmes existed within Somalia itself to provide this specialized teacher training.

Similar challenges were observed by the Somali Disability Empowerment Network, who have argued there is a lack of skills and knowledge among teachers on how to work with learners with disabilities, and have even maintained that most teachers take negative attitudes towards students with disabilities (Farah, 2015). As mentioned above, while the FGS SEND & IE policy highlights the intention to create specialist training courses and certifications in SEND, this has not been implemented. There is an urgent need to train teachers not just to provide good-quality education for students with special needs, but also to help to alleviate some of the pressures and barriers children with disabilities face in accessing education.

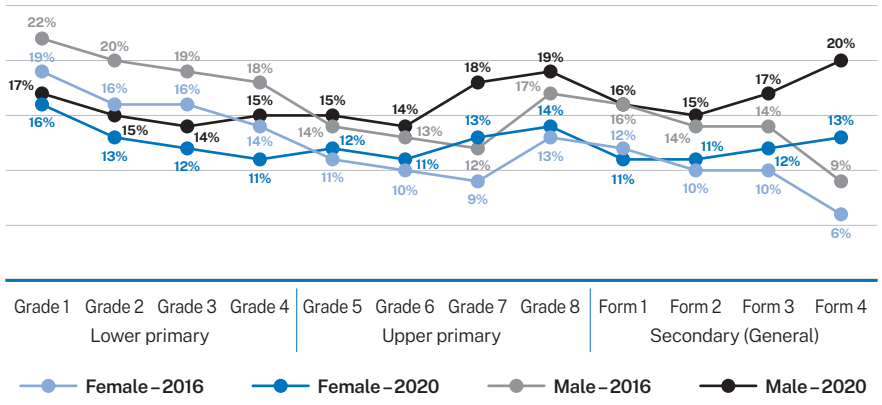
2.4 Equity and exclusion in general education

The second sub-section of this section dealt with schooling globally, and with challenges linked to internal efficiency, dropout, and out-of-school children. This sub-section deals with the way in which the challenges presented so far affect certain groups differently, be it because of their socio-economic characteristics or their location. Using schooling profiles, this section analyses existing disparities in access to education, focusing on gender differentials, disparities attributed to children's location, and those attributed to children from families with different income statuses.

2.4.1 Gender disparity: Diminishing but persistent discrimination against girls

Analysis of access and retention patterns in 2016 and 2020 shows that girls were at a disadvantage at all grades, and this increased with age, especially in 2020. *Figure 2.18* decomposes schooling profiles in 2016 and 2020 by gender, showing the access and retention patterns across grades in the primary and secondary cycles of education. In 2016, the profiles show a consistent gender gap in the intake rates in each grade (between 3 and 4 percentage points). In 2020, although the gap is small at the start of primary school, we observe that it grows with advancing grades. At the beginning of primary school in 2020, the difference in intake is a mere percentage point, in favour of boys. It grows to 7 percentage points, in favour of boys, by the end of secondary school.

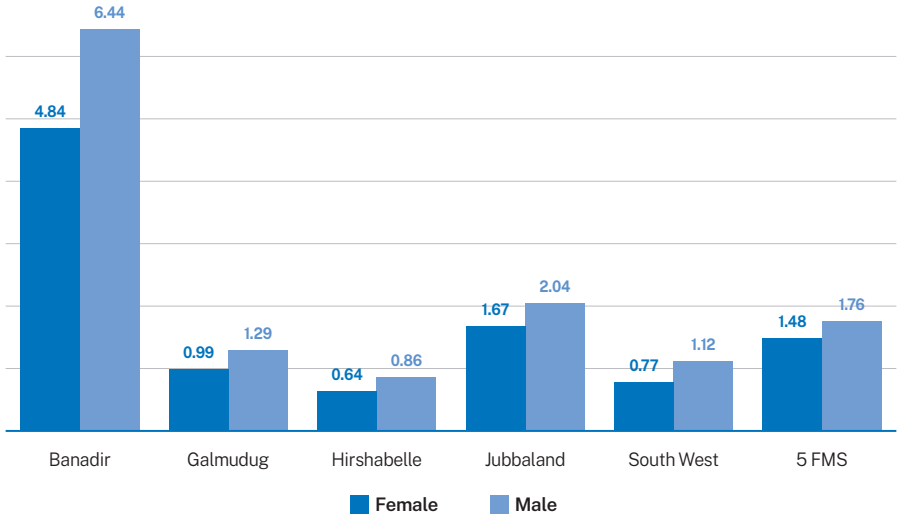
Figure 2.18 Cross-sectional schooling profile by sex



Source: School census, 2015; Somalia Demographic and Health Survey, 2018.

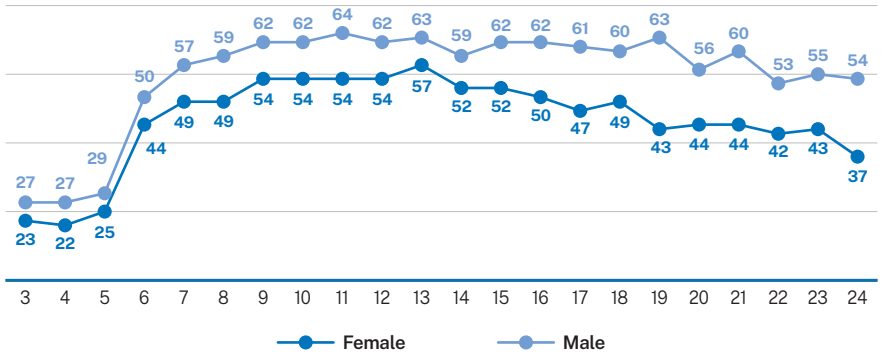
The disadvantage suffered by girls abounds at the sub-national levels. *Figure 2.19* illustrates the school life expectancy for boys and girls in the FMSs as well as Banadir Regional Administration. In all the states girls have lower school life expectancy than boys. The biggest difference is seen in Hirshabelle, where boys can expect to have 0.86 years of education, which is 34 per cent more than girls. The results also highlight variation between states, with Banadir having a clear advantage over the four FMSs.

Figure 2.19 School life expectancy by gender and FMS, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data (2020).

Figure 2.20 Probability of having entered formal school, by age and sex, 2018 (%)



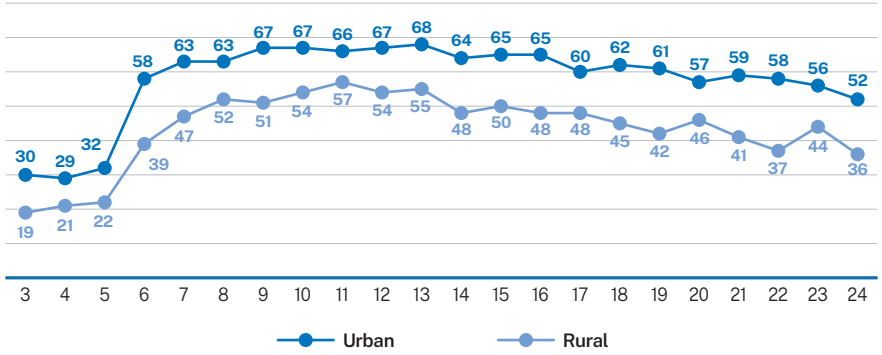
Source: Authors' calculations based on Somali Demographic and Heath Survey.

Figure 2.20 presents a probabilistic approach to understanding real access to school for boys and girls. The results show a clear advantage held by boys over girls, at all the ages, from 3 to 24 years old. The official school entry age in the country is 6 years, with the results showing that at this age half of boys had entered school, compared to only 44 per cent of girls. Boys also had higher real access than girls, their access peaking at 64 per cent, 6 percentage points higher than the 57 per cent reached by girls. It is also important to note that boys had an early peak, their real access peaking at age 11, while girls peak a year later, suggesting that boys are offered more opportunities to go to school than girls.

2.4.2 Location disparity: Larger disparities from location than gender

Location (urban or rural) also plays a part in determining which children are able to go to school. Urban dwellers are more likely to have been in Grade 1 than their rural counterparts, with the difference between them and rural dweller being bigger than that between boys and girls of the same age.

Figure 2.21 Probability of having entered formal school, by age and location, 2018 (%)

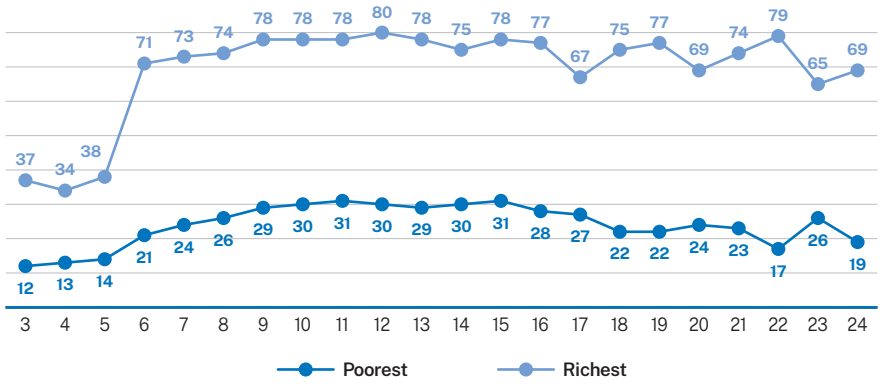


Source: Authors' calculations based on Somali Demographic and Heath Survey (2018).

2.4.3 Poverty disparity: Glaring gap in between socioeconomic classes

The poorest children are up to 50 percentage points less likely to have attended formal school than children from the richest families. As is often the case, household wealth plays a pivotal role in determining the probability of an individual ever attending formal school. As seen in *Figure 2.22*, children from the richest families are more likely to start school at the right age, with 7 in 10 children from the richest families entering formal school by age 6, compared to 2 in 10 from the poorest families. Although the probability of having had access to Grade 1 for the richest children peaks at age 12 (80 per cent), this is only a marginal increment from the 78 per cent observed by age 9, meaning that nearly all the children who go to school from the richest families do so by age 9, compared to the those from the poorest families, who have a two-year lag when compared to children from the richest families, but even then, only manage a generational access of 31 per cent. This shows that the average difference between the real access of the richest and the poorest children is nearly 50 percentage points.

Figure 2.22 Probability of having entered formal school by age and wealth status (%)



Source: Authors' calculations based on Somali Demographic and Heath Survey (2018).

2.5 Chapter summary

Data availability remains an issue that prevents in-depth analysis, and this is likely to be reflected in the level of targeted response to some of the issues affecting the development of the sector. The education sector has made efforts to improve the collection and availability of data and has, in the process, changed information-collection methodologies. This has resulted in somewhat incomplete data for some topics, and incomparable data across years, and some sub-sectors have only ad hoc data. Lack of robust data may result in mundane policies that may not have the transformative effect required in a context like Somalia's. While the changes in the data-management processes at the FGS and FMS levels should be encouraged, there will be need to be a clear outline of the long-term vision for the EMIS, with clear short-term sprints, which can allow for the establishment of a basic and strong foundation for a system-wide information system.

The education system has suffered the dire consequences of the protracted civil stand-off and the severe drought of 2017. The benefits of political stability had begun showing in the gradual increase of number of children enrolled in school, but progress was impeded by the climate-related catastrophe. Some states, like Banadir, have recovered to their levels of enrolment before the drought, for some levels of school, and this is laudable. Nevertheless, broadly speaking, many children who are eligible for school are not in school, more than half of them either having not attended school at all or having dropped out. The combined effect of low enrolment rates and weak internal efficiency is emphasized by the school life expectancy, which is worryingly low. While the number of years spent in school may not equate to the quantity and quality of education received, time spent in school does predispose children to the acquisition of literacy. Having children access school and stay there will need to be a principal focus of the next sector plan. Targeted strategies will be needed to re-enrol children who are yet to go back to school after the drought.

Apart from the low access to school in the country, there are stark disparities in terms of gender, location, and family wealth. Boys have a considerable advantage over girls in accessing school and staying there, and this is quite evident in the calculated school life expectancy, where boys can expect to have 30 per cent more time in school than girls. Although the disparity in access to school is considerable when comparing boys and girls, the gap becomes even more conspicuous when comparing children from rural and urban locations. However, the gap is largest between children from the richest and the poorest families, with available estimates showing that the present education system is largely for the elite in the country. Moreover, the proportion of children who never enrol in the education system has remained high throughout the years analysed, particularly outside of Banadir. This proportion is even higher among disadvantaged groups, such as children from poor families, those living in rural areas, and girls. The rate of dropout also remains high throughout the four FMSs and Banadir. Steps will need to be taken to guarantee that all children have equal access to school, and to ensure that they finish the compulsory levels of formal education, in order to break cycles of intergenerational poverty and improve outcomes later in life.

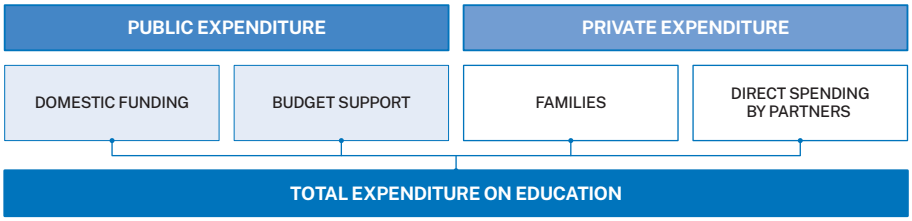
Children with disabilities continue to encounter systemic barriers that

block their access to school, with some being societal while others are within the control of education-sector policy-makers. Children with disabilities have less access to school than children without disabilities. Those who manage to go to school face further challenges, with only a fraction of the schools having facilities and equipment that are adapted for the children with disabilities. In terms of teacher preparedness, the section has highlighted the lack of professional training for teachers on how to deal with children with disabilities, putting into doubt the implementation of inclusive education in the country. The section has also discussed the higher dropout rate for children with disabilities when compared to children without disabilities. Particular attention should be given to providing an environment that is adapted to their learning needs. In respect of all teacher professional training, a training mechanism should be developed and implemented for teachers in order to increase their effectiveness when teaching children with disabilities. Additional efforts should also be made to improve data collection within the EMIS, especially towards improving the depth of information collected on children with disabilities and their education.

Chapter 3
Education expenditure

This section discusses the findings on education expenditure in Somalia, focusing on spending by national and local government (the FGS and FMSs) as well as spending at private level (households and development partners). In the case of the latter the finance goes directly to schools or administrative offices without going through the federal treasury or the ministries of finance in the FMSs. The section begins by setting the framework used in the analysis and then discusses the evolution of public spending on education. This will include details of its coverage and of what public funds are spent on. The second sub-section presents estimates of household spending on education as well as off-budget spending by development partners. The results presented here are largely based on budget implementation reports from the FGS and FMSs, the second wave of the High-Frequency Survey carried out in 2017, and expenditure reports from development partners, compiled in 2021.

Figure 3.1 Framework for analysis of education spending



Source: MoECHE & IIEP, 2021.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the framework employed in the analysis. Given the share of community, private and public schooling in the Federal Republic of Somalia, as discussed in Section 2, this framework has allowed a comprehensive coverage of spending on education. The framework divides the spending into public and private expenditure, the former constituting of expenditure supported by domestic revenue (including tax and non-tax revenue) as well as budget support (grants and loans) provided by development partners. All these go through the treasury's single budget account. Public expenditure on education is executed by MoECHE and authorized agencies under its auspices, including the Somali National University, the Somali Academy of Sciences and Arts, and the Intergovernmental Academy of Somali Language. The execution of the public budget is captured in the annual budget utilization reports, which are generated by the Integrated Financial Management Information System, both for FGS ministries and for the FMSs. As regards private expenditure, the framework covers expenditure by families which is paid directly to schools as fees, levies, payment for school supplies, etc., as well as the support directed to public schools or education agencies by development partners.

3.1 Public expenditure on education: Showing strides of improvement

Public expenditure on education is executed by the MoECHE and state ministries of education in the FMSs, including Banadir Regional Education Directorate, Galmudug, Hirshabelle, Jubbaland and South West.

3.1.1 Priority of public expenditure on education: Low investment in education

Public expenditure on education remains low, which reflects the size of the public education sector in the country and the difficult past the government has been working to overcome. The 2020 budget utilization report shows that overall spending by the FGS and FMSs was about $338 million, compared to $248.3 million in 2016, which represents a 36 per cent increase in spending over the five-year period selected for review. In education, the government spent $17.4 million in 2020, accounting for only 5 per cent of total government spending. As part of the Incheon Declaration of 2015, 160 countries agreed to spend at least 20 per cent of their budget on education, in order to achieve SDG 4 – inclusive and equitable high-quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all their citizens – by 2030 (UNESCO, 2015). Public expenditure on education in Somalia falls below this threshold by a long way, but in spite of this low expenditure, our findings demonstrate that much has been done in the five-year period. Expenditure on education has gone from $1.8 million in 2016 to $17.4 million, a near ten-fold increase (*Table 3.1*).

Table 3.1 Evolution of public expenditure on education (US$)

Spending	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Total govt spending	248,327,901	248,300,000	268,473,268	315,717,297	337,800,000
Spending on education	1,820,506	3,705,283	8,641,213	14,702,981	17,399,737
ESA 2016	1,800,000				
Education as % of total govt spending	0.7%	1.5%	3.2%	4.7%	5.2%
Education spending as % of GDP	0.03%	0.07%	0.15%	0.25%	

Source: FGS & FMS budget utilization reports; ESA 2012–2016.

The level of public expenditure on education is inherently linked to the size of the public education sector in the country. For instance, out of the children and young people attending school in 2020, only about 10 per cent were enrolled in public schools. In this context, the spending presented in *Table 3.1* remains short of levels that could support an expansion of public education and associated services, as promoted in government strategic documents, which seek to make public education the principal stream. Notably, the government has introduced examinations at the end of primary and secondary school in the last six years, in order to assess the state of education in the country and to improve its quality, although the FMSs are in different phases of implementation of the examinations. The FGS has also introduced other reforms in the education sector, including establishing the Commission for Higher Education to operationalize quality assurance in universities; passing the Education Bill as an Act; and developing a TVET policy that will see TVET integrated into the education sector rather than delivered on an ad hoc basis by NGOs and private

bodies. Regrettably, these reforms and aspirations are not adequately reflected in the public expenditure on education, judging by the level of funding revealed in *Table 3.1*, which means that the implementation of these programmes and the assurance of quality they seek to inject to the sector remain in jeopardy.

3.1.2 Credibility of education budgets: Mixed signals on budget execution

The low expenditure on education is partially attributed to low compliance to education budgets, which has fluctuated in recent years. There exists a systematic budgeting and expenditure process in the country, according to which the MoECHE has to present future expenditure estimates to the Federal Ministry of Finance for collation, which is followed later by approval from the legislature. The approved budgets are executed by the MoECHE and associated entities once the Ministry of Finance gives them the authority to incur expenditure. The budget utilization reports from the FGS and FMS levels indicate that notwithstanding approvals of the annual budgets, utilization of the budgets in full remains a challenge. For instance, in 2020, 40 per cent of the approved budget was not executed (see *Table 3.2*), which is a huge part of the resources that could have gone towards the delivery of education services in the country. The reasons behind the increase in the non-executed budget – from 26 per cent in 2019 to 40 per cent in 2020, after a three-year stability around 75 per cent – are not immediately clear.

Table 3.2 Credibility of public budget on education (US$)

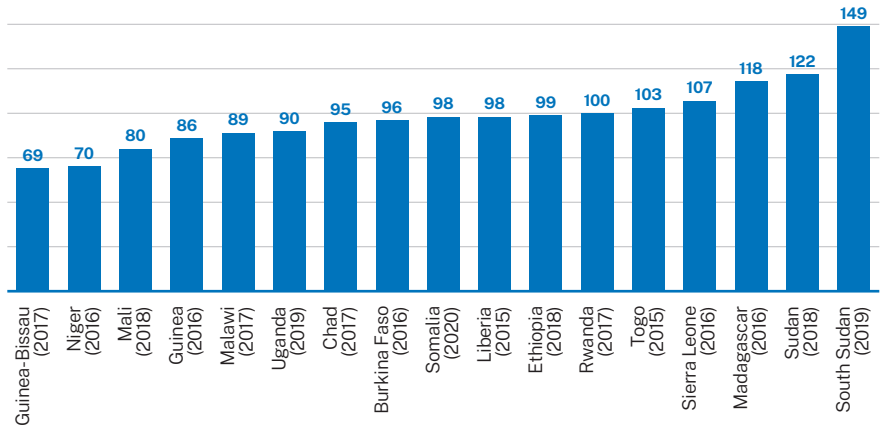
Spending	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Approved budget	4,893,374	4,827,040	11,538,415	20,011,703	29,178,461
Resource allocation	2,267,297	4,092,933	10,575,628	15,598,051	18,503,856
Actual expenditure	1,820,506	3,705,283	8,641,213	14,702,981	17,399,737
Allocation as % of budget	46.3%	84.8%	91.7%	77.9%	63.4%
Actual as % of approved	37.2%	76.8%	74.9%	73.5%	59.6%
Actual as % of allocation	80.3%	90.5%	81.7%	94.3%	94.0%

Source: FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

The overall low expenditure on education is partly due to the fact that approved budgets are not fully utilized, with credibility concerns nearly halving the expenditure. Budget compliance concerns may be attributed to inefficiencies in budget supply, given that the FGS has consistently failed to fulfil the approved budget, with the highest levels of supply reported in 2018 (92 per cent supply against approval). In other years, the budget supply has been fairly low – 46 per cent in 2016 and 63 per cent in 2020. Although execution of allocated resources remains relatively high, averaging 88 per cent over the last five years, these results demonstrate the absence of full execution of budgets nonetheless. This trend affects the predictability of budgets and expenditures, which is meant to help the education sector to plan with certainty and to credibly identify activities to be implemented during a given fiscal period. Denying the sector this predictability risks

forcing the sector to reorganize the way it implements policy, which may have unintended consequences. Budget credibility is tracked across countries as one of the SDGs because of its role in ensuring that public policy is implemented (Herrera, 2018). A review of results from low-income countries in sub-Saharan Africa reveals mixed results, with most countries where data are available showing lack of budget credibility at the national level (see *Figure 3.2*).

Figure 3.2 Government expenditures as a proportion of approved budget across 17 countries in sub-Saharan Africa



Source: Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability, World Bank, circa 2017.

3.1.3 Public expenditure by funding Source: Strong commitments from government

Eighty per cent of the public expenditure on education is provided by the government, with increasing resources going to the FMSs, which shows a willingness to help them become fully operational. Public expenditure on education can either come from public revenue or from budget support given by development partners. Although the general volume of public expenditure on education remains small, a large part is committed by the FGS. Out of the $17.4 million spent on education in 2020, $3.44 million (or 20 per cent) came from development partners as budget support, implying that a larger proportion (80 per cent) came from government's own resources. The budget utilization reports indicate that budget support from development partners towards education began in 2018, initially grew nearly sevenfold between 2018 and 2019 before dropping by 16 per cent between 2019 and 2020. According to the findings in *Table 3.3*, education expenditure at the FMS level increased from $89,600 to $2.6 million between 2018 and 2020, an increase more than 400 per cent, indicating the willingness of the FGS to enable the FMSs to become fully operational, which is a good sign for the decen-

Table 3.3 Public expenditure on education, by funding source (US$)

Spending	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Federal government					
Public	1,819,509	3,696,457	7,951,561	10,522,868	11,315,716
Partners	-	-	-	3,093,350	3,076,018
Sub-total	1,819,509	3,696,457	7,951,561	13,616,217	14,391,734
% partners	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	22.7%	21.4%
Federal member states					
Public	997	8,826	89,595	108,080	2,644,648
Partners	-	-	600,056	978,684	363,356
Sub-total	997	8,826	689,652	1,086,764	3,008,003
% partners	0.0%	0.0%	87.0%	90.1%	12.1%
Overall spending					
Public	1,820,506	3,705,283	8,041,157	10,630,948	13,960,364
Partners	-	-	600,056	4,072,034	3,439,374
Sub-total	1,820,506	3,705,283	8,641,213	14,702,981	17,399,737
% partners	0.0%	0.0%	6.9%	27.7%	19.8%

Source: Federal and FMS budget utilization reports.

Table 3.4 Budget support towards education by partners and government (US$)

Development partner	2018	2019	2020
Federal Government of Somalia	515,868	3,860,242	3,076,018
Global Partnership for Education	-	778,542	959,457
World Bank	515,868	3,081,699	2,116,561
Federal Member States	84,188	211,792	363,356
ADRA	6,760	22,440	35,379
Africa Education Trust	-	-	76,500
American Refugee Committee	-	-	19,351
Care International	31,058	74,470	19,668
CISP	-	18,900	16,200
Concern Worldwide	-	-	3,500
Lutheran World Federation	-	2,512	1,140
Mercy Corps	-	1,330	-
Norwegian Support	33,620	42,140	24,600
Save the Children	12,750	50,000	123,600
Trocaire	-	-	4,964
United Nations	-	-	14,800
World Food Programme	-	-	23,654
Total	**600,056**	**4,072,034**	**3,439,374**

Source: Federal and FMS budget utilization reports.

tralization and the overall efficiency in the delivery of education services in the country. Moreover, the share of education expenditure at the FMS level coming from the government increased dramatically between 2018 and 2020, growing from 13 per cent to 88 per cent, which is further evidence of this willingness. Although our overall findings show that development partners made a significant contribution to public expenditure, their confidence in government systems remains low, which is evident from the volume of resources they channelled to the country through off-budget support, as compared to the on-budget support (see sub-section 3.2.2 for a detailed discussion).

Table 3.4 presents the contributions of the 15 organizations behind the on-budget support for public education expenditure. There has been a notable increase in the number of organizations providing support through the government systems since 2018. Particularly notable is the large increase in support between 2018 and 2019, with the volumes increasing from $600,000 to more than $4 million in a single year. There is also an observed drop in development partners' contributions in 2020, which is attributable to the cash flow projected in the Somalia Recurrent Cost and Reform Financing Project under International Development Association (IDA) Additional Financing (P167224).

3.1.4 Public expenditure by spending type: Vision of expansion with limited capital

Nearly all the public spending on education is dedicated to recurrent items, leaving a huge investment gap to fill in the expansion of public education. The protracted political impasse in the country transferred most of the delivery of education from the public sector to community and private streams, with public providers of education showing only marginal recovery in the recent years. The growth in public schooling is dependent on a return to civilian governance at the political level, which is expected to provide more confidence in the establishment of public amenities, including public schools. Although the political landscape has changed and now allows for this kind of investment, budget utilization reports reveal that there has only been limited expansion of infrastructure in schools. Out of the $17.4 million spent on education in 2020, only $109,000 went on capital expenditure, as presented in *Table 3.5*, with further details showing that these resources were spent on the acquisition of non-financial assets (mostly information and communications technology equipment) at the FGS level.

Table 3.5 Public expenditure on education by type of spending (US$)

Spending	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Recurrent	1,820,506	3,705,283	7,746,566	13,569,041	17,290,557
Capital	-	-	894,648	1,133,941	109,180
O/w, fixed assets	-	-	894,648	1,133,941	470
O/w, machinery and equipment	-	-	-	-	108,710
Total	1,820,506	3,705,283	8,641,213	14,702,981	17,399,737
% capital	-	-	10.4%	7.7%	0.6%

Source: FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

Notably, although political normalcy was brokered in Somalia in 2012, it was not until 2018 that the country saw a trace of capital expenditure directed towards education. The budget execution reports show that all the capital expenditure in 2018 and 2019 went towards fixed assets, which mainly includes the construction of classrooms and other facilities in schools. As a share of the public spending on education, capital spending has been on a downward trend since 2018, dropping from 10 per cent in 2018 to 8 per cent in 2019 before plummeting to less than 1 per cent in 2020. If public education is going to expand in the country, the government has to go into overdrive to expand existing public schools. Moreover, the huge increase in recurrent spending should be accompanied by an improvement in facilities in existing schools so that teachers and students, on whose heads this recurrent spending is directed, can have appropriate spaces in which to teach and learn.

3.1.5 Public expenditure by state: Resources still concentrated at the centre

Although spending by the FMSs has increased tremendously over recent years, the centre still executes a huge part of the education sector's expenditure. The budget utilization reports show that six years after the establishment of the FGS, there was still almost no public spending on education below the that level. Only small traces of expenditure were observed in Jubbaland and South West states before then (see *Table 3.6*). It is also important to note that the expenditure by the FMSs is only in a limited number of schools.[6] As such, a huge part of public expenditure on education remains in the control of the FGS. For instance, in 2020, out of the $17.4 million spent on education, $12.7 million was executed at the FGS level, accounting for 73 per cent of the total spending, and indicating the authority that the FGS continues to exercise, even now that the FMSs have become operational. This imbalance is partly due to the responsibility assigned to the FGS,

Table 3.6 Public expenditure on education by the FGS and FMSs (US$)

FMS	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Banadir	-	-	841,513	949,533	1,724,791
Galmudug	-	-	-	226,567	1,140,812
Hirshabelle	-	-	2,000	6,000	446,882
Jubbaland	997	(2,326)	637,766	677,644	822,504
South West	-	11,152	49,886	176,554	597,806
FGS	1,819,509	3,696,457	7,110,048	12,666,684	12,666,943
Total	1,820,506	3,705,283	8,641,213	14,702,981	17,399,737
% FGS	99.9%	99.8%	82.3%	86.2%	72.8%

Source: FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

6 Of the more than 2,000 schools in the country, fewer than 30 are public schools. Only in 2020 did the government start appealing to private schools to register as public schools in exchange for some grants in the future.

which relates to the daily functioning of schools. It also emanates from the fact that the FGS, having stronger revenue-collection streams, ends up executing the larger part of the spending on education. On the flip side is the rise in the share of expenditure executed by the FMSs. In 2018, expenditure at the FMS level accounted for 18 per cent of the total spending on education; this increased to 27 per cent in 2020, in a matter of three years.

There is a wealth of evidence pointing to the effectiveness of decentralization in improving the efficiency of service delivery, especially in education. According to Sow and Ivohasina (2015) one of the necessary conditions for effective decentralization is the establishment of an adequate institutional environment, including autonomy at the decentralized levels, strong accountability among the agencies involved at various levels, a sense of good governance, and strong systemic and human capacity, all of which seem to have been achieved through the creation of the FMSs. The second condition given by the duo is the decentralization of expenditure, accompanied by a decentralization of revenue collection which is essential for the implementation of priority activities in the FMSs. Although this section does not delve into the detail of existing institutional arrangements for the FMSs in delivery of education services (this is covered in greater detail in Section 6), the results presented in *Table 3.6* demonstrate that one of the two conditions mentioned above remains unmet, with more than 80 per cent of public expenditure still being executed at the FGS level, a situation that raises concerns about the effectiveness of the decentralization arrangement in the country.

Table 3.7 Public expenditure on education, by state and type (US$)

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Galmudug				226,567	1,140,812
Hirshabelle			2000	6,000	446,882
Jubbaland	997	(2,326)	637,766	677,644	822,504
South West		11,152	49,886	176,554	597,806
FGS	1,819,509	3,696,457	7,951,561	13,616,217	14,391,734
Capital			894,648	1,133,941	109,180
Recurrent	1,819,509	3,696,457	7,056,914	12,482,277	14,282,554
% capital	0.0%	0.0%	11.3%	8.3%	0.8%
Total	**1,820,506**	**3,705,283**	**8,641,213**	**14,702,981**	**17,399,737**

Source: FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.
Note: Federal expenditure includes spending in Banadir Regional Administration.

According to *Table 3.7* capital expenditure on education is focused at the FGS level, with no investment in facilities and infrastructure at the state levels, including no public provision for the setting up of offices or generally improving the work environment for the recently created states. This raises concerns regarding the effectiveness of the present form of decentralization, whereby political will is not demonstrated by the establishment of structures for delivery of services and associated operational expenditure.

