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Preface

Education is a cornerstone of state-building and a key indicator of human development. Countries around the world spend a significant amount of their national budgets on education as an investment for their country's future. The state of Somalia's education is a complex one. Despite the right to education being enshrined in Somalia's Provisional Constitution, an estimated 70% of school-aged Somali pupils do not have access to basic education. Yet, thanks to the efforts of successive Somalia governments, international partners, and the dedication of local communities, the country's education systems have witnessed slow but noticeable improvements. Recent years saw the development of important educational policies, a modest increase in school enrollment rates, the re-establishment of national exams, the adaptation of a curriculum framework, and an emphasis on teacher development. Despite these positive steps, the country is facing considerable educational challenges on multiple fronts that require the attention of policymakers, educationalists, researchers, and international partners.

Preceded over the development of the Human Capital Mechanism for Somalia in 2020, the Heritage Institute for Policy Studies (HIPS) and City University of Mogadishu convened an inaugural Development Forum under the theme "Reshaping Somalia's Education for Development" in Mogadishu from 23 –25 September 2023. The forum provided the opportunity for stakeholders to capture progress, identify current gaps and future challenges, and bring solutions to the educational challenges the country is facing. The primary objective of the Forum was to explore ways to reshape the education system in Somalia for development. The Reshaping Somalia's Education for Development forum brought together 400 participants which 70 people came from five federal member states – representing government, civil society, and education umbrellas. They were joined by senior federal government officials – deputy prime minister of Somalia, federal state minister of education, culture, and higher education, some members of parliamentary committees on education, as well as leaders of higher education institutions, inspiring people with disabilities and youth groups and students. They gathered to discuss the need to prioritize the development of Somalia's education provision – improving governance, financing and equitable access to quality education.

This collection of conference proceedings, entitled "Reshaping Somalia's Education for Development," features a careful selection of eight papers presented at the Forum. The publication aims to delve into the diverse challenges and opportunities within Somalia's education sector, providing an extensive analysis of the current educational landscape. Moreover, it brings together insightful research and practical recommendations for researchers, educational practitioners, and policymakers.

The sub-research areas covered in these conference proceedings encompass education finance, gender equity in the teaching workforce, effective teaching strategies, the role of private education providers, educational leadership, inclusive education, and quality assurance in higher education. The chapters included in this proceeding encompass a wide range of themes critical to understanding and enhancing the Somali education system. The policy papers presented at the conference are authored by Somali experts, ensuring an authentic and well-informed perspective on the issues under discussion.

In his chapter titled "Exploring Critical Success Factors for Education Finance in Somalia' Mohamed Ibrahim Nor focused on examining the complex dynamics of education finance in the country and its impact on the performance of the educational system utilizing the Education Finance Performance Index (EFPI). Dr Nor's paper uses a multiple regression analysis to explore the relationships among four key variables namely: Government Recognition and Commitment (GRC), Financial Resource Management (FRM), Governance and Accountability (GA), and Human Capital Development (HCD). The findings of Dr Nor's paper stress the importance of strong governmental commitment, efficient financial management, transparent governance, and investment in education training, offering strategic policy recommendations to enhance Somalia's educational system.

In his chapter on "Recruiting Women Teachers in Higher Education," Mohammed Abdullahi Gure explores the significant gender disparities that exist within the teaching profession. Gure identifies various obstacles that women encounter, such as limited postgraduate opportunities, cultural norms, and the challenges of balancing professional and family responsibilities. He stresses the necessity of implementing systemic reforms, including the establishment of more accessible postgraduate programs and the creation of a supportive work environment for women. Gure's chapter also provides practical recommendations aimed at increasing the representation of women in higher education.

Ali Abdijibar Mohamed's research on the "Impact of Instruction Styles on Academic Performance in Secondary Schools in Bosaso District, Somalia" presents an empirical examination of how different teaching approaches influence students' learning outcomes. Mohamed's findings underscore the prevalence of teacher-centred approaches in the schools examined in the study. Consequently, his research calls for teacher training programs that equip educators with a diverse range of pedagogical tools to cater to the diverse needs of their students. Moreover, the paper offers actionable recommendations for enhancing instructional quality.

In his chapter entitled "Somali Private School Owners' Perspective of the Role of the Federal Government in Regulation and Private Schools," Abdishakur Tarah delves into the role played by the private education sector in providing education. The chapter provides historical context on the vital contributions of individuals and non-governmental sectors in reestablishing the education system following the civil war in 1991. Tarah emphasizes the government's responsibility to regulate education in the country and ensure the provision of free, quality education to all children. The author explores private school owners' viewpoints on government attempts to regulate the sector, using Anderson's model of accountability and the Islamic concept of 'hesab' (account) as a theoretical framework. The chapter concludes with four policy recommendations for various stakeholders.

Mohamed Ahmed Nur Sh. Ali's study "Revitalizing Education Leadership in Somalia: A Comprehensive Model for Selecting, Appointing, and Training School Principals" addresses the pressing need for effective educational leadership. Ali's research highlights the gap in leadership training and emphasizes the impact that strong leadership can have on school performance and student learning outcomes. The author advocates for the implementation of a comprehensive leadership development program that will nurture the next generation of Somali educational leaders. Ali concludes his article by providing concrete recommendations for enhancing leadership capabilities.

Mohamed Harun and Abdirahman Farah (Luunge) conducted collaborative research on the topic of "State-Sponsored Education: How Somalia Can Accommodate Students with Special Needs and Disabilities?" The study reveals that students with special educational needs (SEN) and individuals with disabilities (PwDs) in Somalia face significant barriers to accessing formal education. The paper highlights the inadequacies in special needs education services and puts forth four specific recommendations, including the provision of funding for SEN provisions and teacher training.

In line with the theme of special educational needs, Shamsudin Abikar Nur's research paper, "Special Needs Child Denied Education: A Case Study Examining a Nine-Year-Old's Battle to Attend School," provides an in-depth analysis of a nine-year-old girl with acute special education needs (SEN) and dwarfism. The case study sheds light on how the girl was denied educational opportunities due to her special needs, with her being perceived as a burden. Dr. Nur took the initiative to teach her basic English skills and drew important recommendations for educational policymakers. Based on his first-hand experience, the author emphasizes the need for an effective SEN policy and rigorous teaching practices to ensure equitable access to education for all children in Somalia.

Lastly, Abdullahi Ali Mohamed, Ioannes Tang Yu Hoe, and Kamaludin Ahmed Sheikh have authored a paper titled "Quality Assurance for Higher Education in Somalia: Lessons from Malaysia." This research paper addresses the crucial issue of upholding and enhancing quality standards in Somalia's higher education sector. Drawing from Malaysia's experience in developing a quality assurance framework, the authors provide valuable insights and propose five policy recommendations for the implementation of robust quality assurance measures.

In conclusion, this conference proceeding aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the Somali education system, recognizing the interrelated nature of various educational challenges. The book touches upon topics such as gender disparities, instructional methodologies, school leadership, special educational needs, and quality assurance in higher education. Each chapter offers practical recommendations, and the implementation of these measures will play a significant role in addressing critical issues within the country's education system.

We invite readers to actively engage with all the chapters presented in this conference proceeding. By perusing the entire document as a unified whole or delving into individual chapters that correspond to their interests, readers will be able to grasp the essence of Somali education. Each chapter offers distinct and self-contained analyses and recommendations. However, when considered collectively, they provide a comprehensive and nuanced framework for understanding the complexities of Somali education. We hope that the insights and recommendations outlined within these chapters will assist policymakers, educators, and stakeholders in implementing tangible measures aimed at fostering a brighter educational future for Somalia.

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Editors

01

Quality Assurance for Higher Education in Somalia: Lessons from Malaysia

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Abstract

This policy paper provides an overview of the challenges and opportunities in developing quality assurance and accreditation systems in Somalia's higher education sector, drawing upon lessons from Malaysia's experience. The rapid growth witnessed in Somalia's higher education sector necessitates the establishment of effective governance to manage the increasing number of students and ensure quality education. In this paper, a systematic literature-based approach was used to evaluate Malaysia's quality assurance and accreditation practices, which can serve as a potential model for Somalia. A review of the current state of Somali's higher education highlights the collapse and subsequent efforts to rebuild the sector, particularly through the establishment of many privately owned higher education institutions. The challenges of quality assurance in Somalia, such as the lack of trained staff and the need for a national quality assurance system, are discussed. The study also examines Malaysia's policies and practices regarding quality assurance and accreditation, as well as their perception, application, and implementation in higher education institutions. The lessons learned from Malaysia can serve as a springboard for Somalia to achieve international standards of quality education.

Key Words: higher education, quality assurance, accreditation

1.0 Introduction

The availability of higher education is crucial for a country's development, as it has been shown to play a significant role in the reconstruction and reconciliation of societies emerging from conflict (World Bank, 2005). In the case of Somalia, with the end of the transitional period and the establishment of the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) in 2012 and the country's progressive recovery from a 20-year civil conflict, rebuilding the education sector has been a key step towards progress.

Despite the slow progress in setting up government institutions, Somalia has witnessed remarkable growth in its higher education sector over the past decade. This growth challenges the belief that social and economic progress cannot be achieved without a robust central government, particularly in regions plagued by prolonged instability (HIPS, 2013). However, expanding higher education poses challenges, as it requires effective governance to manage the increasing number of students while considering the limited capacity of existing public institutions.

Many public universities in Africa currently face the issue of accommodating significantly more students than their facilities were originally designed for (Goolam, 2011). Projections indicate that the global demand for higher education is expected to rise, with an estimated 263 million students needing access to higher education by 2025, compared to just over 100 million in 2000 (Nazrul Islam Gazi et al., 2017).

Meeting this rising demand while ensuring and improving the quality of education is crucial. Quality assurance and accreditation play vital roles in achieving excellence in higher education (Ryan, 2015). Quality assurance involves assessing, monitoring, guaranteeing, maintaining, and improving the quality of higher education systems, institutions, or programs, aiming to meet or exceed established standards (Vlăsceanu and Pârlea, 2007). Accreditation, on the other hand, is an independent evaluation process that certifies whether an institution or program meets these quality standards. National or regional accreditation bodies, recognized as experts in the field of education, typically carry out accreditation. Apart from ensuring quality, accreditation offers additional benefits to institutions and students. It helps attract students and funding while assuring employers that graduates are well-prepared for the workforce.

2.0 Methodology

This study employed a rigorous methodology to evaluate the development of quality assurance and accreditation in Malaysia's higher education system. The methodology included a comprehensive literature review of academic reports, conference papers, and journal articles, ensuring diverse perspectives and up-to-date information. Official sources such as UNESCO's report and the National Education Sector Strategic Plan (2022-26) of the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Higher Education for Somalia were examined to gain insights into government policies and strategies.

The study collected data on quality assurance and accreditation from reputable sources, including accrediting bodies, quality assurance networks, and government publications. The collected data underwent thorough analysis to identify key Malaysian higher education quality assurance and accreditation practices that could serve as a potential model for Somalia's development in ensuring quality higher education amid rapid growth in this sector.

3.0 Overview of Somali Higher Education

The provision of quality education and training to all Somalis is a constitutional right as the nation begins the process of state-building and revitalizing its institutions (NSSP, 2022). Over the past two decades, higher education in Somalia has almost completely collapsed, with the only existing Somali National University (SNU) reduced to empty buildings and loss of most of its archives and equipment (HIPS, 2013). Since then, efforts have been made to re-establish higher education institutions. Civil societies and foreign organizations launched a series of higher education initiatives in 1996 in response to the increased number of secondary school graduates seeking further education (Cassanelli and Abdikadir, 2008). As Somalia's higher education system re-emerged, many academic institutions at the tertiary level, mainly privately owned universities, were established (Eno et al., 2015). Although these civil society-initiated academic establishments are making tremendous contributions to the higher education sector, the absence of an effective national quality assurance system, which is a key element necessary for institutional accreditation and acceptance of credentials, could hamper the sector's future growth and sustainability.

4.0 Challenges of Quality Assurance in Somali Higher Education

In 2005, UNESCO created guidelines called "Quality Provision in Cross-Border Higher Education." These guidelines recognize that quality varies among countries but encourage the adoption of fundamental international benchmarks to identify educational excellence (UNESCO, 2005). Quality assurance in higher education is a relatively new phenomenon in Africa, with the main challenge being a lack of adequately trained professional staff in the national quality assurance agencies (Goolam, 2011). Like most major African nations, Somalia's higher education system is currently in transition. However, the federal government, under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Higher Education (MoECHE), is responsible for providing quality education across the country.

According to Somalia's National Education Strategic Sector Plan (2022-2026), the country has only one public university, Somalia National University (SNU), with the quality of higher education suffering significantly due to most higher education institutions being private (NSSP, 2022). To address the inconsistent and incohesive ministerial policies at the federal and member-state levels, MoECHE established the National Commission for Higher Education (NCHE) to ensure the quality of higher education. The ministry has recently started evaluating and registering unaccredited universities. The commission assessed more than 118 universities nationwide and found that infrastructure facilities, lecturers, and overall teaching and learning programs have low-quality assurance (NSSP, 2022). The Education Sector Strategic Plan defines six policy priorities, as shown in Figure 1, with a set of objectives to be achieved for each priority and corresponding strategies to accomplish them by the end of the plan period in 2026. These strategies will be implemented through appropriate programs by the relevant departments.
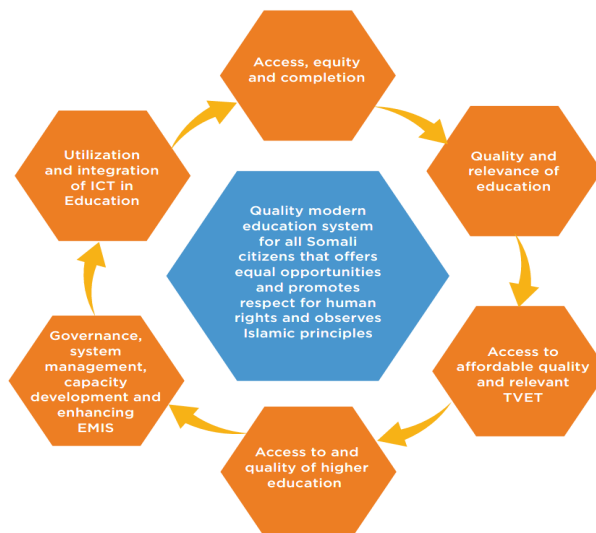

Figure 1. Policy Priorities of the Education Sector (Source: National Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2022-26, MoECHE)

5.0 Evolution of Higher Education and Quality Assurance in Malaysia

Due to the limited number of public universities and higher education opportunities in Malaysia during the early 1980s, numerous private higher education institutions were established to meet the growing demand. To facilitate the growth of the private higher education sector, the government passed the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act in 1996. This act played a significant role in liberalizing the educational sector and establishing a legal framework for various educational collaborations. It facilitated the formation of twinning programs between public and private institutions, as well as partnerships between local and foreign institutions. Moreover, the act facilitated the establishment of private universities, branch campuses of foreign universities, and other forms of private higher educational institutions. It also allowed for the upgrading of existing colleges to universities.

Parliament passed four additional pieces of legislation closely associated with the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act. These included the Education Act of 1996, the University and University Colleges (Amendment) Act of 1996, the National Accreditation Board Act of 1996, and the National Council on Higher Education Act of 1996 (Sivalingam, 2007).

Following the implementation of these acts of parliament, six private universities and three branch campuses of foreign universities were established to provide courses in engineering, business studies, medicine, and multimedia. In addition to over one million students enrolled in higher education institutions (HEI) in Malaysia in 2021, statistics from the Ministry of Higher Education (2021) showed there were 97,236 international students enrolled in HEIs in Malaysia while the number of Malaysians studying aboard was 56,253.

Table 1: HEIs and student enrolment in Malaysia (Source: MOHE, 2021)

Types of HEIs	No of institutions	Enrolment (2021)
Public universities	20	589,879
Private HEIs with university status	74	269,305
A branch campus of a foreign university	10	27,814
Private HEIs with university college status	44	73,338
Private HEIs with college status	306	147,123
Polytechnics	36	84,556
Community colleges	105	15,578
Total	**595**	**1,207,593**

The expansion of the higher education sector in Malaysia has not been without its fair share of drawbacks. Alongside its growth, there have been several negative aspects that deserve attention. Some of the shortcomings include the existence of substandard programs, varying quality standards, disregard or lack of awareness regarding national policies or local needs among private higher education institutions, inadequate academic and administrative staff quality; challenges related to qualifications equivalency and recognition; instances of fraudulent qualifications; insufficient staff dedication; inadequate monitoring of program delivery; limited comprehension of cultural differences; and a lack of proficiency in teaching multicultural student populations (Bajunid, 2011).

To address these shortcomings, the Malaysian government established the National Accreditation Board (LAN) in 1996 to address concerns about the quality of education in private institutions of higher learning. LAN, along with the Private Education Department in the Ministry of Higher Education, developed a series of guidelines that established the standards for facilities, equipment, and teaching staff to ensure the provision of high-quality education. LAN conducted regular inspections of private institutions of higher learning and was responsible for accrediting the courses offered by these institutions. Private institutions planning to recruit foreign students must have their courses accredited by LAN. Additionally, LAN accreditation is beneficial for these institutions as it allows their students to apply for loans from the National Higher Education Fund Corporation (Sivalingam, 2007).