3.1.6 Public recurrent expenditure on education

Recurrent expenditure on education grew almost tenfold in the five years from 2016 to 2020, driven by a huge increase in salaries. The sector spent a total of $17.3 million on recurrent items in 2020, this being nearly all of the public spending on education, since only limited expenditure was directed to capital items. Out of the total recurrent expenditure, $14.2 million went towards salaries for teachers and administrators at FGS and FMS levels. The expenditure patterns show that salaries increased from $1.7 million in 2016 to $14.2 million in 2020, an eightfold increase (see *Table 3.8*). On the other hand, slightly more than $3 million was spent on non-salary items in 2020, accounting for about 17 per cent of the recurrent expenditure, increasing from a paltry $140,000 in 2016, and representing more than twenty-fold growth. Consequently, the share of non-salary spending on recurrent expenditure more than doubled from 8 per cent in 2016, to reach 18 per cent in 2020, which can be considered a positive sign in the context of a system that is seeking expansion and improvement of service delivery. However, this positive sign is largely negated by the generally low level of public expenditure on education.

Non-salary expenditure is focused on grants and transfers (resources transferred to specialized institutions to carry our statutory functions as prescribed in their institutional mandate) as well as goods and services. Expenditure on grants increased enormously, from $24,000 in 2017 to almost $1.8 million in 2020, with the overall share of grants and transfers growing from only 10 per cent of the non-salary expenditure in 2017 to nearly 60 per cent in 2020 (see *Table 3.9*). Although the budget utilization reports do not detail the operational use of the expenditure under grants and transfers, it is largely considered to support the training of teachers, in acknowledgement of the huge capacity required to improve the quality of education in the public sector.

Expenditure on goods and services, on the other hand, is focused on operations at the administrative level and includes the following, just to list the principal items: rent and bills for utilities such as electricity, water, and telephone; provision of working stations, stationery, and equipment, as well as their maintenance; staff training and expenses for conference attendance; and travel-related expenses. The use of goods and services as an expenditure category drives service delivery in the sector since it enables education staff to be mobile, especially those whose mandate requires travel, such as quality assurance and curriculum support staff. Although as a share of non-salary expenditure it may look large, the spending on goods and services looks very small relative to the entire expenditure on education. Since 2016, spending on goods and services increased ninefold, although when considered with the bigger increase in grants, its overall share has dropped from 100 per cent in 2016 to almost 40 per cent in 2020.

Details of the use of goods and services show that in 2020, training, conferences, and consultancy services accounted for nearly half of the spending in the sector, which may be reflective of the spending patterns in the wake of the

Table 3.8 Salary and non-salary recurrent expenditure on education (US$)

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Salary	1,680,509	3,465,750	6,608,525	11,394,711	14,245,276
Non-salary	139,997	239,533	1,138,040	2,174,330	3,045,282
Total	1,820,506	3,705,283	7,746,566	13,569,041	17,290,557
% Non-salary	7.7%	6.5%	14.7%	16.0%	17.6%

Source: FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

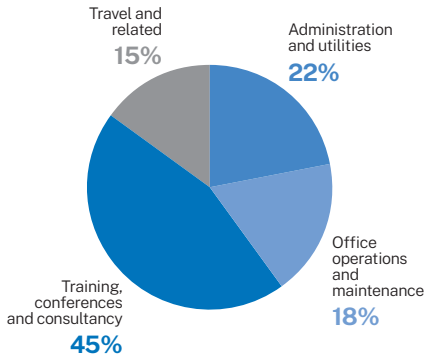
Table 3.9 Decomposition of non-salary expenditure on education (US$)

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Grants and other transfers		24,400	724,514	1,281,277	1,759,508
Use of goods and services	139,997	215,133	413,526	893,053	1,285,774
Administration and utilities	76,565	127,533	268,382	290,894	278,883
Office operations and maintenance	39,000	38,000	80,429	81,247	229,353
Training, conferences and consultancy		9,600	31,390	333,703	578,923
Travel and related	24,432	40,000	33,325	187,209	198,615
Total	139,997	239,533	1,138,040	2,174,330	3,045,282
% Grants and transfers	0.0%	10.2%	63.7%	58.9%	57.8%
% Use of goods and services	100.0%	89.8%	36.3%	41.1%	42.2%

Source: FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

COVID-19 pandemic. There was a need to train teachers and administrators in the development of online materials, the setting up of associated infrastructure and the use of the platform to continue teaching during school closures. The other three categories (utilities, operations, and travel) shared the balance of goods and services expenditure in more or less equal proportions.

Figure 3.3 Composition of the use of goods and services, 2020



Source: Authors' computations based on FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

3.1.7 Intra-sector spending: Growing dominance of primary education

Seventy-five per cent of public recurrent expenditure on education is spent directly on programmes, with the rest focused on administration. The recurrent expenditure in Somalia can be divided into three main categories, namely primary education, post-secondary education (covering tertiary colleges and university education), and administration, which covers general administrative services, curriculum development, examinations, and quality assurance, all of which are focused on the primary and secondary levels of education. Out of the $17.3 spent by the government on recurrent items, $7.35 million went to primary education and $5.7 million to post-secondary education, while $4.3 million went to administration (*Table 3.10*). The spending on primary education is particularly driven by a huge increase in the teacher wage bill, which increased by nearly 20 times in the five years from 2016 to 2020. Considering that public primary education has only registered marginal growth in the period, in terms of learners, and teachers as well, the growth in salary may be attributed to a growth in the average salary paid to the teachers and other staff.

Table 3.10 Public recurrent expenditure on education by function/level (US$)

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Administration	330,995	690,557	1,943,020	3,507,524	4,273,738
Administrative services	268,582	557,031	1,541,163	2,622,530	3,092,807
Curriculum development	10,543	22,556	67,885	149,500	199,492
Examination and assessments	8,411	17,994	54,153	119,259	159,139
Quality assurance	43,459	92,976	279,819	616,234	822,300
Primary	377,984	808,658	2,433,725	5,359,698	7,352,294
Primary education services	11,476	24,551	73,889	162,722	417,478
Primary teacher management	366,508	784,107	2,359,837	5,196,977	6,934,815
Post-secondary education	1,111,527	2,206,068	3,369,821	4,701,818	5,664,526
Academy of Somali Language	86,000	189,633	219,400	241,389	249,623
Somali Academy of Sciences &Arts	122,353	279,510	491,021	589,595	589,309
Somali National University	903,174	1,736,925	2,659,400	3,870,834	4,825,594
Total	**1,820,506**	**3,705,283**	**7,746,566**	**13,569,040**	**17,290,558**

Source: FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.
Notes: Spending on secondary education is included in the administration vote

Further details show that out of the $5.7 million spent on higher education institutions in 2020, $4.8 million was spent on the Somali National University, while the balance of $839,000 was spent on the Intergovernmental Academy of Somali Language and the Somali Academy of Science and Arts, this spending accounting for 30 and 70 per cent respectively. At the Somali National University, $4.55 million (or 94 per cent) of the total expenditure in 2020 was dedicated to the salaries and wages of teaching and non-teaching staff, leaving only $278,000 (or 6 per cent) for the use of goods and services (see *Table 3.11*). This means that quality assur-

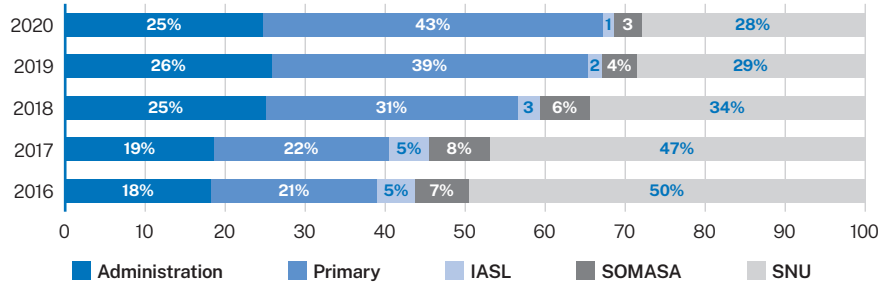
ance, which is already a challenge for the Higher Education Commission, owing to its limited funding, cannot be practically implemented. In addition, the expenditure returns do not show any spending going towards research, which is a key aspect of tertiary education and is highlighted as one of the duties of higher education institutions in the General Education Act (MoECHE, 2017).

Table 3.11 Expenditure on higher education in Somalia (US$)

	2019	2020
Somali National University	3,870,834	4,825,594
Compensation to employees	3,641,894	4,547,435
Goods and services	228,940	278,159
As percentage		
Compensation to employees (%)	94.1	94.2
Goods and services (%)	5.9	5.8
Academy of Somali Language	241,389	249,623
Somali Academy of Sciences and Arts	848,157	589,309
Total	**4,960,380**	**5,664,526**

Source: Somali National University.

Figure 3.4 Public recurrent expenditure by sub-sector (%)



Source: Authors' computations based on data from FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

In the light of the consideration that the spending on administration is heavily linked to basic education, basic education thus consumed two-thirds of public recurrent resources in 2020, having increased from half of recurrent expenditure in 2016 (*Figure 3.4*). The spending on post-secondary education has mainly been on the Somali National University, the only public university in the country, and the expenditure on TVET at the administrative level has been limited. The government recently created the Commission for Higher Education to offer quality assurance to universities. However, lack of financing, as seen in the lack of spending on administrative functions at post-secondary level, together with lack of political will regarding the operations of the Commission will continue to undermine its full operationalization.

3.1.8 Average public expenditure on education per learner

Table 3.12 presents the decomposition of 2019 recurrent expenditure on education, with details on how much was spent on salaries, goods and services as well as grants and transfers at primary and secondary, post-secondary, TVET and university levels. We choose 2019 expenditure because of the corresponding availability of data on the number of students in public schools. These estimates show that out of the $11.4 million spent on salaries in 2019, $8.5 went towards teacher/instructor salaries, while more than $2.9 million went to administrators' salaries, mostly in basic education.

Table 3.12 Salary and non-salary expenditure by level of education, 2019 (US$)

	Teachers	Administrators	Salaries Sub-total	Goods and services	Grants and transfers	Total
Primary & secondary	4,273,488	2,837,873	7,111,361	723,551	1,032,311	8,867,223
Primary	4,273,488	133,807	4,407,295	392,464	559,940	5,359,698
Indeterminate	-	2,704,066	2,704,066	331,087	472,371	3,507,524
Post-secondary	4,215,129	4,283,350	4,283,350	169,502	248,966	4,701,818
TVET	-	68,221	68,221	10,265	15,078	93,564
University	4,215,129	4,215,129	4,215,129	159,237	233,888	4,608,254
Total	8,488,617	2,906,093	11,394,711	893,053	1,281,277	13,569,041

Source: Authors' computations based on data from FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

Public spending in Somalia favours learners in primary schools. In 2019, the government spent an average of $268 on each learner attending public primary school, $117 on each secondary school learner, and $2,280 on each student attending the Somali National University. Although there is some limited expenditure on TVET, there is no public TVET programme. Relative to the average wealth in the country, the spending per learner in primary schools is about 58 per cent of per capita GDP, falling to 25 per cent in the case of secondary school students, and in the case of university students, the spending is almost five times the per capita GDP. We observe that the figures for the spending on primary and secondary schools may not be a true reflection of the effort of government, as many learners from these lower levels of education have failed to come back to school following the 2017/2018 drought.

Table 3.13 Average spending per student in public institutions, 2019

	Recurrent expenditure (US$)				Students	Spending per student		
	Salaries	Goods	Grants	Total	(public)	US$	PCGDP	Coef
Primary	6,272,021	620,782	885,687	7,778,490	29,078	268	57.5%	1.0
Secondary	839,340	102,769	146,624	1,088,733	9,307	117	25.2%	0.4
TVET	68,221	10,265	15,078	93,564	-	NA	NA	NA
University	4,215,129	159,237	233,888	4,608,254	2,021	2,280	489.2%	8.5
Total	**11,394,711**	**893,053**	**1,281,277**	**13,569,041**	**48,440**			

Source: Authors' computations based on data from FGS and FMS budget utilization reports.

3.2 Private spending on education

The discussion in Section 2 provided an overview of education service delivery in Somalia focusing on the contributions made by the education service providers. From this discussion, it was seen that education is largely private, with public education accounting for an average of 10 per cent of learners in general education (lower primary, upper primary, and secondary), and 11 per cent in higher education. This means that for 90 per cent of learners, education is largely the responsibility of their parents and guardians. Section 3.1 has demonstrated that even in public schools, the government's financial contribution is largely teacher salaries. It is therefore conceivable that school supplies in public schools are the responsibility of parents. These facts underscore the important role played by households in the provision of education in the country. In this section we discuss estimates of household contributions to education, based on the second wave of the High-Frequency Survey carried out in 2017. We compare expenditure on education with other consumption categories in the household, providing insights into the affordability of education at the household level. Besides the contributions from households, this section explores the direct spending by development partners on schools or support for the oversight of education delivery. The contributions of development partners are based on self-reported data obtained from the partners themselves. The findings presented in this sub-section, together with those on public expenditure, provide some overview of the expenditure incurred in keeping learners and students in school during an academic year. We emphasize that this focuses on expenditure and not not the standard unit resources required to deliver high-quality education services.

3.2.1 Household expenditure on education: Food and housing preoccupy households

Outlay on food tops household spending priorities, with education representing only a tiny fraction of household consumption. In 2017, the High-Frequency Survey estimated that households spent a total of $4.46 billion, with $3.23 billion of that going on food, which represented 72 per cent of household consumption (*Table 3.14*). The remaining $1.23 billion is estimated to have been spent on non-food items, which represented 28 per cent of the total household consumption. This highlights the consumption priorities in a poor country. The non-food consumption covers expenses like housing, education, health, household assets, leisure, etc. These results further indicate that households spent a total of $24 million on education in 2017, nearly seven times the $3.7 million spent by government in the same year on public schools; yet, like the government contribution, which is seen to be low, household expenditure on education is estimated to have been less than 1 per cent of the total household consumption and only 2 per cent of the total non-food consumption – another indication of the ranking of education in consumption hierarchy of households.

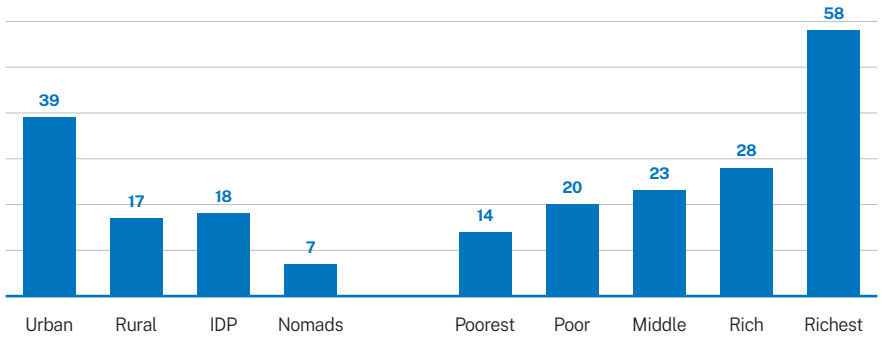
In households containing children and young people who attended school, non-food expenditure was slightly higher, at 31 per cent, with education expenditure accounting for 1.4 per cent of total household consumption and about 5 per cent of non-food consumption. The results further show that household expendi-

Table 3.14 Household expenditure on education compared to other needs among households with and without school-going children (US$)

	All households (with and w/o school-going children)	Households with school-going children
Household consumption	4,461,174,605	1,673,874,605
Food consumption	3,226,000,000	1,158,000,000
Non-food consumption	1,235,174,605	515,874,605
o/w spending on education	24,174,605	24,174,605
o/w spending on tuition	16,073,085	16,073,085
o/w spending on books	8,101,520	8,101,520
Non-food spending as % of HH cons.	28%	31%
Education as % of HH cons.	0.5%	1.4%
Education as % of non-food cons.	2.0%	4.7%

Source: High-Frequency Survey (World Bank, 2019a).
Note: HH cons. = household consumption.

Figure 3.5 Household expenditure on education by location, type of household and wealth quintile



Source: Authors' computations based on the High-Frequency Survey (World Bank, 2019a).

ture on education is focused on tuition and books, with households having spent $16 million on tuition in 2017, twice the amount spent on books ($8.1 million). The high-frequency survey does not delve into the details of the tuition expenditure, but like the government contribution, it is possibly focused on paying teachers, as estimated in *Table 3.15*.

The average household spending on a child or young person attending school is $28 annually, with marked disparities between different places of residence and socio-economic status. *Figure 3.5* illustrates the average spending per student attending school during the 2016/2017 school year. Results show huge differentials in the amounts spent on rural

and urban children as well as on children from rich and poor households. Urban households spent nearly $40 in 2017, more than double the amount spent by rural households and the households of IDPs, and more than five times the average spent by nomadic households. With respect to socio-economic status, the top 20 per cent of the households are estimated to have spent $58 on children attending school, four times higher than the spending by the poorest households ($14), and more than double the spending by households in the second-richest wealth quintile, highlighting the disproportionate privilege that children from relatively wealthy backgrounds have in the pursuit of education.

Complementary sources on private spending show that private primary and secondary schools paid an estimated $27.2 million to teachers, possibly contributed by households through school fees, which is nearly four times the $6.9 million the FGS spent on salaries for teachers in public primary and secondary schools.This appears to indicate the lower salaries that teachers in private schools earn, considering that 90 per cent of enrolments are in private schools but that the estimated salary bill is only four times the wage bill in public schools. Apart from the lower salaries that teachers in non-state schools have to contend with, there is also considerable variation in average teacher salaries between states, which raises an important question of equity and motivation of teachers, and how this could affect the delivery of their responsibilities in schools. In primary institutions, the average teacher salary in private schools is $124, ranging from a low of $83 in the South West state to a high of $150 in Banadir (almost double the average in South West). At secondary level, the gap is even wider, with teachers in South West paid an average of $146 compared to $248 paid to teachers in Galmudug.

Table 3.15 Teachers' wages in private schools, 2020 (US$)

State	Number of teachers		Average salary		Monthly wage bill		Annual wage bill
	Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary	
Banadir	3,534	4,312	150	212	529,796	914,265	17,328,726
Galmudug	838	362	128	248	106,879	89,676	2,358,654
Hirshabelle	627	285	123	210	77,385	59,915	1,647,594
Jubbaland	1,337	299	113	218	150,426	65,073	2,585,982
South West	1,870	796	83	146	155,280	116,466	3,260,940
Total	**8,206**	**6,054**	**124**	**206**	**1,019,765**	**1,245,394**	**27,181,896**

Source: Authors' computations based on data from the 2020 annual school census.

3.2.2 Direct spending on education by development partners

Off-budget support to education from development partners exceeds public expenditure on education. The long absence of a stable government in the country may have limited the opportunities and public channels for providing support to schoolchildren. Under these circumstances, the international community stepped in to fill this gap. In addition to the support provided through the treasury single source account, which was enumerated in Section 3.1, education development partners spent nearly $20 million on education in 2020, almost doubling their aggregate expenditure in 2018 ($10.5 million, see *Table 3.16*). The growth in development partners' direct engagement was particularly large between 2019 and 2020; an 82 per cent increase in expenditure is recorded. Comparison between public spending on education and the off-budget expenditure by development partners shows that the latter outspent the government by nearly $2.6 million: their spending was equivalent to 114 per cent of the public spending. This certainly underscores the importance of development partners to the delivery of education in the country. Similar to the growing list of development partners providing direct budget support (on the public expenditure side), we note an additional two organizations adding to the off-budget side since 2019, with considerable additional portfolios – Adam Smith International with nearly $1 million in 2020 and Care Somalia with nearly $1.8 million since 2019. The consolidated off-budget spending only reflects the information shared by partners during the ESA process; which may not be exhaustive of all the resources spent off-budget by the development partners.

Table 3.16 Off-budget expenditure on education by development partners

Agency	2018	2019	2020
Adam Smith International	-	-	969,418
ADRA	2,106,635	2,265,649	2,315,330
American Refugee Committee	548,095	599,468	805,163
Care Somalia	-	584,020	1,205,665
Concern Worldwide	611,273	604,307	3,269,527
Norwegian Church Aid	570,320	1,085,054	1,079,632
Save the Children	968,000	741,500	3,183,201
Trocaire	173,499	256,518	384,748
UNHCR	1,919,834	1,113,520	369,758
UNICEF	3,562,047	3,713,762	6,386,088
Total	**10,459,703**	**10,963,797**	**19,968,531**

Source: Compilations from development partners' expenditure reports.

3.2.2.1 Off-budget expenditure by state of coverage

Development partners' off-budget support to education is focused on Jubbaland and South West state. Of the $20 million of off-budget support to education from development partners, $8.5 million was not given to a specific region or state. The balance of $11.5 million has clear budget definition of the state in which the support was executed, and allows for assessment of where the development partners' direct weight is placed (*Table 3.17*). We observe that of the $11.5 million, Galmudug received the least support, at $190,000, while Jubbaland received the most, at nearly $4 million. In fact, the support given to Jubbaland and South West state in 2020 accounted for two-thirds of the off-budget spending (when considering expenditure where the FMS of implementation is defined).

Table 3.17 Off-budget expenditure on education by state

FMS	2018	2019	2020
Banadir	498,420	965,200	1,891,581
Galmudug	138,540	250,860	189,974
Hirshabelle	333,110	0	622,750
Jubbaland	2,704,071	3,082,853	3,911,863
MoECHE	228,102	966,606	1,007,366
South West	2,934,729	1,507,640	3,866,219
Undefined	3,622,730	4,190,637	8,478,778
Total	**10,459,703**	**10,963,797**	**19,968,531**

Source: Compilations from development partners' expenditure reports.

Among the FMSs, Banadir Regional Administration was the last to be established, with its operations beginning in 2019. A look at the support received directly from development partners shows that Banadir recorded the largest growth during the past three years, increasing from nearly $500,000 in 2018 to about $2 million in 2020. To put this in context, the support to Banadir Regional Administration in 2020 was more than the government's total expenditure on education in 2016. Also notable is the general growth of direct support in all states, possibly an indication of a desire to make FMS-level administration work.

3.2.2.2 Off-budget spending on education by expenditure type

Development partners are contributing significantly towards capital expenditure, yet this is unlikely to fill the gap occasioned by non-investment by the government. In Section 3.1, we observed the lack of government expenditure on capital projects or programmes. The High-Frequency Survey also recorded no expenditure on infrastructure development from households. The absence of development expenditure from these two streams leaves a huge lack of infrastructure, which is necessary for the continuity of learning, not only

in public schools but in private schools as well. The data presented by development partners, however, show that out of the $20 million spent on education in 2020, nearly $3.9 million was spent on infrastructure and related items, accounting for 19 per cent of the total off-budget support. Further details show that unlike the government spending, whose limited capital expenditure was focused on central and administrative offices, development partners provided infrastructure support directly to schools. Another notable observation is that in 2020, when the government's seemingly rising capital expenditure on education dropped, perhaps because of a budget reorganization caused by COVID-19, development partners added more than $1 million in support to capital investments, rising from $2.73 million in 2019 to $3.9 million in 2020. What we do see though is that even though the volume of development expenditure increased, its share in the total off-budget support has been coming down, indicating a larger increase in support for recurrent spending.

Table 3.18 Off-budget expenditure on education by type (US$)

	2018	2019	2020
Recurrent	6,441,633	8,231,197	16,105,397
Development	4,018,070	2,732,600	3,863,134
Total	10,459,703	10,963,797	19,968,531
% Development	38.4%	24.9%	19.3%

Source: Compilations from development partners' expenditure reports.

The larger part of off-budget spending on capital is focused on construction and refurbishment of classrooms, with the rest focused on water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) and recreational facilities (see *Table 3.19*). In 2020 for instance, development partners spent $2.3 million on classrooms, accounting for 76 per cent of their capital spending. We also observe that in 2018, considerable resources were spent by development partners on the rehabilitation of classrooms, nearly $1.2 million out of the $4 million spent on development, or 39 per cent of the resources spent on classrooms overall. In 2019 and 2020, the spending returns show that more and more resources were dedicated to the construction of new classrooms, the share rising from 61 per cent in 2018 to 79 per cent in 2020.

Table 3.19 Capital off-budget expenditure on education

	2018	2019	2020
Construction of classrooms	1,826,435	1,508,419	2,320,109
Refurbishment of classrooms	1,178,560	548,000	617,300
WASH and recreational facilities	1,013,075	676,181	925,725
Total	4,018,070	2,732,600	3,863,134
% Classroom construction/refurbishment	74.8%	75.3%	76.0%
% Towards new construction	60.8%	73.4%	79.0%

Source: Compilations from development partners' expenditure reports.

The public education system is reeling from decades of neglect and requires expansion in order to provide education to the thousands of children and young people who are eligible for school. The expenditure structure followed by the development partners seems to be aligned to this priority, with details of expenditure showing growth in the number of classrooms constructed or refurbished (*Table 3.20*). This needs complementary effort from the government to ensure its expansion ambitions are not just on paper.

Table 3.20 Capital off-budget expenditure on education

	2018	2019	2020
Construction/ refurbishment of classrooms	407	372	461
WASH and recreational facilities	10,184	12,445	8,496

Source: Compilations from development partners' expenditure reports.

3.2.2.3 Recurrent off-budget support by expenditure item

Salaries, together with teaching and learning materials, account for two-thirds of the recurrent off-budget expenditure by development partners. In Section 3.1, we note that the government recurrent expenditure was mostly on salaries of teachers and administrative staff. In the case of households, two-thirds of the contributions from families were on tuition (presumably used for paying teachers). By contrast, for development partners, direct recurrent expenditure covers salaries for teaching and non-teaching staff, capacity development, school meals, grants for school improvement, and school supplies, among other things, as seen in *Table 3.21*. In 2020, development partners spent a total of $16.1 million on recurrent items, which was nearly double the amount spent in 2018.

Out of the $16.1 million spent on recurrent items in 2020, teaching and learning materials consumed $6.15 million while teacher salaries accounted for $4.05 million, both accounting for nearly two-thirds of the recurrent off-budget spending. Development partners also supported school improvement to the tune of $1.4 million, based on priorities identified by the schools. One of the outstanding challenges for the sector is that in spite of this considerable spending on learning materials by households and development partners, pupil/textbook ratios in public schools, according to the annual school census data, remain high, with the best scenario being four children sharing an Arabic textbook (see Section 4 on school resources for in-depth discussion on pupil/textbook ratios).

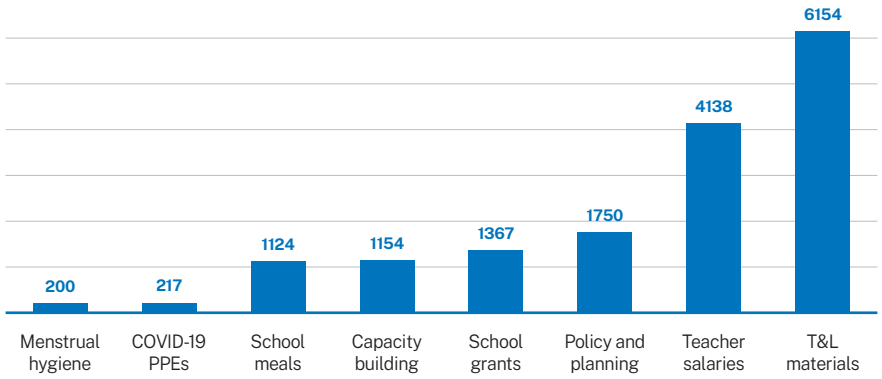
In addition to the direct spending on schools, development partners also facilitated policy planning and coordination at the MoECHE to the tune of $1.75, which accounted for 11 per cent of the total recurrent expenditure. Although not included in the data compiled from the development partners, almost all the direct expenditure from development partners focused on primary education, underscoring the main priority of the government and development partners, but also raising critical questions about the state of other sub-sectors, which are hardly receive any funding from the government.

Table 3.21 Recurrent off-budget expenditure on education

	2018	2019	2020
Capacity development and awareness	1,089,829	1,122,498	1,154,423
Remuneration of support staff	11,900	26,688	90,043
Remuneration of teachers	2,555,210	2,729,518	4,048,106
Policy and planning support	239,222	680,251	1,750,165
Response to COVID-19 hygiene	-	-	217,185
School grants and related	1,225,998	1,265,013	1,367,446
School meals	428,640	990,399	1,123,661
Support to girls' hygiene	25,712	174,804	200,302
Teaching and learning materials	865,122	1,242,026	6,154,066
Total	**6,441,633**	**8,231,197**	**16,105,397**

Source: Compilations of development partners' expenditure reports.

Figure 3.6 Off-budget expenditure on education by development partners (US$ thousands)



Source: Compilations from development partners' expenditure reports

3.3 Chapter summary

The country is shedding a difficult past, and it was always going to be difficult to change the financing landscape immediately, which becomes evident from the findings of this section. Although the government has made tremendous progress in increasing its commitment to education, the overall financing of education remains much lower than the recommended spending for countries pursuing SDG 4. Moreover, in the case of Somalia, the proportion of public schooling in the education sector remains generally low, although it is increasing, and perhaps the share of public financing should be read with this in mind. Somalis are dependent on remittances to access goods and services locally, including education. By volume, there is a large contribution coming from households towards education. Even though the contribution is only a small fraction of household expenditure, the household contribution is very high compared to the resources spent by government. In addition to government and household spending, development partners directly support the development and expansion of the sector, with this contribution exceeding the resources spent by the government.

Based on the present needs of the sector in terms of reconstruction and expansion, this section establishes that a lot needs to be done if the promise of education is to be fulfilled for all children and young people in the country. A clear resource mobilization mechanism for the sector is needed. Besides, there is a need to engage with development partners and build their confidence in government systems so that education investment can be pooled for better results. The low public expenditure on education is partially attributable to low compliance on approved budgets. In 2020 alone, 40 per cent of the approved budget was not executed. Even though overall public expenditure remains small, the non-executed budget could nearly double the resources available for running programmes in the sector. This is an area where MoECHE would need to engage with its counterpart in the Ministry of Finance to find a systemic solution and ensure effectiveness of budgeting process.

The limited expenditure in the sector is focused on primary education and the Somali National University, leaving other important sub-sectors without clear public financial footing. This raises an important question of equity as well as calling into question the effectiveness of the delivery of high-quality education, especially in early childhood education, secondary, and tertiary education. The government is in the process of reviving professional technical schools, which will help equip students in secondary schools with skills that are in demand in the labour market. This will further enhance the efficiency of education from an external point of view and is the very reason for which education is established – to produce skilled graduates who then transition to the labour market.

The broad reconstruction of the country is predicated on the political solution of devolving responsibilities to the FMSs. The effectiveness of this solution is dependent on a commitment to devolve resources alongside responsibilities. With nearly three-quarters of 2020 expenditure being executed at the FGS level, the effectiveness of decentralization is being called into question. The established structures at FMS level are not accompanied by a decentralization of budget and revenue. There may be a need for further dialogue on how to strengthen the FMSs in carrying out their functions, which should include having them execute the larger part of the expenditure on education.

Chapter 4
Quality of education and management of resources

The effectiveness of an education system can be assessed both in terms of outputs, in the form of student learning outcomes, and of inputs, in terms of its infrastructure and management. This section seeks to examine both elements, first considering student achievement in the Grade 8 and Form 4 national exams. Secondly, it explores the management of the education system, including teacher distribution, school infrastructure, and learning materials, so as to assess the strength and efficiency of the current structure. For learning outcomes, data originate from the FMSs and FGS, while for teachers and infrastructure, the majority of data are based on EMIS data, complemented by the 2019 GPE school mapping. This section considers schools according to authority type, rather than ownership type, as was discussed in Section 2. This is reflective of the role of the FMSs prior to 2019, which saw them provide management support and guidance, rather than financial contributions. As such, public schools in this section refer to those that are under government authority according to the 2019 EMIS. This further allows the section to consider the nuances related to school authority type by also including community schools alongside public and private schools, as best characterisizes the system as it was in 2019.

4.1 Student learning outcomes

Because of the recent reconstruction of the Somali state and the evolving nature of its education system, there exist only two sources of data on learning outcomes, both originating from standard exams, with Grade 8 exams administered at the FMS level and Form 4 exams at the FGS level. Furthermore, both sets of exam data are historically limited, with Grade 8 state-level exam data only available for the 2019/2020 school year as this was the first year the examination was introduced, while Form 4 exam data are available from the inception of the examination in 2015 to the present. That these learning assessments began not long ago, has affected their uptake, limiting the comparability of trends over time. As such, it is appropriate to consider results as a snapshot of current learning trends rather than as comprehensive indicators of the quality or evolution of the system.

4.1.1 End of primary school examinations: Strong performance and coverage in 2020

Grade 8 examinations are taken at the end of the primary cycle and a pass is necessary for a student to progress to secondary education. They are taken across seven subjects, with a pass awarded according to a total across all seven, meaning that students can fail one or more examinations on a subject level, and still pass overall. According to 2020 enrolment figures, the great majority of students enrolled in Grade 8 classes across the country took the final examination in the 2019/2020 school year. This ranges from a low of 91 per cent of all enrolled students in Galmudug, to a high of 100 per cent in Hirshabelle (see *Table 4.1*).

From a gender perspective, the majority of students sitting Grade 8 examinations in 2020 were male, at 59 per cent, with female students representing 41 per cent (see *Table 4.2*). Female representation varies across states, with a low of 35 per cent seen in Hirshabelle. In general, there is lower female representation across the board, which is reflective of the lower levels of female enrolment.

The large majority of Grade 8 students passed the national exam in 2020. Pass rates were high across all states, with a high of 99.5 per cent of all students passing in South West state, and a national average of 90 per cent (see *Table 4.3*).

Across states, average scores were highest in Somali and social studies, with students achieving an average of above

Table 4.1 Learners enrolled in Grade 8 vis-à-vis examination candidates, 2020

FMS	Enrolled in Grade 8	Examination candidates	% of enrolled who took exams
Banadir	26,525	25,426	95.9%
Galmudug	2,573	2,334	90.7%
Hirshabelle	2,806	2,808	100.1%
Jubbaland	2,307	2,285	99.0%
South West	6,077	5,761	94.8%
Total	**40,288**	**38,614**	**95.8%**

Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data, 2020.

Table 4.2 Primary examination candidates by gender, 2020

FMS	Female	Male	Total	% Female
Banadir	11,046	14,380	25,426	43.4%
Galmudug	972	1,362	2,334	41.6%
Hirshabelle	989	1,819	2,808	35.2%
Jubbaland	856	1,429	2,285	37.5%
South West	2,156	3,605	5,761	37.4%
Total	**16,019**	**22,595**	**38,614**	**41.5%**

Source: Authors' calculations based on FGS data, 2020.

Table 4.3 Primary examination pass rates, 2020

FMS	Sitting candidates	Candidates who passed	Pass rate (%)
Banadir	25,426	22,146	87.1
Galmudug	2,334	2,177	93.3
Hirshabelle	2,808	2,638	93.9
Jubbaland	2,285	2,026	88.7
South West	5,761	5,730	99.5
Total	**38,614**	**34,717**	**89.9**

Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data, 2020.

67 per cent in both subjects. Conversely, English had the lowest overall average score, at 55 per cent, followed by Islamic studies at 60 per cent (see *Table 4.4*). Across all subjects, most of the average scores in the different states were above 50 per cent (the pass level), with only Islamic studies in Galmudug and English in Banadir falling below this point. South West state had the highest overall scores, with an average of 78 per cent across all subjects, leading to the highest pass rate overall, as exhibited in *Table 4.3*. Banadir had the lowest scores, with an average of 59 per cent across all subjects, contributing to the second-lowest overall pass rate. Low levels of achievement in English can be seen as a result of historical undervaluation of the subject, with Somalis tending to place greater emphasis on Somali and Arabic languages, often as a result of national pride. While this is changing as a result of the influx of INGOs into the country and the growing Somali diaspora, teachers today may still lack adequate English language skills, which has spillover effects on current learning outcomes.

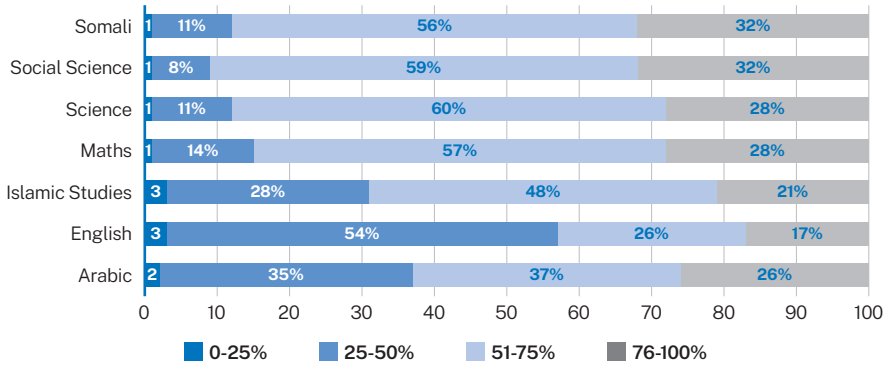
Breaking down grades further (see *Figure 4.1*), English emerges clearly as the subject in which students exhibited the weakest performance, being the only subject to see the majority of students fail. However, this average is deflated by particularly low grades in English in Banadir state, where 78 per cent of students failed this subject, compared to only 36 per cent in Galmudug, 10 per cent in Hirshabelle, 10 per cent in Jubbaland and 11 per cent in South West state. Arabic scores are also low, with 35 per cent of students scoring between 26 and 50 per cent. Looking at this regionally,

Table 4.4 Mean score per subject in primary examination, 2020

	Banadir	Galmudug	Hirshabelle	South West	Jubbaland	Average
Islamic studies	59.0	36.9	64.5	72.2	61.6	60.2
Arabic	53.9	56.7	77.7	86.9	68.4	61.5
Social science	62.9	62.0	72.5	83.7	72.6	67.2
Somali	62.9	78.0	73.9	76.7	79.4	67.6
Science	60.4	71.2	79.3	79.5	75.8	66.2
English	47.3	55.9	73.4	74.1	73.5	55.3
Maths	64.0	73.3	69.6	71.7	46.9	65.2
Overall	**58.6**	**62.8**	**73.2**	**77.8**	**64.4**	**59.3**

Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS exam data.

Figure 4.1 Distribution of grades in primary exams by subject, 2020

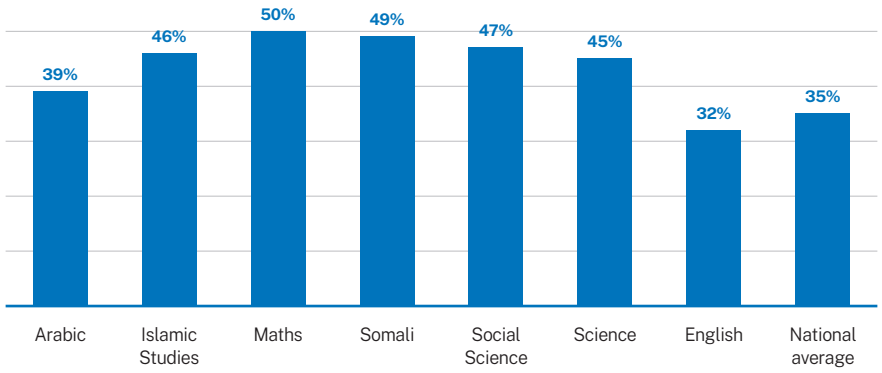


Source: Authors' calculation based on FGS data, 2020.

low Arabic scores are predominately seen in Banadir, with 48 per cent of students scoring in the 26–50 per cent bracket, and Galmudug with 34 per cent of students scoring in this bracket, in sharp contrast with South West state where 87 per cent of students scored in the 75–100 per cent bracket. This shows large disparities in achievement across states. Furthermore, the low pass rates in Banadir are particularly concerning, given the population size of this region and the concentration of wealth. Social science and Somali are observed to be the strongest subjects, with the highest proportion of students scoring in the 76–100 per cent bracket, at 33 per cent and 32 per cent respectively. This may be caused by the greater number of teachers who specialize in these areas, in comparison to science and maths.

There is parity in pass rates between female and male students, with female students outperforming male students in three subjects. Female students outperformed males in science, Somali and maths (see *Table 4.5*). The lowest levels of parity were seen in English, with

Figure 4.2 Share of students scoring above the national averages, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on FGS data, 2020.

nearly 5 per cent more male students passing this subject than female ones, even though this subject was also seeing the lowest overall pass rates overall. As such, because more males are seen to be taking the exam than females, gender is not seen to have large effects on grades achieved. It must be noted that we are unable to differentiate between urban, rural, and nomadic populations in examination results. As such, future iterations of the examination system would do well to include this indicator so that gendered aspects of learning outcomes in these communities can be considered further.

Across all subjects, the majority of students scoredabove the national average of 35 per cent, demonstrating that, despite high pass rates, students are demonstrating average, rather than exceptional performance. English is the subject in which the lowest proportion of students scored above the national average, again reflecting the difficulties students had in this particular subject area. Low levels of English achievement bring into question the usefulness of including this language alongside Arabic and Somali in the standard curriculum.

Table 4.5 Gender parity in pass rates by subject, 2020 (% and GPI)

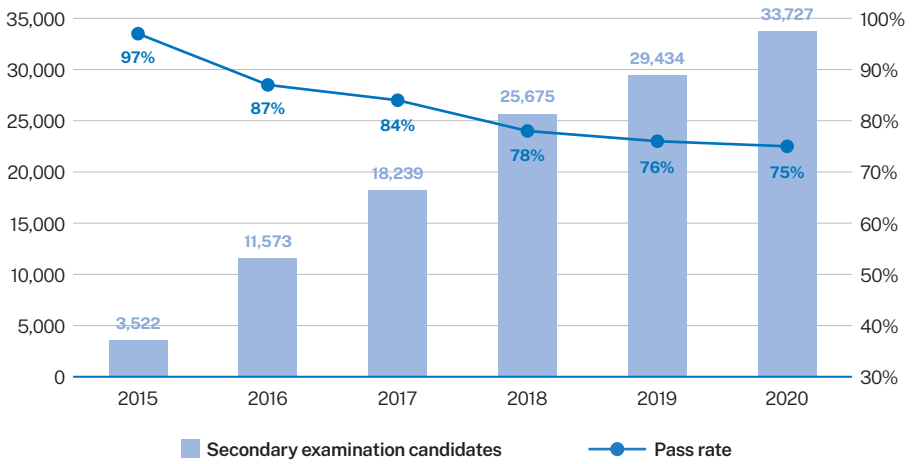
	Male (%)	Female (%)	GPI
Islamic studies	71	69	0.97
Social science	39	35	0.89
Arabic	65	61	0.95
Science	87	88	1.01
Maths	84	85	1.01
English	45	40	0.88
Somali	87	88	1.01
Overall	**90**	**90**	**1.00**

Source: Authors calculation based on FGS data, 2020.
Note: GPI = Gender Parity Index.

4.1.2 End of secondary school examinations: Patchy coverage and declining performance

Pass rates in the end of secondary school examinations declined from a high of 97 per cent in 2015 to a low of 75 per cent in 2020. Form 4 examinations mark the end of the secondary school cycle and have been carried out since 2015. The full examination is made up of 10 subjects, with the average score calculated according to a student's top seven scores, and a pass awarded if this meets or exceeds 50 per cent. The number of students sitting the Form 4 examinations has increased by 858 per cent since 2015. The decline in pass rates over the same time period can be attributed to the standardization of the exam process, including improvements in quality and supervision and a reduction in malpractice.

Figure 4.3 Evolution of candidates and pass rates in end of secondary school examinations, 2015–2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data.

The increase in the number of students sitting the Form 4 exam has not been consistent with the increase in Form 4 enrolment. Instead, the number of candidates exceeded total enrolment in 2016 and 2019. This may be explained by the fact that students from previous years, including those who completed school before the creation of the Form 4 exam, have been returning to sit the exam after having officially graduated, so as to obtain the certificate, which has since become necessary for admission to higher education institutions. This is also linked to repeaters, who might not be included in present enrolment figures, sitting the exam, as was also the case at Grade 8.

While female students made up less than 40 per cent of all students sitting the Form 4 exam in 2020 (see *Table 4.7*), their numbers have been growing at a faster pace than those of male students, having more than doubled since 2017, while the number of male candidates has increased by 74 per cent.

Table 4.6 Students enrolled in Form 4 vis-à-vis candidates, 2015–2020

FMS	Students enrolled in Form 4	Examination candidates	% of enrolled who took exams
2015	n.d.	3,522	NA
2016	14,016	11,573	82.6%
2017	16,743	18,239	108.9%
2018	n.d.	25,675	NA
2019	21,544	29,434	136.6%
2020	34,716	33,727	97.2%

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS and exam data, 2015-2020.

Table 4.7 Evolution of secondary exam candidates by gender, 2017–2020

	Female	Male	Total	% Female
2017	6,175	12,064	18,239	33.9
2018	9,123	16,552	25,675	35.5
2019	10,850	18,584	29,434	36.9
2020	12,720	21,007	33,727	37.7

Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data, 2020.

Table 4.8 Gender parity in secondary examination pass rates, 2020 (% and GPI)

Subject	% of females who passed	% of males who passed	GPI
Somali	97.0	95.1	1.02
Geography	90.5	91.9	0.98
Chemistry	71.3	72.4	0.98
English	93.2	93.3	1.00
Maths	73.0	75.1	0.97
Arabic	79.3	79.2	1.00
Biology	59.8	60.5	0.99
History	93.0	94.6	0.98
Physics	82.0	82.3	1.00
Islamic studies	69.1	71.8	0.96
Average	**73.9**	**75.1**	**0.98**

Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data, 2020.
Note: GPI = Gender Parity Index.

There are no gender differentials in the pass rates for the end of secondary school examinations. Exact gender parity was achieved in three out of ten subjects in 2020–physics, Arabic, and English–with all subjects falling within the range of 0.95–1.05.

Mean scores have never fallen below 50 per cent for any subject over the six-year period, demonstrating consistently high grades. All subjects except English have seen a decrease in the average score over time, although these declines have not been linear (see *Table 4.9*). The year 2017 stands out as a high-performing one, with peak scores being reached in history, biology, Somali and geography. Somali and history stand out as the two subjects with consistently high averages. The mean scores were 72 per cent and 68 per cent respectively from across the six years. Conversely, maths stands out as the subject with the lowest mean scores, with a six-year average of 56 per cent, followed by chemistry at 60 per cent. It is important to note that the mean scores have never fallen below 50 per cent for any subject over the six-year period, which demonstrates the consistency of high performance, alongside the expansion in the total number of students sitting the examination.

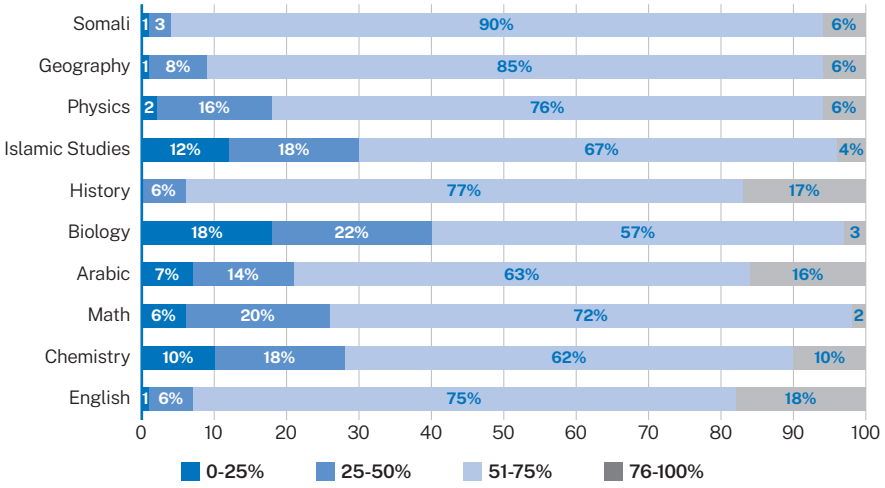
Table 4.9 Mean score per subject in secondary examination, 2015–2020 (%)

Subject	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	Six-year average
Somali	78.6	77.3	78.0	63.6	65.9	66.6	71.7
Physics	64.1	68.3	62.1	69.1	56.5	60.1	63.4
History	68.4	66.6	76.2	65.9	61.9	67.7	67.8
Biology	65.4	55.0	72.9	60.3	53.5	46.9	59.0
Arabic	69.8	54.5	63.1	55.9	68.3	60.6	62.0
Maths	59.1	61.3	52.8	52.4	53.7	55.3	55.8
English	60.4	62.2	49.5	63.8	68.2	67.7	62.0
Chemistry	59.0	58.9	60.5	67.0	59.1	55.3	60.0
Geography	53.1	55.8	81.3	69.7	65.2	64.4	61.6
Overall	**70.3**	**70.2**	**70.0**	**69.8**	**67.0**	**66.0**	**68.9**

Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data, 2020.

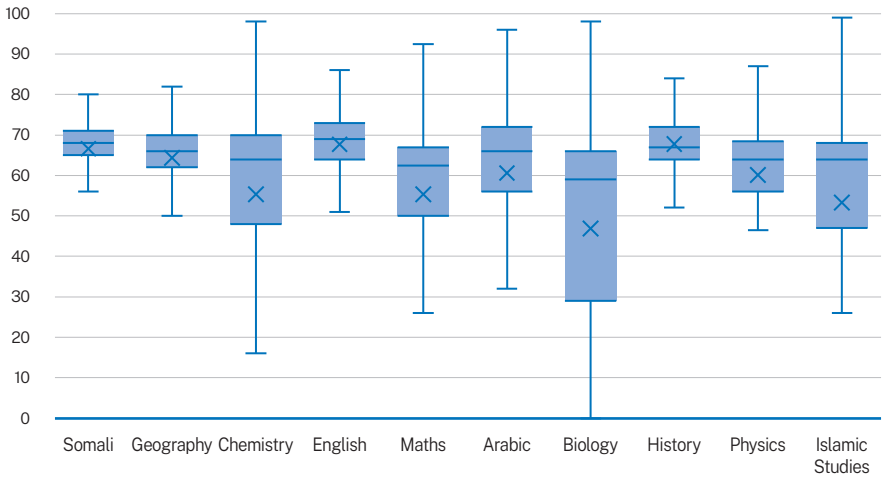
There is no subject where the majority of students failed. Biology had the highest proportion of students scoring in the lowest category (0–25 per cent), at 18 per cent, and the largest proportion of students (40 per cent) failing this subject, at (see *Figure 4.4*). This differs from longer-term trends, in which chemistry and maths are seen to have the lowest averages over time. The subjects with the highest proportion of excellent marks (over 75 per cent) were English and history, with 18 per cent and 17 per cent of students scoring between 76 and 100 per cent in these subjects respectively.

Figure 4.4 Distribution of grades in end of secondary examinations by subject, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data, 2020.

Figure 4.5 Distribution of grades in secondary exams by subject, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on FMS data.

Figure 4.5 demonstrates the grade range by subject for 2020, with the top and bottom lines indicating the highest and lowest score per subject. The boxes indicate the difference between the first and third quartiles, with 50 per cent of scores therefore falling within this range, and the line across indicating the mean. It is clear that physics and chemistry have the widest ranges of, evidencing a large difference between the strongest and weakest student performances. Conversely, Somali, history and geography are seen to have smaller ranges, indicating higher proportions of students scoring around the mean.

Overall, examination outcomes in both primary and secondary institutions are strongly positive, with the majority of students passing both the Grade 8 and Form 4 examinations. This is a hopeful indication for the quality of education being offered in schools.

4.2 Teacher management

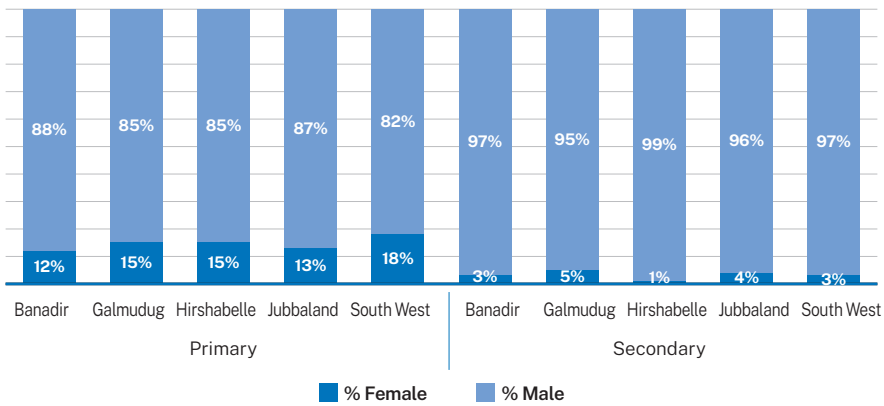
Teachers lie at the heart of every education system and are a key factor in the quality of learning. It is therefore imperative to evaluate a system's ability to manage its teachers, as well as looking at the characteristics of the teachers themselves, when assessing the quality of education. This section reviews teacher characteristics at an individual level, including gender and qualifications, as well as the ability of the FMSs to manage their teachers efficiently in terms of deployment and payment of salaries.

4.2.1 Characteristics of teachers: A young, male-dominated teaching force

4.2.1.1 Gender of teachers: Males dominate the profession

Male teachers account for more than 80 per cent of the total teaching force in primary and secondary schools. *Figure 4.6* presents the distribution of teachers by gender, level at which they teach (primary or secondary), and FMS. Across all the FMSs and at both levels of education, men dominate the teaching force. Primary schools tend to have a greater proportion of female teachers, with an average of 14 per cent, compared to secondary schools, where female teachers account for only 3 per cent of the teaching staff. The low representation of females in the teaching profession can be related to a wide variety of factors, including an observed preference of females in other professions such as health and social work, as discussed further in Section 5. There are further cultural barriers to females entering the teaching profession, as well as barriers related to employment terms and conditions, with the government aiming to improve benefits such as maternity leave in order to encourage more women to become teachers. Furthermore, the higher representation at the primary level can be seen as an outcome of the security context in the country, with female teachers feeling safer in primary schools, whose young children are less frequently the

Figure 4.6 Proportion of teachers in primary and secondary schools, by gender and FMS, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2020.

targets of attacks. The under-representation of females in the teaching profession has been noted and prioritized in current policy, with an all-female teacher training institute to be opened in late 2021, with the aim of creating greater levels of parity in years to come.

4.2.1.2 Teacher qualifications: Evolving system with unsettling levels of qualification

The official teacher training policy introduced in 2020 outlines that to be considered a qualified teacher in Somalia at primary level, individuals must have completed secondary education, taken an 18-month to two-year primary teacher training course resulting in either a postgraduate diploma in education or a teacher training diploma, completed a mandatory period of practical teaching, and passed the requisite examination (MoECHE, 2020). Primary teachers are also considered qualified if they have completed a Bachelors or Masters degree in Education. Secondary school teachers are required to undertake a degree course that may take up to four years, resulting in a Bachelor of Education degree. There is also the option for secondary teachers to complete a two-year postgraduate diploma in education, followed by additional practical in-class training. (MoECHE, 2020).

At both levels, the definition of qualified only graduates trained specifically in education, and does not consider others who have attained diplomas or degrees in other subjects. As such, we consider them 'underqualified', indicating teachers who have attained diplomas or degrees in subjects other than education. While underqualification is not considered in official policy, it is added here due to the large proportion of teachers who fall into this category, as well as the trigger for different policy targeting (i.e. skills upgrading versus initial training). At the secondary level, this also includes those teachers who have completed a teacher training diploma, which is not considered an adequate qualification for this level of education. In this way, completely unqualified teachers are those who have completed no tertiary education; only having completed primary or secondary education.

Only 1 in 3 teachers in primary schools is considered to be qualified, with the remainder being either underqualified or unqualified. *Table 4.10* presents the distribution of teachers across different types of primary school according to their category of qualification. The results show that overall only 35 per cent of teachers in community schools are qualified, only 36 per cent in public schools and only 35 per cent in private schools. There are large variations across the states in these proportions, ranging from a low of 5 per cent in private schools in Jubbaland, to a high of 51 per cent in public schools in Hirshabelle. Jubbaland stands out as having particularly low levels of qualified teachers in government-supported schools, at 19 per cent, and private schools, at 5 per cent. There is no clear trend observed between types if school, with public and private schools having the same average rate of qualified teachers, at 35 per cent. The share of underqualified teachers is equally high, averaging 20 per cent in community schools, 16 per cent in public schools, and 24 per cent in private schools, with considerable variation across states and types of school. This suggests that the teacher policy should favour offering in-service

teacher training to teachers who have no formal qualifications, alongside pedagogical training opportunities in order to provide teaching-specific qualifications to those who lack them. Significant attention should be given to staff in Jubbaland, where over 50 per cent of teachers are unqualifed. The low rates of qualification in Jubbaland can be considered surprising, given it is the only FMS outside Banaadir to have a national teacher-training institution. The disparities in the share of qualified teachers across the FMSs may reduce access to high-quality education, although there is no documented evidence of this in Somalia.

Table 4.10 Qualified, underqualified, and unqualified primary school teachers, 2019, by state and type of school (%)

	Community			Public Authority			Private		
	Qualified	Underqualified	Unqualified	Qualified	Underqualified	Unqualified	Qualified	Underqualified	Unqualified
Banadir	17	38	46	34	26	39	41	28	31
Galmudug	40	17	43	29	20	51	48	10	42
Hirshabelle	47	15	38	51	19	30	40	25	36
Jubbaland	N/A	N/A	N/A	19	18	63	5	42	53
South West	38	17	45	49	0	51	40	15	44
Average	**35**	**20**	**45**	**36**	**16**	**48**	**35**	**24**	**41**

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

Proportions of qualified teachers are generally lower at the secondary level, an element which can be attributed to the fact that teachers in these institutions need higher levels of education to be considered qualified. This is further reflected in the higher proportion of underqualified teachers at secondary level, where many teachers only have a teacher training diploma; however, this is not accepted as an adequate qualification at this level (see *Table 4.11*). This explains the higher rates of underqualification observed. The relative novelty of the teacher training policy may mean that some schools are unaware of the need for secondary teachers to have a Bachelor's degree to be considered qualified, or that many of these teachers were in post before this policy was introduced and have not been given an opportunity to increase their level of qualification. Public secondary schools have some of the lowest rates of qualified teachers, with only 19 per cent of secondary teachers in Jubbaland being qualified. This suggests that at secondary level, a greater emphasis could be placed on upskilling underqualified teachers, especially those with teacher training certificates, as well as training the large proportions that remain unqualified.

Table 4.11 Qualified, underqualified, and unqualified secondary school teachers by FMS and type of school, 2019 (%)

	Community			Public Authority			Private		
	Qualified	Underqualified	Unqualified	Qualified	Underqualified	Unqualified	Qualified	Underqualified	Unqualified
Banaadir	30	48	22	7	68	25	20	51	29
Galmudug	14	60	26	12	43	45	37	33	29
Hirshabelle	38	13	49	14	60	27	46	19	35
Jubbaland	N/A	N/A	N/A	11	34	56	N/A	N/A	N/A
South West	13	61	25	33	30	36	17	47	36
Average	**24**	**46**	**31**	**15**	**47**	**38**	**30**	**38**	**32**

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

Since 2018, the MoECHE has been putting teachers onto the government payroll – a key step in the process of developing public education in the country. Currently, there are 50 teachers in each of the four FMSs (Galmudug, Hirshabelle, Jubbaland, and South West states) who are paid by the government, and a further 752 in Banadir. While these teachers are all employed in public institutions, some of them are paid by private-sector bodies or through international organizations such as the World Bank. Among the 952 teachers who receive their salaries directly from the government, mixed levels of qualifications are observed, with South West state having the highest proportion of teachers with a Bachelor's degree in education, at 56 per cent, and Hirshabelle having the highest proportion of teachers with no higher education, at 46 per cent (see *Table 4.12*). As it is not clear whether teachers are working at the primary or secondary level, we are unable to comment on rates of qualification at the different levels. However, all states except South West state exhibit high rates of underqualified teachers, with 20–30 per cent of teachers holding degrees but not having any pedagogical training.

Table 4.12 Distribution of government-paid teachers by academic training, 2020 (%)

	Bachelor's degree in education	Bachelor's degree in another subject	Diploma in another subject	Diploma in education	Secondary education	No Qualification
Banadir	34	22	0	27	13	4
Galmudug	42	22	8	22	0	6
Hirshabelle	20	20	6	8	46	0
Jubbaland	24	30	2	32	0	0
South West	56	2	0	30	12	0

Source: FMS teacher payroll data, 2020.

It is important to note that teacher training is currently evolving and is not standardized, and that there is no uniform teacher training curriculum in the country. The MoECHE is attempting to change this through its new Teacher Policy, introduced in 2020, which promise the development of a detailed teacher-training syllabus to be used in approved teacher-training institutions. In the meantime, the quality of training provided at existing institutions is widely variable, often resulting in a lack of pedagogical skill and subject knowledge. In this way, proportions of qualified teachers are not necessarily the best reflection of teaching quality in Somalia, reflecting educational attainment rather than practical teaching skills.

As part of the MoECHE's efforts to standardize and improve teacher training, all teachers were required to take a Teacher Proficiency Testing (TPT) in 2019/2020, in order to identify future training needs. The results of this test, which was administered across all FMSs, highlight the gap between qualifications and teacher performance. In particular, low knowledge levels across both secondary and primary school teachers are apparent, with secondary teachers performing better across the majority of subjects (see *Tables 4.13* and *4.14*). Pedagogy is seen to be the weakest area of knowledge for both primary and secondary teachers, with an average pass rate of 18 and 32 per cent respectively, suggesting a lack of coverage of this subject in existing teacher-training courses. The TPT shows that teachers possess better subject-level knowledge, specifically in Islamic studies and Somali, than practical teaching skills, which limits their ability to deliver content to students in an effective manner (MoECHE, 2020).

Table 4.13 Primary TPT pass rates by subject, 2020 (%)

Subject	Banadir	South West	Jubbaland	Galmudug	Hirshabelle	Average
Pedagogy	16.8	17.5	16.3	24.0	14.9	17.9
Mathematics	36.9	35.5	43.6	37.2	20.3	34.7
Somali	95.3	95.5	96.9	98.1	91.3	95.4
Islamic studies	43.4	62.9	59.3	54.8	62.9	56.6
English	36.2	54.9	82.0	69.7	54.2	59.4
Overall	**45.7**	**53.3**	**59.6**	**56.7**	**48.7**	**52.8**

Source: FGS, Teacher Proficiency Test, 2020.

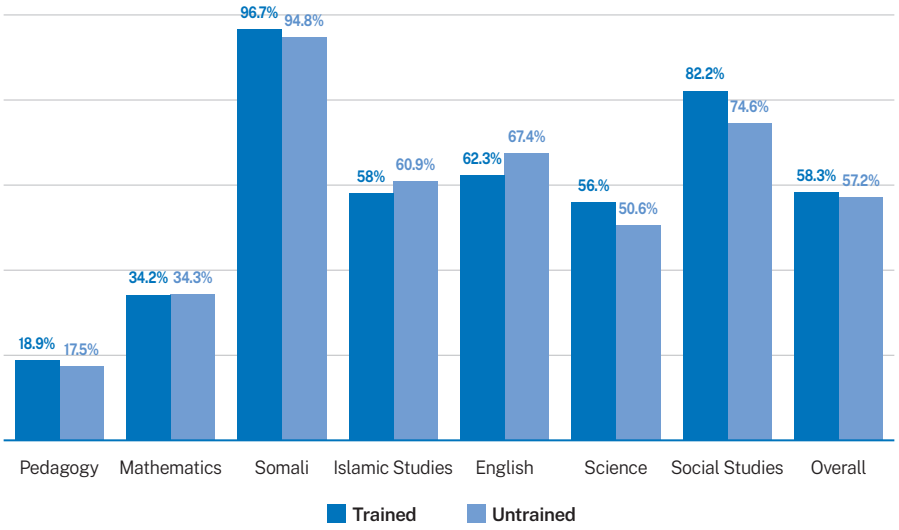
Table 4.14 Secondary TPT pass rates by subject, 2020 (%)

Subject	Banadir	South West	Jubbaland	Galmudug	Hirshabelle	Average
Pedagogy	22.5	22.0	42.9	43.1	29.4	32.0
Mathematics	65.1	4.8	83.3	37.5	20.0	42.1
Somali	100.0	67.9	72.7	100.0	100.0	88.1
Islamic studies	67.6	69.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	87.5
English	28.6	32.1	68.4	80.0	88.9	59.6
Overall	**56.8**	**44.7**	**73.5**	**72.1**	**67.7**	**62.9**

Source: FGS, Teacher Proficiency Test, 2020.