Since the inception of the public universities in Malaysia, they have essentially been self-regulating institutions that could decide on their own programs and develop their own quality protocols with minimal intervention by the Ministry of Education. However, in 2002, a new Quality Assurance Division (QAD) was established in the Ministry of Education with a specific focus on quality assurance for public institutions of higher learning. After the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education in 2004, LAN and QAD were merged in 2007 into a new entity named the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA), with responsibility for both public and private higher education institutions (Bajunid, 2011).

As a quality assurance body, the functions of MQA are:

- To implement the Malaysia Qualification Framework (MQF) as a reference point for Malaysian qualifications.

- To develop standards and credits and all other relevant instruments as national references for the conferment of awards with the cooperation of stakeholders;

- To quality assure higher education institutions and programs;

- To accredit courses that fulfill the set criteria and standards;

- To facilitate the recognition and articulation of qualifications; and

- To maintain the Malaysian Qualifications Register (MQR).

The MQF is the instrument that sets the national classifications of qualifications, levels of learning achievements based on learning outcomes, and prescribed academic load at each level and is associated with the title of a named qualification such as a Bachelor's degree or a Master's degree. MQA acts as the guardian and custodian of MQF and is mandated to ensure that all accredited higher education programs in Malaysia comply with the framework. Figure 1 shows the revised version of MQF, which focuses on restructuring and strengthening MQF learning outcomes and integrating the skills, vocational, and technical sectors into technical and vocational education and training (TVET). The higher education sector was renamed the academic sector.

| MQF LEVEL | GRADUATING CREDIT | SECTOR | | LIFELONG LEARNING |
		ACADEMIC	TVET *	
8	No credit rating	PhD by Research		Accreditation of Prior Experiential Learning (APEL)
	80	Doctoral Degree by Coursework & Mixed Mode		
7	No credit rating	Master's Degree by Research		
	40	Master's Degree by Coursework & Mixed Mode		
	30	Postgraduate Diploma		
	20	Postgraduate Certificate		
6	120	Bachelor's Degree	Bachelor's Degree	
	64 **	Graduate Diploma	Graduate Diploma	
	34 **	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Certificate	
5	40	Advanced Diploma	Advanced Diploma	
4	90	Diploma	Diploma	
3	60	Certificate	Certificate	
2	30	Certificate	Certificate	
1	15	Certificate	Certificate	

* Technical and Vocational Education and Training   ** Inclusive of 4 credits for U1 courses from general studies

Figure 2: Overview of Malaysian Qualification Framework (MQF) levels. (Source: MQA, 2017)

In addition to the MQF, the quality assurance evaluation process for program accreditation under MQA (2019) is primarily guided by the following documents that are available on the MQA's webpage.

1. The Code of Practice for Institutional Audit (COPIA);

2. The Code of Practice for Programme Accreditation (COPPA);

3. The Code of Practice for Open and Distance Learning (COP-ODL);

4. Qualifications Standards;

5. Programme Standards; and

6. Guidelines to Good Practices (GGP).

Periodically, MQA will develop new program standards, qualification standards, and guidelines for good practices, encompassing various disciplines and exemplary approaches. These documents undergo periodic reviews to ensure that they remain relevant and up to date.

6.0 Program Accreditation in Practice

All the programs that are accredited under MQA are listed on the Malaysian Qualification Register (MQR). The MQR serves as a valuable resource for students, parents, employers, funding agencies, and other stakeholders by offering essential information about recognized qualifications in Malaysia. It is the national reference point for qualifications within the country and is also referenced on UNESCO's higher education portal. The MQR can be accessed through www.mqa.gov.my/mqr. The accreditation process of the COPAA (MQA, 2019) encompasses evaluation in seven distinct areas (consolidated from the previous nine areas). Within each of these areas, specific quality standards and criteria are established. The level of adherence to these seven areas of evaluation, along with their associated criteria and standards, varies depending on the types and levels of assessment. They include:

1. Program development and delivery;

2. Assessment of student learning;

3. Student selection and support services;

4. Academic staff;

5. Educational resources;

6. Program management and

7. Program monitoring, review, and continual quality improvement.

Professional bodies such as the Engineering Accreditation Council (EAC)/Engineering Technology Accreditation Council (ETAC) have their standards for accrediting professional programs, which are in line with the MQF and its requirements. These standards define the competencies expected of graduates, and the requirements set by HEI are similar to those of COPPA.

The MQA Act 2007 includes provisions that require the MQA to collaborate and coordinate with relevant professional bodies for accreditation through Joint Technical Committees (JTC). These JTCs facilitate the harmonization of standards and quality assurance processes used by professional bodies for program accreditation. All fully accredited professional programs approved by the respective boards or councils are listed in the MQR. Figure 2 demonstrates the compatibility between the EAC/ETAC standards and the MQF, as well as the alignment of their accreditation criteria with COPPA.

Table 2: Mapping between COPPA and EAC/ETAC Accreditation Criteria (Source: Malaysian AQRF Committee, 2019)

		EAC 2017/ETAC 2015 Accreditation Criteria						
		1. Programme Educational Objectives (PEOs)	2. Programme Outcomes (POs)	3. Academic Curriculum	4. Students	5. Academic and Support Staff	6. Facilities	7. Quality Management Systems
COPPA Areas of Evaluation	1. Vision Mission, Educational Goals and Learning Outcomes	X	X					
	2. Curriculum Design & Delivery			X				
	3. Assessment of Student			X	X			
	4. Student Selection and Support				X		X	
	5. Academic Staff					X		
	6. Educational Resources					X	X	
	7. Programme Monitoring and							X
	8. Leadership, Governance and Administration					X		X
	9. Continual Quality Improvement							X

This approach ensures a culture of continual quality improvement (CQI) that is aligned with the principles of outcome-based education (OBE), which is embedded in all engineering programs accredited by EAC (2020).

7.0 Conclusion

Instability, weak institutions, insufficient resources, lack of investment, inadequate staffing, and a shortage of educational materials significantly affect the quality of higher education in Somalia. To address these challenges, both federal and state governments must devise plans and introduce innovative solutions within the jurisdiction of the MoECHE. Taking Malaysia as a model is particularly beneficial, given that many Somali graduates who have studied there are now employed by the federal government and states and have made significant contributions to the higher education sector. The implementation of the recommendations proposed in this paper necessitates the unwavering commitment and cooperation of all stakeholders. Despite the daunting obstacles, Somalia possesses the potential to transform these challenges into opportunities, leading to the development of a thriving and productive higher education sector.

8.0 Recommendations

By reflecting on Malaysia's achievements, Somalia can gain valuable insights and lessons to improve its educational landscape. We propose the following recommendations for enhancing Somalia's higher education system based on Malaysia's successful experience in higher education over the past three decades.

1. Quality assurance mechanisms: Implement quality assurance frameworks to ensure the standardization of academic qualifications, the establishment of minimum academic standards, and accreditation processes to enhance the credibility of higher education institutions. MQA could serve as a model for Somalia to establish a similar accrediting body, the Somali Qualification Agency (SQA). This would be an independent governing body overseeing the accreditation process of higher education institutions and programs.

2. Staff development: Enhance the skills and expertise of faculty members through training programs, workshops, and exchange programs with reputable universities. Malaysia's emphasis on faculty development has contributed to a high number of PhD holders working in private HEIs, which has contributed to its higher education success.

3. Infrastructure development: Invest in modern infrastructure, classrooms, laboratories, and libraries. Create conducive learning environments for students. Malaysia has developed world-class campuses, which allows HEIs to attract a large number of local and international students and establish the country as a major higher education hub in the region.

4. Scholarships and student support: MoECHE should encourage and help look at international scholarship programs to increase access to higher education for underprivileged students. It should also develop student support services such as counselling, career guidance, and financial aid to ensure student success and retention.

5. Research and innovation: Encourage research and innovation in higher education institutions by applying for international and regional grants, as well as incentives for faculty staff for publication.

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02

Recruiting Women Teachers in Higher Education

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Abstract

The under-representation of women in the teaching profession in Somalia has received relatively little attention. As a result, there is a lack of research focusing on the factors that influence women's employment in higher education which is an obstacle for policymakers and educational leaders looking to recruit more women. This study aimed to gain insights into the factors that affect women's recruitment into the teaching workforce of higher educational institutions. The study used qualitative methods and purposive sampling to select lecturers and administrators with knowledge about the human resource management practices of higher educational institutions. To analyze the data collected, the study used thematic analysis. The findings showed women were excluded from teaching positions due to their lack of postgraduate degrees, cultural and social beliefs, and their inability to balance home responsibilities and academic work. The target population for this study is all lecturers of higher educational institutions in Somalia.

Keywords: Gender imbalance, teaching profession, higher educational institutions, Somalia

1. Introduction

A study conducted by UNESCO found "compelling evidence of a correlation between the number of female teachers and girls' enrolment in higher education, especially in sub-Saharan Africa" (UNESCO, 2003). Ahmed (2014) suggested that having female lecturers and teachers at all levels of educational institutions is an important strategy for promoting girls' education in developing countries. "The presence of female teachers in schools in Somalia leads to significantly higher enrollment and retention rates for girls" (Ahmed, 2014).

Despite the compelling evidence showing the importance of having female lecturers and teachers, men dominate the teaching profession at all levels in many parts of the world including Somalia. Women have fewer job opportunities, less access to resources and less influence which has resulted in inequality (UNESCO, 2015). In Somalia, men represent more than 80 percent of the total number of teachers and are particularly prevalent at higher levels of education (Federal Government of Somalia, 2022).

However, this is contrary to Islamic teachings which dictate that men and women perform duties equally and contribute to their societies and communities. For example, men and women are equally required in the Quran to fast, give to charity, and perform other duties (Quran, 33:35).

The participants of the National Education Conference which was organized in 2023 encouraged the Ministry of Education to promote the recruitment of female teachers. According to the Communique, "the conference suggests that the ministry increase the number of female teachers in all levels of education" (Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education, 2023).

It is important to conduct research that examines the factors that could be responsible for the low representation of female lecturers and teachers in higher education institutions in Somalia. Such studies are important to help educational leaders develop gender equality policies in the administration, staffing, and recruitment of new teachers in higher education. However, studies that use a gender lens in identifying the challenges that influence female employment in teaching are rare and it is therefore unknown why the disparity between males and females remains in the teaching profession.

The lack of studies and empirical data is an obstacle for policymakers and educational leaders looking to recruit new teachers and improve human resource management practices in public and private educational institutions in general. Therefore, this study investigated the factors that prevent women from joining the teaching workforce.

The findings are significant and provide information regarding gender equality issues as well as the challenges, needs, and interests of both male and female teachers. This information is important for hiring managers to improve staffing procedures, empower women, expand their job opportunities and eliminate gender disparity in all human endeavours in Somalia.

2. Theoretical framework

The low representation of women in the teaching profession of higher educational institutions in Somalia was investigated using radical feminism as the theoretical framework, as this relates to the variables of this study. The theory of radical feminism was developed in the 1960s in Western countries by left-wing social movements (Cottais, n.d.). Radical feminists believe that society is male-dominated and suggest the universality of women's oppression irrespective of class and culture. Radical feminists also suggest that the liberation of women is impossible and that women have been historically disadvantaged in a social order shaped by men (Sultana, 2011).

There is no doubt that historically women have suffered oppression regardless of class and culture. The Quran reports that men in some Arab tribes in the pre-Islamic era buried their daughters alive. The Quran explains that these babies were killed because they were born as baby girls (Quran 82: 8-9). The Quran abolished this barbaric practice and said that Allah created males and females so that they could have offspring and continue to exist (Quran 16: 59).

3. Context and setting of the study

The education system in Somalia has gone through multiple stages. In the pre-colonial era, education was dispensed through informal systems. Mosques were used as schools where Muslim scholars delivered lectures to groups of students. Students moved from one class to another inside the mosque to learn different subjects from different scholars. In this stage, the sheiks (religious teachers) were men and preference was given to male students to join these classes (Mogadishu Centre for Research and Studies, 2014; Ali, 1998).

The first formal colonial schools were opened in 1907 to teach Somali children the Italian language for colonization. The Italians trained students to become farmers and low-level workers to minimize the use of Italians for these purposes. The British also established an elementary education system to educate Somalis for administrative posts. The highest level Somali students could achieve was grade seven.

The governments that ruled Somalia after independence until the collapse of the central government in 1991 gave education a high priority. One famous saying by the former President of Somalia, General Mohamed Siyad Barre was, "Kids are the flowers of the nation and the leaders of the future" (Farah & Duale, 1973). Education was free and compulsory for children during the last military government under Barre. As a result, there were great achievements and improvements in education, particularly at the primary and secondary school levels, and literacy levels rose.

Before the collapse of the central government, Somalia had only one higher education institution owned by the government and no private universities. The Somali National University was established in 1954 and produced the workforce needed in the country in different fields. However, the university was closed when the civil war broke out and it was re-opened in 2014.

The closure of the Somali National University resulted in the opening of more private universities to respond to the needs of students seeking higher education (Cassanelli & Farah Sheikh, 2007). However, these universities faced many challenges including the lack of capacity of the teaching staff. As a result, much of the current workforce received a low-quality education from these universities (The Heritage Institute for Policy Studies, 2013).

According to Mcintosh (2014), there is a strong link between the performance of the workforce and the kind of education they have received. Low-quality education leads to low-quality workforce performance (Mcintosh, 2014). Therefore, the qualifications and competence of graduates from these private universities were affected by the low quality of education they had received. "The main challenges that the Somali education sector faces concerns quality, gender imbalances, low school enrolment, and low literacy rate." (Mohamoud, 2013). The participants of the National Education Conference organized in 2023 called for higher education institutions to improve their quality and produce professionals who can respond to the needs of the country (Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education, 2023).

Another challenge facing these private universities is the lack of capacity to conduct research. A study conducted by the Heritage Institute for Policy Studies (2013) on the state of higher education found that none of the investigated 44 universities had been involved in any research activities. As a result, according to Sommers (2002), the only source of information for various aspects of life in Somalia is reports by NGOs that are based on interviews with other NGOs and UN agency leaders. Therefore, the National Education Conference argued that higher education institutions should also focus on research and development (Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education, 2023).

4. Methodology

To explore the factors affecting female recruitment into the teaching force of higher education institutions in Somalia, a descriptive study was conducted, and data were collected using focus group discussions to observe and interact with participants. The goal of this qualitative, explorative study was an in-depth understanding which required that informants be selected purposively (Bernard, 2006). Two separate focus group discussions were conducted to obtain enough data and valid results. Research suggests that more than 80% of all themes will emerge within two to three focus groups and each focus group should contain four to 10 participants (Guest et al., 2017). Another reason for the two separate groups was to allow female lecturers to share their opinions openly without the presence of male lecturers. Selection criteria were based on participants' knowledge of higher educational institutions in Somalia, availability, willingness to participate, and ability to express their opinions (Bernard, 2006). Participants were selected from different states. As the researcher was unable to reach some participants due to cost and time constraints, the two focus groups were conducted online.

This study used Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps of thematic analysis to analyze the qualitative data. Thematic analysis is a straightforward form of qualitative analysis and a useful tool for seeking to understand thoughts, experiences, or behaviours across a data set (Bruan & Clarke, 2006). All participants of this study speak the Somali language as their mother tongue and, therefore, the two focus groups were conducted in Somali to encourage informants to speak openly and expand their views.

The data was transcribed, translated into English and checked against the original for accuracy.

5. Findings and discussion

Three themes emerged from the qualitative data: the lack of postgraduate degrees preventing many women from working in higher education institutions; the cultural and social beliefs that are barriers to gender balance in the teaching profession; and the inability of female lecturers to balance home responsibilities and academic work.

Somali women lack the required qualifications

Higher educational institutions require professors who have specialized knowledge and experience. However, there is a shortage of female lecturers who have the right qualifications. Study participants indicated that there are institutions of higher education that are very keen to hire female lecturers but are unable to find qualified women. According to one of the focus group participants, *"If you need women professors in some of the areas of specialization it is difficult to get them because most of them don't reach such levels."*

Participants also indicated that lack of access to postgraduate programs is another reason behind the shortage of qualified female lecturers. One male participant said:

> "*Local universities in Somalia do not offer post-graduate programs, except very few of them that started recently but in limited fields. Traveling abroad for study is not easy for women especially those married with children and if she works the situation will be more complex.*"

Another barrier preventing women from attaining post-graduate degrees is marriage and family responsibilities. One participant said: "90% of the girls marry immediately after finishing their first bachelor's degree, so they don't go for master's and PhD which are prerequisites for working in higher education."

These findings confirmed a study conducted by Tsephe and Potgieter (2022). They found that *"the number of women holding doctoral degrees on the African continent remains low across all nationalities."* The findings of this study are also similar to one conducted by Rathgeber (2013) which concluded that *"to some extent, the concentration of women in the lower academic ranks can be explained by the fact that they tend to take longer to complete their PhDs, spend less time on research and often have fewer publications."*

Social and cultural barriers to women's recruitment

The data showed that culture and social beliefs are hindering gender balance in the teaching profession. Traditionally and historically teaching was the profession of men. Teachers at early learning centers before the arrival of the colonial powers in the 19th century were all male. One female participant mentioned an old Somali proverb, "jaamacad naageed jiko ayaa u danbeysa" which means regardless of how much a woman learns, her education will eventually end up in the kitchen as a cook and will not make her useful to society in any way.

Another female participant explained how women can play many important roles when they travel abroad and to a different culture which confirms the claims of the Somali culture being a barrier to female recruitment.

> "*We all have relatives and friends who live in Western countries. Women living in these Western countries can compete with men. They become teachers, taxi drivers, and bus drivers, and they do everything. But here in Somalia, it is difficult to see female taxi drivers or bus drivers due to low public perceptions about female ability.*"

Another barrier is the understanding and interpretation of the Islamic teachings which prohibits women from speaking in front of a male adult. One male participant said: "The problem is that some educated women believe that the Shari'ah (Islamic) law is prohibiting women from speaking in front of male adults. Such women cannot work in higher education as lecturers since all classes will contain some male students."

These findings confirmed reports issued by the United Nations Population Fund Somalia (2019) which concluded that women's social participation is low because "educated women are perceived as competing with men, something the society shuns." Similarly, Gure (2023) found patriarchal practices in recruiting teachers meant that men are always given preference in the hiring process for primary and secondary school positions. Ahmed (2014) found that low public perceptions of the ability of female teachers were a major factor that prevented many educated women from entering the teaching profession.

Balancing home responsibilities and academic work

The data showed that both male and female lecturers face a greater workload than other professions. However, female lecturers are also balancing extra home and family responsibilities when compared to their male counterparts. One participant explained the difficulties women face in balancing home life and academia.

> "Female lecturers have to do a lot of things. Firstly, they need to prepare lectures and if they are new to the profession, this will take long hours. They also need to give students feedback for the assignments submitted, and they need to prepare and mark tests. All this consumes a lot of time. Besides this, female teachers must play their traditional role of household responsibilities which also needs a lot of time. As a result, women working in higher education institutions experience fatigue and stress."

Most local universities are private institutions that are profit-oriented and do not allow teachers with care responsibilities to reconcile the demands of family and academic-related work. A participant said, "Most of the teaching staff of local universities are part-time lecturers and payments are based on the hours that lecturers spent on teaching so no payment for maternity leave and other necessary leave." Another participant said that private institutions prefer not to hire female lecturers "Higher education institutions are private and profit-oriented, and do not give women opportunities to teach in universities, believing that women can become ill and need more leave than men."

Similar findings were found in previous studies. Gure (2023) examined barriers to female recruitment in public schools in Somalia which showed that the dual role of women as mothers and teachers is a barrier to entering the profession. Similarly, Akuamoah-Boateng (2020) found that female staff at the University of Cape Coast were unable to balance work and family responsibilities and the university was not providing any support with policies and programs.

6. Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate the factors responsible for the disparity in numbers between male and female teachers at higher educational institutions in Somalia. The findings showed that the lack of postgraduate degrees, cultural and social beliefs, and the inability of female lecturers to balance home responsibilities and academic work were responsible for the imbalance. However, there is a need for more research to investigate the barriers women face in teaching at higher education institutions and how to eliminate them.

7. Policy recommendations

The findings of this study showed that the lack of postgraduate degrees is one of the factors that prevented many women from working at higher education institutions in Somalia. This study proposes the Ministry of Education encourage the establishment of high-quality postgraduate programs in all necessary fields and specializations to respond to the growing demands and to produce female professionals. This will enable married women with children and those working to more easily pursue post-graduate studies.

The data also showed that cultural and social beliefs are barriers to gender balance in the teaching profession at higher education institutions. Therefore, this study recommends that the Ministry of Education facilitate public debates and discussions to eliminate all the negative perceptions against women. Similarly, this study suggests that the media, especially state-owned media, be used to educate the public about the important role of women in society.

The findings revealed that the inability of female lecturers to balance home responsibilities and academic work is another barrier. This study recommends the government formulate work-family-friendly conditions that allow female teachers to reconcile the demands of work and family responsibilities. For instance, a daycare would be a better option for female teachers than leaving a child with relatives or neighbors. Providing a room for breastfeeding mothers is another helpful way to assist female teachers.

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03

Revitalizing Education Leadership in Somalia: A Comprehensive Model for Selecting, Appointing, and Training School Principals

Mohamed Ahmed Nur Sh. Ali

Abstract

This research paper proposes a new model for selecting and training Somali school principals. It draws upon successful models from developed countries and aims to address current gaps in the existing system. The model emphasizes rigorous selection, ongoing professional development, and access to the latest research and best practices. Its goal is to enhance education quality by equipping principals with the skills and knowledge needed to drive positive change in Somali schools.

Keywords: school principal, selection, training

1. Introduction

Education plays a pivotal role in the development and progress of any nation, serving as the foundation for individual growth, societal advancement, and economic prosperity. In Somalia, a country striving to rebuild and recover from decades of conflict and instability, the need for a revitalized education system has never been more pressing. Central to this revitalization is the critical role of educational leadership, specifically the selection, appointment, and training of competent and visionary school principals. These individuals serve as the linchpin in fostering a conducive learning environment, improving teaching quality, and driving positive change within schools.

Recognizing the significance of effective education leadership, Somalia must develop a comprehensive model that addresses the key challenges and intricacies of selecting, appointing, and training school principals. Such a model should encompass rigorous selection processes to identify individuals with the right competencies, skills, and values for educational leadership.

It should also emphasize the importance of providing targeted and continuous professional development opportunities to enhance principals' capacity to lead and manage schools effectively. Historically, Somalia had training centers before 1967, when four training centers for preparing pre-service primary teachers were functioning in the country: TTC Hargeisa, TTC Magistrale, TTC Takasus, and NTEC Afgoi. Some closed down and others transitioned into universities.[1]

The model must consider Somalia's unique context, recognizing the diverse needs and aspirations of its communities, along with the cultural, social, and economic factors shaping the educational environment. Customizing selection, appointment, and training processes to suit the specific needs of Somalia's education system would cultivate principals who are not only proficient in pedagogy and administration but also attuned to the local context. They should be dedicated to addressing educational disparities and fostering inclusivity in education.[2]

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2. Ellen Daniëls, Annie Hondeghem, Filip Dochy, "A Review on Leadership and Leadership Development in Educational Settings" Educational Research Review, 27. (2019): 115.

This paper presents a comprehensive model for revitalizing education leadership in Somalia. Drawing upon best practices and lessons learned from successful education systems globally, it seeks to provide a roadmap for transforming the selection, appointment, and training of school principals in the country. The model advocates for a holistic approach that integrates multiple stakeholders, including government entities, educational institutions, civil society organizations, and the local community, to ensure a sustainable and inclusive education leadership ecosystem.

The implementation of a comprehensive education leadership model in Somalia aims to empower principals as change agents and catalysts for progress.[3] By providing them with the necessary knowledge, skills, and support, the model seeks to cultivate transformative leaders who inspire excellence, foster innovation, and drive educational advancement.

This revitalization of education leadership is integral to rebuilding Somalia's education system, ensuring a brighter future for its children and laying the groundwork for a prosperous nation. Factors such as globalization, change, accountability, competition, and transparency highlight the increasing expectations placed on school principals in terms of ethics. Schools must operate efficiently, solve problems effectively, and sustain development through skilled management. It underscores the importance of school members understanding and meeting the needs and expectations of the local community, with well-trained administrators continually improving themselves.[4]

2. Problem Statement

The education sector in Somalia faces significant challenges, and one critical area that requires immediate attention is education leadership. The current practices for selecting, appointing, and training school principals lack a comprehensive and effective model. This absence of a robust system hinders the development of strong educational institutions and compromises the quality of education provided to students. Therefore, there is an urgent need to address this problem and implement a comprehensive model for selecting, appointing, and training school principals in Somalia. The paper will answer the following questions:

1. What are the current criteria for selecting, and appointing principals in Somalia?

2. What are the criteria for selecting, and appointing principals in the proposed model?

Addressing these questions will shed light on the existing deficiencies and challenges within the educational leadership system. By developing and implementing a comprehensive model for selecting, appointing, and training school principals, the education sector could undergo a much-needed revitalization, leading to improved educational outcomes for students and the overall development of the educational system.

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3. Figen Ereş, "Okul Yöneticilerinin Yetiştirilmesinde Mentorlük" Kafkas Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitü Dergisi, 1,3. (2009): 153.
4. İdris Şahin, Fatma Kesik, Kadir Beycioğlu, "Chaotic Process in the Assignment of School Administrators and Its Effects," Elementary Education Online ,16,3. (2017):1010.

3. Methodology

The chosen research methodology for this study is document analysis (journal papers, policy reports), a qualitative approach that involves a systematic examination and evaluation of both printed and electronic materials including computer-based and Internet-transmitted content.[5] The aim of this study is to analyze the training and selection processes of developed countries as a sample, with the intention of adapting a suitable system that could be implemented in Somalia.

4. Relevant Literature

Recruitment, selection, training, and retention of school administrators are crucial for effective educational leadership, which drives improvements in student learning. Conventional in-service training methods for administrators have been deemed insufficient for meeting contemporary learning needs. There is a growing consensus about the necessity of comprehensive leadership programs integrating theory and practice for administrator preparation. The selection process for school principals varies globally, with methods ranging from electoral systems to appointments by committees or school boards. Principals in developed countries have multifaceted responsibilities, including staff management, policy formulation, quality enhancement, performance assessment, resource provision, community engagement, professional development, and fostering a positive school culture. They play pivotal roles in facilitating professional growth, student success, school planning, leadership demonstration, and stakeholder support.[6]

Youngs (2007) conducted a study on elementary principals in Connecticut, investigating their behaviors and beliefs and their impact on the induction of new teachers. The study found that principals who actively supported the instructional development of new teachers and involved experienced teachers in the process contributed positively to the overall school culture. This aligned with the concept of academic optimism, suggesting that principals who fostered a supportive and collaborative environment significantly enhanced the effectiveness of their schools.[7]

Johnson (2004) conducted a study focusing on the leadership styles, traits, skills, and functions of 10 successful elementary school principals in a North Carolina school system. While not specifically targeting novice principals, Johnson's findings emphasized the importance of novice principals adapting their leadership styles to different situations.[8]

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5. Glenn A. Bowen, "Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method," Qualitative Research Journal, 9,2. (2009):21.
6. Antonio Bolivar, Juan Manuel Moreno, "Between Transaction and Transformation: The Role of School Principals as Education Leaders in Spain," Journal of Educational Change, 7,1. (2006):22.
7. Peter Youngs, "How Elementary Principals' Beliefs and Actions Influence New Teachers' Experiences," Educational Administration Quarterly, 43,1. (2007): 129.
8. Johnson, Wendy Noelle, "The Anatomy of The Elementary School Principal: An Investigation Often Elementary School Principals as To Their Leadership Styles, Characteristics/ Traits, and Functions in One North Carolina School System," (Degree Doctor of Education, The University of North Carolina, 2004), 146.

In their paper "Coming on Board: problems facing novice principals in Iran," Kouhsari and Bush (2020) discussed the challenges encountered by novice principals and proposed solutions to address them. They included implementing school-based management, fostering the development of novice principals, establishing effective partnerships with stakeholders, and prioritizing education. The authors emphasized the importance of professional development for novice principals to effectively translate theory into practice, as their leadership practices significantly impact stakeholders' needs and expectations. Additionally, Kouhsari and Bush advocated for mentoring and networking as valuable tools to help novice principals navigate the challenges of principalship, enabling them to effectively balance change and stability, as well as control and flexibility.[9]

5. Findings

The study discussed in this paper identified various training models recommended by scholars for school principals. One training model, proposed by Cemaloğlu (2005), emphasizes that school principals should receive training in management and supervision at the undergraduate or graduate level. This training should incorporate simulations, case studies, problem-based learning, clinical practice, group activities, leadership practices, involvement in decision-making processes, and communication skills development. Additionally, principals are encouraged to participate in national and local in-service training programs following their appointment. They should also undergo professional examinations and possess teaching experience or government administrative background, along with demonstrated achievements and contributions in their field.[10]

Yirci (2009) proposed a structured mentoring model designed specifically for competent school principals. The model emphasized the importance of conducting a thorough needs analysis to identify the principal's professional development requirements, both in terms of current topics and future plans. It suggested that principals should undergo a one-year training program in collaboration with MONE-COHE (Ministry of National Education and the Council of Higher Education). The School Principal Training Board should hold the responsibility of providing training to new principals as well as organizing in-service training. The model also incorporated a board of mentor principals, with monthly meetings and an apprenticeship process. Evaluation is conducted through a written exam, and mentor principals provide guidance and advice. The appointment criteria for this model included managing leadership skills, the ability to foster relationships among individuals, a propensity for teamwork, conflict resolution skills, and the capacity to effectively deal with people.[11]

Kesim (2009) proposed a distance education model aimed at training individuals in educational administration. The model comprises several modules, including educational administration, social sciences, administrative sciences, and educational sciences.

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9. Masoumeh Kouhsari, Tony Bush, "Coming on Board: Problems Facing Novice Principals in Iran," International Journal of Leadership in Education, 26,3. (2020): 455.
10. Necati Cemaloğlu, "Türkiye De Okul Yöneticisi Yetiştirme Ve İstihdamı Varolan Durum, Gelecekteki Olası Gelişmeler Ve Sorunlar." Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 25,2. (2005): 260.
11. Ramazan Yirci, "Mentorluğun Eğitimde Kullanılması ve Okul Yöneticisi Yetiştirmede Yeni Bir Model Önerisi" (Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Fırat Üniversitesi, 2009), 68.

These modules cover school management, communication, time management, leadership, and research methods. The training process spans one year and requires participants to have at least five years of teaching experience. Delivery methods include a combination of face-to-face and e-learning, in collaboration with MONE-COHE. Practical application is facilitated through case studies and e-portfolios, while assessment involves online midterm and final exams, including both written and face-to-face components. The model emphasizes the development of IT competence and a commitment to lifelong learning, with the goal of training participants to possess a vision and guide teachers in their professional development journey.[12]

Aslan (2009) introduced a training and appointment model tailored for school principals in Turkey, covering public administration, organizational innovation, resource utilization, motivation skills, crisis and stress management, conflict resolution, communication, personnel management, educational rules, and school administration. The National Education Academy oversees the training process, which involves a two-year pre-service program, comprising one year of theoretical training followed by a one-year internship. Participant selection includes a written exam and progress reports, with a final appointment made by the ministry. Criteria for principal appointment include holding an MA/PhD in educational sciences, completing the pre-service program, achieving satisfactory scores in language and academic exams, having five years of teaching experience, and possessing achievement certificates. Emphasizing practical application, the model aims to bridge theory and practice in the role of school principals.[13]

Balyer and Gündüz (2011) introduced a pre-service and in-service training model for school principals, covering various content areas such as school management, education process management, conflict resolution, teamwork organization, communication skills development, staff development, theoretical knowledge, research skills, portfolio preparation, school program management, and school development. The training process is conducted in collaboration with MONE-COHE and features a two-year initial training program for prospective school principals. Additionally, there's a one-year mentor training program, excluding candidates with an MA degree. Participant selection involves both written and oral exams, considering teaching experience. The model aims to address theoretical and practical deficiencies in school principal training, equipping them with the necessary skills and knowledge to effectively manage schools and enhance the education system.[14]

Altın and Vatanartıran (2014) proposed a sustainable development model for training school principals, covering school management, leadership, psychology, sociology, communication, conflict management, protocol implementation, legislation, technology, ethics, and general knowledge. The training process involves a one or two-year apprenticeship to gain practical experience, alongside in-service training to enhance skills and knowledge. Participant selection includes both written and oral exams designed to be objective and fair. Appointment criteria require at least three years of teaching experience and an MA degree. Emphasizing sustainable development in school management, the model aims to equip principals with the skills to lead schools effectively and promote long-term growth and success.[15]

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12. Eren Kesđm, "Okul Yöneticilerinin Uzaktan Eğitim Yoluyla Yetiştirilmeleri İçin Eğitim İhtiyaçlarına Dayalı Bir Program Modeli Önerisi" (Degree Doctor of Education, Anadolu Üniversitesi, 2009), 120.
13. Nebihe Aslan, "Avrupa Birliği Ülkelerinde Ve Türkiye'de Okul Yöneticilerinin Yetiştirilme Ve Atanmalarının Karşılaştırılması Ve Bir Model Önerisi" (Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Gaziantep Üniversitesi, 2009). 76.
14. Aydın Balyer, Yüksel Gündüz, "Değişik Ülkelerde Okul Müdürlerinin Yetiştirilmesi: Türk Eğitim Sistemi İçin Bir Model Önerisi", Kuramsal Eğitimbilim Dergisi, 4,2. (2011).
15. Ferdi Altin, Sinem Vatanartiran, "Türkiye 'de Okul Yöneticisi Yetiştirme, Atama Ve Sürekli Geliştirme Model Önerisi," Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 15,2. (2014):10.