As seen in *Figure 4.7*, there is little to no difference between the pass rates of trained and untrained teachers at primary level in different subjects, with untrained teachers actually performing better in English than trained teachers. This may be attributed to the high proportions of underqualified teachers seen in the profession, many of whom have studied English at university, whereas previously, teachers were not obliged to study English as part of their training.

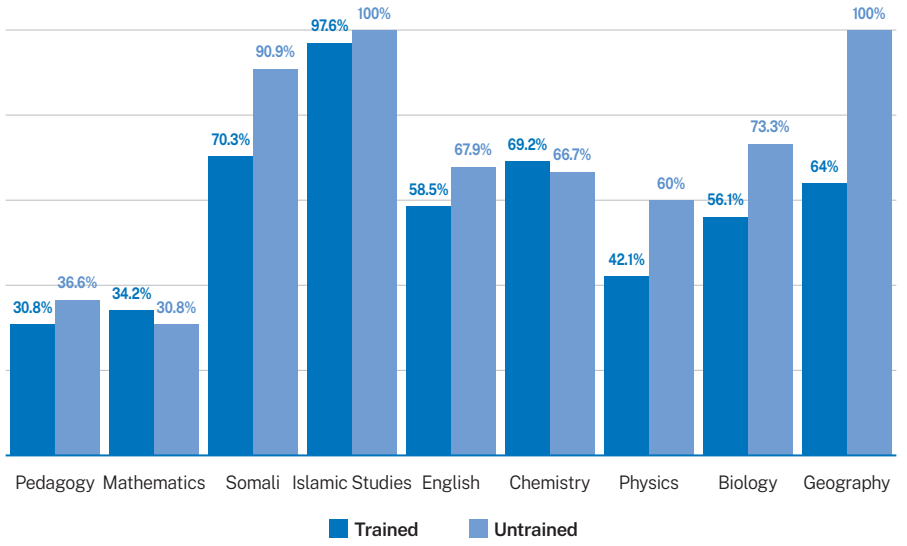
Figure 4.7 Primary TPT pass rates by subject, 2020 (%)



Source: FGS, Teacher Proficiency Test, 2020.

This pattern is amplified at the secondary level, with untrained teachers outperforming trained teachers in seven of the nine subjects covered (see *Figure 4.8*). This may be due to the fact that many 'untrained' teachers are not completely unqualified, but rather possess non-teaching qualifications such as a Bachelor's degree in another subject. As such, these teachers may score relatively well on subject-level knowledge tests as a result of their studies. What may be alarming, however, is how these teachers are able to outperform those with qualifications in pedagogy, a subject which is largely exclusive to teacher training. Results from primary and secondary TPTs demonstrate the inability of existing teacher-training systems to adequately prepare teachers for the profession, again highlighting the weakness of using proportions of qualified teachers in Somali schools as an accurate reflection of the quality of teaching and learning. Moreover, it suggests that in parallel to the standardization of teacher-training institutions and curricula, there is need to invest in upgrading the skills of qualified teachers within the system as well, especially in pedagogy and teaching practice.

Figure 4.8 Secondary TPT pass rates by subject, 2020 (%)



Source: FGS, Teacher Proficiency Test, 2020.

4.2.1.3 Teacher pay: Low renumeration levels for the majority of primary teachers

In the Teacher Policy of 2020, the FGS outlines the teacher remuneration policy for the first time, stating it will be applied to 'teachers working in all schools (public, private or community)' (MoECHE, 2020a). In addition, it outlines four levels of remuneration, set according to academic qualifications, with the highest amounts expected to be paid to secondary school teachers with a Bachelor of education degree and the lowest to unqualified primary school teachers who have no

Table 4.15 Distribution of teachers by salary range and gender, 2019 (%)

	Primary		Secondary	
Range (US$)	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
0	10	7	1	1
1–50	11	10	5	3
51–100	38	32	18	11
101–150	14	23	16	22
151–250	9	17	23	39
251–500	17	11	36	23
501–1,000	1	0	0	1
Above 1,000	0	0	0	0

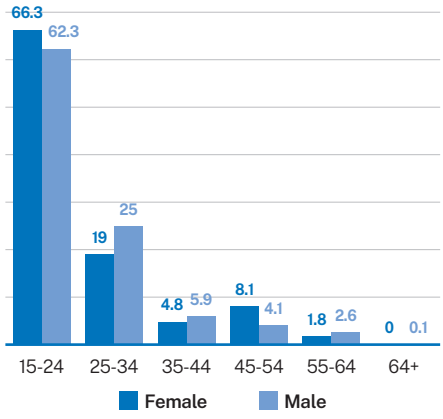
Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2020.

official teacher training. While the policy does not specify the exact amounts and has only just begun to be implemented, *Table 4.15* suggests that it is already in force to some extent, with secondary teachers receiving the highest levels of payment. Moreover, primary teachers, and particularly women, are more likely to be volunteers, or not to be receiving any remuneration, compared to teachers at secondary level. However, there is also a higher proportion of women receiving salaries in the $251–500 range than men. Considering the fact that government-paid teachers, who represent a small proportion of the overall teaching population, receive $330 a month, it is clear that the majority of teachers, especially at the primary level, recieve a lower salary than what is offered by the government.

4.2.1.4 Teacher age: An influx of young teachers

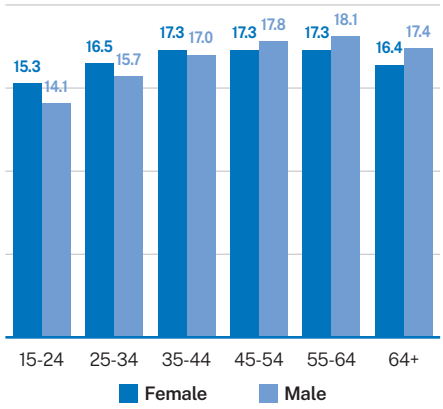
The mean age of teachers in the country is 31, which is reflective of the age of the general population. In 2020, nearly two-thirds of teachers in primary were reported to be less that 25 years old, effectively making this very young teaching force bear the burden of growing the education system in the country. The youth of teachers is indicative of a growing education system and the entrance of new teachers into it. Teachers are slightly older in secondary schools, and in primary schools female teachers are slightly younger than male teachers. While we have been unable to evaluate teacher retention, owing to data inconsistencies, it will be important to monitor this moving forward, so that the benefits of the influx of young teachers into the workforce are sustained.

Figure 4.9 Distribution of primary teachers by age and gender, 2020 (%)



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2020.

Figure 4.10 Distribution of secondary teachers by age and gender, 2020 (%)



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2020.

The youthf of teachers is positively correlated with the low levels of experience seen across the country, with an average of 8.3 years of teaching experience (see *Figures 4.11* and *4.12*). Primary school teachers have significantly fewer years of experience than secondary teachers, suggesting that more teachers are entering the profession at primary

Figure 4.11 Distribution of primary teachers by years of teaching experience and gende, 2020

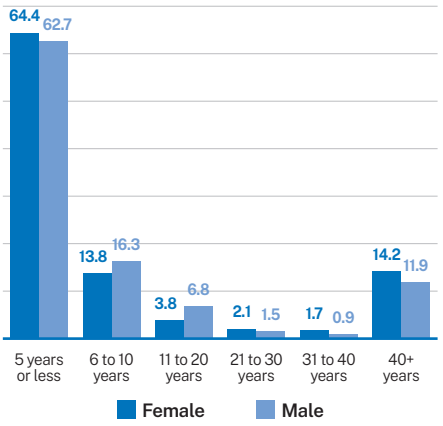
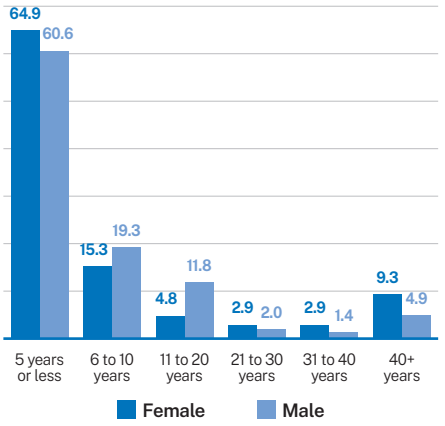
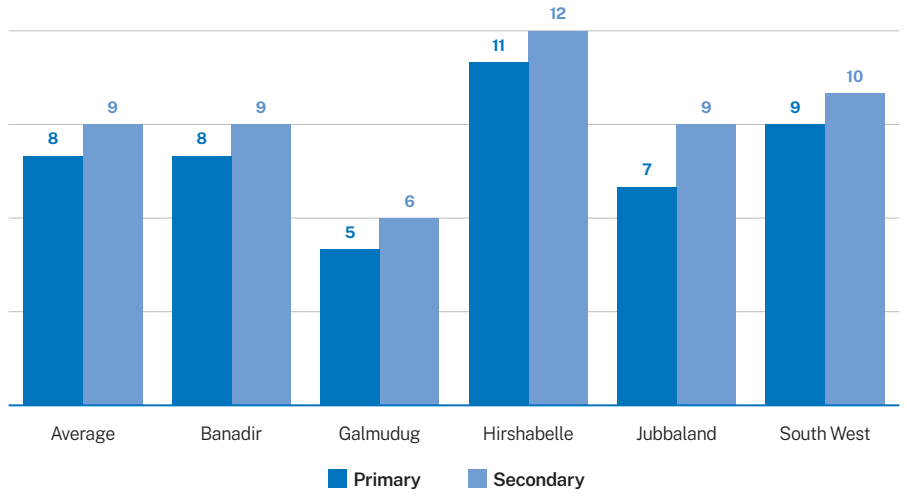


Figure 4.12 Distribution of secondary teachers by years of teaching experience and gender, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2020.

Figure 4.13 Average years of teaching experience, 2020



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2020.

level than secondary, an element that can be linked with the higher qualifications needed to teach in secondary schools. Female teachers at the primary level are the least experienced, with 61 per cent having taught for five years or fewer. This, coupled with the evidence regarding the age of teachers, suggests an influx of young women into the primary teaching profession. It will be important to monitor this in order to observe whether these teachers remain within the system, or leave as they get older, potentially as a result of household pressures. If gender parity is to be achieved, monitoring this female teacher attrition and addressing it through policy will be necessary.At the FMS level, Galmudug stands out as having the least experienced teachers at both primary and secondary levels, with an average of five and six years of experience respectively. Hirshabelle has the most experienced teachers, far exceeding national averages. The trend of more experienced teachers at the secondary level is seen across all states.

4.2.2 Teacher distribution: Varying pupil/teacher ratios and poor teacher deployment

4.2.2.1 Pupil/teacher ratios: Low rates of qualification undermine fairly good ratios

Large differences between pupil/teacher ratios (PTRs) and pupil/qualified-teacher ratios (PqTR) reflect the low levels of qualification among primary teachers. Pupil/qualified-teacher ratios emphasize the severe lack of qualified teachers in the education system. PTRs are calculated using the total school enrolment divided by the number of teachers. As such, they are not necessarily reflective of the number of students and teachers in each classroom, with lower grades tending to have higher enrolment and, accordingly, higher PTRs. In Somalia, pupil/teacher ratios are higher among public schools than among community and privately managed schools in all states except South West. This suggests that there is overcrowding in public schools, potentially as a result of the fee-free or lower-fee access provided in these institutions. The difference between PTRs and PqTRs is very high. Jubbaland stands out as having a severe shortage of qualified teachers. While Jubbaland has a PTR of 38:1 in public schools, and 28:1 in private schools, this worsens to 2.11 and 5.2 1 respectively, when considering qualified teachers only. There is a clear need for more teachers,

Table 4.16 Primary pupil/teacher ratios by type of school, 2019

	Community		Public Authority		Private	
FMS	**PTR**	**PqTR**	**PTR**	**PqTR**	**PTR**	**PqTR**
Banadir	32:1	191:1	41:1	120:1	31:1	75:1
Galmudug	33:1	84:1	43:1	148:1	60:1	124:1
Hirshabelle	41:1	87:1	53:1	106:1	40:1	102:1
Jubbaland	NA	NA	38:1	201:1	28:1	542:1
South West	48:1	126:1	44:1	90:1	39:1	39:1
Average	**39:1**	**122:1**	**44:1**	**133:1**	**40:1**	**182:1**

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

especially in public schools, as well as better in-service training opportunities for those unqualified or underqualified teachers already working in the system.

Pupil/teacher ratios are considerably lower at the secondary level, reflecting the lower enrolment in these institutions. It is important to note that the majority of schools in Somalia (60 per cent nationally in 2019) function on a double shift system, where primary students generally attend school in the afternoon and secondary students in the morning. As such, many schools do not have dedicated secondary teachers but rather use the same teachers to teach both primary and secondary classes. However, it is not clear through the 2019 EMIS data whether all primary teachers listed in a school teach secondary classes as well, or just a portion. As such, the numbers presented in *Table 4.17* may be inflated because primary teachers who do not actually work in secondary classrooms have been counted twice. There is an even greater jump between PTRs and PqTRs than at the primary level, with ratios rising to over 100 students per qualified teacher in most of the states and school types, and even exceeding 300:1 in public schools in Banadir. However, a reverse trend is seen in secondary schools in terms of type of school, with public institutions having the lowest PTRs across all states except Banadir. Overall, the picture at the secondary level emphasizes the need to prioritize in-service teacher training over teacher recruitment.

Table 4.17 Secondary pupil/teacher ratios by type of school, 2019

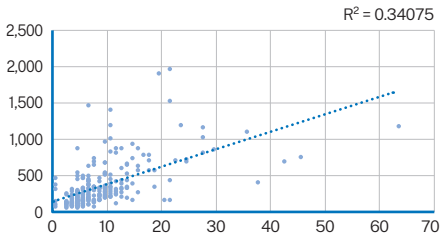
	Community		Public Authority		Private	
FMS	**PTR**	**PqTR**	**PTR**	**PqTR**	**PTR**	**PqTR**
Banadir	20:1	120:1	23:1	307:1	21:1	107:1
Galmudug	27:1	176:1	20:1	165:1	28:1	72:1
Hirshabelle	40:1	105:1	31:1	223:1	43:1	93:1
Jubbaland	NA	NA	16:1	174:1	NA	NA
South West	**30:1**	**228:1**	**17:1**	**52:1**	**21:1**	**126:1**

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

4.2.2.2 Teacher deployment: Uneven distribution across schools

There is a weak correlation between the numbers of students and teachers in public primary schools. There should be a relationship between these two groups: schools with higher student populations should also have higher numbers of teachers. As seen in *Figure 4.14*, there is a weak correlation with a degree of randomness of 66 per cent, meaning that deployment in nearly two-thirds of the schools does not follow enrolment, as it should.

Figure 4.14 Distribution of teachers in public authority primary schools, 2019



Source: Authors' calculation based on EMIS data, 2019.
Note: The R^2 coefficient is the proportion of the variation in the dependent variable that is predictbale from the independent variable. In other words, it reflects the level of correlation that exists between two variables.

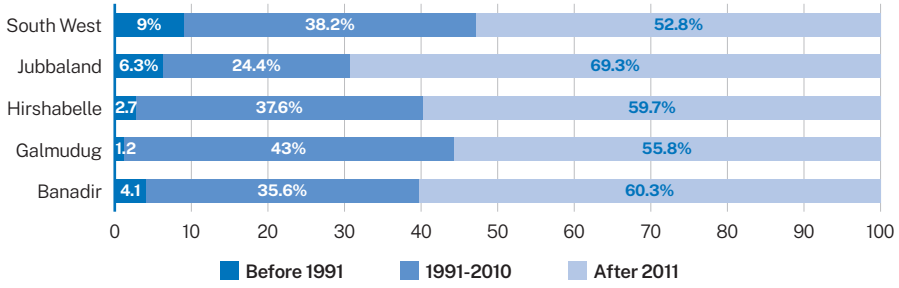
4.3 Other school resources

The most decentralized level of any education system is the school and the physical infrastructure therein, with the environment in which students function influencing the quality of education they receive. School infrastructure and learning materials are key aspects a good-quality learning environment. This section will begin with an examination of the physical quality of schools in the country, considering key indicators such as access to electricity, water, and toilet facilities, as well as the number of classrooms and desks available, before turning its attention to learning materials, including textbooks, workbooks, pencils, and chalkboards, based on the availability of school-related data.

4.3.1 Mass school construction since the end of the civil war

More than half the schools in the country were established after 2011. As a result of years of civil war, many schools in Somalia had been destroyed. The period after the establishment of the FGS, in 2012, was inevitably going to focus on rebuilding. This is demonstrated in *Figure 4.15*. In Jubbaland, which seems to have borne the greatest burden, nearly 70 per cent of the schools were established after 2011.

Figure 4.15 Timelines for the establishment of schools in Somalia



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2020.

The majority of schools in four out of the five FMSs use Somali as their main language of instruction. Hirshabelle is the exception, with the majority of schools using a combination of Somali, Arabic, and English. In Jubbaland, Somali is predominant, with almost 90 per cent of schools citing this as their language of instruction. The highest proportion of schools using English as their language of instruction is seen in Banadir, an element that can be related to the high proportions of private schools seen in the state, as well as its urban, international nature. Overall, evidence aligns with the Education Act, which provides that the language of instruction in primary school should be Somali.

Table 4.18 Language of instruction in primary schools, 2019 (%)

FMS	Arabic	English	Somali	Arabic & Eng	Arabic & Somali	Eng & Somali	Arabic, Eng, & Somali
Banadir	1.2	17.6	20.9	3.1	1.4	50.9	4.8
Galmudug	0.6	2.8	71.0	1.1	0.6	21.6	2.3
Hirshabelle	-	0.3	27.5	1.6	12.9	3.6	54.0
Jubbaland	-	5.3	87.6	0.0	3.1	0.9	3.1
South West	0.7	4.3	39.9	0.4	5.8	15.5	33.5
Average	**0.5**	**6.1**	**49.4**	**1.2**	**4.8**	**8.5**	**19.5**

Source: Authors' calculations based on GPE data, 2019.

4.3.2 Availability of desks: Undersupply of desks seen across states

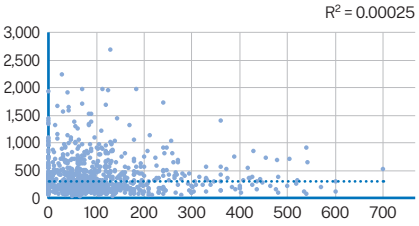
Students across all types of schools share desks, with the highest amount of desk-sharing seen in public schools. Ratios are lowest in community schools: no other type of school sees ratios of 2:1. However, there are multiple factors that influence how these ratios function in reality, including the fact that different types of schools have different types of desks. For example, private institutions are more likely to have single-student desks, while public schools are more likely to have benches at which multiple students sit together. As this difference is not reflected in EMIS data, it is difficult to gain a precise understanding of the levels of under-supply. Furthermore, it must be considered that the majority of schools in Somalia function in shifts and therefore, not all students are present in the school at the same time. Accordingly, pupil/desk ratios are likely lower than *Table 4.19* indicates.

Table 4.19 Pupil to desk ratio by type of school, 2019

	Public	Community	Private
Banadir	5:1	2:1	3:1
Galmudug	4:1	12:1	3:1
Hirshabelle	3:1	3:1	4:1
Jubbaland	5:1	NA	3:1
South West	3:1	3:1	3:1
Average	**4:1**	**2:1**	**3:1**

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

Figure 4.16 Relationship between students and desks in schools, 2019



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

The number of desks in a school is weakly correlated with the total number of students. While the main trend seen is an undersupply of desks, there are some schools which have significantly more desks than are necessary to support their student population, confirming a degree of mismanagement in desk distribution and construction. However, as mentioned above, because the Somali education system operates in shifts, relationships may be stronger than indicated in *Figure 4.16*. If a 1:1 ratio is to be achieved, attention will need to be given to making up gaps between desk numbers and enrolment in a systematic manner.

Trends are mixed when examining the number of pupils per classroom, with a large difference between the lowest ratios seen in Galmudug community schools, at 27 students per classroom, and the highest at 61 students per classroom in public schools in Banadir. Pupil/classroom ratios are similar to PTRs, suggesting the use of single classrooms per grade, when allowing for the prevalence of the double-shift system. Furthermore, examining only the pupil/classroom ratios obscures some of the nuances related to classroom size, with public schools, for example, being known to have larger classrooms, wherein larger class sizes are more feasible.

Table 4.20 Pupils per classroom in primary schools by type of school, 2019

	Community schools	Public Authority	Private schools
Banadir	51	61	33
Galmudug	27	39	48
Hirshabelle	46	40	40
Jubbaland	N/A	52	42
South West	38	42	38

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

Pupil/classroom ratios are generally lower at secondary level, although there is much inter-state variation. Ratios are higher than PTRs in the case of community and public schools in Galmudug, as well as in private schools in Hirshabelle, suggesting that there are not enough classrooms to support one grade per room, thereby indicating the existence of multi-grade teaching. On the other hand, there are also instances of lower pupil/classroom ratios than PTRs, for example in community schools in Banadir, suggesting an oversupply of classrooms for secondary populations. Areas with very high ratios should be considered more carefully, in order to assess the need for additional rooms to be constructed at some institutions, or for students to be redistributed.

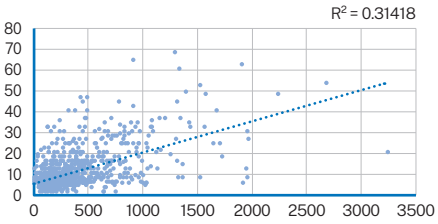
Table 4.21 Students per classroom in secondary by type of school, 2019

	Community schools	Public Authority	Private
Banadir	15	19	30
Galmudug	40	43	32
Hirshabelle	30	19	55
Jubbaland	N/A	25	N/A
South West	28	17	22

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

In a similar way to the total number of teachers, the number of classrooms in a school is also assumed to have a relationship with the number of students, with more populous schools assumed to have more classrooms. The number of classrooms in a school is correlated with the number of students in only 31 per cent of all schools, exhibiting a weak relationship. However, given the fact that the majority of schools in Somalia operate on a shift system, distribution may be slightly more aligned than *Figure 4.17* suggests. Moreover, given the high PTRs exhibited above, there is an indication of a need to re-evaluate student distribution, with some classroom facilities not being used to their full capacity and others being overcrowded.

Figure 4.17 Distribution of classrooms and enrolment of primary and secondary levels, 2019



Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

4.3.3 The Somali national curriculum

While the private sector played a significant role in delivering education during the years of civil war, the lack of a uniform curriculum in the country was a major challenge to reviving the education system when the war was over. The MoECHE noted this deficiency and made it a priority to remedy it when redeveloping of the sector, leading to the first National Curriculum Framework in 2014. Following a series of state-level consultations, the first draft syllabus was produced, and itwas piloted in selected schools in June 2017. The development of the curriculum was paralleled by the creation of new learning materials. Before this standardization, more than 40 curricula were used across Somalia, with textbooks also being varied and often not available in Somali (Sheikh and Hussein, 2019). In June 2018, the new lower primary, upper primary, and secondary textbooks were launched, aligned with the new national curriculum. Since their launch, about 250,000 free primary-level textbooks have been distributed across all the states.

4.3.3.1 Pupil-textbook ratio: High ratios result from mismanagement of distribution

Textbooks were distributed to a total of 428 primary schools in 2020; 97 in Jubbaland, 91 in Banadir, 88 in Galmudug, 76 in Hirshabelle and 76 in South West state in 2020, with a total of over 1.7 million primary textbooks given out. While it is not clear what pupil/textbook ratios were achieved in this distribution process, it is clear that significant effort has been put into providing access to the new primary curriculum and significant progress has been made. The process of unifying access to learning materials across the country has begun in earnest. That being said, 2020 EMIS data did not collect information on textbooks, and, therefore, the discussion below relies on 2019 data, which do not reflect this most recent mass distribution. As such, ratios at the primary levels are likely significantly lower than what is presented below, although it is important to note that textbooks did not reach all schools listed in the EMIS. Additionally, as similar mass distribution at the secondary level has not yet been carried out, the ratios presented below can be seen to still hold. It will be essential to capture this information in future EMIS data collection, in order to fully capture these mass efforts as well as identifying areas of shortfall.

Textbook distribution mismanagement has led to a shortage of books in schools, and in some cases a complete absence. Learners across the education system have to contend with high pupil/textbook ratios, with the lowest ratios being seen in public schools in the early grades (see *Table 4.22*). Private schools see increasing ratios with grades, while the inverse is seen in community schools, demonstrating diverse trends across different types of schools. There are no significant differences among subjects in terms of textbook supply, with all class levels and school authorities showing that ratios are far above the 1:1 goal outlined in the previous ESSP (MoECHE, 2017).

Table 4.22 Primary pupil/textbook ratios by subject, grade, and type of school, 2019

	Community schools			Private schools			Public Authority		
	Somali	Science	Maths	Somali	Science	Maths	Somali	Science	Maths
Grade 1	24:1	24:1	27:1	13:1	18:1	13:1	8:1	8:1	8:1
Grade 2	25:1	25:1	28:1	13:1	18:1	13:1	9:1	9:1	9:1
Grade 3	26:1	25:1	29:1	14:1	19:1	15:1	14:1	13:1	14:1
Grade 4	24:1	24:1	27:1	15:1	20:1	16:1	17:1	14:1	15:1
Grade 5	19:1	18:1	19:1	19:1	23:1	19:1	24:1	17:1	22:1
Grade 6	17:1	16:1	17:1	24:1	30:1	23:1	21:1	15:1	19:1
Grade 7	16:1	15:1	16:1	29:1	35:1	31:1	17:1	12:1	15:1
Grade 8	15:1	14:1	14:1	37:1	43:1	39:1	16:1	11:1	15:1

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS, 2019.

Textbook provision is almost non-existent at secondary level, with higher ratios observed than at primary level, and government-supported schools again evidencing lower ratios (see Table *4.23*). Trends are more similar between different types of school at the secondary level, with ratios consistently increasing each year, leading to the highest ratios in Form 4. Additionally, while textbooks were distributed to primary schools in the last two years, secondary schools have not yet benefited from the textbook distribution programme.

Table 4.23 Secondary pupil/textbook ratios by subject, grade, and type of school, 2019

	Community schools			Public Authority			Private schools		
	Somali	Science	Maths	Somali	Science	Maths	Somali	Science	Maths
Form 1	29:1	29:1	29:1	15:1	21:1	17:1	9:1	9:1	9:1
Form 2	40:1	40:1	42:1	18:1	25:1	21:1	11:1	13:1	12:1
Form 3	44:1	44:1	46:1	24:1	31:1	26:1	24:1	30:1	26:1
Form 4	117:1	117:1	130:1	64:1	72:1	73:1	42:1	50:1	45:1

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

All school authorities have high proportions of schools reporting that they have no textbooks, ranging from a high of 77 per cent of public secondary schools, to a low of 29 per cent of public primary schools. More secondary schools reported having no textbooks than primary schools across all types of school. While public primary schools have a relatively high proportion of schools with ratios in the 9:1 range, they also have the highest proportion of schools reporting ratios of over 100:1, demonstrating wide variation across this type of school. This suggests that the government has been unable to reach its target in the former ESSP of distributing adequate numbers of textbooks to all schools by 2020 (MoECHE, 2017). Furthermore, a complete lack of learning materials indicates that the quality of education being received in these institutions must be low as well. However, it is not clear why, when textbooks are absent in a large majority of institutions, learning outcomes are high, as discussed in Section 4.1.

Table 4.24 Pupil/textbook ratio ranges in mathematics, 2019 (%)

Level of education	Type of school	Range of pupil/textbook ratio (textbooks per student)							
		0	1–9	10–19	20–29	30–39	40–49	50–99	100+
Primary	Community	42	23	19	6	2	3	4	2
	Private	50	15	11	7	4	2	4	7
	Public authority	29	20	12	7	3	2	6	23
Secondary	Community	50	9	9	2	4	2	11	13
	Private	71	9	4	1	1	3	3	6
	Public authority	77	16	5	0	2	0	0	0

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

4.3.3.2 Access to key school infrastructure: Variations show much has yet to be developed

Access to water, toilet facilities, and electricity is high across the majority of institutions, but hand-washing facilities and facilities for children with disabilities remain scarce. As *Table 4.25* shows, Jubbaland has the lowest levels of access to water, toilets, and electricity, while in Hirshabelle over 90 per cent of schools cited access to toilet facilities. In schools in Galmudug, Banadir and South West state, access to facilities for students with disabilities is greater than access to hand-washing facilities. Furthermore, it is clear that there tends to be better access to water than to hand-washing facilities, suggesting that water is used for other purposes. There is a need to consider repurposing the water supply for sanitary use, especially under COVID-19.

Table 4.25 Access for schools to key amenities and facilities by FMS, 2019 (%)

	Water	Hand-washing facilities	Toilet facilities	Facilities for children with disabilities	Electricity
Banadir	83	20	87	24	85
Galmudug	88	11	91	17	83
Hirshabelle	83	23	94	19	74
Jubbaland	70	29	65	20	54
South West	79	12	83	21	60

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

Examining infrastructure by type of school reveals mixed results, with community schools tending to have the greatest access to water, toilet facilities, and electricity (see *Table 4.26*). However, public schools are seen to have the greatest access to hand-washing facilities, suggesting stricter implementation of infrastructure regulations, while private institutions are more likely to have facilities for students with disabilities, suggesting that some of these schools may be targeted towards this population. There is a clear need to develop infrastructure in all types of institutions, including those receiving government support, with only 85 per cent of public schools having access to water and only 75 per cent to

Table 4.26 Access for schools to key amenities and facilities by type of school, 2019 (%)

	Water	Hand-washing facilities	Toilet facilities	Facilities for children with disabilities	Electricty
Community	89	14	91	11	74
Government	85	33	75	19	67
Private	74	16	83	26	75

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

Table 4.27 Average number of toilets per pupil in primary schools, 2019

FMS	Community schools	Public schools	Private schools
Banadir	314	226	168
Galmudug	124	90	344
Hirshabelle	140	152	236
Jubbaland	N/A	156	434
South West	220	159	225

Source: Authors' calculations based on EMIS data, 2019.

toilet facilities. Furthermore, given the dominance of private institutions in terms of enrolment, it is clear that access to key school infrastructure is limited for many students across the country.

It is important to note that even when schools do have access to toilet facilities, these are not numerous, leading to high numbers of students sharing one toilet (see *Table 4.27*). This ranges from a high of 434 students to a low of 90 students per toilet, evidencing high levels of stress placed on these facilities. This is additionally concerning as it suggests that many schools do not have separate facilities for girls and boys, something that has been seen to be a barrier to girls' enrolment.

4.4 Chapter summary

Recent years have seen the country establish end-of-cycle examinations at Grade 8 and Form 4, which provide a snapshot of the outputs from those two levels of education. The evolution of these examinations, especially at secondary level – for they have been in place for longer at his level – suggest that the administration of examinations is getting more stable by the year. The support this has received in terms of public resources also breeds confidence in the credibility and validity of the examinations going forward. The examination results are relatively strong but highlight some subjects which may require particular attention, especially mathematics, biology, and chemistry at the secondary level. Although the fact that Grade 8 exams are so recent makes it difficult to provide concrete recommendations, they exhibit high pass rates, indicating strong performance from students. In general, attention should be given to maintaining the high proportions of enrolled students sitting these exams in the coming years. Moreover, with the summative examinations getting stable, focus should now shift to school-based assessment for all grades, in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of learning outcomes, rather than focusing solely on the results from the terminal grades.

Under-qualification and non-qualification of teachers is a pressing issue across the country, and even where teachers are trained and qualified, they lack pedagogical skills. This compromises the quality of education that can be provided in these institutions. Emphasis needs to be placed on upskilling the currently under- and unqualified teachers, as well as ensuring that future recruitment brings in more qualified teachers. Apart from the qualifications of teachers, another staff-related problem is that the deployment of teachers to schools is not equitable. Some schools have too many teachers, but the bigger concern is that some have too few. There is a need to develop and implement redistributive policies to ensure equitable use of available teaching resources, especially in government-supported schools. While the General Education Law states the necessity of having manageable class sizes and PTRs, there is a need for agreed standards, like an approved PTR, which would help limit the gaps between schools.