Sezer (2016) proposed a certificate program model which includes student learning, effective teaching, instructional leadership, coaching, effective communication, human relations, school development, strategic planning, team management, crisis management, conflict management, problem-solving, organizational change, curriculum development, professional development, and budgeting.[16]

The training process is conducted in collaboration with MONE-COHE and involves a minimum of 240 hours of training, focusing on both theoretical knowledge and practical application. The selection process involves a written exam and an interview. School principals are appointed through an election process engaging the school community, including teachers, parents, students, and officials. Appointment criteria include holding a BA degree, possessing a school management certificate, having at least five years of teaching experience, showcasing completed projects, exhibiting strong human relations and communication skills, demonstrating leadership characteristics, and holding an MA or PhD degree in educational administration. The model underscores the significance of certification for school principals to ensure they meet standards of competence and expertise. It also stresses the importance of an effective and sustainable election system involving the broader school community in the appointment process.

When comparing the various models, it is evident that they all prioritize similar content areas such as student learning, human relations, management skills, problem-solving, curriculum development, organizational change and behavior, psychology, sociology, communication skills, managing school programs, and professional development. These areas are crucial for effective school leadership.

All the models agreed that school principals should undergo at least one year of training in collaboration with the MOE-COHE. This training typically includes a combination of face-to-face and e-learning methods. Case studies and e-portfolios are often utilized for practical application, and assessments usually consist of midterm and final exams. Additionally, some models emphasize the importance of training management and supervisorship for teachers holding a BA or MA degree. Simulations, problem-based learning, clinical practice, group activities, leadership practices, participation in decision-making processes, and communication skills training are also common elements.[17]

After appointment as school principals, further training through national and local in-service programs is often provided, allowing for a comparison of theory and practice. Mentors play a crucial role in the training process, and principals may undergo written exams and oral interviews conducted by a committee of the MOE-COHE to select the most suitable candidates for the position.

One consistent criterion for school principals across the models is having a degree in education and a master's degree in educational management. Other important characteristics include managing leadership skills, building relationships, teamwork, conflict resolution abilities, and the ability to effectively interact with others.[18]

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16. Şenol Sezer, "School Administrators' Opinions on Frequently Changing Regulations Related to Appointments and Relocation: A New Model Proposal. Educational Sciences," Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 16,2, (2016):340.
17. Mirgul Enterieva, "Dünyada Ve Türkiye'de Okul Yöneticilerinin Seçimi Ile Eğitimi Ve Buna Bağlı Geliştirilebilir Politikalar," Uluslararası Liderlik Çalışmaları Dergisi: Kuram ve Uygulama, 5,3. (2022): 216.
18. Sezer, School Administrators' Opinions on Frequently Changing Regulations Related to Appointments and Relocation: A New Model Proposal. Educational Sciences, 346.

6. Discussion

Combined Model

In Somalia, the education sector faces numerous challenges, and one critical area is education leadership. The selection, appointment, and training of school principals are crucial factors that significantly impact the quality of education provided to students. However, the current practices in Somalia lack a comprehensive model for revitalizing education leadership. This model aims to address the need for a systematic approach to selecting, appointing, and training school principals to enhance the educational system in Somalia.

The education system encounters significant challenges in the selection and appointment of school principals. One major issue is the inadequate selection process, lacking uniformity and transparency. The absence of standardized criteria and procedures compromises educational leadership quality, leading to inconsistencies across institutions. Additionally, the limited availability of professional development opportunities for aspiring school principals hampers their acquisition of essential skills, knowledge, and competencies required for effective leadership and management. Insufficient investment in their professional growth may result in difficulties meeting role demands and expectations.

Furthermore, the lack of clear appointment criteria for school principals creates opportunities for nepotism, favoritism, and political interference. Merit-based appointments are vital to ensure competent individuals are chosen, fostering a culture of excellence and fairness. Newly appointed principals often lack support and mentoring, leaving them ill-equipped to handle role complexities. The absence of guidance and mentorship undermines their ability to implement effective strategies and drive positive change. Comprehensive support and mentoring initiatives are crucial for new principals to succeed in their professional growth and leadership endeavors.

The new model, table 1, aims to establish a standardized selection process, define the content of training, establish clear appointment criteria, and implement an evaluation process. In this study, a combined model is proposed, incorporating elements from the previously mentioned models.

The model for training school principals emphasizes the importance of comprehensive training to equip them with the requisite skills and knowledge for effective school management. Educational management and administration form core components of the program, ensuring principals understand the operational aspects of schools. Organizational behavior is highlighted to provide insights into human behavior within the school context. Communication skills are deemed crucial for facilitating interactions with stakeholders. Financial management, strategic planning, leadership, computer proficiency, problem-solving, time management, administration, report writing, constructive criticism, and evaluation processes are also emphasized to achieve educational excellence.

Table: 1
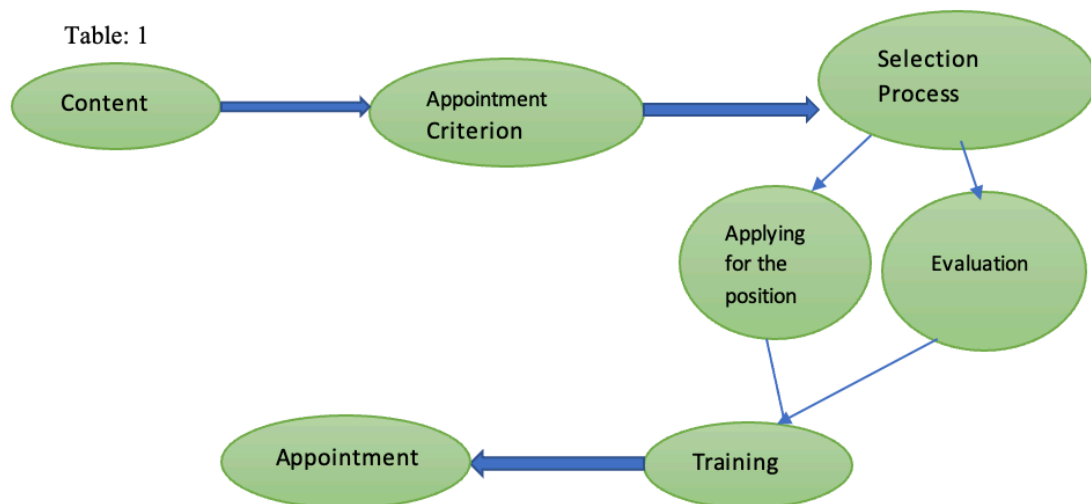
Source: Primary Source

By incorporating these elements into the model, the aim is to create a comprehensive training program that addresses the multifaceted responsibilities of school principals and equips them with the necessary skills to effectively lead and manage educational institutions.

The model proposes appointment criteria for school principals, requiring candidates to hold a bachelor's degree in education and a master's degree in education management. Emphasis is placed on encouraging candidates to pursue a master's degree in education management to enhance their knowledge and expertise in school administration. Candidates should also have a minimum of five years of teaching experience and at least two years of experience as a vice principal. Personal qualities such as presentability, communication skills, self-confidence, and academic competence are considered important. These criteria aim to ensure that school principals possess relevant educational backgrounds and qualifications, promoting professionalism, expertise, and competence in educational management. Ultimately, this contributes to the effective management of educational institutions.

The selection process in the proposed model focuses on establishing an accountable and transparent system based on scientific and ethical standards. To avoid nepotism and favoritism, an independent committee is responsible for conducting the selection process. This committee ensures that the process is fair and unbiased. The process begins by advertising the position through official channels for public schools or on school websites and social media platforms for private schools.

The model suggests incorporating a written exam and oral or interview assessments as part of the selection process. These measures are designed to evaluate candidates objectively and assess their qualifications, skills, and competencies. In this model, the principal candidates are required to pass a written exam to proceed to the next stage of the selection process. To qualify for the oral exam, candidates must achieve a minimum score of 70% on the written exam. This criterion ensures that candidates demonstrate a satisfactory level of knowledge and understanding in the relevant areas of educational management and administration.

The purpose of the oral exam is to further assess the candidates' competencies, communication skills, and their ability to articulate their thoughts and ideas effectively. It provides an opportunity for candidates to showcase their qualifications, problem-solving abilities, and their potential to lead and manage educational institutions.

By setting a minimum passing score for the written exam and establishing the requirement to proceed to the oral exam, the model emphasizes the importance of both theoretical knowledge and practical communication skills in the selection of school principals. This approach ensures that candidates possess a well-rounded skill set and are capable of effectively addressing the challenges and responsibilities associated with the position of school principal.

The training process in the proposed model includes various components to ensure comprehensive development for school principals. For teachers aspiring to become principals, there is a specific focus on training management and supervisorship, tailored to their BA or MA qualifications. This training equips them with the necessary skills and knowledge to effectively manage and supervise educational institutions.

The training incorporates diverse methodologies such as simulations, case studies, problem-based learning, clinical practice, common group activities, leadership practices, and participation in decision-making processes. These interactive approaches provide practical experiences and opportunities for principals to apply their knowledge in real-world scenarios. Additionally, communication skills are emphasized to enable effective interaction with stakeholders.

After being appointed as principals, national and local in-service training programs are offered to further enhance their skills and knowledge. The School Principal Training Board and Board of Mentor Principals play crucial roles in providing guidance and support throughout the training process. Mentors are assigned, and regular monthly meetings are held to foster a strong mentorship relationship and facilitate learning. The study recommends establishing a board, committee or center designed to train school principals.

The apprenticeship process is also integrated into the training, allowing principals to gain practical experience in a virtual environment. This involves identifying and presenting problems, finding solutions, and acquiring theoretical knowledge to address complex challenges in school management.

Overall, the training program in this model emphasizes a balance between theoretical knowledge and practical application, with a minimum of 288 hours dedicated to training based on both theory and practice. Training continues for up to one year. The collaboration between MONE-COHE ensures the cooperation and coordination necessary to implement this comprehensive training program effectively.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study has highlighted the importance of standardized selection processes, comprehensive training programs, and clear appointment criteria for school principals. The models discussed in this study have identified key areas of focus, such as educational management, communication skills, organizational behavior, and professional development, which are crucial for effective school leadership.

Based on the findings, it is recommended to establish a dedicated center for principal training. This center would serve as a hub for developing and implementing standardized training programs for aspiring and current school principals. The center would collaborate with relevant educational authorities, such as the Ministry of Education, to ensure the training programs align with national educational goals and standards.

The principal training center should provide diverse training approaches such as face-to-face sessions, e-learning modules, simulations, case studies, and mentorship programs. Continuous professional development opportunities, collaboration, and networking with experienced educators should be prioritized. A transparent and merit-based selection process, including written exams, oral interviews, and independent committees, is crucial to avoid nepotism. Newly appointed principals should receive ongoing support and mentoring to navigate their roles effectively, with mentorship programs and regular meetings enhancing their leadership skills and professional growth.

The paper recommends establishing a dedicated department for principal training within the structure of the Ministry of Education. This department would be tasked with the responsibility of training prospective principals. Additionally, it suggests implementing a comprehensive two-year training program for aspiring principals. Furthermore, the paper advocates for the identification of clear criteria for the selection and appointment of principals.

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04

Somali private school owners' perspective of the role of the federal government in regulation and private schools

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Abstract

The emergence of private schools followed the state collapse during the 1991 civil war. The whole education infrastructure was destroyed, leaving no alternative to private schools, which became the most prominent providers of education in Somalia. Despite the government restoring its role in the education sector, the position of private schools remains strong. Under the country's provisional federal constitution, the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) has the primary responsibility to provide free, quality education. To engage private providers in the country, the FGS recently introduced a private school policy, but private school owners reported a disconnect between the contents of the policy and the reality of operating schools.

This paper aims to capture private school owners' perspectives on the role of the state in regulating private education. Many governments have become increasingly interested in the performance of all aspects of their education systems, and as a result of such interest, the education profession has conformed to the requirements of regulatory or compliance accountability systems. The paper adopts Anderson's model of accountability in education, which draws on compliance with regulations, adherence to professional norms, and results-driven accountability. The paper also discusses the Islamic concept of 'hesab', the Arabic word for 'account', which serves as the theoretical framework for this paper.

1. Introduction

This paper aims to capture private school owners' perspectives on the role of the state in regulating private education. Many governments have become increasingly interested in the performance of all aspects of their education systems, and as a result of such interest, the education profession has conformed to the requirements of regulatory or compliance accountability systems. Anderson's model of accountability in education draws on compliance with regulations, adherence to professional norms, and result-driven accountability. The paper discusses how participants' views on accountability are influenced by the Islamic concept of 'hesab', the Arabic word for 'account'.

In the absence of a broadly functioning government and a centrally regulated education system, "non-state actors became the most prominent providers of education in Somalia."[1] While a considerable amount of research has been carried out on non-state education in many conflict- and crisis-affected countries, few scholars have written on the role, types, and ownership of non-state education providers in Somalia. It is certain that these providers "will continue to operate successfully if communities and others sustain their support" (ibid).

In nearly every country's educational history, the first formal educational opportunities for children were provided by non-state schools, whether by religious organizations, philanthropists, or private interests.[2]

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1. World Bank. Study on Understanding the Role of Non-state Education Providers in Somalia. World Bank, 2018.
2. Steer, Liesbet, Julia Gillard, Emily Gustafsson-Wright, and Michael Latham. "Non-state actors in education in developing countries: A framing paper for discussion." In Background paper, Annual Research Symposium of the Center for Universal Education, Brookings Institution, March, pp. 5-6. 2015.

In the last 20 years, the share of primary enrolment in non-state schools in low-income countries has doubled, from 11 percent to 22 percent. Baum et al. (2014)[3] stated that non-state providers account for a significant and growing proportion of enrolment. However, in many cases, the data does not include unrecognized or unregistered non-state schools. Estimates of provision rates based on existing official data therefore do not capture the full scope of non-state engagement and are likely to underestimate the size of the sector.[4]

2. Literature Review

Somalia is facing complex and multidimensional challenges in the areas of curriculum, teacher training, school infrastructure, lack of public education, unregulated private education, school finance, and untrained educational professionals.[5] Countries and education systems vary significantly in how the government is involved and what role it plays. Culture, politics, and history may affect the balance between centralization and decentralization as well as government control.

The provisional constitution, which is still under consideration, demarcates the connections between the central government and the Federal Member States (FMS), but there is ambiguity in the precise roles and responsibilities of each level of government in the formulation and implementation of policies, although Article 54 of the constitution stipulates the power-sharing between the central government and the FMS. The article defines power sharing as "the allocation of power and resources shall be negotiated and agreed upon by the FGS and the FMS"[6]

While successive leaders of the FGS have made attempts to negotiate political agreements with the member states, important issues related to the allocation of powers and resources remain contested.[7] Somalia's education system lacks an agreed-upon legal framework to guide the federal government vis-à-vis the sub-national roles and responsibilities. The Federal Member States have established their own education ministries for overseeing planning and service delivery and have formulated their own education sector strategic plans. The establishment of these separate ministries of education in the sub-national entities springs from a need to accommodate the country's broader political system of power-sharing and to address associated inequalities in the distribution of power and representation in decision-making.[8]

There are several perspectives—some against and some in favor—on the emergence of private schools in developing countries. The driving factors behind the creation of these non-state schools vary. In Somalia, education activists and campaigners for quality education for all argue that the absence of state education is the core reason why a large number of private schools exist in the country.

3. Baum, Donald, Laura Lewis, Oni Lusk-Stover, and Harry Patrinos. "What matters most for engaging the private sector in education: A framework paper." (2014

4. Francis, Robert, Pauline Martin, and Nicholas Burnett R4D. "Affordable non-state schools in El Salvador." (2018), p. 6.

5. Hussein, Abdullahi Sh Adam. "Educational challenges in post-transitional Somalia." Somalia: The Heritage Institute for Policy Studies (2015).

6. See the Constitution of the Federal Government of Somalia, available at https://www.parliament.gov.so/images/Downloads/Dastuurka_ku_meelgaarka_SOM_03092012-1_2.pdf

7. Tarah, Abdishakur, and Krishan Sood. "Participatory Action Research: Challenges and Opportunities of Undertaking Indigenous Approach in Examining School Leadership in a Conflict-Affected Zone." Indigenous Methodologies, Research and Practices for Sustainable Development (2022): 413-428.

8. Ibid, p. 138

Despite attempts made by the federal government to restore education, "the role of the nonstate providers in the delivery of education to the poor will stay as long as they have the support of the community.[9] This perception also exists elsewhere: "One perspective is whether the state alone would be able to meet the primary school enrolment targets given the pressure placed on public finances." [10]

In discussing the rise of private schools in Somalia, stated that "their emergence followed the state collapse, when all educational infrastructures were destroyed, leaving no alternative to private schools."[11] In fact, everything, including security and the provision of law enforcement, became private. According to Tooley and Longfield, "In many conflict-affected countries, communities have stepped into the vacuum created by the failure of governments to give support to education, and such efforts can deliver quick results for education and demonstrate that the government is beginning to function."[12] As there are no government instruments that support private education in Somalia, it heavily relies on the support of its communities, and "they are likely to continue to thrive, so long as they have community support."[13]

As part of the government's policy, the Department for Private Education and Umbrella Associations was created within the Ministry of Education to coordinate with private education stakeholders and umbrella associations. "Although there is active engagement between the Department and the private education sector, this engagement is not fully formalized or regulated."[14] As highlighted in the previous section, umbrella associations manage 64% of existing private schools, and they are owned privately. The government has introduced a Private Schools Policy (PSP). The policy "outlines the regulations for the establishment and operation of private schools in the country."[15] Even though private schooling plays an active role in Somalia, a study on what regulatory mechanisms apply to it has yet to be carried out. Although this study may not be considered a large-scale representative study, it may nevertheless be considered an initial pilot study for future and wider research on these issues.

At the federal level, the education system in Somalia is managed by the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Higher Education (MoECHE), which is responsible for the overall guidance and administration of education in Somalia. Its mandate is to ensure that a viable education system is in place and to promote quality education and training for all citizens to optimize individual and national development.[16] According to the World Bank report, "Somalia's regional education actors should work to agree on a national framework for setting an education policy that provides for a federal role in establishing system-wide standards and norms."[17]

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9. Abdinoor, Abdullahi Sheikh. "Constructing education in a stateless society: The case of Somalia." PhD diss. , Ohio University, 2007.

10. Ashley, Laura Day, Claire Mcloughlin, Monazza Aslam, Jakob Engel, Joseph Wales, Shenila Rawal, Richard Batley, Geeta Kingdon, Susan Nicolai, and Pauline Rose. "The role and impact of private schools in developing countries." Rigorous Literature Review (2014), p. 5

11. Abdinoor, Abdullahi Sheikh. "Constructing education in a stateless society: The case of Somalia." PhD diss., Ohio University, 2007.

12. Tooley, James, and David Longfield. Education, war and peace: The surprising success of private schools in war-torn countries: The surprising success of private schools in war-torn countries. London Publishing Partnership, 2017.

13. Abdinoor, Abdullahi Sheikh. "Constructing education in a stateless society: The case of Somalia." PhD diss., Ohio University, 2007

14. (World Bank, 2018, p. 21)

15. NESSP National Education Sector Strategic Plan 2022-2026, Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education, Mogadishu.(2022), p. 25.

16. MoECHE Education Sector Strategic Plan, EESP 2018-2020. Mogadishu, Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education, Federal Government of Somalia. (2017) p. 10.

17. World Bank, 2018, p. 137

The MoECHE is responsible for managing the education sector in the country. This responsibility is outlined in the provisional constitution, and their work is guided by several key policy documents, including the National Education Sector Strategic Plan, the National Curriculum Framework, and the Quality Assurance Framework (MoECHE, ESSP, 2022-2026, p. 25). The current National Education Sector Strategic Plan (2022-2026) is a government plan that sets out the government's view of the education sector's goals, objectives, and priorities for a period of five years, including six key policy priorities: access, equity, and completion in basic education; quality and relevance of education in basic and secondary education; access to affordable, quality, and relevant TVET; access to quality higher education; governance and system management; and utilization and integration of ICT in education.

Countries compete to position themselves at the top of their respective economies, and governments are becoming increasingly interested in monitoring the performance of their educational and skills provisions and systems. The education profession has conformed to the requirements of regulatory or compliance accountability systems (usually based on government statutes) and has also subscribed to professional norms established by associations of educators.[18] Anderson suggested three main types of accountability systems: compliance with regulations; adherence to professional norms; and result-driven.[19] Anderson further asserted that "school accountability systems operate according to a set of principles and use a variety of implementation strategies, with particular attention given to the political and technical aspects of accountability."[20]

Anderson's types of accountabilities in education are discussed below.

Compliance with regulations is vital when it comes to meeting a set of standards introduced by a mandated regulatory body. There are a range of regulations and standards that educational institutions must adhere to, depending on the country's governance and mandate. In the field of education, there are a number of commonly used compliance measures, including legal and educational standards, teacher certification and standards, health and safety for schools, financial regulations, and accessibility. Countries may differ in the implementation and monitoring of these regulations, and this all depends on how they are presented to the regulated entities. "Many regulations are highly prescriptive in telling regulated entities and individuals what to do and how to do it."[21]

Adherence to professional norms: being responsible for one's actions and decisions is an integral part of professional conduct. Being accountable means professionals must take responsibility for their work, admit their mistakes when they occur, and correct them immediately to avoid their impact on others. Adherence to professional values is important for maintaining ethical conduct and promoting trustworthiness in any professional setting. Evans (2008) views professionalism as "the ideology that governs the work and standards of an occupation that provides a service within a special set of institutions."[22]

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18. Anderson, Jo Anne, and International Institute for Educational Planning. Accountability in education. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 2005.
19. ibid
20. Ibid
21. May, Peter J. "Regulatory regimes and accountability." Regulation & Governance 1, no. 1 (2007): 8-26., p. 9
22. Evans, Linda. "Professionalism, professionality and the development of education professionals." British journal of educational studies 56, no. 1 (2008): 20-38.

Professionals set up professional standards bodies that provide an opportunity for peer challenges that enable them to hold each other to account. Some are set up by governments, such as the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) and the National Teaching Council in the UK, as well as the National Council of Teachers in the United States.

Results-driven accountability focuses on learning outcomes and achievement and holds educational institutions accountable for delivering them. Under this accountability, the emphasis is placed on the results, which involves defining clear and measurable objectives and establishing performance metrics and indicators. Such accountability is also measured through exam-based assessment, whereby countries use exams to measure students' ability to move to the next level. Reviews of accountability programs throughout the world provide evidence that accountability is an international issue. England has a national curriculum accompanied by assessments and measures for rating schools, while some other countries use national assessments to measure student and school progress and to make decisions about each.

For Somalis, as followers of Islam, "religion is a major influence on their lives".[23] Religion directly influences governance and daily life. National legislation and traditional customary law are informed by Shari'a rulings. Therefore, such religious influence does have a significant influence on individuals' approaches to accountability, as individual believers are encouraged to take personal responsibility for their actions and choices. To this end, the paper discusses the Islamic concept of 'hesab, the Arabic word for 'account, in the next section.

The Islamic concept of accountability is derived from the Quran and is a powerful part of the Islamic system of business, which means accountability in front of Allah (SWT), not only in this world but also in the hereafter.[24] Islamic teaching signifies the importance of accountability both in individual and societal actions, and it is closely tied to the concept of responsibilities and the idea that individuals will be answerable and transparent about their actions and be able to justify them based on predetermined standards or expectations in this life and the afterlife. Lewis states that "accounting in the broad sense is central to Islam since accountability to God and the community for all activities is paramount to a Muslim's faith."[25] The word hesab, which means accountability, is repeated more than eight times in different verses in the Quran (Askary and Clarke, 1997).

The Holy Qur'an states

يَٰٓأَيُّهَا ٱلَّذِينَ ءَامَنُوا۟ ٱتَّقُوا۟ ٱللَّهَ وَلْتَنظُرْ نَفْسٌ مَّا قَدَّمَتْ لِغَدٍۢ وَٱتَّقُوا۟ ٱللَّهَ إِنَّ ٱللَّهَ خَبِيرٌۢ بِمَا تَعْمَلُونَ

"O you who believe! Be careful of (your duty to) Allah, and let every soul consider what it has sent on for the morrow, and be careful of (your duty to) Allah; surely Allah is aware of what you do."[26]

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23. Andrzejewski, Bogumil W. "Islamic literature of Somalia." Hans Wolff Memorial Lecture. (1983).
24. Mordhah, Najwa. "Self-Accountabiliy: The Link Between Self-Accountability and Accountability in Islam." International Journal of Humanities and Social Science 2, no. 5 (2012): 240-245.
25. Lewis, Mervyn K. "â€ œAccountability and Islam. â€ Paper presented at the 4th International Conference on Accounting and Finance in Transition." Adelaide, Australia (2006).
26. Surah: Al-Hashar, 59; Versa: 18

Self-accountability is the main emphasis of hesab. There are various contexts that Hesab highlights, including social accountability, which focuses on the responsibilities of individuals and organizations towards society. The regulatory mechanisms that regulate education generally monitor the statutory compliance and management adequacy of schools or other educational settings. Governments issue regulatory guidelines and suggest best practices within these agreed-upon principles. Regulated entities are expected to report their compliance status to an external regulatory body. By doing so, they can protect the rights and well-being of students, maintain quality education, and avoid legal consequences. Staying informed about evolving educational practices and regulations allows institutions to provide students with a supportive and enriching learning environment, preparing them for success in their academic and professional lives.

3. Methodology

The qualitative approach was chosen to conduct this study as it was the appropriate method to conduct research when an issue or a problem needs to be explored.[27] The paper used semi-structured interviews as they allowed the exploration of a series of specific questions or issues. This helped the paper probe and ask follow-up questions. Ten participants took part in the study, and all were owners of private schools, including those from foundations, individuals who own schools that are not part of any foundation, and those who were the most interesting.

The paper reduced the entire study to a single, overarching central question and several sub-questions. Drafting this central question took considerable work because of its breadth. To reach the overarching central question, the paper took Creswell's advice to state the broadest question to address the research problem and addressed the following main question: What role should the federal government play in regulating private schools in Somalia?

Participants were presented with a set of questions about their views, and there were two main questions with a set of sub-questions that were incorporated into the main question.

4. Findings

The paper has generated a number of key points, and these were taken for the discussion along with the key points presented in the introduction and the literature review section of the paper. Participants were asked to respond to some structured interview questions based on Anderson's accountability model: compliance with regulation, adherence to professional norms, and results-driven accountability. In addition to Anderson's model of accountability in education, the paper also sought to examine how participants' personal and professional values of accountability are influenced by the Islamic concept of hesab.

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27. Creswell, John W., and Cheryl N. Poth. Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches. Sage publications, 2016.

The paper used thematic analysis to present and discuss the views of participants. The key themes were accountability through compliance with regulations, adherence to professional norms, and hesab.

Key points that emerged from interviews included:

- The vast majority of schools participants managed were part of foundations.

- All participants were involved in education before the Civil War.

- The average number of schools in each foundation was four.

- Participants' schools are located mainly in the Benadir region.

- The age range was between 45 and 69.

- 10 percent of participants were female.

In responding to the first question regarding the role of the FGS in delivering education at the country level and the role of the FGS in accountability in education, participants agreed that the FGS has the constitutional mandate to be responsible for ensuring that Somalia has a workable and quality education system for all its citizens.

The second question sought participants' understanding of accountability in education and variations existed in their responses. Below are some perspectives commonly expressed by the participants:

Accountability in education is about:

- Doing the right thing

- Delivering what you promised

- Self-accounting and professionalism

- Doing what you promised to others

- Monitoring your work

- Measuring a set of goals

- Compliance and meeting the expected standard or principle at the individual level

- A pathway to achieve something

- Checking your work

- Monitoring or adherence to a rule or an agreed framework at the school level

Although all respondents defined what accountability means to them, participants 3, 5, 7, and 10 provided extended answers.

Participant 3

"Accountability is about self-counting and holding a value-based professionalism. Maintaining a high standard of professionalism is key to accountability in education. Teachers must hold themselves to account when teaching students to the standard expected. Leaders must provide leadership, support, and challenges in making sure standards are met at all levels within schools."

Participant 5

"Accountability is about monitoring your work and holding yourself to account first before I hold others in our schools to account. For example, if I am the leader of an organization that delivers education, I must ensure there is a monitoring system that holds me and others to account."

Participant 7

"Accountability starts at the individual level through the adherence to a set of rules, standards, principles, and policies. For example, school owners and leaders are accountable for the academic progress and achievement of their students."

Participant 10

"Accountability is about monitoring adherence to what has been agreed upon, including what teachers are teaching, what students are learning, and the quality of the curriculum instructions. At the school level, school staff are responsible for developing and implementing the relevant curriculum in line with the national curriculum framework."

The majority of the participants indicated that FGS is the entity that delivers accountability at the country level. Some participants (1, 3, 6, and 8) were very specific with their answers.

Participant 1

"The government is ours, and it has the responsibility to provide good quality education for all, regardless of who provides it. It has the responsibility to oversee the development, design, and delivery of a unified national curriculum."

Participant 3

"The government is responsible for setting health and safety standards for schools."

Participant 6

"The government must also be responsible for ensuring teachers are trained and supervised. It is also responsible for providing free education for all, including those attending non-state providers, and this requires collaboration between the state and private education providers."

Participant 8

"The government has the right to regulate education, but it must have the capacity to deliver education in every region and work with local governments, including the power to implement its policies. This will minimize the different curriculums that are being delivered in some parts of the country despite the government's introduction of a national curriculum."

Participants also discussed how their professional and personal views are influenced by the Islamic concept of hesab.

All participants considered hesab to have personal and professional value and said it was an integral part of what they do or practice.

Participant 1

"We must hold ourselves to account at all times for not only achieving organizational or individual goals in this world but for life hereafter."

A significant number of participants (9) said that regulation is the key mechanism that the government uses to hold education providers to account, including those from the private sector.

In sharing their views about the challenges of regulating private schools in the country, a number of challenges were highlighted, including:

- Conflicts between those responsible for education in the FGS and FMS

- Lack of recognition of the role played by private providers

- Disparities of accountability and authority in the regions

- Poor policy implementation

- Weak enforcement of regulations

- Lack of support for private schools

- Poor governance

- Lack of expertise in government departments

- Lack of specialist officers in policy formulation within the MoECHE

- Lack of government consultation with the wider private education providers

5. Discussion

All participants stated that the FGS has a role in the delivery of education as mandated by the provisional constitution. Some of the participants were very specific with their responses and provided some detailed assertions, including that being accountable means delivering what was promised to others, self-accounting and professionalism, monitoring your work, measuring a set of goals, compliance, and meeting the expected standard or principles at the individual and organizational levels.

6. Conclusion

Participants' views matched those of Anderson's model of accountability in education, including compliance with regulation, adherence to professional values, and being results-driven. Participants were explicit with their views on regulating private education in the country as a means of accountability, including providing guidance to schools about health and safety and ensuring schools are safe for children. They also stated that teachers and educational leaders must maintain a high level of professionalism and adhere to standards expected in teaching and delivering good-quality instruction. They also believed schools are responsible for the educational progress students make, and they must hold each other to account. In addition, participants considered hesab to have personal and professional value and said it was an integral part of what they do or practice in fulfilling their responsibilities.

7. Policy recommendations

- The FGS must recognize the role of private education providers in the country. Such recognition will create an atmosphere of collaboration between the government and the private sector in education to address the challenges faced by the education sector. The FGS may take a public-private dialogue approach to create such an atmosphere.

- The FGS must build the capacity of its own frontline staff, who are responsible for working with private education, school management systems, and teaching standards. Such an approach will enable the private providers to build trust with the government and see it as a national entity with competency.

- The FGS and FMS ministries of education must work together to provide a nationwide framework for private school engagement. This approach will enable the government to address the issues of access to and equity in education in the country.

- To establish effective quality assurance mechanisms and monitoring and strengthen accountability, the FGS must consult and collaborate with private education providers in an equal position. This approach of collaboration and consultation will enable both parties to agree on easily accessible training and guidance on accountability in education.

05

State-sponsored Education: How Somalia can accommodate students with special needs and disabilities?

By Mohamed Harun and Abdirahman Farah (Luunge)

Abstract

Existing data reveal that people with disabilities (PwDs) and children with special educational needs (SEN) in Somalia have no meaningful access to formal education (Starck, 2016) and (MOECHE, 2022). Based on that grim reality, this paper explores the best and most feasible approach to establish, for the first time in Somalia's known history, a state-sponsored educational system, be it inclusive or exclusive, to cater to the needs of a large segment of Somali society. Traditionally, the only learning choice for people with disability was the qur'anic madrasas, which were only for boys. Multiple underlying factors stand behind this ugly reality, including, but not limited to, attitudinal, environmental, and institutional barriers. After the state collapsed in 1991, some NGOs and individuals made commendable efforts to establish schools for the sensory impaired, but that is far from being adequate. Based on the interviews and observations made, we argue that the feasibility of initiating an inclusive education system when the country has no existing exclusive one is immensely difficult, if not impossible. Instead, we suggest a more realistic mixed approach, which primarily begins with a more segregated or exclusive system, followed by a cautiously designed and incrementally implemented exclusive one in the long run. Such a pioneering state intervention will generate attitudes, actions, and even counteractions, ultimately strengthening efforts to advance a broader rights-based approach to disability in Somalia. This paper relies on data gathered through key informant interviews, personal comparative observations made in Mogadishu and Kampala, examination of existing data, as well as media monitoring.

Keywords: inclusive, exclusive, education, Somalia, state, disability, and rights.

1. Introduction

Due to the prolonged conflict, Somalia is known to have one of the highest numbers of people living with disability on the continent. (Rohwerder, 2018) and (Shikuku and Omar 2017). Besides violence, other key disability causal factors include, with no particular order, medical conditions, including preventable diseases, accidents, and miscellaneous factors. Based on that, Maina (2016) went to the extent that at least one member of the average Somali household lives with a form of disability; this means that the prevalence of disability in Somalia is higher than the 15% global benchmark in every nation. This large segment of Somali society faces deprivation, discrimination, and degrading living conditions. The epicentre of that disaster is centred on the lack of access to education and training, which sustains a vicious cycle of poverty.