Textbooks are in very short supply across states, levels of education and types of school. The absence of a national textbook policy that outlines the responsibilities of community and private schools in textbook acquisition constrains our ability to implement improved or redistributive policies. This certainly limits the extent to which the relatively new national curriculum can be effectively implemented. In addition to the shortage of books, large proportions of schools in the country lack access to key infrastructure and amenities such as electricity, water, and toilet facilities. There is also a clear shortage of desks in schools. Knowing that this equipment and these facilities and amenities support the learning process, their absence in schools raises important questions about the type of education that is available in schools.

Chapter 5
TVET and higher education

This section presents the organization and delivery of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and higher education, looking at aspects of access to training programmes, the management of these programmes, and the management of the institutions delivering further education. The section also discusses the transition of TVET and university graduates to the labour market, and the efficiency thereof. The results presented in this section are based on administrative data from the MoECHE, and findings from the high-frequency survey conducted in 2017, as well as discussions with key stakeholders/implementers in tertiary education.

5.1 Organization and delivery of TVET and university education

Skill development is one of the sectors that borne the brunt of the collapse of the Somali state in 1991, and it has struggled for revival amid the conversation about the demographic dividend on the African continent. While its young population makes Somalia a potential beneficiary of the demographic dividend, the underdevelopment of tertiary education and persistent lack of attention to it leaves the country's youth population at further risk of the social ills that have engulfed the country for some time now. As the country rebuilds itself, there is great demand for a variety of skills, as evidenced by the various labour-market surveys conducted in each of the FMSs. This creates an excellent opportunity for TVET and higher education to provide structured skill development that will address the skills deficit manifested in the large proportion of inactive young people of working age. We do not see the sector taking full advantage of the opportunities and instead, tertiary education has been neglected. Persistent neglect of TVET and higher education will certainly continue to expose young people to the extremism and other social ills that have made good and effective governance difficult to achieve in the country since the collapse of the Somali state. Against this background, this section presents the landscape of delivery of TVET and higher education, assessing the existing structures delivering tertiary education, as well as its financing, and its management.

5.1.1 Organization and delivery of TVET

Delivery of TVET in Somalia is based on a short-term project approach, is supported by non-state organizations, and is focused on urban areas. Before the collapse of the Siad Barre regime in 1991, Somalia had one of the best TVET institutes in Africa, as well as 86 technical professional schools in the country, 84 of which were under the management of the then Ministry of Education, with the remainder managed by the Ministry of Labour. These technical professional schools were seen as a key part of the industrial and commercial development of post-independence Somalia, providing a lot of the human capital necessary for the construction of the Somali state. Much of this infrastructure was destroyed after 1991, resulting in uneven provision by professional institutions across the country and a lack of alignment with the needs of the labour market (FGS, 2020).

Currently, Jubbaland is the only state among the four FMSs and Banadir Regional Administration with a publicly managed technical professional college, meaning that skill development in Somalia is mainly delivered through local or international non-state actors in project-based short-term training programmes. The training programmes are offered in small training centres which came into operation after the reestablishment of the FGS, in an emergency-response model. Almost all these centres are managed by NGOs, with the exception of five privately managed institutions, which are all located in urban areas. This disadvantages more than half the population, who hail from the rural areas, are IDPs, or come from other marginalized groups, as they are effectively denied access to these programmes. Participation in the programmes fluctuates both within and across the years, since the centres are only operational when there is funding from the organization that sponsors them. Moreover, the brevity of the training programmes, compounded by data-collection chal-

lenges, does not give a clear picture of the actual participation in TVET. The centres are responsible for their own curriculum, examinations, and certification, a factor which undermines national accreditation. This is exacerbated by the lack of a national qualifications framework, which could harmonize the different levels of training. The civil strife in the country put this several strides back, and although the project-based approach is a good way of keeping some young people engaged, it may not be a long-term solution for the thousands who are unskilled and unemployed.

The system of TVET provision is in a state of evolution, with a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) between the MoECHE and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs having been signed in April 2021 which for the first time outlines each ministry's role in the provision of technical education. A key distinction was made in this MoU between training, programmes, and projects lasting 12 months or less, also known as 'vocational trainings', which are now to fall under the mandate of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, and activities, programmes, and projects lasting over 12 months, which are known as technical education and are the responsibility of the MoECHE. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is therefore mandated to provide labour-market data collection and analysis, short-term training centres and the registration and accreditation of all training providers, while the MoECHE is responsible for the National Qualifications Framework, assessment and certification of both instructors and trainees, provision and operation of long-term training, and the development of curricula and programmes. The two ministries also agreed to work collaboratively to produce and implement a national TVET policy, a TVET-sector strategic and development plan, and a national vocational qualifications framework. This MoU marked a watershed moment for the institutionalization of TVET in Somalia, and its future growth and success rely on the effective implementation of the content of the MoU.

There is limited financial input from the government, even as the MoECHE considers the revival of publicly provided TVET. The discussion of education expenditure in Section 3 indicates that the government barely spends anything on TVET, with a total of only $113,600 having been allocated in 2020 towards this critical sub-sector. Apart from the salaries paid to the lean department of five staff, expenditure returns do not have clear traces of funds spent on fulfilling the mandate of the TVET department, including coordination of TVET activities in the country, preparation of plans for the development of the TVET sub-sector, monitoring of schools providing Alternative Basic Education (ABE) (which are also managed by the Director of Non-Formal Education and TVET), and harmonization of the TVET curriculum, among other functions. The 2017–2019 National Development Plan, under education-sector objectives, envisioned the strengthening of TVET centres and the establishment of new technical secondary schools to equip students with the practical skills, knowledge, and entrepreneurial tools that match labour-market needs. The plan further envisioned the provision of high-quality training and accreditation while also linking students to industry through apprenticeships (FGS, 2017). Under labour and employment objectives, the government envisioned 'increasing employment opportunities and decent work particularly for the youth', which was predicated on the strengthening of schools and the expan-

sion of training opportunities in existing ones. The feasibility assessment for professional technical secondary schools in the country also signalled positive prospects for the planned re-establishment of technical secondary schools targeting skills in agriculture, marine work, and fisheries, as well as veterinary medicine (MoECHE, 2020a). While the plan and the assessment speak volumes for the vision for TVET, this has not been reflected in its funding levels: the TVET sub-sector receives for the lowest amount of public expenditure in the education sector.

The collapse of the central government in the early 1990s had far-reaching consequences, as the management of key coordination functions remains weak to date. A wave of insecurities was followed by the migration of key staff from administrative offices, rendering most government offices dysfunctional. Critical functions like quality assurance, monitoring the implementation of key public interventions, and general administration, all suffered. This is reflected in the lack of approved policies and structures to facilitate the delivery of education and training by both public and private entities.

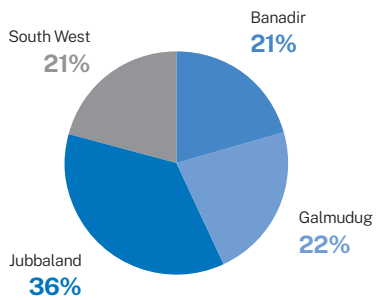
5.1.1.1 Access to TVET

There are 58 TVET centres in the country, distributed across eight regions, with limited growth, and Middle Jubba totally left out. The entirety of the country's youth is served by 58 TVET centres (according to administrative data from MoECHE, 2020), with just over one-fifth of these located in Banadir, Galmudug and South West state respectively, and one-third in Jubbaland (see *Table 5.1*). Out of the nine regions of the country, Middle Jubba has no TVET centre, owing to the heavy presence of the al-Shabaab militant group, which makes the establishment of the centres somewhat difficult, a situation which further worsens the vulnerability of the eligible young people living in the region. According to the two years of data collected by the EMIS department, the number of centres increased by 12 between 2019 and 2020, with notable improvements in Banadir and Lower Jubba. In all other regions, the number of centres either remained static or dropped, which is characteristic of a system that is not growing fast enough to meet the demand from young people.

Table 5.1 Distribution of TVET institutions by state/region

Region	2019	2020
Bay	6	7
Bakool	3	3
Banadir	9	12
Galgaduud	7	7
Gedo	3	2
Lower Jubba	9	19
Lower Shabelle	2	2
Mudug	7	6
Total	**46**	**58**

Source: EMIS, 2020.



Enrolment in TVET remained similar in 2019 and 2020, perhaps reflecting the limited demand for TVET, but this could also reflect data-collection problems. The annual schools census of 2020 and returns from Jubbaland reveal that there were 8,700 trainees distributed across the 58 TVET centres, a marginal increase on the previous year (*Table 5.2*). Out of the 8,700 trainees, 6 in 10 were enrolled in centres in Banadir and Jubbaland, highlighting the fact that access to TVET training is not evenly distributed, even among urban areas. Beyond the inadequate supply of TVET opportunities, we observe a particular weakness in the fact the training is project-based, which is reflected in the fluctuations in enrolment. For instance, the number of participants increased by nearly 400 in Bay between 2019 and 2020, by nearly 700 in Banadir, and by more than 300 in Lower Jubba, while in Galgaduud and Mudug, participation dropped by 270 and 500 respectively, with anecdotal evidence from TVET officials revealing data-collection challenges in in these centres. Officials recount that these numbers often misrepresent the picture of TVET in the country as they only capture the number of students present in the centres at the time of data collection. Often, the data does not include trainees who have completed their training a few months beforehand. The fact that these centres also operate only when funding is available also contributes to the weakness in their management, as they cannot have sustainable predictability.

Table 5.2 Enrolment in TVET centres by region

Regions	2018/19	2019/20	Share of 2019/20 enrolment (%)
Bay	1,186	1,577	18.1
Bakool	242	214	2.5
Banadir	2,874	3,538	40.7
Galgaduud	1,030	761	8.7
Gedo	736	284	3.3
Lower Jubba	1,166	1,495	17.2
Lower Shabelle	457	457	5.3
Mudug	882	375	4.3
Total	**8,573**	**8,701**	**100.0**

Source: EMIS, 2020, and Jubbaland TVET data, 2021.

In addition to the TVET centres, there are also two national teacher-training institutions in Somalia, with two additional centres currently in development. These two centres are in Jubbaland and Banadir; the former admitted its first batch of students in August 2017. Data from this college evidence no attrition in the four years since it was opened, with all first-year students transitioning to the second year (see *Table 5.3*). All students enrolled in the college are supported by education partners in order to increase the provision of qualified teachers in the country, which has been identified as a critical need of the sector (see discussions in Section 4). However, with only two institutions currently supporting this process, the limitation in the capacity to train the number of teachers necessary to match the growing needs of the school-age population is apparent.

Table 5.3 Enrolment in Jubbaland Teacher Training College

	2017/2018	2018/2019	2019/2020	2020/2021
First-year students	150	150	100	150
Second-year students		150	150	100
Total	**150**	**300**	**250**	**250**

Source: Jubbaland Teacher Training College enrolment data, 2021.

Despite the strategies set out in the National Development Plan (2017–2019) to 'develop monitoring and evaluation framework and plan; establish and build the capacity of the M&E units at federal and state level and introduce joint annual reviews and impact evaluation to closely monitor the progress prior to the implementation of the education sector plan', data collection has not been very effective at tertiary education level. This remains an area of the management of TVET and higher education that will need to be addressed in if the system is to effectively track and monitor the programmes that are on offer, as well as the participation in them.

Overall, more than half the trainees in TVET programmes are female, with participation in some clusters showing obvious gender dominance. The service industry in Somalia is leading the recovery of economic fortunes in the country, with small business thought to be the next driver of economic growth. The establishment and development of small businesses were envisioned to be supported by a strengthened skill development programme, which is only now being implemented through the project-based approach. Although this approach to training may not provide all the skills required to fuel the intended economic revolution, a glimpse of the participation in the clusters on offer reveals even participation between males and females in most of the skill areas. Of the trainees who were in TVET centres in 2020, 53 per cent were female, indicating an even quest for economic empowerment by males and females (see *Table 5.4*). This overall balance notwithstanding, the results demonstrate that males have high participation rates in traditionally male-dominated trades (they account for 91 per cent of the enrolment in carpentry and construction, 89 per cent in disaster management, and 88 per cent in electricity and mechanical trades).

Table 5.4 Share of enrolment in TVET by gender and skills cluster (%)

Skill cluster	Female	% of cluster
Agric and livestock	53.8	2.2
Art & design	92.6	7.1
Business studies	45.9	1.6
Carpentry	8.7	3.2
Construction	8.8	8.2
Disaster management	10.9	0.5
Electricity	12.1	7.9
Hair and beauty	97.8	12.6
Home management	85.9	6.5
ICT basics	35.4	11.4
Literacy skills	49.9	11.5
Mechanical	12.2	6.2
Nursing	58.5	3.7
Tailoring	67.3	17.3
Total	**52.8**	**100.0**

Source: EMIS, 2020.
Note: This table excludes Jubbaland data, as it does not include data on gender or skills cluster and instead uses EMIS data to reflect Jubbaland enrolment.

It is noteworthy though that increasingly, there are more females acquiring skills in

these male-dominated areas, with labour force surveys recommending that female trainees be supported to train for these trades, both to enhance their economic empowerment and to weaken traditional gender norms, which have forced women to focus solely on child care and household chores (Axiom, 2018). In some areas, programmes are nearly filled by female trainees (art and design, hair and beauty, home management). In all other skill clusters, female participants were either the majority or were not outnumbered by males.

Half-year programmes are the most popular in the TVET centres, and nearly 9 in 10 trainees attend NGO-supported centres. The TVET centres provide a range of training programmes, some of which are as short as 3–6 months while others are as long as two years. As illustrated in *Figure 5.1*, 1 in 10 trainees pursued the shortest training programmes, 6 in 10 pursued the six-month programmes, and the remaining third pursued programmes lasting longer than six months. These training programmes are meant to increase the employability of the young people, contribute to poverty reduction among them, and reduce their vulnerability to conflict. Nearly 90 per cent of the trainees in 2020 attended NGO-supported centres, 12 per cent attended privately operated centres, and a very small percentage attended community-supported centres (see *Figure 5.2*). The NGO-supported centres rely mainly on donor funding, which makes them vulnerable, and more so at this time, when donor assistance is expected to take a dip following the disruptions of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Figure 5.1 Duration of training programme

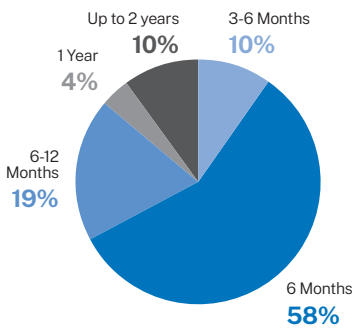
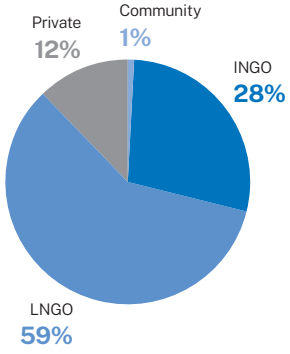


Figure 5.2 Support type for TVET centres



Source: EMIS, 2020.

5.1.1.2 Quality of TVET

Although multiple sources reveal the mismatch between training and labour-market expectations, the country has yet to harmonize the TVET curriculum. This is in part due to limited funding got the sub-sector. The 2018 labour-market surveys conducted across the FMSs indicate a persistent mismatch between skills acquired by trainees and the expectations of the market (Axiom, 2018). Even though the skill clusters discussed above are aligned to the job opportunities available in the market, employers seem inclined to employ university graduates

at the expense of TVET graduates, with this signalling the non-responsiveness of the centre-based TVET curriculum. The low literacy rates among TVET trainees, who take literacy classes alongside their other classes, could also be a contributing factor to the market's preference for university graduates, who certainly have higher literacy and are deemed to be more functional on assignments. In addition, the lack of industry competence standards continues to alienate potential employers, making the absorption of TVET graduates into the labour market thus remains relatively low. According to Axiom (2018), only 15 per cent of TVET graduates from South West state had been absorbed into the labour market in the preceding three years, 10 per cent in Jubbaland, and 20 per cent in Galmudug, demonstrating the weakness in the linkage between the curriculum on offer and the needs of the labour market.

There are no formal standards governing teaching in TVET centres, with more than 4 in 10 instructors having no post-secondary qualifications. The project-based approach to training, the lack of a harmonized curriculum, and the lack of capacity to provide quality assurance to TVET centres mean that they are not properly accountable. The 2020 schools census shows that the 58 TVET centres were served by 332 instructors, and information on qualifications was only available for 219 of them (see *Table 5.5*). Of these, 129 (or 59 per cent) were reported to a have Bachelor's degree (although there was no information about what subject they had studied), 22 (or 10 per cent) had a diploma, and 68 (33 per cent) had no post-secondary education. The latter can be considered to be under-qualified to teach in a TVET centre. Notably, the proportion of under-qualified instructors exhibits large variations between regions, ranging from a low of 8 per cent in Mudug, to a high of 40 per cent in Bay and Lower Shabelle regions, which is reflective of the autonomy of the centres. Although this comes from a more developed context, Woo et al. (2018) observed that a TVET teaching certificate for trainers in Korea translated into better outcomes for students, including higher satisfaction, a

Table 5.5 Academic qualifications of TVET instructors

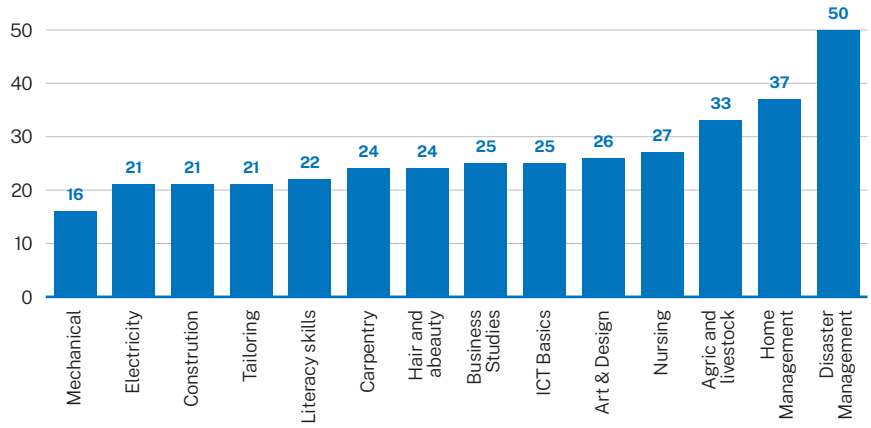
Region	Academic qualification			Total	% under-qualified
	Bachelor's degree	Diploma	No post-secondary		
Bakool	9	-	3	12	25.0
Banadir	53	20	33	106	31.1
Bay	32	1	22	55	40.0
Galgaduud	15	1	3	19	15.8
Gedoa	NA	NA	NA	16	NA
L. Jubbaa	NA	NA	NA	97	NA
L.Shabelle	9	0	6	15	40.0
Mudug	11	0	1	12	8.3
Total	**129**	**22**	**68**	**332**	

Source: EMIS, 2020 and Jubbaland state TVET data, 2020.
Notes: a Jubbaland data did not provide a breakdown of qualification levels and as such, only totals are presented here.

better employment rate, a higher completion rate and better academic achievement. This, and related studies, can be used to strengthen the management of TVET. Academic thresholds should be introduced for TVET instructors, especially in the context of the ongoing policy reforms.

The 2020 schools census also shows fairly modest trainee/instructor ratios, ranging from 16 trainees per instructor in the mechanical skills cluster to 50 in disaster management, as illustrated in *Figure 5.3*. As the government continues to set up policies and legal instruments for governing the delivery of TVET in the country, it will be important to provide clear guidance on the academic qualifications required for TVET instructors as well as the expected distribution of trainers according to skill clusters.

Figure 5.3 Number of TVET trainees per instructor by skill cluster



Source: EMIS, 2020.

There is scant information about TVET graduates, especially about the number of trainees who have been on particular programmes. However, the limited information available on the 2017/18 academic year shows that about 15,400 trainees graduated from TVET programmes, slightly less than half being female and nearly 90 per cent coming from Banadir and Jubbaland states (see *Table 5.6*). The data further show that there were no TVET graduates from Hirshabelle during that academic year, despite the 2018/19 data showing that there are TVET centres in the state (with 457 trainees enrolled). Notably, even in states with a fairly high number of graduates, comparisons between the number of graduates and the number of students enrolled in the subsequent year suggest that some data are not being collected. For instance, in Banadir, there were more than 6,800 graduates in 2017/18, but in 2018/19, there were just under 2,900 trainees, less than half the number of the graduates in the previous year. Similar results are observed in Jubbaland, where 2017/18 figures show that nearly 6,900 graduates were produced but that enrolment dropped to 3,850 the following year. This phenom-

enon somehow affirms concerns discussed earlier, namely that the data on enrolment may be underestimating the number of trainees going through the TVET centres, as data are only collected from the trainees who are in the centres at the time, with little attempt made to collect legacy information.

Table 5.6 TVET graduates, 2017/18

FMS	Male	Female	Total	% Female	2018/19 enrolment	Absorption of graduates (%)
Banadir	4,499	2,339	6,838	34.2%	2,874	
Galmudug	665	797	1,462	54.5%	1,912	20%
Hirshabelle	-	-	-		457	
Jubbaland	2,859	4,000	6,859	58.3%	3,850	10%
South West	98	133	231	57.6%	1,428	15%
Total	**8,121**	**7,269**	**15,390**	**47.2%**	**10,521**	

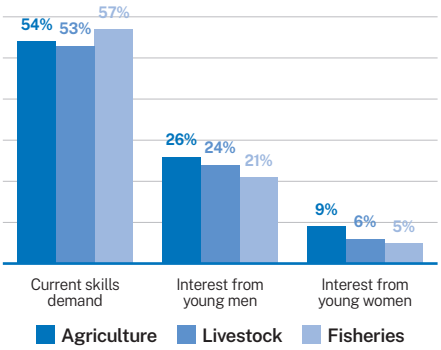
Source: EMIS, 2018.

A finding that is more indicative of the quality or appropriateness of training is the rate of absorption of TVET graduates into the labour market. The labour-market survey conducted by Axiom (2018) shows that only 20 per cent of TVET graduates in Galmudug had been absorbed into the labour market in the three years preceding the survey, with 10 per cent in Jubbaland (all of them in Kismayo and none in Afmadow), and 15 per cent in South West state. A tracer study conducted by a consortium of organizations supporting TVET in the country shows that beneficiaries of the Strengthening Education and Training in Somalia (SETS) programme showed a higher absorption rate, which provides some hope in a rather gloomy situation. This hope is, however, dimmed by the low coverage of the tracer survey, which did not cover all the centres, and even for the centres covered, managed to trace only 490 of the past graduates. Considering the overall number of graduates included in *Table 5.6*, the coverage may not be sufficiently representative of the state of absorption of TVET graduates into the labour market.

The proposed revival of technical professional schools targeting future artisans/craftspeople, technicians and experts in technology could be a game-changer for TVET. The government has finalized a feasibility study looking at reviving technical secondary schools, one of whose aims would be to address the challenge of uneducated young people in the country, with their skill deficit and their susceptibility to unemployment. The country has a history of professional technical schools, having had at least seven before 1991. This experience would be an asset in this context. The government is seeking to modify the curriculum in secondary schools to accommodate introductory and practical vocational skills while keeping the core subjects like mathematics, sciences, and Somali. The government is targeting agriculture, fisheries, veterinary training, nursing, and automotive engineering in the medium term, with the number of training places in these subjects being aligned to labour-market demands. The feasibility study shows that there is a very high demand among employers for people trained in these

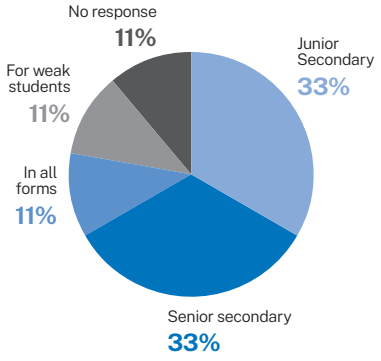
subjects, as well as significant interest among young people in doing the training, which would make it worth introducing them at secondary-school level (see *Figures 5.4* and *Figure 5.5*).

Figure 5.4 Demand for technical skills and interest from potential trainees



Source: Feasibility assessment for professional technical secondary schools in Somalia, 2020.

Figure 5.5 Level of introduction of technical subjects in schools



Source: Feasibility assessment for professional technical secondary schools in Somalia, 2020.

5.1.1.3 Management of TVET in Somalia

The draft TVET Policy 2020 provides a glimmer of hope for the improvement of the management of skill development in the country. The FGS, through its MoECHE and Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, is leading a policy response in TVET to do the following: align the country's TVET delivery to global trends and universal principles of training; improve the credibility of TVET programmes and qualifications; enhance the employability of the young people who undergo training; and clarify the responsibilities of the institutions engaged in the delivery of TVET. The policy is coming as a response to the varying legal and institutional frameworks existing at the FGS as well as the FMS level. The policy review observes that apart from in the region of Puntland, where TVET is seen as a priority, there were no TVET policies in the FMSs. The draft TVET policy is seeking to develop and adopt best practices to ensure that TVET is effective and to help alleviate poverty and other vulnerabilities among young people. For instance, the policy is seeking to ensure TVET is demand-driven and responsive to the labour-market needs, which will help TVET graduates to find work in their specialist areas. The policy is also seeking to ensure equity in the provision of TVET programmes, so that they cover rural areas and are available to young people from marginalized contexts. The policy acknowledges the lack of national recognition of the current qualifications and programmes. It seeks to establish a national qualifications framework, which will cover all recognized programmes, and which can help employers understand important features of TVET, like the level of the qualification, the duration and depth of training, and most importantly, the skills and competences expected of the graduates. This may resolve the present challenge, whereby employers prefer university graduates to TVET graduates because of

the lack of uniform standards for TVET training programmes. The policy also seeks to bring harmony and coordination into the management of TVET, acknowledging that too many parties are involved in it. The policy contemplates a three-tier governance structure, with the FGS and associated ministries expected to be in change of policy and strategy development, this bringing together the MoECHE and Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; the FMSs expected to be responsible for the operation of public TVET institutions; and the institutions themselves expected to deliver accredited programmes under the guidance of a governing body.

The TVET policy presents intentions regarding the creation and maintenance of institutions with high-quality facilities, including general setting up of classrooms and workshops, as well as a provision for institutions to develop health and safety policies. The policy, however, falls short of providing specific guidance on how these intentions will be operationalized at the state and institutional levels. Alongside the generally good intentions in the TVET policy, the FGS and FMSs would need to bring in more rudimentary guidelines on the norms that should be observed by providers to ensure the quality of training is upheld in all operations. This may include but not be limited to specific designs for classrooms and workshops, and the qualifications of TVET instructors for different skill clusters.

5.1.2 Organization and delivery of university education

University education in Somalia is delivered by a fast-growing network of private institutions and one publicly run university. The General Education Law (MoECHE, 2017b) provides that university education is to be delivered through institutions of learning and institutions of research, implying that the mandate of universities is both teaching and research. Today in Somalia, higher education is offered in more than 100 institutions, as registered in the integrated EMIS. As observed in the previous sub-section (on TVET), it is apparent that tertiary education is more accessible to urban dwellers than to those in rural areas, and this is manifested in the location of the higher education institutions, most of which are in Mogadishu and major towns. Out of the 118 institutions registered in the EMIS, the Commission for Higher Education has confirmed operation in 55 through physical visits, 40 of which were shown to be operating from Banadir Regional Administration, while the rest were spread among Hirshabelle, Jubbaland, Puntland, Somaliland, and South West state. The expansion of universities in the country may have been good in terms of opening up access, but weak oversight structures have allowed institutions to be established without the requisite facilities. A study conducted in 2013 reveals a lack of equipment in some institutions, poor equipment in others, and a major lack of key learning and research facilities in most of the universities (HIPS, 2013), which means that the delivery of the highest form of education in the country remains seriously deficient. Improvement of the facilities will not only require increased financing and capacity at the Somali National University but also regulatory intervention in the private institutions, to ensure they install reasonable structures and facilities consistent with the mandate given to institutions at this level.

Available funding for higher education is focused on the Somali National University, leaving other institutions struggling to implement their mandate (see *Table 5.7*). A review of education expenditure on higher education reveals that $5.7 million were spent on post-secondary education in 2020, with $4.8 million going to the Somali National University and the balance being spent by the Intergovernmental Academy of Somali Language and the Somali Academy of Science and Arts. This distribution shows that the Somali National University consumed 85 per cent of the expenditure on post-secondary education in 2020, rising from 78 per cent in 2019. Expenditure on university education as a share of total public spending on education was 33 per cent in 2020, although this comes from an overall sector spending which was already observed to be low (0.47 per cent of GDP – much lower than the recommended 4–6 per cent for low-income countries). According to details of the expenditure on the Somali National University in 2020, 94 per cent of it was dedicated to the salaries and wages of teaching and non-teaching staff, leaving only 6 per cent for goods and services. This means that quality assurance, which is already a challenge for the Commission for Higher Education, owing to its limited funding, cannot be practically implemented. There is no indication in the existing expenditure returns that quality assurance is implemented. In addition, the expenditure returns do not show any budget allocated to research, which is a key aspect of higher education and is highlighted as one of the duties of higher education institutions in the General Education Law (MoECHE, 2017b). The law also states that MoECHE is responsible for overseeing the strengthening of quality and the maintenance of standards in higher education, a responsibility that remains to be seen in the operational expenditures, meaning that this important function may be going unattended to. Besides, although the law provides that private institutions establish their own quality assurance procedures, there is no operation at the FGS level to ensure adherence to this, and this is reflected in the lack of funding for this important function, at both FGS and FMS levels.

Table 5.7 Expenditure on higher education in Somalia, 2019 and 2020 (US$)

	2019	2020
Somali National University	3,870,834	4,825,594
Salaries	3,641,894	4,547,435
Goods and services	228,940	278,159
As percentage		
Salaries	94.1%	94.2%
Goods and services	5.9%	5.8%
Academy of Somali Language	241,389	249,623
Somali Academy of Sciences and Arts	848,157	589,309
Total	**4,960,380**	**5,664,526**

Source: Somali National University.

The Commission for Higher Education is making inroads into the management of higher education, but a lot remains to be done to assure the quality of education. The National Development Plan 2017–2019 contemplated the creation of a higher education commission to develop and implement improvement programmes in the teaching and learning environment in higher education institutions, including the development of a performance framework to review the quality of teaching, scholarships and external engagement of academic staff and engage with institutions to enable them collectively meet

the national priorities, without wasteful duplication. Quality assurance system and programme would be developed and support provided to academic staff to have a range of pedagogical methodologies available to them to be qualified in their disciplines (FGS, 2017).

Against this plan, the Higher Education Commission was successfully established in September 2019, and in spite of the limited funding for the sub-sector, the Commission has shown some good intentions in governing it. The first task it undertook was the tracing of all the institutions of higher learning registered with the EMIS. Out of the more than 100 institutions, the Commission reports that 65 responded to its mapping exercise by providing contact names and physical addresses. A follow-up self-assessment sent to these institutions with a view to appraising various features, including the levels of accreditation of the institutions, the administrative and teaching composition, the financial soundness, and the infrastructural suitability for the delivery of high-quality education, had considerable success. Out of the 65 institutions mapped, 55 (or 84 per cent) responded to the self-assessment, which was followed by a visit by officials from the Commission. One of the challenges that will continue to dog the operations of the Higher Education Commission is the reluctance of most of the registered institutions to engage with the regulator. Although there are more than 100 institutions with reasonably valid addresses in the EMIS database, the Commission has only been able to verify the operation of 55 (or 47 per cent) of them. The work of the Commission remains cut out, to ensure that it can bring all the institutions into the regulatory fold, and to discuss how each institution can make progress in the delivery of teaching and the conduct of research in a conducive environment.

5.1.2.1 Access to university education

Although there were 118 universities in the country in 2020 (according to EMIS data), only 41 were officially recognized by the National Commission of Higher Education in 2021 (Commission for Higher Education, 2021). Out of the 118 institutions, 83 (or 70 per cent) are in Banadir, 6 per cent in Puntland and 11 per cent in Somaliland, while the other four FMSs share the remaining 14 per cent. Of the 41 recognized by the Commission for Higher Education, 29 (71 per cent) are located in Banadir, with no recognized institutions present in Hirshabelle. Annual school census data were collected from 46 institutions covered by EMIS, 35 from Banadir and the balance of 11 shared among the remaining six states. The overall coverage of the data presented henceforth is 39 per cent using the total of 118 institutions.