On the other hand, financing, designing, and delivering educational programs tailored for people with various forms of disability is not a simple business. It is a costly and technically complicated venture that requires concrete national policy and resources. According to UNESCO, this is factor number one, of course, among many others, which leads to the exclusion of children and adults with disability in the developing world (Sugiharto, 2008) and (Wanjohi, 2019).

Nevertheless, a positive global trend toward disability has been building up in recent decades. All major international commitments, of which Somalia is part, require states to shoulder responsibility to provide education, employment, and protection from all forms of discrimination to their citizens who live with disability. Articles 7 and 24 of the UN Convention on the Rights of People with Disability, which Somalia became a party in 2019, and Article 4 of the SDG demand governments to "Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all."

Despite all those commitments, all primary and secondary data show that Somalia never had a formal education system intended for people with disability, and well-designed state-led intervention is needed here to remedy this serious shortcoming. The obsolete charitable-based model of disability is dominant in the country, and the popular culture is only familiar with that. The rights of people with disability, be it educational, employment, or protection, are not culturally recognized. As part of that broader challenge, the right to education is absent from the equation. This paper proposes an inclusion strategy that recognizes the right to education for people with a disability regardless of the type of disability. In the meantime, it advocates for a realistic approach that can be implemented in phases based on the availability of resources and other necessary mechanisms.

2. Review of Literature

As McManis (2020) accurately defined, inclusive education is when all learners, regardless of their abilities, disabilities, ethnic background, or socioeconomic status, are provided with equal educational opportunities and resources in the same classroom of their neighbourhood school and among the appropriate age group. According to Bui et al., 2010, and Gut and Alquraini, 2012), to enable children with diverse needs in such a classroom environment, specialized support and instructions tailored to the needs of the individual student must be provided so they can meet the necessary curricular requirements.

All available evidence shows that students with disability have better and improved academic achievement in such inclusive learning environments, as opposed to segregated settings (McManis, 2020). Having said that, one must beware of the fact that the cost of delivering this form of education in the appropriate settings, where every student with a disability or special needs can get a place and the necessary support in the school of their choice, is considerably high. According to Holms et al. (2015). the cost of educating a student with some form of disability or with special needs in an inclusive classroom is three times higher than their peers without disability or special needs. Lack of adequate resources, therefore, as cited by Wanjohi (2019), makes inclusive education in the developing world remain, as he put it, "in the realm of theory and far from practice."

Wanjohi (2019) was reflecting on the situation in Kenya, and he stated numerous challenges, including teachers lacking the necessary training having no access to resources, and classrooms often being overpopulated. This causes parents not to bring their children to mainstream schools in the first place or to withdraw them sooner rather than later.

They think their child cannot benefit from such an environment, and other students will ridicule them, which makes them opt for specialized or segregated schools. Without any doubt, inclusive education has immense benefits, but delivering it in a developing world is extremely challenging, as all the available data show. The situation is far more acute in a war-torn country like Somalia. Therefore, policymakers and all stakeholders must think about alternative options.

3. Methodology and Paper Structure

The data informing this paper was collected between 2019 and 2023 through various forms, including key in-depth interviews, participant observations, exploration of existing secondary data, and monitoring of media outlets. While participant observations relied on personal attendance in high-level technical meetings, mainly in Kampala and Mogadishu, in-depth interviews have been conducted with leading disability activists and school leaders in Somalia as individuals and groups, both online and offline. Structurally, the remaining parts of this paper will be laid out as follows – in the first section, we will present the current state of affairs regarding formal education and people with disability in Somalia. In the second section, we will shed light on the nature of existing challenges in the face of formal education for PWDS-SEN. Lastly, in the third section, we will propose a realistic 'Mixed approach' state-sponsored educational system, which aims to recognize and respond to the needs of the largest minority group in Somalia – PWDs and children with SEN – whose rates are alarmingly growing by the day. Finally, this paper will present practical recommendations to help policymakers and people with technical expertise in the education sector.

Section 1: The Current Status

In Somalia, the educational system has been significantly impacted by decades of civil war and conflict. This has led to the widespread destruction of schools, a shortage of qualified teachers, and limited access to educational resources. Only 42% of primary school-aged children (MOEHC 2018) get access to school. An extremely small number of children with disabilities, especially those with hearing and visual impairment, have access to segregated education, mainly in Mogadishu. Most of those children with disability attend special schools funded and run by NGOs, individuals, or the business community. While ordinary or mainstream schools, whether private or public schools, accommodate some children with less challenging disabilities like wheelchair users.

Throughout the country, as we were told during data collection, around eighteen schools accommodate the educational needs of children with hearing impairment, again mainly placed in or around Mogadishu. There are also around six special schools throughout the country that cater to the educational needs of children and adults with visual impairment. None of those are government-run, while two small schools, one in Mogadishu and another in Garowe, accommodate children with autistic needs.

Those special schools, as they are known locally, face enormous and multi-dimensional challenges. All those schools, as their leaders informed this paper, cover Somalia's national curriculum without any adaptation of the syllabus; that means they have no sign language, braille codes, or the other necessary tools to aid teachers in delivering the current curriculum. The majority of teachers in those schools and their staff have never undertaken the general teacher training course or a specific one to support children with disability or special needs. In addition, salaries for those teachers are critically inadequate and do not receive any other allowance or incentives. This means that they are more likely to leave at the first better opportunity elsewhere. Furthermore, those teachers are not employed formally in a competitive setting; they have been informally hand-picked by the administrators of those schools based on various factors. Many of them do not hold professional certificates and qualifications.

Except for the state-owned Hawlwadaag secondary school, which partly accommodates two schools, one for children with visual impairment and another for children with hearing impairment, those special schools do not receive direct support from the Ministry of Education, whether in kind or teaching training, supervision or quality control. Those schools survive with the meagre backing from some local/international NGOs, individual well-wishers, or privately-owned commercial companies who want to show some sort of social responsibility. In addition, many children are forced to drop out of school due to multiple factors, including poverty, child labour, early marriage, and, worst of all, cultural beliefs that education is not necessary for girls or children with disability.

On the other hand, school leaders expressed grave concerns about examinations. Disabled students sitting for national exams do not get basic support in line with their own needs. This includes things like written material to be made fully accessible, including charts and diagrams, accessible examination rooms to be prepared, exam readers to be trained, be prepared in time, and other reasonable adjustments to be applied. Moreover, another serious weakness raised by leaders of existing schools in Mogadishu was how exams are prepared by the local authorities. To re-produce examination papers in an alternative format, Banadir Administration cooperates with Al-nur School, one of the specialized schools for blind people in Mogadishu, and regularly uses their composer machine (specialized braille printer), then brail format papers are taken to other schools.

That practice does not only harm the integrity of national exam papers, as staff members from one of the private schools get access to those sensitive papers well before students take them, it also serves as clear evidence of how far state authorities, both central and local, are unprepared in their dealings with the needs of people with disability. Furthermore, due to various factors, fewer number out of the already small figure of disabled students who graduated from secondary manage to get their way to university. Similar challenges exist at the higher education level – universities do not have any ideas or resources to support a visually impaired student. They do not have, for example, appropriate scanning machines to convert printed text to electronically accessible format material for screen reading programs used by blind people. They neither have the equipment nor trained staff to do the job. Moreover, there is no national law or state policy requiring those academic institutions, both at the basic or the higher level, to accommodate the needs of those students.

To put it in a nutshell, in Somalia, there is no semblance of inclusive education – even school leaders and education officers do not have the slightest clue about the concept. Instead, there are extremely limited and otherwise struggling sectors of segregated private schools. Recommendations will come under the way forward section below, but in brief, those schools need, among many other things, formal and closer relations with the Ministry of Education. Financial and technical support need to be made available for them, and their effort needs to be coordinated. This will pave the way for the currently low student intake to increase dramatically and the performance of those schools to be placed under closer scrutiny. Better cooperation between the authorities and those private schools can, in the long run, be a prelude to inclusive education.

Section 2 – The Barriers

In general, the existence of institutional weaknesses in Somalia's social, cultural, and economic factors stand as a formidable barrier in the face of any form of meaningful education system. Each of those factors is severe enough in its own way, yet the institutional/policy shortcoming is the most critical. For instance, at the policy level, there is very little that has been designed to enable children with special needs to get access to state-run schools. Special Educational Needs and Inclusive Education policies are the only two that exist in that area. Although very ambitious, they are not locally contextualized. Perhaps, as the case is in many other state departments, such policies have been developed by external advisers who have no clue about local challenges in the financial and/or technical capabilities of the Ministry. Therefore, those policies have not been implemented.

At the administrative level, the Ministry of Education does not have a full-fletched department to deal with special education. Also, there is no budget heading allocated for the designing, formulation, and implementation of meaningful state interventions in the special education sector, and the National Curriculum does not take into account the needs of those people. With that reality in mind, there cannot be any wonder about why children and adults with a disability have no access to any form of state-sponsored education. Realization of this shortcoming at the institutional level and any subsequent remedial action will have a huge ripple effect on many other challenges, including social and cultural factors.

On the other hand, a combination of poverty and cultural factors is another gigantic obstacle. A large percentage of the population lives below the poverty line, making it difficult for many families to afford the cost of education for their children. This forces many parents to prioritize a non-disabled child over the other (Amnesty International, 2015; Rohwerder, 2019). Local school leaders in Mogadishu expressed their day-to-day experience with parents who prefer their disabled child go to school but cannot afford small transport costs and, therefore, keep them at home. What makes things worse is low public awareness of the basic right to education for children with a disability like any other child, and there are other underlying cultural nuances.

Largely, people in general view people living with disabilities as a burden on society who only need help. Based on that, many families are reluctant or may discourage their children from going to school as they cannot envisage a point to do so at all. That pessimism towards children with a disability grows bigger when it comes to girls - they face double-burden because of gender and disability. Our interviewees have been unanimous in their view that a government policy and national laws would only be the best way to tackle such obstacles.

Furthermore, there is a big misconception about inclusive education and what it is all about. This is a challenge on its own, as many local NGOs, disability activists, and even education officers have little or no understanding of the inclusivity of education and how it has to be managed. For instance, the Hawlwadaag secondary school building, which houses several schools, including one for deaf students, another for blind students, and a third one, an ordinary secondary school for none-disabled children, each operating disjointedly from others is known as an inclusive public school by many, including education officers. The harder work for policymakers, education experts, and teachers is to move understanding of the nation from that abysmal level to the correct understanding of inclusivity, where each child with a disability or a form of special needs is enabled to get education service that suits their own need, at the nearest school to their neighbourhood.

Section 3 – The Way Forward

Considering our observations on Somalia's tenuous post-conflict status, and particularly about the results of close examinations we made on Uganda's decades-old experience to create inclusive education, we can rule out that the Federal Government of Somalia is not able to consider delivering truly inclusive education in this stage. Numerous factors on the ground, including shortage of resources, lack of trained teachers, and lack of the necessary equipment/tools, just a few to mention, are not allowing for that to happen either now or in the near future. In Uganda, we will draw them as an example due to multiple common factors, including their proximity to Somalia, their recent history of having a long civil conflict, their socioeconomic similarity, etc.

Uganda started its own overall disability rights approach, including accessibility of education, back in the mid-1960s. Notable progress has been made on many fronts, but achievements in education were overrated, according to reporting made by external NGOs who operate in the sector. Back in early 2020, we had the opportunity to visit that country and study their progress as well as their regress. We had ample information and first-hand experience from senior officers at the Ministry of Education. We had a long group discussion with Minister Rosemary Nansubuga, Minister of State for primary education, and her team.

Along with Minister Rosemary, other senior officers representing key MoE departments, like the Special Needs Units for integral planning, Director of Education Standards, National Curriculum Development Centre, Examination Board, and Vocational and Training Department have participated in that group discussion. Indeed, they made some progress in their push for 'inclusive education,' accessibility of educational and examination material, and provision of financial grants to encourage students living with disability to continue their education and progress to higher education. However, despite those efforts, they presented alarming statistics that indicated sharp school dropping among students with disability in their early years of secondary level.

Further challenges included, but were not limited to, the socially constructed stigma around children with special needs and disability in general; negative attitude against persons with disability; parents refusing to enrol their children with severe forms of disability; serious shortage of funding which prevents special educational needs material and expertise from being made available for everyone and in all schools. Despite all the flowery talk about achievements in inclusive education, officials clearly stated that they extensively operate segregated forms of education throughout the country, along with limited inclusive education in some areas or some schools. This has been made necessary by various factors, including shortage of resources, shortage of expertise, and the impact of severe poverty among families who have children with disability.

In the case of Somalia, considering all the socioeconomic facts and factors on the ground, the best option under the current situation will be a similar one to that of Uganda - a dual approach (mixture of segregated education and inclusive education system) to be operated together. In the first phase, the Ministry of Education must design a pilot project which will provide considerable support for existing schools and initiate a government-run scheme across the country. That scheme will give priority to the establishment of what we call a 'Major Education Centre,' one in each of the five most populated cities in Somalia. Mogadishu can probably have two of those. Each of those MECs will contain or house four mini-schools for children with challenging disability - one for the visually impaired, another for the hearing impaired, one for children with special needs, and the fourth to be an employment-oriented vocational training unit for adults with a disability beyond their schooling age.

In doing so, the government and its supporting development partners will be able to mobilize their limited financial/technical resources and concentrate on those five centres instead of attempting to provide disability-related support to every school across the country as inclusive education requires. On the other hand, children with less challenging disabilities, wheelchair users, etc, can be sign-posted to mainstream schools, and the first phase of inclusive education will be initiated there. Also, children who complete their primary education in the aforementioned centres can, at some point, be allowed to transfer to local schools of their choice if the school has trained teachers approved by the Ministry of Education. Furthermore, those centres can provide practical training and experience for teachers.

4. Conclusion

As stated earlier, Somalia has no history of ever providing a formal education to PWDs and SEN, but that can no longer be the case. Due to decades of conflict, rates of people with disability, the particularly younger generation in their working age and children, are alarmingly high, and failing to provide education and training for such a large part of society means they will remain dependent on others in their entire life, instead of being dignified and productive citizens.

Recognizing and correcting this shortcoming constitutes a win-win solution for the state, for people living with disability, and for parents and carers alike. As explained in this paper, this initiative will be the first of its kind, and it will have a far-reaching impact on a very large number of people, young and adults, across the country. It will be as big as the 1970s Somalia's commendable campaign against illiteracy, and if designed and presented properly, this program will attract significant international support, both financially and technically, as Somalia is a party to the UN Treaty on the Rights of People with disability.

5. Recommendations

To help the MoE give effect to the proposal outlined above, we conclude this paper with the following key set of recommendations:

1. A concrete political will must be shown at the highest level. Without that, nothing will change - individual/NGO-based efforts will never go that far and will not substitute the state. That policy decision must be followed by realistic development of the appropriate policies, considering the local context and the capacity of the state.

2. Administratively, special education requires a full-fledged department at the MoE with a clear mandate to design, develop, and deliver this massive state program. At present, the MoE has a small SEN unit that lacks all the necessary human and financial resources. It is surely not fit for this purpose and must be upgraded.

3. Increase Funding for special needs and disability-related Education initiatives. The state must allocate a percentage of the national educational budget for the design, development, and delivery of a formal dual-approach education scheme. This will be a practical testament to the government's commitment, which is likely to compel external actors to stand behind this state-led program. That will let the MoE department deliver its mandate and be able to procure and deliver the necessary equipment, tools, and programs to aid teachers and students in meeting their requirements under the National Curriculum.

4. Provide disability-friendly teacher training. The MoE must develop teacher training programs to equip all teachers with the skills and knowledge needed to teach students with diverse needs. Existing introductory teacher training courses will have an extra component designed to equip teachers, by default, with the skills to recognize students with a less obvious disability, be it physical or cognitive, and refer them to the appropriate institutions. This means all current and future schoolteachers/principals under the MoE payroll will be required to take those training and pass competency tests.

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06

Special Needs Child Denied Education: A Case Study Examining a Nine-Year-Old's Battle to Attend School

Dr. Shamsudin Abikar Nur

Abstract

This study examines a nine-year-old girl's battle to access education in and outside of Somalia. Born in one of the Gulf countries with no legal resident permit, the young girl suffers from acute special educational needs (SEN) and dwarfism. The author volunteered to teach her basic English skills at her mother's request. She learned the English alphabet and phonics as a stepping-stone to reading. Lessons were planned and delivered to the subject for three months. Dairy journal entries and structured interviews with her mother were employed as methods of data collection. The subject was later relocated to a city in Somalia where schools were not willing to accept her due to the burden of teaching. Data from the dairy entry shows that structured routine teaching, repetition, and constant praise elevated the subject's self-esteem whilst action used during input when teaching (rather than acoustic) enabled quick retrieval from memory. Recommendations for the Somali government included introducing an effective SEN policy coupled with rigorous teacher training to ensure all Somali children have the right to education.

Keywords: Somali, special educational needs policy, memory, teacher training, English

1. Introduction

Working at Bristol primary schools in the United Kingdom, the observation I made which was shared by Somali parents before the emergence of the Somali supplementary schools in Bristol, was that education in Somalia was better than in England. I believed that this assertion was to some extent fair as educating a child in their home country using their mother tongue as a medium of instruction was associated with many advantages (UNESCO,1953).

From the above assertion, the importance of learning in the home country is evident. Also, an effective education policy and the role of teachers cannot be overlooked when it comes to teaching students, particularly those with special educational needs and /or those who are disabled (SEN[D]). These students need particular attention during their journey of learning.

In Somalia, the post-conflict era saw the reanimation of the Ministry of Education which enthusiastically pushed an inclusive education policy for all Somali citizens. However, the provision for students with cognitive and /or physical disabilities is unclear. This paper focuses on the following research questions:

1) To what extent do the primary schools in Somalia implement the Ministry of Education's special educational needs policy?

2) To what extent can the children with physical disabilities access primary schools?

The research questions were addressed through a case study of a Somali girl, Amal (pseudonym), and focused on policies of the Ministry of Education of the Federal Government of Somalia: Special Educational Needs Disability and Inclusive Education policy (2018); the teacher policy (2021); the Education Law (2017) and the private school policy. These policies were selected as they are hoped to provide answers to the research questions.

The term special educational needs and disability, SEN(D) is defined as "a child or young person has SEN if they have a learning difficulty or disability which calls for special educational provision to be made for him or her" (DfE, 2015, p.15). "The ministry" refers to the federal government's Education Ministry. "The mother" is the mother of the subject. "The country" is the country in which Amal was born (made anonymous to protect the subject and her mother's identity). "The author" is the researcher who compiled this paper.

2. The Case Study

Amal was born in the country. Both her parents are of Somali origin. The mother lives and works in the country whereas her father lives in Scandinavia. Her parents divorced when Amal was two years old. Although the mother completed her 36 weeks of pregnancy, there were complications during the labor due to a lack of oxygen. Amal spent six days in an incubator and suffers from achondroplasia – a genetic condition that mostly results in dwarfism.

Amal has a sense of humor and appears to be keen in interacting with family members in the Somali language and also mastering mobile telephone technology, apps and games. However, she suffers from speech and language difficulties making it hard to understand what she is saying. She spends most of her time with her grandmother at home while her mother is at work. She did not attend school in the country as she lacked possession of a residence permit. The author met Amal for the first time when he was visiting the country. He volunteered to teach her and sought advice from her mother as to what Amal should be taught. The mother chose English, and the author planned teaching sessions after he returned to the UK.

3. Literature Review

Literature on the characteristics of dwarfism, special educational needs, teacher training practices and the international and national (Somali) legal frameworks on the rights of children to education will be explored, respectively.

3.1 Dwarfism

Pauli (2019) reviewed the care needs of those suffering from achondroplasia and the restricted evidence that was available regarding care. Pauli characterized achondroplasia as the most common of skeletal dysplasia where the outcome is a marked short stature (dwarfism). He further argued that while the physical aspects of dwarfism have been known for more than 50 years, the medical issues have been less well explored. Pauli recommended the need for clinical investigation of the historical interventions and their impact on achondroplasia.

Similarly, a study by Ireland, et al. (2011) aimed to determine the age range and developmental sequence of the acquisition of gross motor skills, fine motor skills, feeding ability, and communication milestones for a cohort of Australian children with achondroplasia. The study found that children with achondroplasia experienced delays in the development of gross motor skills, early communication, fine motor skills, and feeding skills.

While the above studies have not identified cognitive issues related to children with achondroplasia, Brinkmann, Schlitt and Spranger (1993) detected signs of minor cerebral dysfunction and discussed the possibilities of how that could be prevented. They concluded that verbal comprehension was significantly impaired in children with achondroplasia and related it to frequent middle ear infections which may result in hearing loss.

3.2 Special Educational Needs

Understanding the message being relayed is important when an individual is trying to learn. This means understanding the coded messages or how to use them when reading and also understanding concepts.

This may refer to identifying what the coded messages and concepts involve because according to Engel and Schutt (2014) understanding concepts is a mental image that sums up similar observations, feelings, or ideas. Consequently, how to conceptualize a concept may be a daunting task. This is because conceptualizing means to match terms while concepts may have different meanings with diverse ways to measure them (Chambliss and Schutt, 2019). Similarly, Lane, Carter, and Bourke (2019, citing Gregory and Lewin, 2015), noted that there are various stages relating to conceptualization when learning such as recognizing, defining, classifying, analyzing, and applying concepts.

The above definitions are helpful as conceptualization is a practice that is pervasive in teaching and learning. It may also be inherent in terms of SEND to avoid a) confusion over what is meant by a term and b) internalizing incorrect information. The English education authority conceptualized SEND as a child or young person having a learning difficulty or disability that "calls for special educational provision to be made for him or her" (DfE, 2015, p. 15). However, the Somali Ministry of Education defined the disability as the inability to perform an activity (MOE, (2018, p.6).

Hodkinson (2019, ix) emphasized the existence of contesting views on how to define SEND because of conceptualizing differences regarding disability and impairment. Assessing SEND children accurately is important because mislabeling could prevent them from reaching their academic potential (Baseggio, 2018).

3.3 Teacher training

Kurniawatia, et al. (2017) investigated the effects of an in-service teacher training program on regular primary school teachers' attitudes and knowledge about SEND and teaching strategies. A study involving 67 teachers (33 in an experimental group and 34 in a control group) from 11 public primary schools was conducted. It found that the training program had significant effects on the most dependent variables: attitude; knowledge about SEND; and knowledge about teaching strategies.

3.4 National and International Legislation

In Somalia, there is a recognition that education is a right for every citizen. According to the Art.30 of the Somali federal government constitution, "basic education is the right for every citizen." (MoECHE, 2021, p. i) Likewise, the UNCRC (1989) extended the right to achievement and equal opportunity: "Article 28 1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity."

In 1994, more than 300 participants representing 92 governments and 25 international organizations met in Salamanca, Spain to further the objective of education for all by considering the fundamental policy shifts required to promote inclusive education. The purpose of the meeting was to inform policy and guide action by governments, international organizations, national aid agencies, non-governmental organizations and other bodies in implementing the Salamanca Statement on Principles, Policy, and Practice in Special Needs Education. Bullet point 4 under Section 2 clearly discourages practices that exclude SEND children from participating in learning activities in classrooms. It said: "Those with special educational needs must have access to regular schools which should accommodate them within a child-centred pedagogy capable of meeting these needs" (Salamanca, 1994, p. viii).

4. Methodology

To provide answers for the research questions, it was sought out a way that delineated a systematic way (Novikov and Novikov, 2013; Tuck and McKenzie, 2015; Devi, 2017; Mishra and Alok, (2017) to collect data.

4.1 Primary data

4.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

A semi-structured interview with the mother was divided into three parts: questions regarding the early life of Amal; the mother's perception of the sessions; Amal's access to education which was conducted after Amal was relocated to Somalia. A tape recorder was used for each interview which lasted around 10 minutes and were conducted in the Somali language (Sargeant and Harcourt, 2012). The six questions asked can be found in Appendix A. Two questions were asked before the study, two after the study and two when Amal was relocated to Somalia.

4.1.2   Intervention sessions

Forty lessons were delivered weekly except Thursdays from June to August 2022. At the beginning of the sessions, an assessment of Amal's knowledge of the English alphabet was conducted to determine the start point (Stevenson, 2018). Visual, auditory, and kinetic learning strategies were used as a teaching approach. A lesson plan can be found in Appendix B.

4.1.3 Reflective diary

A reflective diary was kept throughout the study in order to record contemporaneous events (Alaszewski, 2006).

4.2 Secondary data

The secondary data used for this study were:

- Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education's policies on SEN and inclusive education, 2018, Sections 3.13.1;

- Teacher Education and Capacity and 3.13.3 Priority Actions of chapter 3), teacher training (Section 2.3 Teacher Training of chapter 2) and education policy (MoECHE, 2021;

- Chapter 8: Special Education Needs Art. 46 to Art 49);

- Private schools (MoECHE, 2020; Chapter 2: 2.1 to 2.14); and

- Education Policy MoE (2017).

These policies were selected as they complement each other and paint a picture of how SEND and inclusive education practices are managed.

4.3 Data Analysis for the Primary and Secondary Data

The semi-structured interviews with the mother were translated into English. An inductive coding approach for the interviews was used. As noted by Bernard (2000), this allowed the researcher's understanding to emerge from a close study of the transcript. Also, thematic analysis was employed and for that adhered to Braun and Clarke (2006).

5. Findings

5.1 primary

5.1.1 Interview with Amal's mother

"She speaks with lisp, and it is difficult to understand what she is trying to say. Also, there seems to be an issue with her memory. If you tell her the letter, she forgets it easily even if you repeat it."

The author shared this observation in his reflective diary: "I asked her to recount what was learned previously but she could not recall the letters e,f,g. I am really concerned about her comprehension. Furthermore, I suspect that there is speech and language therapy needed as her utterances are incomprehensible."

Amal also lacked any social life while living in the country: "She always stays at home with her grandmother. She doesn't go outside. There are no friends she can play with. All day, she spends the time on her mobile phone." However, this isolation did not last long when she was relocated to Somalia: "She really adapted the life [in Somalia] quickly… there are lots of her cousins who are keen to play with her. They have a lot of fun together."

Although Amal found happiness, she was less lucky in going to a local school which said the premises were not designed to accommodate Amal's needs and that teachers were not trained to teach SEND children: "Her aunt, the aunt's husband and I visited the school (private) where her cousins attend. However, the school senior management notified us that they were unable to admit her due to her physical status, children may trample over her unwittingly, and her cognitive needs."

Amal's aunt was determined to enable her to learn either formally or informally: "Her aunt suggested hiring a private tutor to come and teach her at home."

5.1.2 Intervention sessions

It was found that when Amal tried to identify letter sounds, she found remembering the actions easier than recalling the letter sounds. The graph below shows her letter identification. The blue colour is remembering the action and the orange is recalling the action related to the letter sounds.
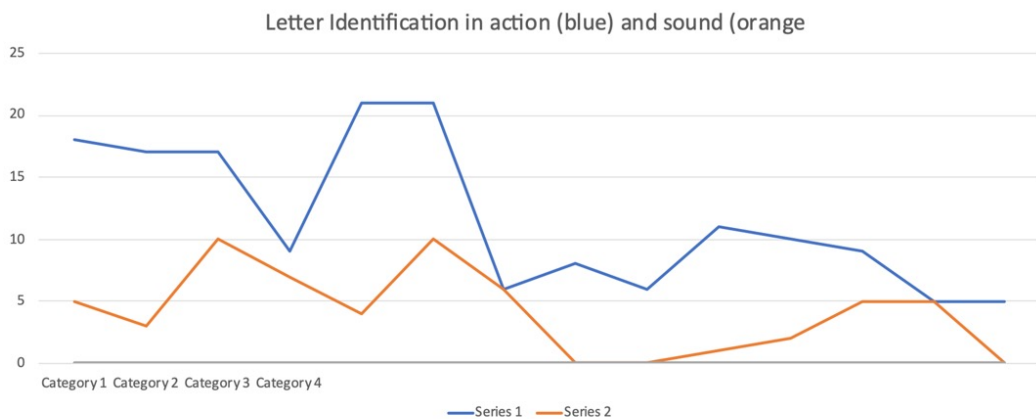

Fig.1 Identification of alphabet letters by action and sound

5.2 Analyzing the secondary data

Chapter 3 of the Ministry's SEND policy, reads:

"Most teachers in Somalia do have the knowledge and skills of teaching and managing children with special needs" (MoE, 2018, p.25).

The use of the word 'most' signals that teachers are not required to be equipped with the skills of identifying, assessing, and teaching SEND children. However, in the SEND policy, inclusive education is defined as: "An approach in which learners with disabilities and special needs, regardless of age and disability, are provided with appropriate education within regular schools (MoE, 2018, p.6).

Although the term disability is defined as: "The lack or restriction of ability to perform an activity in the manner within the range considered normal in the cultural context of the human being." (MoE, 2018, p.6). It remains ambiguous as to what special needs means, though the ministry has priority measures to: "Conduct teacher training courses for all teachers to teach children who have special educational needs and disabilities." (MoE, 2018, p.25).

This ambiguity may create barriers for schools to implement the policy effectively. Similarly, the ministry's teacher policy explained the rigorous training that teachers should undertake to meet the needs of students regardless of their physical or cognitive ability. "In order for the primary/ junior or secondary teacher to be awarded with teaching certificates, they should pass the teacher training exam." (MoECHE, 2021, p.6., original text in the Somali language, translated by the author)

The ministry's education policy instructs teachers to: "Meet the needs of students with special needs. They should be provided education based on their needs and potential, and they should be encouraged to reach a level of independence." (MoE, 2017, p.14, original text in the Somali language, translated by the author).

Furthermore, although the ministry's vision is to: "Establish a quality modern education system for Somali citizens that offers equal opportunities and promotes respect for human rights and observes Islamic Principles" (MoECHE, 2020, p,7). This has never materialized on the ground since: "schools cannot accommodate diverse needs of the students such as vulnerable and marginalized students" (MoECHE, 2020, p,16)

6. Discussion

6.1 Discussion of findings from the primary data

6.1.1 Interview with Amal's mother

Amal's mother emphasized the difficulty that she has speaking due to her lisp. This is in line with the findings of Brinkmann, Schlitt and Spranger (1993) that communication for children who suffer from achondroplasia is significantly impaired, possibly because of frequent middle ear infections that may result in hearing loss.

Amal spent most of the time at home in the country in which she was born and wasn't enrolled in school in Somalia. This is a breach of Amal's right to education according to Articles 12 and 28 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of a Child (1989); the Salamanca (1994) Framework; and Article 30 of the Somali federal government constitution. Amal's plight can only be blamed on the lack of enforcement of education policies in both the country in which she was born and in Somalia.

6.2 Discussion of Findings From the Secondary Data

The ministry has attempted to provide a national policy for SEND and inclusive education with the aim of educating all Somali students regardless of their physical and/or cognitive abilities. The SEND policy, together with the teacher's policy, the general education law and the private school policy, contains 131 pages. These efforts need to be appreciated given the circumstances in which they were introduced. However, the SEND and inclusive education and the private school policies are both written in English language. Schools, with their busy schedule, may not have the time and capacity to familiarize themselves with their contents.

Moreover, the term "special education needs and disability' has created confusion and needs to be clearly (Baseggio, 2018; Engel and Schutt, 2014; Chambliss and Schutt, 2019; Hodkinson,2019; Lane, Carter, and Bourke, 2019). It is important that the policy is fully clarified and specific guidelines are provided for schools.

The ministry envisioned training courses which equip teachers to teach all types of students and introduced exams that teachers need to pass prior to starting their teaching journey. This conforms with Kurniawatia, et al.'s (2017) study in Indonesia which found that the teacher training program had significant effects on a teacher's attitude, their knowledge about SEND and their overall knowledge about teaching strategies.

In answer to research question 1 – to what extent do the primary schools in Somalia implement the Ministry of Education's special educational needs policy? – Amal's experience showed that there is a gap between the contents of the ministry's SEND policy and how it is implemented in schools. The school exhibited shortcomings in assessing Amal's academic level and then devising strategies for teaching. So, it can be concluded that the SEND policy was not implemented at this specific primary school.

In answer to research question 2 – to what extent can children with physical disabilities access primary schools in Somalia? – it was found that the school premises in the case of Amal were not designed in such a way to accommodate physically disabled children and therefore the policy could not be implemented by the school. Thus, it appears to be safe to argue that children with physical disabilities could not access these specific primary schools.

7. Conclusion

This paper presented a case study of how the Somali Ministry of Education's SEND policy was implemented in one school. Amal was denied her right to education in the Gulf country where she was born and also in Somalia when she relocated there with her family. The paper examined the Education Ministry's SEND policy along with related education policies to understand the guidelines, process, and implementation of the policy. In the case of Amal, it was found that there was a gap between the policy content and how it was translated in schools.

8. Policy recommendations

• The Ministry of Education should introduce a protocol where SEND is conceptualized, and the expectations of schools and teachers are clearly explained.

• The Ministry of Education should introduce teacher standards in a clear and succinct way and teacher training should embrace theory and practice that involves diversity and builds a sense of belonging.

• The Ministry of Education should introduce a safeguarding policy in schools to keep students safe.

• The Ministry of Education should introduce a policy regarding health and safety and students should be equipped to follow the policy should emergencies arise.

• There should be a systematic evaluation of the progress of students with special educational needs.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Semi-structured interview questions

1. How do you describe Amal's early life?
2. How do you describe Amal's daily activity?
3. What do you think about the English sessions Amal attended?
4. What challenges do you think Amal faces when learning?
5. How can you describe Amal's daily activity in Somalia?
6. Do you have a plan for Amal's future education?