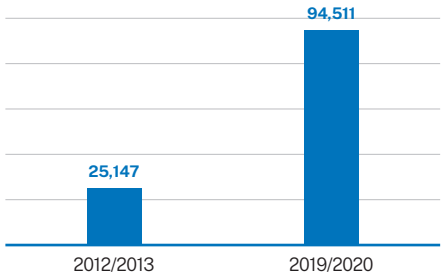
Table 5.8 Distribution of university institutions by state and region

	Institutions listed in EMIS	NCHE-recognized institutions	Institutions covered by EMIS	EMIS coverage	Share of institutions
Banadir	83	29	35	42.2%	70.3%
Galmudug	4	1	1	25.0%	3.4%
Hirshabelle	4	-	1	25.0%	3.4%
Jubbaland	2	1	1	50.0%	1.7%
Puntland	6	3	4	66.7%	5.1%
Somaliland	13	6	4	30.8%	11.0%
South West	6	1	-	NA	5.1%
Total	**118**	**41**	**46**	**39.0%**	**100.0%**

Source: EMIS, 2020; Higher Education Commission; National Commission of Higher Education, 2021

Even though the data collected from operational institutions are limited in coverage, they already show a large increase in the number of students in less than a decade. The 2020 annual schools census shows that there were more than 94,500 students enrolled in all the universities during the 2019/20 academic year, i.e. 92,000 students in private institutions and 2,021 students in the one public university, the Somali National University (see *Figure 5.6*). On the basis of a study of the status of higher education (HIPS, 2013), we observe that enrolment increased at least by 43,000 in comparison with 2013, an 80 per cent increase in seven years (which could possibly be higher if all operational institutions had been included). Examining solely the four FMSs and Banadir Regional Administration, the data show that enrolment increased by nearly 53,600, tripling from the 25,150 recorded in 2013, and reflective of the huge contribution of the private sector to the university landscape.

Figure 5.6 Evolution of enrolment in higher education



Source: EMIS, 2020, HIPS 2013
Note: Enrolment in universities in Puntland and Somaliland was possibly not completely covered in 2019/20.

University education in the country is mainly private, with only 2 per cent of total enrolment seen in the one public institution in the country. Just over 2,000 students were reported to be attending the Somali National University in 2020/21. While this continues to represent a small proportion of overall enrolment, the university has witnessed significant growth in enrol-

ment, seeing it increase by over five times, from 375 students in 2014/15. It has also established campuses in Galmudug and Puntland. This growth has not always been linear, with drops being witnessed in 2018/2019 and 2020/2021, potentially as a result of the 2018 flooding and the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.9 Evolution of enrolment at Somali National University by gender

Year	Male	Female	Total	% Female
2014/2015	288	87	375	23.2%
2015/2016	332	119	451	26.4%
2016/2017	483	131	614	21.3%
2017/2018	730	330	1,060	31.1%
2018/2019	664	312	976	32.0%
2019/2020	1,906	660	2,566	25.7%
2020/2021	1,388	633	2,021	31.3%

Source: Somali National University enrolment data, 2021.

One of the interesting findings about enrolment in university education in Somalia is the balance between humanities and sciences. Without any information on the programmes offered in the universities, and using only the names of the faculties to guide our calculations, we ended up with over 44,320 (or 47 per cent) in humanity-based faculties, while the remainder of 50,190 (or 53 per cent) were in science-based faculties, as illustrated in *Figure 5.8*. This is particularly good news for the evolution of the country's development agenda, which is heavily dependent on growth in the scientific sector.

Figure 5.7 Proportions of enrolment in the public and private sectors in higher education

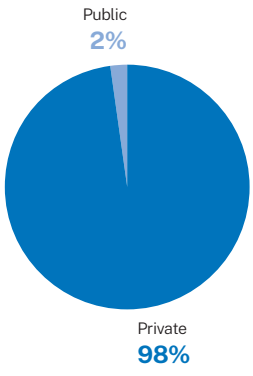
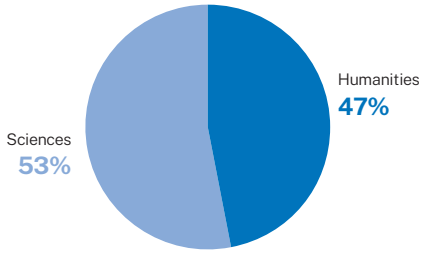
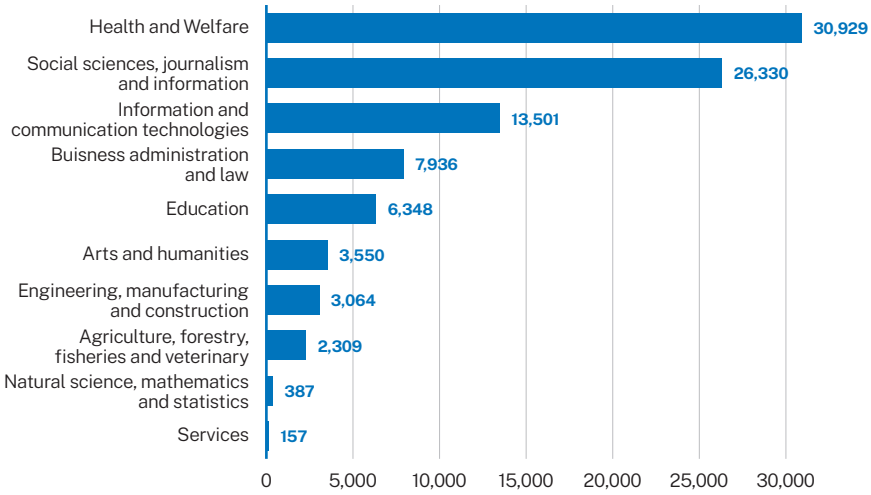


Figure 5.8 Proportions of enrolment in the humanities and sciences in higher education



Source: EMIS, 2020.

Figure 5.9 Enrolment in universities by ISCED domains, 2019/20



Source: EMIS, 2020.

Health and welfare, social sciences, and ICT are the most popular faculties in Somalia's university education. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) allows for the documentation of the levels and available programmes in a country, thus facilitating ease of reference and comparison between and among countries. We refer to the ISCED Fields of Education and Training (UNESCO, 2014), which defines ten fields (or 'domains') of training, which fit into the various faculties. We observe that out of the 94,500 students enrolled in the universities in 2019/20, close to 1 in 3 were pursuing programmes within the health and welfare domain. We also observe that 75 per cent of the students occupied health, social sciences and ICT domains collectively, meaning the other seven domains shared the balance of 25 per cent. Another limitation of the data collected from universities is the lack of gender disaggregation, which means we are not able to demonstrate the participation of female students in each phase of learning.

Together with TVET, the country's higher education sector caters for only a small fraction of the eligible population (young people aged 18–24) (although in some cases vocational programmes are offered in secondary schools). In 2020, population estimates show that there were more than 2 million young people aged 18–24 (see *Table 5.10*). Against this potential demand, available data show that only 103,200 trainees and students were enrolled in these TVET centres and universities, which represents only 5 per cent of the eligible population. This demonstrates the large number of eligible young people who are not reached by post-secondary programmes. Certainly, a lot needs to be done in the future to ensure that eligible young people are targeted with appropriate programmes. This will ensure that they are not only protected against the ever-present lure of social ills, like involve-

ment in terrorism, but also equipped with skills that will see them successfully transition to the labour market and subsequently improve their quality of life.

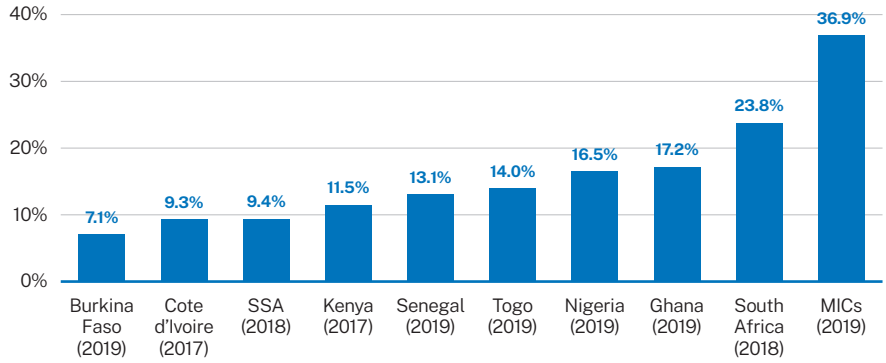
Table 5.10 Participation rates in tertiary education

Enrolment in TVET	8,701
Enrolment in universities	94,511
Total enrolment (2019/20)	103,212
UNFPA 2014 (ESA 2016)	145,309
Population (18–24)	2,152,189
Tertiary GER	4.8%

Source: EMIS, 2020; Jubbaland data, 2020.

Regional comparison on access to tertiary education suggests that Somalia can catch up with some of its peer countries, especially the ones that have had dark pasts in recent years, as has been the case in Somalia. The data show that on average, the participation rate in tertiary education is 9.4 per cent across selected countries on the African continent, ranging from 7 per cent in Burkina Faso to nearly 1 in 4 eligible young people in South Africa. We observed that although access rates in Kenya, Senegal, Togo, Nigeria, Ghana, and South Africa, are above the continental average, all these countries exhibit low access rates to tertiary education, especially in the context of SDG 4, which envisages that countries will create opportunities for all eligible young people by 2030. These comparative figures, especially those from Burkina Faso and Côte d'Ivoire, whose civil context is perhaps similar to the social challenges that Somalia has faced in the past three decades, suggest that Somalia can pursue the expansion of existing supply streams.

Figure 5.10 Tertiary gross enrolment ratio for selected countries



Source: World Bank Development Indicators, 2019

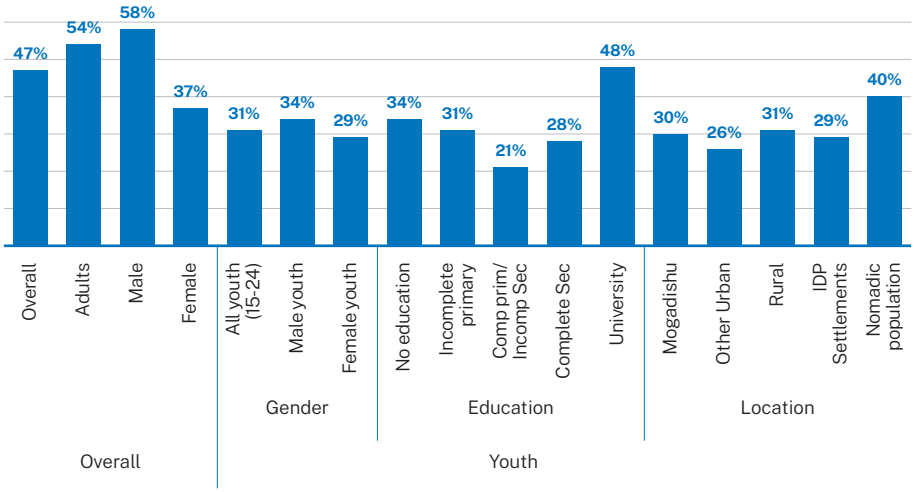
5.2 Labour-market relevance of TVET and universities

Tertiary education is generally expected to educate its graduates and usher them into the labour market in a way that makes them economically useful. Various programmes in Somalia emphasize the importance of investing in human capital development at the tertiary level of education, with a view to alleviating poverty among young people. In this section, therefore, we discuss the link between tertiary education and efficient transitions into the labour market. We discuss the characteristics of the labour market, detailing participation in the different parts of it, and the quality of opportunities available, as seen by those who have obtained jobs. The results presented in this section are derived from the High-Frequency Survey carried out in 2017, labour-market surveys carried out in 2018, and the tracer study carried out for SETS project in 2019.

5.2.1 Labour force participation rate

Less than half the working-age population is active in the labour market, with young people clearly at a disadvantage. The large numbers of children and young people out of school and other forms of education in the country are one of the key contributors to the skill deficit, and labour force participation remains low, especially among young people (see *Figure 5.11*). The High-Frequency Survey conducted in 2017 reveals that less than half (47 per cent) of the population aged 15–64 is active in the labour market, with a clear advantage for men, who are 58 per cent more likely to be active than women. The results also show a clear generational bias: only one-third of the young people aged 15–24 are likely to be active in the market compared to nearly half of the working-age population. Also notable

Figure 5.11 Labour force participation rate among people aged 15–64

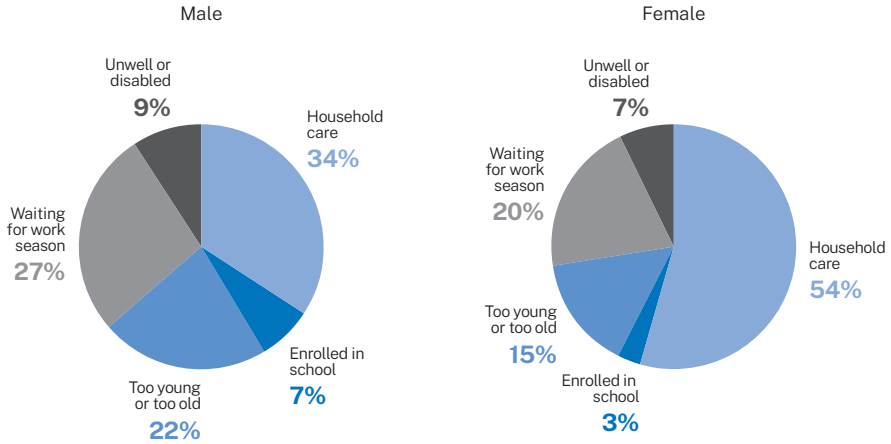


Source: High-Frequency Survey, 2017.

is the fact that access to education does not seem to give young people much of an advantage in the labour market; even young people with a university education are not participating at a high rate, as less than half (48 per cent) were found to be active.

Figure 5.12 highlights some of the reasons behind the inactivity of young people in the labour market, with the biggest differential between young men and women being involvement in domestic care. While 1 in 3 young men are inactive in the labour market because of household duties, this is the case for more than half of the females in this age bracket. This highlights the social norms that continue to prevent half the population from participating in economic activity.

Figure 5.12 Reasons for labour-market inactivity among young people (aged 15–24)



Source: High-Frequency Survey, 2017.

5.2.2 Employment and unemployment

This sub-section presents some labour-market outcomes among young people, focusing on employment rates and the 'not in employment, education, or training' (NEET) phenomenon. In both cases, we discuss the likelihood of young people entering the labour market. We start off by defining the employment and unemployment. The definitions of International Labour Organization (ILO) are presented in Box 5.1.

While the lack of employment opportunities in countries like Somalia should mean unemployment is the opposite of employment, in this analysis we use the classic definition from the ILO. In the High-Frequency Survey, employees, self-employed persons or domestic workers were all considered to have been employed.

BOX 5.1

Definitions of employment and unemployment from the International Labour Organization

Employment
An employed person is a person aged between 15 and 64 years who has worked (for pay or profit) for at least one hour during a given week or who has a job from which they are absent for a temporary period for a valid reason (holidays, sick leave, maternity leave, etc.). Persons who declare having a job from which they are absent are classified as employed if they are absent due to annual leave, maternity/paternity leave, working time arrangements, job-related training, short-time working, a strike, bad weather, regardless of the duration, sick leave if the duration is one year or less, parental leave or other unpaid leave if the duration is three months or less.

Unemployment
An unemployed person is a person aged between 15 and 64: (i) without a job during a given week; (ii) available to start a job within the next two weeks; (iii) actively having sought employment at some time during the last four weeks or having already found a job that starts within the next three months.

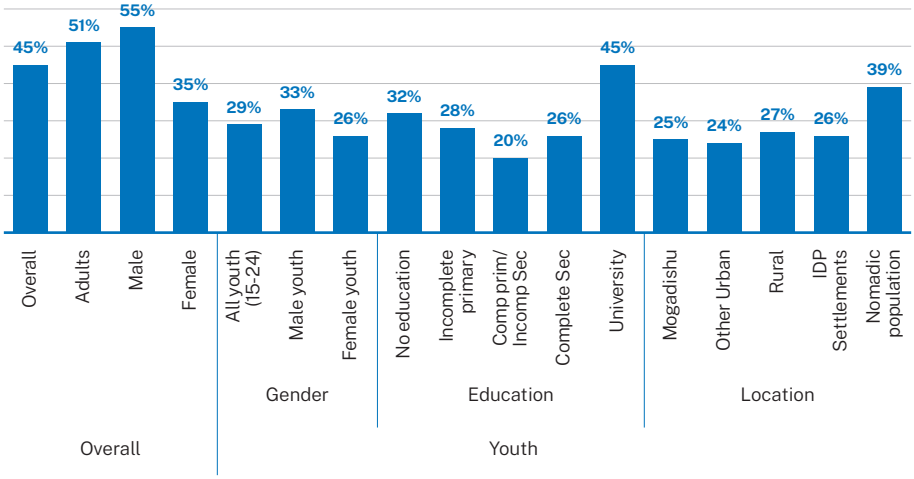
Source: National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies, 2021.

5.2.2.1 Employment rates, using the ILO's definitions

Looking at employment rates (*Figure 5.13*), we see that people with low levels of education (up to the end of primary school) have higher rates of employment than those with some secondary education, although university graduates have a clear advantage over people with lower levels of education. The 2017 High-Frequency Survey reveals that the employment to population ratio was 45 per cent for the entire working age group (15–64 years), with a clear advantage for those aged 25 or over compared to young people. While more than half the people aged 25–64 were employed, this was true for only 29 per cent of young people aged 15–24. With regard to gender, the results show that in the 15–24 age group there is only marginal variation in employment rates, with 26 per cent of young females being employed compared to 33 per cent of young males. The gap, however, rises with age, with the overall working-age population exhibiting a near 20-percent-age-point difference between male and female workers. In terms of educational attainment, we observe that employment tends to drop with rising education levels although only marginally, i.e., 32 per cent of young people without education are likely to be employed compared to 20 per cent of those with some secondary education. This may be because some of them will have dropped out. Although fewer than half the young people with university education are employed, there is a clear difference between this outcome and that of those with only basic education, which is manifested in the tracer surveys conducted

and discussed earlier, whereby employers showed an obvious preference for university graduates over TVET trainees. What is also notable in these findings perhaps is the variation between the employment rates for the young people from all locations on the one hand, and nomads on the other. Controlling for gender and education, nomadic young people are more likely to be employed than young people from Mogadishu, IDPs and young people from other rural and urban areas, possibly because of their inherent movement in search of better livelihoods.

Figure 5.13 Employment to population ratio

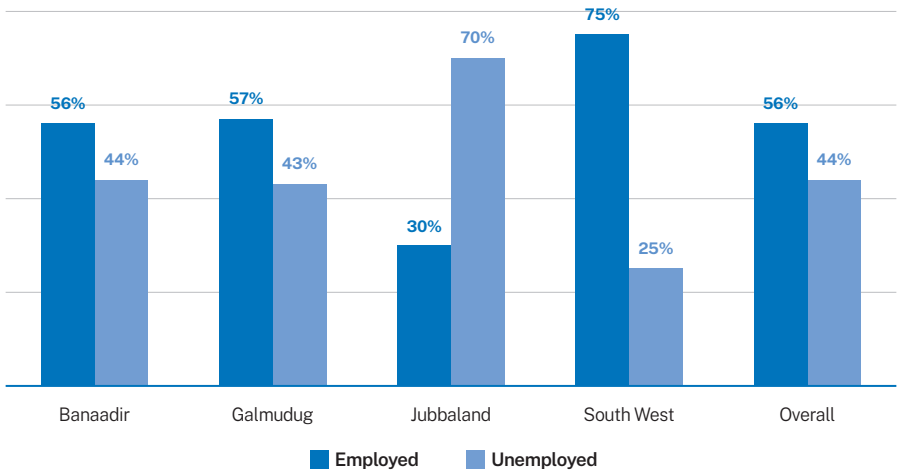


Source: High Frequency Survey, 2017.

5.2.2.2 Employment for TVET graduates

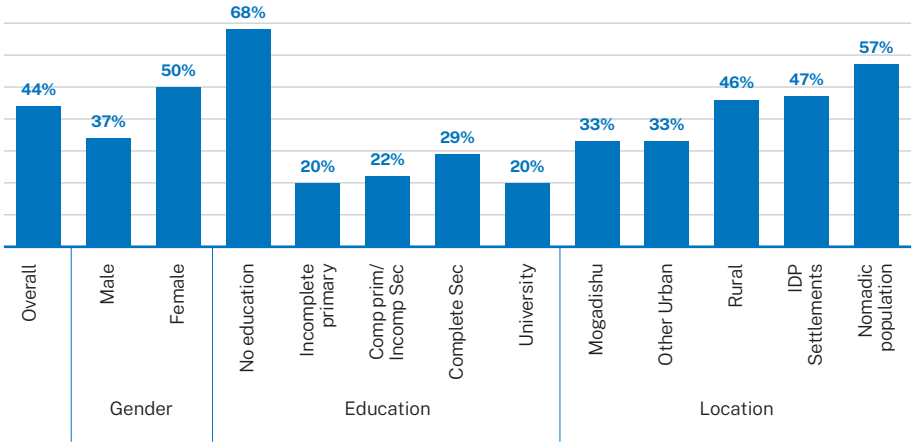
The Strengthening Education and Training in Somalia (SETS) project carried out a tracer study in 2019, to assess the efficiency of the programmes offered by the institutions, especially on the rate of entry into the labour market and the job satisfaction of those that had successfully entered it. A total of 490 young people who had graduated from the supported institutions at least six months before the project began were traced and, as presented in *Figure 5.14*, about 6 in 10 TVET graduates from the SETS project had transitioned into employment, while the remainder were yet to complete their transition. The results show varying employment rates of the traced graduates, the highest transition being observed among graduates from South West state, where 8 in 10 graduates had been absorbed. Jubbaland had the lowest employment rate among the FMSs, at 30 per cent. The graduates who had yet to secure placement cited lack of opportunities (31 per cent), mismatch between their expectations and the opportunities available (30 per cent), domestic and related issues (20 per cent), and difficulty in finding a job or loss of a previous job (19 per cent) as the main reasons behind their employment status (see *Figure 5.14*).

Figure 5.14 Employment status of TVET graduates



Source: SETS tracer study, 2019.

Figure 5.15 Young people not in employment, education, or training, by gender, educational attainment and location



Source: High-Frequency Survey, 2017.

5.2.2.3 Young people not in employment, education, or training

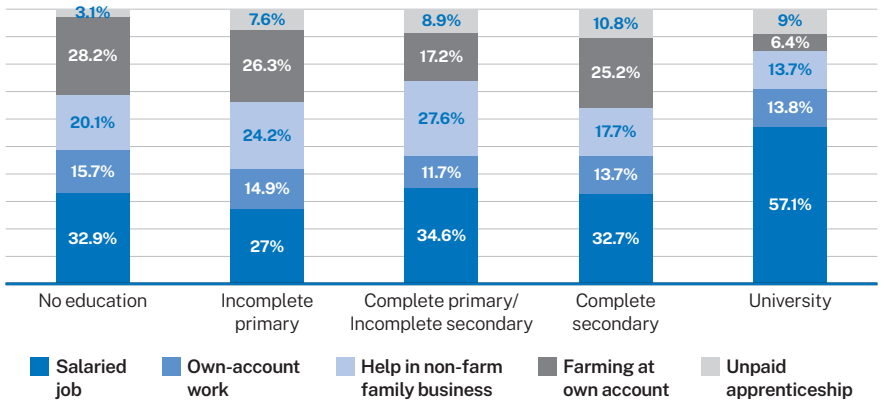
Four in 10 young people are not in employment, education, or training, which may be catastrophic, given the context of the country. The 2017 High-Frequency Survey revealed that 44 per cent of young people aged 15–24 were not working, not in school or university, and not undergoing any training. The phenomenon is more pronounced among women than men, with half of young females being affected, compared to 37 per cent of men. In terms of educational attainment, the phenomenon is at its starkest among young people who have had no education, which makes them susceptible to getting involved with the violent extremism that their environment may be readily displaying. Even university graduates are not spared, with 1 in 5 of the young people with university qualifications affected by this phenomenon. Young people living in rural areas or IDP camps and those from nomadic populations are more affected than young people in Mogadishu, possibly due to limited access to schools and TVET centres (see *Figure 5.15)*.

5.2.3 Quality of employment in Somalia

5.2.3.1 Types of jobs available for those who work

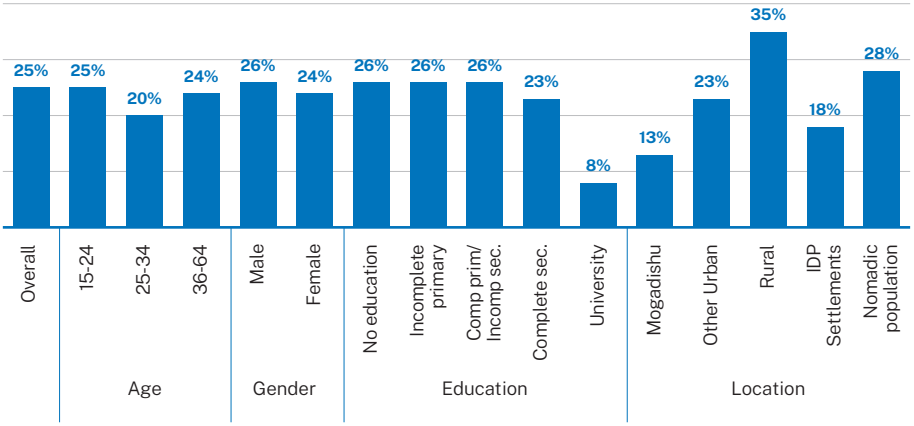
The chances of having a stable, high-quality job are significantly increased by a university education. The High-Frequency Survey gave five possible situations that the employed might be in. These included salaried/waged employment, self-employment at a business (working 'on one's own account'), offering help in a non-farm family business, farming on one's own farm, or engaging in an unpaid apprenticeship. For the purposes of this report, we define a high-quality job as a salaried job and observe that the proportion of workers who were in salaried jobs averaged 32 per cent for those without education or with some schooling. This jumps dramatically to 57 per cent for those with university education, demonstrating the premium that university education has in the country.

Figure 5.16 Types of jobs held, by educational attainment



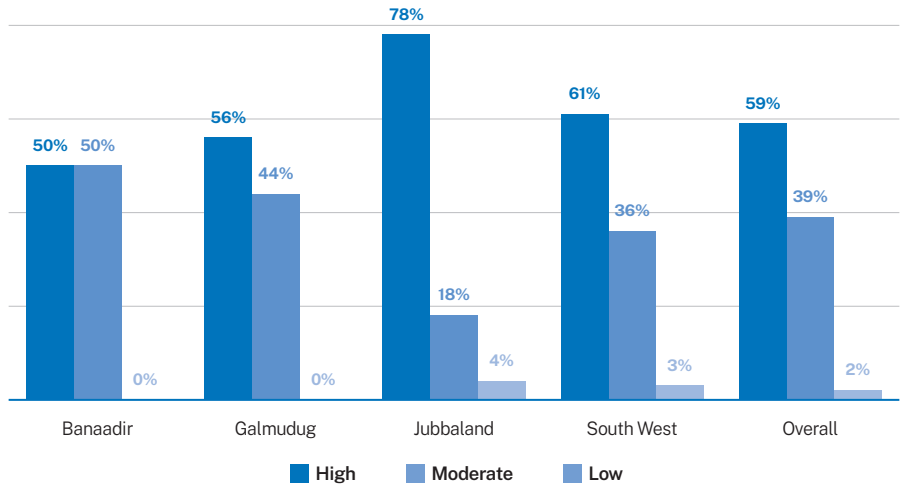
Source: High-Frequency Survey, 2017.

Figure 5.17 Underemployment in Somalia



Source: High-Frequency Survey, 2017.

Figure 5.18 Job satisfaction among TVET graduates



Source: SETS tracer study, 2019.

5.2.3.2 Underemployment in Somalia

There is widespread underemployment in the country, with 1 in 4 of the employed people declaring availability for additional work, which is a huge pointer to the quality of jobs available. We observe that underemployment reduces with rising levels of education – it is highest among those who did not finish primary school and lowest among workers with a university education, suggesting that educated people

have more regular work. The university graduates possibly operate in value addition activities with no interaction with seasonality, a factor which is known to expose workers to underemployment.

5.2.3.3 Job satisfaction for the employed

Job satisfaction was measured across eight themes, namely job security, income and benefits, career prospects, tasks and responsibilities, social recognition, chance of doing something useful in society, fit to use acquired knowledge and skills, and good social climate or work setting. The results of the 2019 tracer study show that on average nearly 60 per cent of the employed TVET graduates were satisfied with their jobs, while 4 in 10 were only moderately satisfied (*Figure 5.18*). Interestingly, only 4 per cent of the graduates had low job satisfaction, which is possibly reflective of a labour market where choices are limited. Satisfaction levels varied across the regions. The highest rate was in Jubbaland, where 78 per cent were highly satisfied, while in Banadir, only 50 per cent of the graduates were highly satisfied, and the other half were moderately satisfied.

5.3 Chapter summary

As with public schools, the reach of government-supported post-secondary institutions is low. Furthermore, it is limited to urban locations, which means most of rural and nomadic populations are locked out of the programmes offered in these institutions. Regional comparisons show that the country lags behind other East African countries, a situation that may be linked to the decades of civil war in the country. The organization of programmes, especially at the university level, is aligned with the international standard classification of education, with fully fledged faculties that allow for cooperation with other institutions. In TVET, enrolment shows parity, although for some programmes there remains dominance from either gender.

The overall funding of the education sector is low, which obviously limits the size and scope of programmes that it can implement. An in-depth review of the sub-sectors reveals that the lack of funding is felt more in some areas. For instance, the funding available for the implementation of TVET and higher education programmes, including monitoring, oversight, and quality assurance, is extremely low. Should things stay this way in the medium to long term, the vision of expanding TVET, including the establishment of professional technical schools, may remain unattained. TVET in the country is almost fully reliant on external support, which also makes this sub-sector vulnerable. While it is reasonable to depend on external resources in the short term, it will be necessary to begin having government resources to implement the major reforms expected.

The TVET sub-sector suffers from the lack of a national qualifications framework, which undermines the chances the country has of making TVET a real driver of economic fortune. This is reflected in the preference for university graduates by employers, who may have no understanding of the package of training offered by TVET centres. If the country is to tap into the enormous potential of its young people through skill development, a deliberate effort has to be put into standardizing and communicating the training offered through TVET, especially the equivalence of the qualifications.

Like in primary and secondary education, there is a huge infrastructural concern. The infrastructure in TVET centres and universities is either limited or of poor quality. Available data suggest that state of the facilities in some of the universities is inadequate, including lack of facilities in some of the institutions. This undermines not only the teaching but also the conduct of research in institutions of higher learning. In terms of the quality of higher education. The recent MoU signed between the MoECHE and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs recognizes the importance of Commission for Higher Education in assuring the quality of training, which may affect young people's transition to the labour market. Yet evidence shows that there is limited political will for operationalizing the Commission for Higher Education. The sector needs to prioritize the functioning of this body if sanity has to be brought to the higher education sub-sector.

There is weak transition to the labour market, with persistent mismatch between the training on offer and the skills demanded by the labour market, whose root cause is the lack of a harmonized curriculum, especially for TVET, something that was declared a priority in the new MoU.

Chapter 6
Governance and institutional analysis of the education sector

This section presents the organization of the delivery of education in the country, focusing on the MoECHE. The section reviews the key responsibilities of the FGS and the FMSs towards the management and delivery of education, highlighting key issues, challenges, and constraints the sector faces as regards the implementation of education policies and programmes.

6.1 Methodology of the analysis

This sub-section is based on primary data collected by the Somali ESA national technical team. A mixed-method data-collection protocol involving the gathering of quantitative and qualitative data was conducted between 1 February and 17 April 2021. Field visits were undertaken to collect data at the FGS, FMS, and regional levels of the education system. Secondary data were also used, consisting mainly of findings from literature reviews as well as documentary analyses of resource materials on the Somali education system.

The primary data were collected through the following: (1) face-to-face interviews with directors and heads of units in the MoECHE, ministries of education in the FMSs, and Banadir Regional Education Directorate, (2) an online questionnaire on Google forms to gather information from senior and middle-level officials of the ministries of education in the FMSs, and (3) questionnaires distributed in hard copy to other stakeholders for completion. Focus group discussions were also held with junior staff in the ministries of education (including clerks, secretaries, drivers, and messengers), teachers, headteachers, students, parents, and non-state actors (staff from national NGOs, international NGOs, private schools, and umbrella associations – networks of non-state schools, originally founded by former teachers in associate school), to solicit their views on the issues raised in the questionnaires. The questionnaire was also administered to key development partners in the education sector.

A total of 1,121 persons participated in the data-gathering exercise, including 223 females, who constituted 20 per cent of the sampled population, while 80 per cent of the respondents were male (see *Table 6.1*).

Table 6.1 Distribution of respondents in the data-gathering exercise (n. and %)

	Females		Males		Total
FGS/FMS	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	respondents
MoECHE	73	23.9	233	76.1	306
Banadir	79	31.3	173	68.7	252
Galmudug	27	14.8	155	85.2	182
Hirshabelle	14	11.1	112	88.9	126
Jubbaland	21	14.3	126	85.7	147
South West	9	8.3	99	91.7	108
Total	223	19.9%	898	80.1%	1,121

Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission.

6.2 Policy framework for the delivery of education in Somalia

6.2.1 The guiding framework for the education system

Overall, MoECHE is mandated to develop regulatory frameworks, policies, and coordination, while the ministries of education in the FMSs are mandated to implement these. The activities of MoECHE, which is responsible for the management of the education sector in the country, are grounded in the Constitution of the Federal Government of Somalia, the country's education development plans and education policies, and international protocols and conventions on education, as well as best practices regarding the development of education. Each of the following documents on the education sector contributes to an enabling environment for the management practices of the Somali education delivery system.

1. National Education Plan (2011): The plan was set to address major concerns in the education sector, among which were: (1) lack of visible impact from the huge funds given to the education sector by development partners, (2) non-uniformity of the different curricula in the country, and (3) lack of a unified examination and certification system. The plan listed what the government had to approve to introduce free and compulsory education, official ages of compulsory education, a National Education Policy, the establishment of education commissions (at national, regional, and district levels), and monitoring of the education sector.

2. Somalia National Development Plan (2020–2024): The plan identifies the challenges confronting the education sector. It advocates the strengthening of the sector by setting legal and oversight frameworks aimed at strengthening MoECHE, and the education ministries in the FMSs, as well as school boards. The plan further advocates setting up and enforcing standards for private-sector providers, ensuring that professional standards are met.

3. National Curriculum Framework (2017): This framework, which was developed in 2017, underpins formal basic education in the country. It outlines the vision, key aims, values, learning competences, subjects, hours of instruction, and approaches to learning in basic education.

4. Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) (2018–2020): The plan sets out the FGS education-sector management goals, objectives, and priorities. It identifies strategies for overcoming challenges related to inequity, limited access to good-quality social services, weak governance, poor service delivery, and limited sector capacity. On governance, the plan sets out strategies for enhancing the organizational capacity of the MoECHE to manage/regulate the education sector, set up a system-wide monitoring and supervision system, establish system-wide use of EMIS, and support the decentralization of education service delivery.

5. National Education Policy (2020): This is a key policy framework document guiding the delivery of services in the education sector.

6. Private School Policy (2020): In 2020, MoECHE validated its policy on private schools in order to intervene more

actively in the running of such schools. The main objectives of the policy are to (1) improve the private education system, in order to ensure that all Somali citizens can receive high-quality education in a conducive environment; (2) improve the quality and relevance of private education, thereby contributing to the socio-economic development of the country; (3) establish basic minimum standards so as to maintain the quality and credibility of the private education system, and (4) improve the functions of private education, with effective management and administrative systems. The Private School Policy (MoECHE, 2020c) classifies schools in Somalia as follows:

a) Public schools: These are publicly owned and operated. The public is often represented by the Ministry of Education or an elected board of education.
b) Private schools: These are founded and operated by private entities. A private school is owned by a legally registered and licensed authority, which could be a charitable organization or a business. There are two sub-categories: (1) not-for-profit private schools operated by a not-for-profit entity such as a charity or a community, and (2) for-profit private schools founded with the intent to make a profit. They could be local or international and managed by a company or organization with shareholders.

7. General Education Act (2021): The Education Law regulates the education system in Somalia, guaranteeing the right of every Somali citizen to have access to high-quality education at each level. The law also details the national, regional, and district education targets, as well as the system that delivers education services, and the expected outcomes. It discusses (1) the levels of formal education, (2) the curriculum framework, (3) the selection criteria for primary and secondary school teachers, (4) teacher recruitment, (5) non-formal education, (6) private schools, and (7) special needs education.

8. National Alternative Basic Education (ABE) Policy and Curriculum Framework (2021): The ABE curriculum framework is aligned with the national curriculum framework and similarly outlines the vision, key aims, values, learning competences, subjects, hours of instruction, and approaches to learning and assessment. It is a condensed version of the formal curriculum, removing non-core subjects and repetition while focusing on learning competences.

9. Policies for Teachers (2021): The policy underpins the preparation and professional development of teachers across the sector. It guides training, selection, remuneration, and responsibilities.

6.2.2 Coordination and cooperation between the government and education partners

The education sector at FGS and FMS level is run according to mutually agreed objectives coordinated by statutory mechanisms, which allow for the participation of players at all levels of governance. The FGS entered into an MoU with the four FMSs (in 2016 with Jubbaland, Galmudug and South West states; in 2017 with Hirshabelle) whose objectives of the MoU included the following: (1) to provide for 'functional assignment' on education between the FGS and the education ministries of the FMSs, (2) to enhance effective and efficient relationships between the FGS and the FMSs in education, and (3) to provide a platform for collaboration, coordination, and cooperation in education. A further MoU was entered into between MoECHE and the Banadir Regional Administration in 2020, whose objective on the other hand, were to (1) devolve education to the regional level on the basis of the federalization of the country, and (2) to transfer responsibility for Level 1 and Level 2 education to the Banadir Regional Administration.

In 2019, the MoECHE instituted quarterly 'inter-ministerial' meetings. The Minister of Education Culture and Higher Education, and the Director General of MoECHE began to meet with the ministers and directors general of the education ministries in the FMSs every four months to discuss policy and strategic issues, as well as the implementation of education programmes and activities. The inter-ministerial meetings serve as a critical coordination forum between the MoECHE and the FMS education ministries.

MoECHE also chairs the quarterly Education Sector Committee (ESC) meeting, which serves as a key coordination forum between governmental and non-governmental stakeholders. The meeting has supported sector implementing partners and MoECHE to communicate more effectively about the implementation of education programmes. The ESC plays an important role in increasing transparency and mutual accountability among all education partners, as well as enabling MoECHE to carry out its key oversight role in the implementation and monitoring of the donor-funded education programmes. In 2019, the MoECHE supported each FMS education ministry to create an ESC in its state. The FMS ESC meetings are held on a monthly basis and offer the governmental and non-governmental stakeholders the opportunity to discuss key issues in the sector at the state level. The monthly state ESC meetings feed into the national-level quarterly ESC meetings. In addition, the Education Cluster was activated in 2008 and is co-led by UNICEF and Save the Children in Somalia. The Somalia Education Cluster ensures a coordinated and efficient response to the education needs of people affected by emergencies and acts as a platform for collaboration and coordination in the response to emergencies.

Another critical platform for coordination and cooperation across the sector is the Joint Review of the Education Sector (JRES), which has been held on an annual basis since 2014. The Joint Review is a government-led, participatory monitoring process,

which brings together different stakeholders, including government, donors, education development partners, civil society, and private education providers, to engage in dialogue, review sector status, and monitor progress towards and performance in the implementation of the Joint Review of the Education Sector plan.

6.2.3 Education stakeholders and their mapping

In the Somali education landscape, the MoECHE is responsible for the development of education on FGS level while FMS education ministries operate at the state level. The regional education officers and quality assurance officers provide support to strengthen the education system at the regional level, while at the district level, the district education officers are expected to oversee the primary school system (MOECHE, 2018a: 22–25). Other stakeholders at the sub-national level include teachers and headteachers of primary and secondary schools. In addition to the government representation, there are non-state actors who support the implementation of education programmes. These include Community Education Committees (CECs), which operate at the school level, addressing issues of teacher accountability and student absenteeism, and umbrella associations, who set minimum standards for their membership and facilitate the training of teachers (World Bank, 2018:10). Other non-state actors include civil society organizations, NGOs, and local and international education partners.

Non-state actors were interviewed during the data-collection exercise for this ESA and asked to share their views on (1) existing gaps in governance issues which are of concern to them, and (2) how stakeholders could contribute to resolving or closing the gaps in some of the governance issues. Table 6.2 is a summary of their perspectives (grouped on basis of national and international NGOs) on governance issues in the education delivery systems.

Table 6.2 Perspectives of non-state actors on governance issues in the education system

Stakeholder	Gaps in governance issues which are of concern to the stakeholder	How the stakeholder can contribute to resolving/closing the gaps on the governance issues
National NGOs	• Out-of-school children: Getting out-of-school children back into school after shocks (conflict, natural disasters) • Prioritizing inclusive education for disadvantaged • children (children with disabilities, marginalized children, street children, IDPs, children in rural areas) • Eliminating early marriage for girls • Placing more emphasis on children's learning outcomes (children achieving competences in numeracy and literacy) • CECs and local education authorities stepping up the management of education outcomes	• Engaging the ministry closely and improving cooperation and coordination between government and implementing NGOs • Education-sector committee meetings are an important platform that stakeholders can use to contribute to governance issues in education delivery • Contributing to education in emergencies, public schools, non-formal education /TVET, and teacher development • Empowering all within the chain of command on governance issues around the education continuum, from teachers to CECs • Sharing experience related to governance issues through participation in capacity development
International organizations (INGOs)/ Donors	• Measuring performance to reflect whether: • education systems are meeting their objectives • public resources are being used appropriately • standards are available and being followed • relevant and reliable data are available for planning, ensuring accountability by governments • Supporting equitable, efficient, and effective service delivery in the education sector in a safe and protective learning environment • Supporting governance practices to enable • improved capacity for service delivery at FGS and FMS levels and as part of overall state-building, • a human rights-based approach to education (especially women, girls, and minorities) • Somali ownership and commitment • Promoting inclusivity and accountability in the education delivery system	• Supporting system-strengthening, capacity-building, advocacy, evidence-generation and knowledge-management • Providing support to technical capacities, policy development, and financial contribution • Active participation in forums that are aimed at strengthening education governance systems and structures, and fund-raising for the actualization of national education development plans and strategies as developed by the government

Source: Data collected by National Team during 2021 ESA mission.

6.3 Mandate, functions, and organizational arrangements

6.3.1 Mandate

The mandate of MoECHE is to provide high-quality education and training to create a competent workforce for the local and international job market, and promote economic growth, innovation, national cohesion, and peace

6.3.2 Vision

Its vision is envisaging a high-quality modern education system for Somali citizens that offers equal opportunities, promotes respect for human rights, and observes Islamic principles.

6.3.3 Mission

MoECHE's mission is to facilitate, guide, deliver, and coordinate universal high-quality education to promote national integration, social justice, and development in Somalia.

6.3.4 Core values

The core values which the leadership of the MoECHE has agreed to adopt are (1) promoting inclusivity in MoECHE's operations, (2) promoting equity, with no form of discrimination allowed in its employment policy, (3) embracing relevance and quality in all areas of operation of MoECHE, and (4) establishing and promoting partnerships to deliver education to the Somali citizenry.

BOX 6.1

Box 6.1 Functions of MoECHE according to the General Education Law (2021)

1. Establishment and development of education services, and implementation of the Education Policy
2. Development, implementation, and improvement of the education curriculum
3. Promotion and development of adult education
4. Establishment and execution of certification tests and examinations, and the issuance of certificates
5. Establishment of special needs education for students who need additional support to learn
6. Establishment of regulations for public and private schools and institutions
7. Strengthening of coordination and accountability of educational institutions
8. Strengthening of the relationship between public and private education institutions
9. Development and improvement of education in rural areas
10. Improvement of national literacy and numeracy levels
11. Improvement of the quality and quantity of education that is equally accessible for girls and boys
12. Promotion and development of the good Somali cultural heritage, arts, and literature

6.4 Departmental functions

Most departments of the MoECHE do not have documents detailing their functions and which should guide their operations, while some heads of department have a poor understanding of the roles of their departments. During the interviews with the departments, it became apparent that most departments did not have documents detailing their functions. However, the directors and heads of departments/units were able to list the functions that they believed should be assigned to their respective departments. A few of the directors and heads of department raised concerns about frequent leadership changes and switching of positions, which may explain their poor understanding of departmental functions, roles, and responsibilities. *Table 6.3* presents a summary of the responses given by the departments when they were asked to identify the functions that had not been satisfactorily performed by MoECHE, and the reasons for such lapses. The main reasons given across the departments include the following: (1) human capital deficit (capacity gaps or lack of skill among the leadership of the departments), making it difficult to understand and undertake the successful implementation of the functions, (2) inadequate resources, and (3) absence of documented terms of reference or mandate/functions for the departments.

Table 6.3 Functions inadequately performed by MoECHE departments, with reasons, as identified by staff and managers

Summary of the mandate of the department	Functions not satisfactorily performed	Reasons for department's inability to perform the assigned functions satisfactorily
Department: TVET and Non-Formal Education (NFE)		
To lay down a practicable TVET & NFE management system at federal and state levels. To lay down policies and all legal frameworks. To produce a uniform/ harmonized curriculum for all TVET centres & NFE with support of Curriculum Development Department. To coordinate the ongoing and up-coming TVET & NFE activities and projects in the country to avoid duplication.	Facilitating adult education Creating vocational schools.	Inadequate funding of the department by government. Inadequate human capital. Major leadership changes leading to non-prioritization of departmental functions.

Summary of the mandate of the department	Functions not satisfactorily performed	Reasons for department's inability to perform the assigned functions satisfactorily
Department: Curriculum Development & Quality Assurance		
To set up the curricula for the state. To assess the international curricula and adapt them for local use. To set policies and frameworks and write out the curriculum. To evaluate and assess before and after implementation of the established policies and frameworks. To assure the quality of the curriculum.	Establishing yearly work plan. Setting the policies for early childhood education. Setting the Alternative Basic Education (ABE) policy. Conducting quality assurance. Setting policies and standards. Implementing the MoU signed with the FMSs. Conducting capacity-building for FMSs and Banadir region.	Delay in funding. Lack of permanent human resources: there are very few permanent staff. The whole department consists of 10 people, and it hires part-time staff for every stage/ aspect of its function: policy-making and framework, writing the syllabus, evaluation, and quality assurance. The non-permanent staff hired require capacity-building to be able to cope with the departmental functions.
Department: Higher Education and Culture Department		
Develop a higher education, research and accreditation framework for Somalia. Establish a database of all universities in Somalia: the department is in the process of collecting the key information. Improve the department's capacity in terms of infrastructure and equipment.	Research and innovation development. Building a database for universities. Undertaking quality assurance training for the higher education institutions, and capacity-building for university staff.	Insufficient funding from government and from the partners. Limited human capital and lack of skill.
Department: Policy & Planning		
To establish educational policy plans for the MoECHE.	Setting the policies for emergency education. Conducting joint review of education sector (must be conducted every year according to the ESSP). Setting the policies of the accelerated education system.	Limited domestic finances. COVID-19 pandemic restrictions.

Summary of the mandate of the department	Functions not satisfactorily performed	Reasons for department's inability to perform the assigned functions satisfactorily
Department: Finance & Administration		
Develop MoECHE budget plans and appropriation of resources according to the work plans provided by the departments. Manage MoECHE finances and monitor expenditure. Liaise with the Ministry of Finance to ensure that the budgets are approved and availed on time and for the designated purposes. Develop management, maintenance and rehabilitation plans for key infrastructure and implement them. Develop and implement human resource policies, strategies, and procedures to ensure MoECHE has the right staff to achieve its goals. Coordinate and manage general operations and support services. Establish and maintain an integrated human resource information system, financial management systems, records, and information management systems. Manage assets and equipment. Coordinate planning, budgeting, and preparation of procurement plans and reports.	Developing MoECHE budget plans and appropriation of resources according to the work plans provided by the departments. Payment of teacher salaries. Providing running costs to MoECHE.	Delays in receiving the approved budget for MoECHE, and/or the approved budget not being received in full. Capacity gaps and lack of skill and among the staff in the department.

Summary of the mandate of the department	Functions not satisfactorily performed	Reasons for department's inability to perform the assigned functions satisfactorily
Department: Examinations & Certifications		
Controlling school year time. Review of examination system. Monitoring of examination centres. Monitoring of examination systems. Monitoring examinations for primary, secondary, and university candidates. Printing and certification.	Examination issues	Delays in exams, Conflict with the FMSs. Lack of uniform curriculum. Lack of resources. COVID-19.
Department: Teacher Development Department		
To provide teacher training (pre-service and in-service). To create pathway to teacher licences. To develop a teacher policy. To undertake recruitment of teachers. To carry out promotions of teachers.	Setting up committee that collects information on teachers between FMSs and FGS level. Creating institution for teacher training. Establishing teacher training curriculum.	The teacher policy is still in the validation phase with FMSs. The department is not equipped with the human resources required to perform some of the tasks. Not enough budget to manage all the assigned tasks. Education partners do not deliver tasks on time. Lack of supervision, as there is no supervisory unit. COVID-19 restrictions prevent teachers from meeting. Lack of resources to perform daily tasks. No documented terms of reference for the department

Summary of the mandate of the department	Functions not satisfactorily performed	Reasons for department's inability to perform the assigned functions satisfactorily
Department: Human Resource Department		
Aligning MoECHE's human resource assets with the regulations and policies.	Undertaking performance evaluation. Management of the staff. Proper staff motivation.	Lack of sufficient budget for the department. Lack of proper terms of reference for the staff of MoECHE. Since recruitment is under the Ministry of Labour, the process of recruitment and hiring is inefficient.

Source: Summarized functions of MoECHE by the national team during the 2021 ESA mission.

6.5 Organization of the education system: Challenges arising

6.5.1 Function gaps in MoECHE's departments

In addition to the primary data collected by the national team, this ESA mission also uses the World Bank capacity assessment conducted in 2018, in order to gain a better understanding of the function gaps in MoECHE's departments. The report (Federal Government of Somalia and World Bank, 2018) discusses the 're-organization and modernization' of MoECHE and identifies gaps in the functions in its various departments. These are summarized in *Table 6.4*. The report suggests a reduction in the number of departments, from the existing ten to seven. It also proposes functions for the departments and suggests job descriptions and specifications for the various positions/offices. It also recommends the key competences required for the different office-holders in the proposed 28 sections of the ministry's departments.

Table 6.4 Function gaps in MoECHE departments

Department	Summary of function gaps
Planning and Budget Department	• Lack of adequate skills to manage the ministry activities, plans, and budgets. • Lack of technical capacity to develop strategies and policies as well as collect, analyse, and manage sector data. • No data bank to store critical institution information. • Limited resources to implement plans. • The current EMIS does not have adequate capacity to accommodate the sector data. • Lack of sector data, especially from the FMSs. • No internal policies to govern staff accountability. • Mandate overlaps with that of the Finance and Admin Department. The budgeting function has not been released by that department
Curriculum Development and Quality Assurance Department	• It is one of the poorly resourced sub-sectors with no equipment and lacks adequate human capital. • Lacks capacity to develop and implement a curriculum capable of delivering high-quality education in Somalia. • The National Curriculum Framework developed in 2017 with the support of UNICEF has not been implemented, owing to lack of resources and expertise. • Does not have the required resources, infrastructure, and expertise to develop and promote competence-based curriculum for equitable access to high-quality education. • Department lacks infrastructure and monitoring systems, hence not able to deliver education or monitor education delivery in the country.

Department	Summary of function gaps
Department of Federal Member States and Partner Coordination	• Limited capacity to enforce policies across the FMSs. • Lack of regulatory and policy framework to coordinate the education sector in FGS. • Inter-ministerial mandate overlap. • Poor skills for enhancing education-sector coordination at FMS level. • Lack of infrastructure to support coordination of education activities at FMS level with partner states. • Lack of uniformity of education plans across the country, hence lack of accountability among the sector partners. • There is no partner coordination strategy and no unified curriculum in the sector. • Donors' activities are rarely monitored, leading to the ministry's inability to account for the contributions of non-governmental partners.
Teacher Development and Management Department	• Lack of qualified staff to manage the activities of the department. • Lack of teacher-training curriculum and manuals. • Lack of training resources, including essential tools. • Lack of teacher-training policies • Lack of teacher information management system, including monitoring the recruitment and retention of teaching staff across the country. • Lack of teacher-training centres
TVET and Non-Formal Education Department	• Limited resources to support sector development. • Lack of policies and guidelines to govern TVET, for example, no standardized curriculum, examination, and certification. • Poor infrastructure. • Lack of qualified TVET instructors. • Lack of TVET coordination between FGS and FMSs.
Higher Education and Culture Department	• Department does not have the capacity and resources to develop and manage the higher education sub-sector at FGS and FMS levels. • Department does not include TVET centres. • Department has not classified diploma and certificate institutions as part of its mandate, though they should. • Lack of higher education policy at FGS and FMS levels limits the oversight of higher education institutions. • The private institutions do not have checks from the ministry or its affiliate institutions, owing to limited capacity of MoECHE, and weak policies.

Source: Summarized from FGS and World Bank (2018).

6.5.2 Overlapping functions in MoECHE departments

Table 6.5 summarizes incidences of overlaps and duplication of functions in various departments of MoECHE.

Table 6.5 Overlapping functions in MoECHE departments

Key functions in various departments of the MoECHE	Departments					
	Planning/ Policy	TVET, Non-Formal Education	Curriculum and Quality Assurance	Teacher Dev.	Higher Education & Culture	Human Resources
Curriculum development and implementation		✔	✔			
Quality assurance			✔		✔	
Policy formulation and Policy alignment	✔	✔	✔			✔
Creation of database, data collection and analysis	✔			✔	✔	
Establishing teacher database		✔		✔		
Planning, co-ordination, and evaluation of project and budget plan	✔		✔			

Source: Summarized from data collected by the national team during the 2021 ESA mission.

6.5.3 Governance issues and challenges in MoECHE

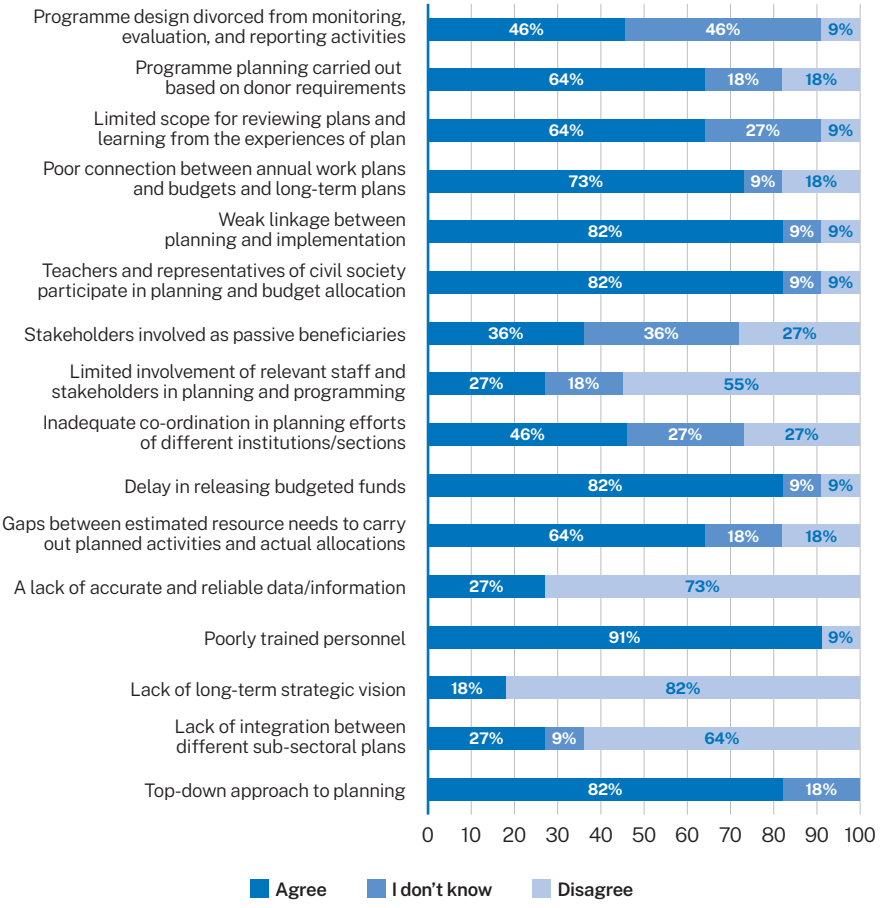
We consider governance in education to be the interaction of processes and bodies through the various laws, policies, statutes, and norms established by the relevant authorities to facilitate the running of the education system. We therefore explore the challenges experienced in the main functions allotted to the MoECHE, including planning, development of education policies and programmes, policy implementation, and looking after the education management information system.

6.5.3.1 The planning process in MoECHE, and its challenges

Weak staff development, weak linkages between planning and implementation, and inefficient fiscal execution are some of the issues affecting planning in the sector. Senior and middle-level staff of MoECHE

were asked to comment on the planning process and its challenges. According to the respondents, key challenges facing the planning process in MoECHE include poorly trained personnel (identified by 91 per cent), weak linkages between planning and implementation (82 per cent), delay in releasing budget funds (82 per cent), and top-down approach to the planning process (82 per cent), as shown in *Figure 6.1*. Other major concerns include weak linkages between plans and budgets, considering that budgeting in the country is still line-item-based yet programmes are mostly medium-to-long term. The large contribution from development partnerss seems to be influencing plans, which may be counterproductive as this has been identified by those at the helm as one of the challenges of planning.

Figure 6.1 Perceived challenges in MoECHE planning processes

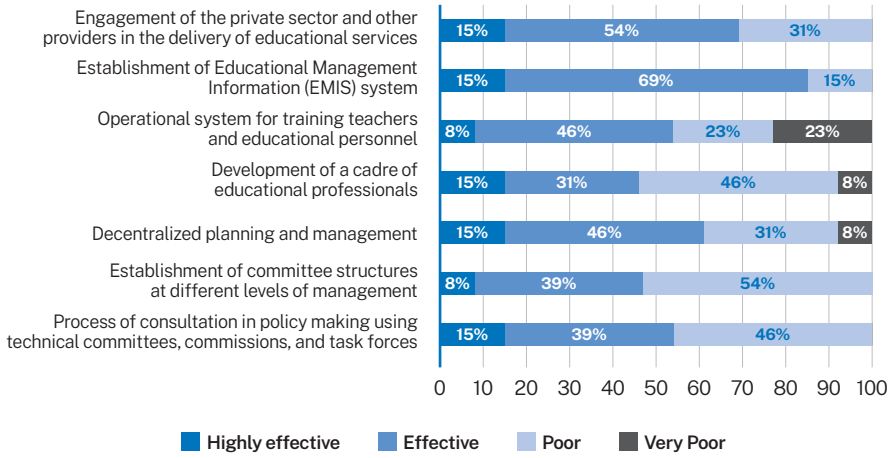


Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission (n=11).

6.5.3.2 Effectiveness of education policies and programmes

The establishment of the EMIS is seen as one of the most effective recent developments in the sector. *Figure 6.2* presents some of the recently developed and implemented policies in the sector, showing the extent to which, their users thought they were effective or otherwise. Staff in MoECHE's planning department believe that the establishment of the EMIS, the engagement of the non-state actors in education delivery, and the decentralization of education planning have been effective in driving education delivery – with a considerable number believing them to have been highly effective. On the other hand, nearly half the staff believe that the system for the training of teachers, the establishment of committee systems at various levels of management, and the process of consultation in policy-making using technical committees, all of which are meant to be strong pillars of education delivery, were poor.

Figure 6.2 Effectiveness of recent education policies and programmes, according to staff in MoECHE's planning department

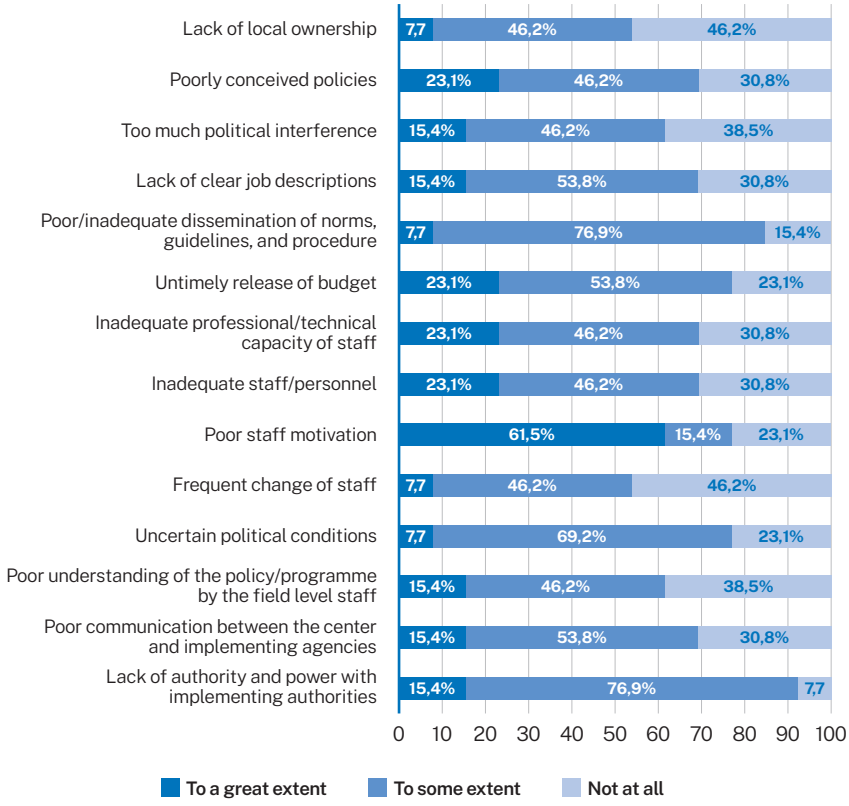


Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission; (n=13).

6.5.3.3 Challenges in policy implementation

Poor staff remuneration, political uncertainty, and lack of authority in some agencies are some of the biggest hindrances to the implementation of policies in the sector. *Figure 6.3* presents the views of middle-level staff of the MoECHE on the challenges hindering the implementation of policies in the sector. Poor staff motivation stands out as the main problem, with 6 in 10 staff indicating this to be a major concern. Lack of authority and power on the part of the implementing authorities, uncertain political conditions, and poor/inadequate dissemination of norms, guidelines, and procedures were all believed to be factors that are responsible for the poor implementation of education policies.

Figure 6.3 Challenges in the implementation of education policies

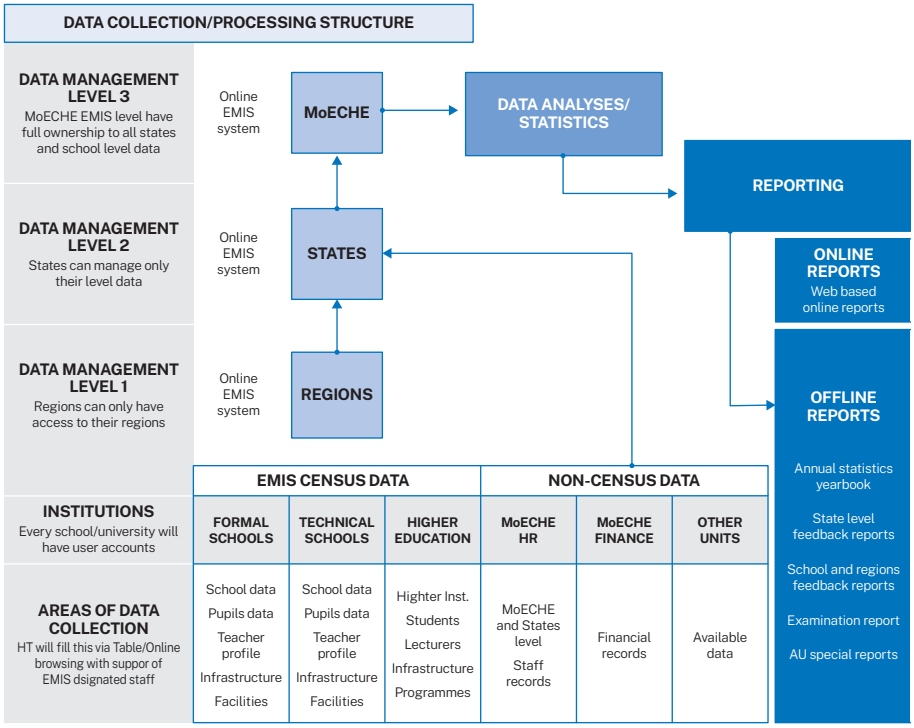


Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission; (n=13).

6.5.3.4 Effectiveness of the EMIS

Although a new EMIS has been put into operation, effort is needed to stabilize the system for the delivery of high-quality and comprehensive data on the education system. The new EMIS has undergone changes in the recent past, with the system being decentralized to the state, district, and school levels. In 2018, MoECHE replaced the Pineapple EMIS software with an EMIS system customized for the country. The system was developed in-house and operates on three layers, i.e. school, FMS, and FGS levels, as outlined in *Figure 6.4*. The new software was launched in 2019 and has been rolled out to nearly 1,000 schools in the five FMSs. Head teachers are responsible for inputting data from their respective schools, followed by verification by the district education officer and then the education ministry in their FMS, after which the data are received at the FGS MoECHE level. District education officers and FMS education ministries are responsible for quality control and monitoring of the data provided by head teachers. While

Figure 6.5 Outline of the Somali EMIS



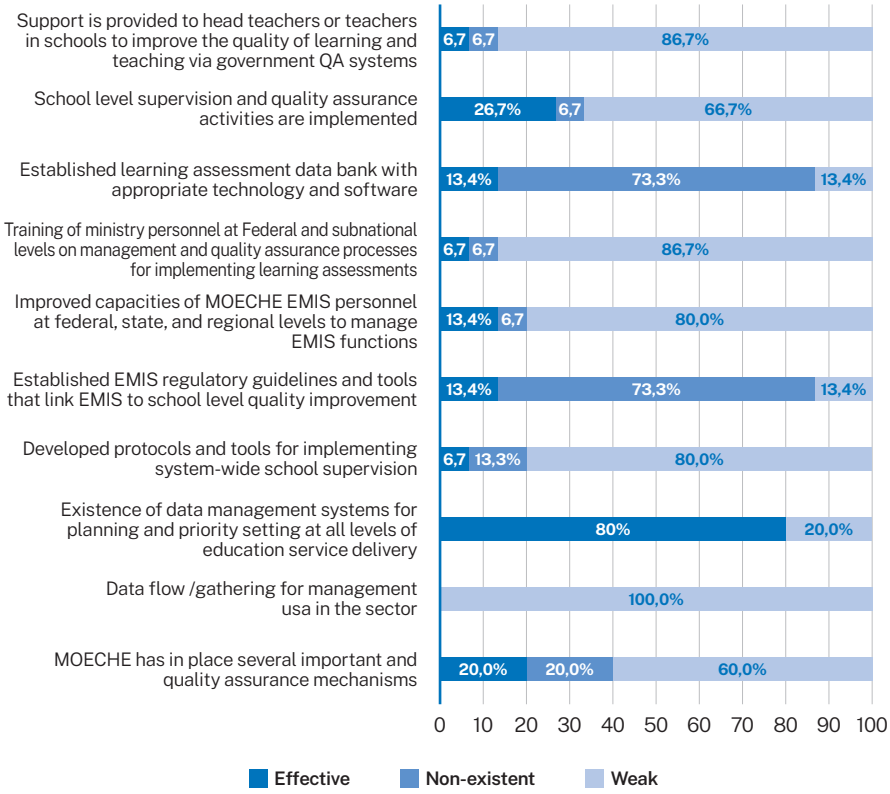
Source: MoECHE.

progress has been made with the system, data quality issues remain and understanding of the system by the personnel involved (e.g. head teachers, district education officers) is inadequate. In addition, EMIS activities are entirely dependent on external donor support and have been implemented on a minimal budget in recent years.

Figure 6.5 presents the thoughts MoECHE staff on the effectiveness of the EMIS, highlighting (1) quality assurance mechanisms in place in MoECHE, (2) data management systems, (3) tools used for implementing system-wide school supervision, (4) the development of the EMIS policy framework, (5) training of ministry personnel, and (6) school-level support and supervision. In the interviews, respondents indicate that:

a) the capacities of personnel managing EMIS at all levels are very weak
b) the training of ministry personnel at the FGS and FMS levels on data management and quality assurance are very weak
c) guidelines and tools that link EMIS to school-level quality improvement are non-existent
d) data flow/gathering mechanisms for management use in the sector, and the effectiveness of the tools for implementing system-wide school supervision, and school level supervision and quality assurance activities are weak.

Figure 6.5 Effectiveness of the EMIS, according to MoECHE staff



Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission (n=15).

6.5.4 Human resource management and development

6.5.4.1 Staffing and staff development in MoECHE

The education sector has a total staff of 600, the majority of whom are male. *Table 6.6* shows the overall staffing of the MoECHE and the the FMS ministries of education. The number of staff varies from 202 in MoECHE to 55 in South West state, 89 in Jubbaland, 34 in Hirshabelle, 68 in Galmudug and 154 in Banadir. Overall, 8 in 10 members of staff from the two levels of government are male, with large variations observed across the states. For instance, the share of males ranges from nearly all staff (94 per cent) in Hirshabelle to two in three staff members in Banadir.

The majority of the staff at MoECHE fall into the technical category, with signs of understaffing at some critical levels. Out of the 202 members of staff at MoECHE,

Table 6.6 Distribution of staff by gender in MoECHE and the FMSs (N. and %)

	Female		Male		
FGS/FMS	Number	%	Number	%	Total number
MoECHE	42	21	160	79	202
Banadir	51	33	103	67	154
Galmudug	10	15	58	85	68
Hirshabelle	2	6	32	94	34
Jubbaland	11	12	78	88	89
South West	8	15	47	85	55
Total	**124**	**21**	**478**	**79**	**602**

Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission.

Table 6.7 Distribution of MoECHE staff by category and gender

Staff category	Female	Male	Total	% Female	Share of category (%)
Higher education Committee	3	6	9	33.3	4.5
Cultural attachés	3	17	20	15.0	9.9
Temporary staff	12	23	35	34.3	17.3
Technical advisors	3	11	14	21.4	6.9
Civil servants or permanent staff	21	103	124	16.9	61.4
Total	**42**	**160**	**202**	**20.8%**	**100.0%**

Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission.

138 are considered to be technical or permanent staff, accounting for nearly 68 per cent of the total staff complement (see *Table 6.7*). Considering the reconstruction work in the country, having a huge team dedicated to the conceptualization and testing of ideas that can change the sector is a particularly good thing. Notably, while the structure needs heads of sections/units as well as clerical staff, there are none in post at the moment, pointing to a gap in staffing. The staff can be civil servants on long-term employment arrangements, or short-term consultants or technical advisors supported by development partners. Out of the 202 MoECHE staff, 124 are civil servants, 14 are technical advisors, consultants or project officers, and 35 are temporary staff.

Nine in ten members of staff are administrators or policy-makers, with considerably high academic qualifications. *Table 6.8* shows staff distribution according to staffing levels and bands,[7] as well as the gender composition within each level. The staffing at MoECHE is classified into three levels, each having various bands. The majority of the staff (88 per cent) are at Level 1, which contains administrators or policy-makers. The qualification for this level is a university

7 Categorization into the three levels is based on tasks and responsibilities, while the bands are based on roles and functions carried out, skills, and level of qualifications and training required.

Table 6.8 Staffing structure in MoECHE showing banding system

Level and band	Category of Employee	Level of education	Female	Male	Total	% Female	Share by category (%)
Level I, Band A	Intellectual and Administrator / Policy-makers	Degree	30	137	167	18.0%	82.7%
Level II, Band B	Supervisors /Line managers	Diploma	0	0	0	NA	0.0%
Level II, Band C	Clerical officer	High school	0	0	0	NA	0.0%
Level III, Band D	Support staff		0	0	0	NA	0.0%
Level III, Band X	Apprentice / Non-Formal		0	0	0	NA	0.0%
Level III, Band F	Formal technician		0	0	0	NA	0.0%
	Temporary staff		12	23	35	34.3%	17.3%
Total			**42**	**160**	**202**	**20.8%**	**100.0%**

Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission.

Table 6.9 Staff distribution in MoECHE departments

Department	Directors/ HODs	Heads of section	Technical advisors	Technical staff	Clerks & Secretaries	Drivers & messengers	Total
TVET & Non-Formal	0	0	1	5	0	0	6
Curriculum Development and quality assurance	1	1	4	4	0	2	12
Finance and Admin.	1	4	1	4	0	22	32
Higher Education and Culture	1	1	0	9	0	0	11
Policy and Planning	0	0	6	17	0	0	23
Teacher Development.	1	0	0	7	0	0	8
Human Resource	0	0	0	8	0	0	8
Exams and Certification	1	3	2	9	3	1	19
Total	**5**	**9**	**14**	**63**	**3**	**25**	**119**

Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission.

degree, which makes the general staffing of the MoECHE considerably well qualified to undertake the functions assigned to it. Notably though, there are no supervisors in the staffing structure. Although the structure contemplates apprentices and technicians as well as clerical staff, they are not in post currently. There are, however, temporary staff (12 per cent) who are yet to be absorbed into the civil service structure.

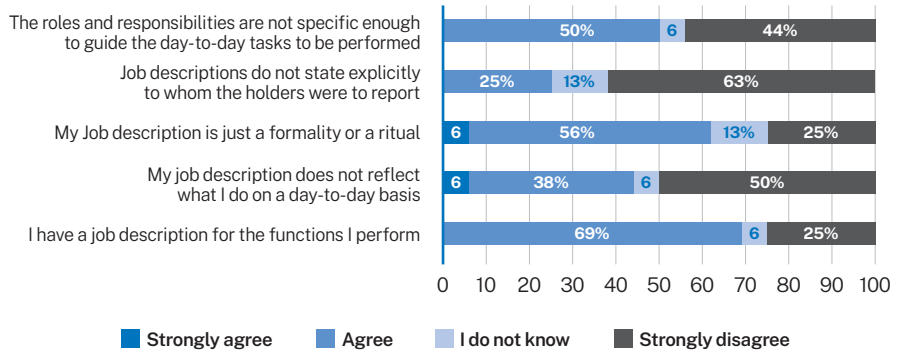
Table 6.9 presents the distribution of the MoECHE staff on basis of their departments. The MoECHE staff work in eight departments. The Finance/Administration,

Policy/Planning, and Examination/ Certification have the highest number of staff, at 32 (14 per cent), 23 (10 per cent), and 18 (8 per cent) respectively. On the other hand, 12 officers are deployed to the Curriculum Development & Quality Assurance Department, eight to the Teacher Development Department, six to TVET and Non-Formal Education, and five to the Higher Education and Culture Department. The reason deduced for the discrepancy between the overall number of MOECHE staff (202) and the breakdown by departments (119) is that some staff are yet to assigned to their various departments.

6.5.4.2 Job descriptions and their relationships to mandates

Although the majority of staff have a job description, there is a general feeling that the job descriptions are a mere formality and that in some cases there is a mismatch between what is expected and what is done. *Figure 6.6* presents the results of a questionnaire administered to mix of senior and middle-level officials in MoECHE about their comprehension of their job descriptions . The results show that 7 in 10 members of staff interviewed had a job description for the tasks they performed in the MoECHE, while the remainder said that there was no job description which identified the purpose of their role and the key tasks to be performed. In addition, 4 in 10 respondents could not clearly identify their reporting lines, which may be detrimental to staff accountability in the ministry. More than half (63 per cent) of the respondents felt that the job description was just a formality, and half (50 per cent) thought that roles and responsibilities were not specific enough to guide the day-to-day tasks to be performed. Half of the staff also found a mismatch between the functions they performed and what their job descriptions specified.

Figure 6.6 Comprehension of job description and mandate among staff

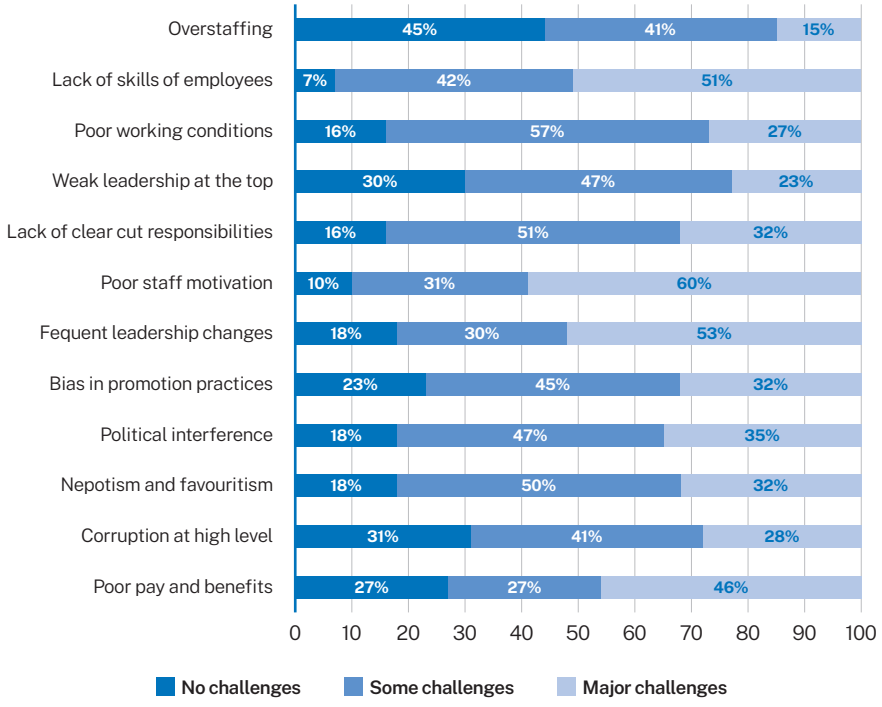


Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission; (n=16).

6.5.4.3 Governance issues influencing staff performance

Poor staff motivation, frequent changes in leadership, and lack of attention to staff development are some of the challenges that affect staff performance in MoECHE. Staff of MoECHE were asked to identify specific governance issues which pose challenges to the overall performance of MoECHE, as well as to the performance of individual members of staff at the ministry. As presented in *Figure 6.7*, poor staff motivation topped the list of challenges, with 6 in 10 members of staff highlighting this factor. More than half of the employees (53 per cent) feel that the frequent changes in leadership at the ministry affect the overall performance of staff. Although the majority of the staff have a university degree as their highest academic qualification, more than half of the respondents feel that there is lack of skills in the ministry, which may point to a lack of focus on staff development, especially in translating the theoretical learning from school and university into a more practical approach in the ministry. Poor working conditions (57 per cent), lack of clear-cut responsibility (51 per cent), and nepotism and favouritism (50 per cent), were also identified as posing some level of challenge to staff performance as well.

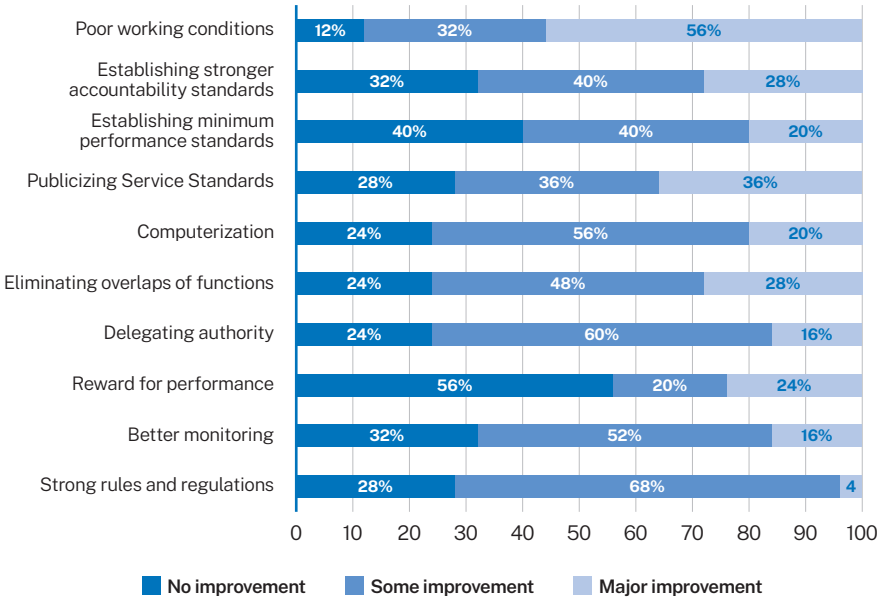
Figure 6.7 Challenges in MoECHE influencing staff performance



Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission (n=74).

An improved work environment for staff alongside the publicization of service standards could have a major effect on performance in the ministry. In a set of focus group discussions conducted with the middle-level staff from the ministry, the ESA team sought to understand the extent to which a set of governance issues could contribute to improvements in their performances. As presented in *Figure 6.8*, addressing the poor working conditions was regarded by more than half (56 per cent) of the interviewees as a key factor which could improve their performance. Furthermore, establishing strong rules and regulations (68 per cent), delegating authority (60 per cent), and computerization (56 per cent), as well as better monitoring of the activities of the ministry (52 per cent) were regarded as measures which could lead to improvement in staff performance.

Figure 6.8 Factors that could improve the performance of mid-level staff in MoECHE



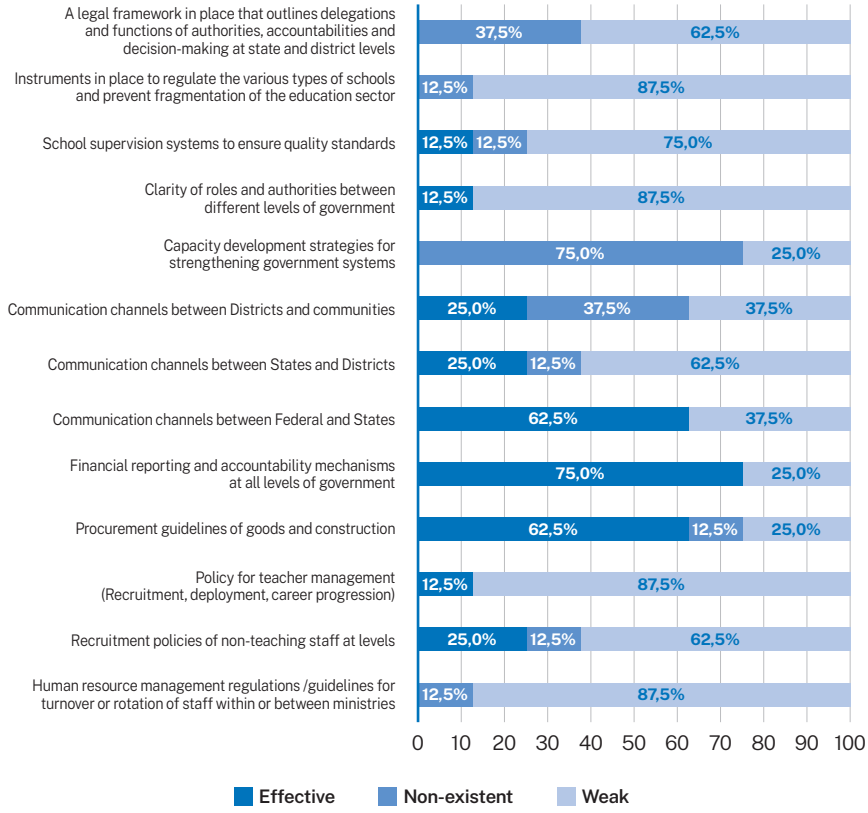
Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission; (n=25).

6.5.4.4 Staff perspectives on MoECHE's human resource management

A survey conducted with 128 staff at MoECHE on the human resource management system (*Figure 6.9*) shows that capacity-development strategies for strengthening government systems are non-existent. On the other hand, the following are in place, but their implementation is weak: (1) instrumentation to regulate the various types of schools and prevent fragmentation of the education sector, (2) clarity of roles and authority between different levels of government, (3) policy for teacher management (recruitment, deployment, career

progression), (4) human resource management regulations /guidelines for turnover or rotation of staff within or between ministries, and (5) recruitment policies of non-teaching staff at levels. Meanwhile, the following instruments of the operations system are said to be effective: (1) procurement guidelines of goods and construction, (2) financial reporting and accountability mechanisms at all levels of government, and (3) communication channels between the FGS and FMSs.

Figure 6.9 Staff perspectives on human resource management at MoECHE



Source: Data collected by national team during the 2021 ESA mission; (n=128).

6.6 Chapter summary

One of the clearest findings from the analysis is that the intended functions of MoECHE departments have not been adequately documented, and that not all staff are aware of the functions that they are expected to perform to begin with. Some directors/heads of sections were, however, able to identify, to a considerable extent, what should constitute departmental functions. In addition, although the MoECHE released a new organogram showing the functions and structure of the ministry, the new structure does not detail departmental functions, job descriptions, and competences for the different positions, which will further perpetuate the present situation, where some members of staff do not comprehend the functions of their departments. A review of of functions indicates that some functions have not been performed satisfactorily, with poor staff motivation, frequent leadership changes, and lack of investment in staff development blamed as main contributors to under-performance. Moreover, there are overlaps and duplication in functions across MoECHE departments, which also account for some of the lapse in performance. Going forward, addressing staff motivation and engaging in robust capacity development for staff will help resolve some of the issues. Staff capacity development may be anchored in a mix of long-term training courses and on-the-job-training.

As with other countries, the planning and implementation process is not seamless, with challenges identified as contributing to this including the choice of a top-down approach to planning, poor training opportunities for MoECHE personnel, weak linkage between planning and implementation, uncertain political conditions, and inadequate dissemination of norms, guidelines, and procedures. Middle- and junior-level staff find themselves locked out of the top-down approach to planning and policy formulation and as such find it difficult to implement such policies effectively. A participatory approach to planning and policy formulation would build internal ownership and instil a culture of corporate responsibility. It will also ensure knowledge-sharing, and effective policy implementation. Acknowledging the role played by information systems in the planning and implementation cycles, the government has been pursuing the improvement of the FGS EMIS, and on this front the government has been putting a new system into operation since 2019. However, there are some function gaps observed in the new system, including limited capacity of personnel to manage the new EMIS, weak data-gathering procedures at school level, and weak quality assurance and supervision at district and state levels, which certainly lead to poor-quality of data. Going forward, the MoECHE will need to prioritize the following:

1. Expansion of EMIS to create system-wide monitoring and evaluation mechanisms

2. System-wide usage of EMIS for decision-making at FGS and FMS levels

3. Improvement of tools and EMIS quality assurance mechanisms

4. Facilitation and fast-tracking of the decentralization of EMIS system. This should include improving governance structures and clarifying the roles, functions, and accountabilities between different levels of government towards a more effective and efficient EMIS

5. Strengthening of skills and capacities of EMIS personnel at FGS, FMS, and regional levels to manage EMIS functions effectively and efficiently

6. Improving supervision and monitoring standards, and tools for conducting routine monitoring at school level.

Staffing in MoECHE and the FMS education ministries is male-dominated and within MoECHE, most members of staff are associated with administrative departments, with signs of understaffing in some critical areas. For instance, there are still vacancies for technical supervisors and secretarial staff, raising an important question about the effectiveness of operations in the ministry. Moreover, while most of existing staff have access to their job descriptions, more than half feel that job descriptions are just a mere formality. About half believe that roles and responsibilities are not specific enough to guide their day-to-day tasks. With the introduction of the new organizational structure for the ministry, it will be important to streamline departmental functions, establish appropriate job descriptions, and conduct capacity-development programmes required for a more efficient and effective education sector. Outside the ministry, coordination, consultations, and cooperation between MoECHE and FMSs are anchored in MoUs signed between MoECHE and FMS education ministries. The sector also benefits from several coordination forums, including the Inter-Ministerial Committee, Education Sector Committee, Education Cluster, and Joint Review of the Education Sector. Although the effectiveness of the decentralization process, as envisaged in the MoUs signed by MoECHE and FMS education ministries, needs to be evaluated, this ESA holds that the continued consultations and collaboration between state and non-state actors will be key to enhancing the effectiveness of the education delivery system.

Annexes

Annex I: Structure of programmes in Somalia, as per 2021 National Education Policy

Name of the education programme	Description	Formal or non-formal education?	Programme orientation	Minimum entrance require-ments	Main diplomas, qualifications or certificates awarded at end of programme	Theoretical age of entry	Theoretical duration (years)	Compulsory education?	Are data available?
Integrated Quranic schools		Formal	General	3 years + ability to speak and respond to requests	None	3 to 6 years	3	No	No
Kinder-garten (early childhood education)		Formal	General	3 years + ability to speak and respond to requests	None	3 to 6 years	3	No	No
Level 1: Lower primary Education (Grades 1 to 4)		Formal	General	Age 6	None	6	4	Yes	Yes
Level 1: Upper primary Education (Grades 5 to 8)		Formal	General	Success in Grade 5 entrance exam for students who didn't complete Lower primary	Level 1 certificate	10	4	Yes	Yes
Non-Formal Education	Aims to teach adults numeracy and literacy up to Grade 4 level.	Non-formal	General	18 years +	Certificate and can take entrance exam for Grade 5 after 12-month programme	18	3 months to 1 year	No	No
Adult Basic Education	Aimed at people who dropped out of school	Non-formal	General	18 years +	Will do Grade 8 exams and get Level 1 certificate	18	3	No	No
Vocational Training Institute		Formal	Voca-tional	Lower primary completed. Literacy and numeracy	Certificate	18	1–2	No	No
Level 1: Alternative Basic Education (ABE)	Level 1: Alternative Basic Education (ABE). Description: "Comple-mentary initiative to formal primary education services for marginalized out-of-school children and those with diverse needs" Taken from *Somalia Education Sector Strategic Plan 2018-2020*, page 123.	Formal	General	9 years +	Can take Grade 5 entry test after two years, or take exam to gain Level 1 certificate after four years	9	4	No	Yes

Name of the education programme	Description	Formal or non-formal education?	Programme orientation	Minimum entrance require-ments	Main diplomas, qualifications or certificates awarded at end of programme	Theoretical age of entry	Theoretical duration (years)	Compulsory education?	Are data available?
Level 1: Accelerated Basic Education	For out-of-school children	Non-formal	General	9 years +	Can join the Vocational Training Institute	9	4	No	Yes
Level 2: Secondary school		Formal	General	Level 1 certificate (children or adults)	Secondary Certificate	14	4	No	Yes
Level 1: Islamic institutes	Provides upper primary education	Non-formal	General	Can be joined by someone who learned from Halaqat (in the mosque). Halaqat is a religious gathering or meeting for the study of Islam and Quran. Must pass entrance test	Primary Islamic Certificate	13	2	No	No
Level 2: Islamic institutes	Provides secondary education	Formal	General	Must hold Level 1 certificate or Primary Islamic Certificate	Secondary Islamic Certificate	14	3–4	No	No
Profes-sional education	Preparation for professions, e.g. Nursing	Formal	Tech-nical	Level 1 certificate (students or adults)	Technical Secondary Certificate	14	2–3	No	No
Technical secondary education	Preparation for skilled work, e.g. engineering/ fishing/agriculture	Formal	Tech-nical	Level 1 certificate (students or adults)	Technical Secondary Certificate	15	3–4	No	Yes
Pre-service teacher training (Primary)	Full-time course based on the National Curriculum. Includes pedagogical training and practical teaching	Formal	General	Secondary Certificate (70% pass); aged between 18 and 50 years; pass entrance test	Diploma in Education	18	2	No	No

Name of the education programme	Description	Formal or non-formal education?	Programme orientation	Minimum entrance require-ments	Main diplomas, qualifications or certificates awarded at end of programme	Theoretical age of entry	Theoretical duration (years)	Compulsory education?	Are data available?
Pre-service teacher training (Primary)	Full-time course based on the National Curriculum. Includes pedagogical training and practical teaching	Formal	General	Secondary Certificate (70% pass); aged between 18 and 50 years); pass entrance test	B.Ed.	18	4	No	No
Pre-service teacher training (Secondary)	Four-year Bachelor's degree course, including school placement, studying two subjects – major and subsidiary – with the expectation that after graduation one will teach these two subjects.	Formal	General	Secondary Certificate (70% pass); aged between 18 and 50 years); pass entrancy test	B.Ed.	18	4	No	No
Level 3: Bachelor's degree		Formal	General	Secondary Certificate	Bachelor's degree	18	4	No	No
Level 3: Diploma	Available at Primary teacher-training institutes, TVET centres, technical colleges, etc	Formal	General/ Tech-nical	Secondary Certificate	Diploma	18	2	No	No
Level 3: Post-graduate diploma	Aimed at holders of Bachelor's degrees holders who have no had initial teacher training but want to join the teaching profession.	Formal	General	Good pass in degree and must be able to teach two subjects at secondary level	Postgraduate diploma	22	1	No	No

Source: Authors' construction, based on 2021 Somalia National Education Policy.

Annex II: Data quality and availability

There are large amounts of education data available, but a lack of coherence limits the story they tell about education in the four FMSs and Banadir. Incomplete school census data, not recording the same variables or response options across the years, and changes in the codification of certain school attributes make analysis difficult. These challenges include the following:

- Changes in the structure of the education system. For instance, the inclusion of a Form 9 in the 2016/ 2017 databases makes comparisons difficult.
- There is a misclassification of dimensions identifying schools. For instance, the 2016 and 2017 database contains information on the type of school coded as 'Government', 'NGO', 'Private', and 'Umbrellas'. This changes in 2019 to include only 'Community', 'Public', and 'Private', and to only 'Public' and 'Private' in 2020.
- There are no systematic databases on early childhood education. The first data collection in pre-primary education is scheduled for 2021.
- The data formatting for the 2019 standalone database makes manipulation and data extraction prone to error.
- 2018 school census data was not used as it was estimated using 2017 data.
- There exists no recording of repetition in the school census database, except for 2019.
- There is no reporting of students aged 6 years old or younger in the 2020 stand-alone database, which makes the calculation of net enrolment indicators impossible.

To assess the completeness of the data available in the national EMIS for the period under review, the total number of schools presented was calculated by appending all years and obtaining unique school names. The proportion of these schools presented by year was obtained for each educational level, as presented in *Table 2.3*. The year after a particularly severe drought in Somalia, 2018, saw a sharp fall in school reporting, which is a factor to bear in mind when interpreting the education indicators presented. There is an over-reporting of schools in 2016 and 2017, which is probably due to different spellings of translated names for the same school when the name is translated. As mentioned above, no information is available for pre-primary education.

Table 0.1 Coverage of the data available in the national EMIS, 2016–2020 (N. and %)

	2016	2017	2019	2020
Primary schools	1,386	1,446	1,734	2,225
Coverage in school census	80.7%	80.4%	52.2%	66.0%
Secondary schools	442	454	891	961
Coverage in school census	155.9%	148.0%	46.6%	80.7%
Total	**1,828**	**1,900**	**2,625**	**3186**
Coverage in school census	**79.6%**	**79.3%**	**36.1%**	**60.3%**

Note: The number of schools by level in 2016 was estimated by applying an exponential growth approach to the 2017–2020 totals and rounding to the closest whole number.

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This 2022 Education Sector Analysis (ESA) is the second ESA report that the Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education of the Federal Government of Somalia has produced since 2012.
The report presents key education indicators across the various sub-sectors and provides an evidence base for the identification of policy priority areas and the development of the Education Sector Strategic Plan (2022–2026).

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