Appendix B

Lesson plan for the intervention

Date: 27.7.2022	Online	Time: 16:55 – 17:15 (UK) Local Time 10:00 - 10:25	Resources: mobile phone, laptop for PPT & YouTube for phonics song.
Prior Knowledge: Check ability of identifying e, u	THROUGHOUT THE TEACHING GIVE HER COMPLIMENTS DURING THE INPUT OR IF SHE SAYS OR MAKES A GESTURE! Activity: (3rd Repetition of previous lesson for embedding): ● Teach phonics: Set 3: e; u, by using PPT & mobile phone at same time. Make sure to use mobile phone for showing the letters on the laptop and your face alternatively. ● Repeat these letters (3 times). ● To reinforce memory, use actions and show picture of egg (if still unable- prompt: pretend to crack the egg using both right & left fingers? and U for umbrella (prompt- pretend to open the umbrella ● Also, use to write the letters using big pen with different colours. ● When writing, create lines and write on them so, this to enable her to orientate the writing (on the line). ● play the phonics song (repeat the listening 2X): ● writing frame: e & u ● https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5EYnyT-y-Yo ● And The RedRidinghood story. ● https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dLPgS3wwO5E	Plenary: Check understanding the sounds. Use prompt (action) and pictures if letters are not identified. BAD CONNECTION We had to call each other many times because the network stopped functioning	

07

Impact of Instruction Styles on Academic Performance in Secondary Schools in Bosaso District Somalia

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Abstract

The study explored the impact of teachers' instruction styles on students' academic performance in secondary schools in Bosaso district. The objectives were: to establish the instruction styles used; to determine students' perceptions of different instruction styles; to find out the relationship between instruction styles and academic performance; and to establish the influence of teachers' choice of instruction style. The study comprised 154 students, 13 form four teachers, and five head teachers from both public and private secondary schools. It adopted a mixed methods approach, combining both qualitative and quantitative research. Questionnaires and interview schedules were the main means of collecting data. The study established that the teacher-centred instruction styles were predominant and that students' perceptions of these methods were largely negative. Instruction styles significantly influenced students' academic performance and several factors ranging from time allocation to available resources influenced teacher's choice of instruction styles. The study recommended that teachers shift from over-dependence on teacher-centered instruction styles, and consider learner interests and needs.

Key words: instruction styles, academic performance, teacher centered, learner centered

1. Introduction

All stakeholders in the education sector in Somalia are committed to improving academic performance. However, numerous factors affect students' academic achievement, the most significant of which is the teachers' instruction style. Parent supervision, competent peers, a conducive environment, and more effective instruction methods also have a significant impact on academic performance (Khan et al., 2020). However, without effective teaching methods improvement on academic performance is almost next to impossible.   Inadequate academic performance implies that learners are unable to effectively perform the tasks in which they were trained in (Nja, Umali, Asuquo, & Orim, 2019). Thus, an effective assessment of learning outcomes necessitates a careful examination of teaching styles. Ziegler (2016) observes that learners engage in a variety of subjects, and each subject requires the teacher to select a suitable instruction style. Soltani and Motamedi (2014) defined a teaching style as a collection of principles, pedagogies, and management strategies that teachers employ during classroom instruction. When a teacher uses the appropriate instruction method, students not only gain motivation to learn, but also see an increase in their academic achievement. According to Apaydin (2018), the motivation and demotivation of students to learn and achieve academically is contingent upon the teacher's instruction style. Teachers should also utilize technology to enhance instruction and boost students' academic achievements.

2. Methodology

The study was descriptive in nature and used a mixed methods approach. It comprised 154 students, 13 form four teachers and five head teachers, totaling to 172 respondents, from Bosaso district in Puntland. The researcher used questionnaires and interviews for teachers and students respectively and carried out face-to-face structured and non-structured interviews with head teachers. The quantitative data analysis was conducted using descriptive statistics and findings presented using mean, medium, mode and standard deviations. Qualitative data was analyzed thematically.

3. Literature Review

Instruction styles are decisions made by teachers during the teaching-learning process, planning, delivery of material, and assessment (Kovaevi & Akbarov, 2016). Teachers view teaching as a time-consuming task and therefore tend to concentrate on their teaching approach (Etinkaya and Eskici, 2018). Teachers employ a variety of instruction styles depending on the class and number of students (Glenn, 2016). The most prevalent instruction styles include teacher-centered and learner-centered (McCaskey and Crowder, 2015). Ahmethan (2016) posit that the most critical component of the teaching-learning environment is the teacher's instruction style.

Teacher-centered instruction style is characterized by the teacher dominating the teaching-learning process rather than the student. Dupin-Bryant (2004) explained that this style is formal, controlled, and autocratic as the instructor dictates what and how students learn. The teacher serves as the primary source of knowledge while the student takes a passive role in the teaching and learning process (Ross, 2017). The traditional method of instruction (lecture) is extremely popular. This method places a premium on syllabus coverage and assesses students' ability to memorize. As a result, it disregards students' learning styles and preferences.

Many teachers encourage learners to be active and outlive the traditional method of lecturing ((Jared, 2016).Meguid & Collins 2017), Abbas & Hussain (2018), Hettiarachchi & Wickramasinghe (2017). Grasha's instruction models (1996) propose a five-tiered model of instruction that includes: the expert teacher style; the formal authority teacher style; the personal teacher model style; the facilitator teacher style; and the delegator teacher style. The researcher observes that an expert and authority instruction style is influenced by the classical educational philosophy, whereas modern educational philosophy is influenced by the personal teacher instruction style. Teaching philosophies serve as the foundation for the application of instruction styles regardless of the subject area (Beyhan, 2018).

Many teachers still practice the old styles due to a lack of in-service training or workshops. These have contributed to students making assumptions about what to expect from the teacher after the lesson. (Razak et al. (2017) maintain that the expert style is the most prevalent teaching method, which is largely manifested in the classical lecture method of instruction. According to Butcher et al. (2014) and Singh and Garg (2015) teacher-centered styles include traditional, didactic, and skill-based strategies. These strategies make teaching and learning more productive as compared to the lecturing style

Student-centered approaches entail the use of tangible materials related to particular subjects. Student-centered approaches focus on enabling students to use authentic tools associated with the subject being taught to participate in problem-solving (Tondeur, van Braak, Ertmer, & Ottenbreit- Leftwich, 2017). This enables the learner to work on their own after the lesson is over.

Learner-centered instruction style places the student at the center of the learning process (Jayalaxmi, 2015). Learner-centered instruction encourages students to participate actively and interact with their classmates (Chen and Chang, 2014) which creates a harmonious type of learning. This style can lead to a lack of discipline when the students reach a particular age and when both genders share common study rooms.

Grasha's (2002) described this as a facilitator and delegator style of instruction and thus learner-centered. Meguid et al. (2017) observed that these methods ensured that learners were actively involved throughout the entire session. This teacher facilitation enabled learners to discover and relate new knowledge to prior knowledge.

Students Preference on Learner-Centered Teaching

Owing to the fact that teachers are trained in using different methods, learners can acquire skills that enable them to reach their full potential. Mpho (2018) explains that students are more engaged in learning activities that allow for peer interaction and active participation in the teaching-learning process. Emaliana (2017) observe that learners demonstrated a favorable attitude toward learner-centered approaches such as group work. Molungo (2013) asserted that group work enhanced learning by involving students in class activities. This is consistent with Lee, Linh, and Thatong (2017) who found that students preferred active methods of teaching and learning such as discussions, question-answer sessions, and group work because they perceived these active learners centered methods as providing them with additional opportunities for activity, project completion, and learning.

Instruction Styles and Academic Performance

Academic performance is influenced by instruction strategies. Havik and Westergård (2019) assert that maximizing learning outcomes requires the teacher to employ instruction styles that engage students. Academic performance is a vital tool as it determines the quality of graduates that can help a country like Somalia transform its economy from one level to the next digit.

The academic performance of students is dependent on the instruction styles used by the teacher. Churcher, Asiedu, & Boniface (2016) assert that academic performance in secondary schools in Ghana is largely determined by instruction styles and these have helped Ghana to realize her potential in development. Teachers must be proficient in the use of strategies that enable them to overcome the instruction challenges they face daily (Fitzgerald, 2015). Mobeley and Fisher (2014) observe that teachers are expected to incorporate a variety of kinetic activities for instance dancing into the method of instruction to improve students' understanding of difficult concepts. In the long run, students acquire practical knowledge through these visualized strategies (Grace Fayombo, 2015 and Alkooheji & AlHattami, 2018).

Teachers and Instruction Style

Teachers are faced with a myriad of problems as to which method or style to use in teaching. This has been contributed by the entering method of learners. On the other hand, Learners take time to learn the approach of different teachers during the teaching-learning process. Christian (2018) points out that a variety of factors influence the teacher's method of instruction including the types of learners; the subject matter; the time allocated per lesson; the availability of school equipment and facilities; the number of students; and the classroom environment. Teachers also consider a variety of other factors affecting students' learning including age; level; understanding potential and whether they are slow or fast learners. If the proportion of slow learners in a class is greater than that of fast learners, the teacher is compelled to use a method that makes it easier for the slow learners. The balance between the choice of teaching style and the judgment of the teacher is very crucial during and after the teaching-learning function.

4. Study Findings

Student views on teaching styles	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation
My teacher compliments me for good manners.	2.01	2.00	2	1.016
My teacher always ask my opinions before making any decisions or rules.	2.79	3.00	2	1.182
My teacher share their experiences with me.	2.13	2.00	2	1.083
My teacher encourages me to finish my work independently.	1.79	2.00	2	.861
My teacher accepts my opinions.	2.44	2.00	2	1.044
My teacher uses a caring voice to ask me to maintain good behavior.	1.95	2.00	1	1.076
My interest in learning comes from the encouragement of my teacher.	2.04	2.00	1	1.158
My teacher creates a comfortable atmosphere in the classroom.	2.13	2.00	2	1.040
My teacher highly value his/her authority.	2.66	3.00	3	1.162
My teacher embarrasses me in class.	4.39	5.00	5	1.098

Table 1 Student views on teaching styles in Bosaso district

Discussions

Table 1 shows that the standard deviation ranges from 0.8 to 1.18 which is a bit high for the study in Bosaso's secondary schools. Study findings indicate a high SD that teachers do not seek the opinions of students before making any decisions or rules. This disagrees with Lee, Linh, and Thatong (2017) that students prefer action-based learning. Table 1 also shows a high deviation from the mean in all items given to students which is an indication of weak lesson preparation and teaching style. This is in line with Christian (2018) that several underlying factors affect the teaching-learning process which could be corrected to make the process more productive.

The researcher also found several underlying factors in students' perception of teachers' instruction styles and results are presented in Table 2.s'

Student' perceptions of teachers' instruction styles	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
My teacher uses English in subjects that must be taught using English.	2.36	2.00	2	1.318
My teacher use teaching materials during lessons.	2.30	2.00	2	1.155
My teacher considers student differences while teaching.	1.92	2.00	2	1.273
My teacher use different teaching activities.	2.12	2.00	2	1.031
My teacher give understandable instructions.	1.88	2.00	2	.794
My teacher give appropriate tasks for students to do or discuss.	2.16	2.00	2	0.971
My teacher sets students learning in pairs or groups during lessons.	2.88	3.00	2	1.265
My teacher provides enough time for students to practice.	2.16	2.00	1	.990
My teacher give feedback and correction for each teaching materials in every lesson.	2.16	2.00	1	0.996

Table 2 Students perceptions of their teachers' instruction styles

Discussions

Tables 2 shows a standard deviation ranging from 0.794 to SD of 1.273 indicating that the majority of students have positive perceptions of the instructional methods used by their teachers. This was indicated by the fair distribution of SD from the mean in all the responses received. It shows that the use of teaching strategies that keep students active and engaged during lessons is provided in secondary schools in Bosaso District.

This is in line with Lee, Linh, and Thatong (2017) that interactive learning strategies are preferred by students during teaching. Table 2 shows a standard deviation of 0.990 on time for practice which indicates that students can acquire practical skills that improve their knowledge. This is in line with Alkooheji & AlHattami (2018) that this method helps students to visualize the learnt concepts. These findings were in accordance with data obtained from interviews with head teachers. Table 2 also shows a good perception that teachers give understandable instructions during teaching. These results can be used to generalize on the impact of teacher's instructional strategies in secondary schools in Bosaso district in Somalia. However other factors should be considered among the students, teachers and parents who can be attributed to the performance in the examinations at the end of the secondary school cycle in Bosaso District.

The study also examined the relationship between teaching styles and the academic performance of form four students. The findings are presented in Table 3.

Relationship between teaching style and performance	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation
My teacher sets questions that stimulate high-level thinking.	1.90	2.00	2	1.034
Different teaching methods help me better understand the contents.	1.85	2.00	1	.989
My teacher uses appropriate teaching methods for group learning.	2.49	2.00	2	1.139
My teacher prepares the learning materials needed during teaching.	2.32	2.00	2	1.114
The use of better teaching methods could improve my performance.	1.64	1.00	1	.832
My teacher motivates students to improve their achievements.	1.58	2.00	2	.739
My teacher helps students to solve problems related to the subject.	1.88	2.00	2	.903
My teacher encourages students to contribute ideas.	2.09	2.00	2	.945
My teacher holds additional classes, if necessary, to complete the syllabus.	1.86	2.00	1	1.076
My teacher conducts written quizzes every time a topic is completed.	1.91	1.00	2	.945

Table 3 Relationship between instruction styles and academic performance of form four students

Discussions

Table 3 shows that teaching methods have a significant capacity to influence the academic achievement of their students, either positively or negatively. Academic performance can either be improved or diminished depending on the pedagogical approaches used. These findings were in accordance with data obtained from interviews with head teachers and in agreement with Christian (2018) who found that factors determining the style of teaching were dependent on the types of learners in class.

The researcher also investigated the factors influencing the instructional style adopted by teachers, with the results presented in Table 4.

Factors influencing instruction style	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
I consider the classroom size before selecting the teaching method.	2.36	2.00	2	1.318
I select the teaching methods based on my teaching experience.	1.90	2.00	2	1.034
The examination system has an impact upon my instructional practices.	1.85	2.00	2	.989
I choose the teaching/learning activities considering available resources.	2.49	2.00	1	1.139
I choose the teaching/learning activities considering the time available.	2.32	2.00	2	1.114
The school management has an influence on my instructional practices.	1.58	1.00	1	.739
I apply the strategies learned in teacher training in my classroom.	1.95	2.00	1	1.076
I consider students' interests when choosing the teaching/learning strategies.	.989	2.00	1	1.158
I am guided by the national curriculum when selecting the teaching activities.	2.49	2.00	2	1.040
The availability of technology influences my instructional practices.	2.32	3.00	3	1.162

Table 4: Factors influencing instruction style

Discussions

Table 4 shows good distribution of data around the mean with findings ranging from SD of 0.739 to 1.62. This study's findings are in agreement with Christian (2018) in that several factors play a vital role in shaping the teaching-learning environment. The availability of school facilities has the greatest impact on the instructional approach chosen by the teacher implying that schools have been receiving support from the government to improve the quality of teaching to their student in schools in Bosaso district. The interests of learners and the learning styles they prefer appear to play a limited role in deciding what teaching approach to adopt. Table 4 shows a mean of 1.58 and SD of 0.739 on the influence of the school management on the choices of teaching styles. These findings are in agreement with Havik and Westergård (2019) in that performance is a contribution of well-chosen styles of teaching and the willingness of students to learn.

5. Conclusion

The study concludes that Instructional strategies that put the focus on the instructor are used more frequently by teachers in most of the secondary schools. Even though the majority of school administrators and students have expressed a preference for learner-centered instructional styles, these methods continue to be used in the majority of classrooms. The findings also revealed the methods of teaching employed by teachers at secondary schools in Bosaso District in Somalia.

In conclusion, the research has shown that a number of elements, such as the availability of instructional resources, the level of experience that instructors have, and the dynamics of the school leadership, are important in determining the instructional methods that teachers choose to employ in their classrooms.

6. Recommendations For Policy And Practice

- Teachers should consider the interests and requirements of students in secondary schools in Bosaso District.

- The Ministry of Education should provide in-service training to all teachers in secondary schools in Bosaso District

- School management should ensure technology is used in instruction across all subjects.

- Parents should be advised to encourage their children to study hard and improve their performance in school.

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08

Exploring Critical Success Factors for Education Finance in Somalia

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Abstract

This study examines the complex dynamics of education finance in Somalia and its impact on the performance of the educational system through an analytical lens, utilizing the Education Finance Performance Index (EFPI). Over the past decade, despite notable efforts to enhance educational access, Somalia continues to grapple with the lowest gross enrollment rate and the highest out-of-school child ratio in the region. The research employed a multiple regression analysis to explore the relationships among four key variables: Government Recognition and Commitment (GRC), Financial Resource Management (FRM), Governance and Accountability (GA), and Human Capital Development (HCD). Findings indicated that these factors significantly contributed to the variability in EFPI scores, with GRC being particularly pivotal, suggesting that governmental dedication plays a central role in creating an environment that supports educational excellence. Additionally, FRM and GA were observed to have substantial impacts, emphasizing the necessity for efficient resource allocation and transparent governance. HCD further highlighted the importance of investing in the training and motivation of educators. The results advocated for strategic policies that prioritize robust government commitment, adept financial management, clear governance, and human capital investment. These recommendations aimed to guide educational policymakers and practitioners in refining educational finance practices to boost overall system performance in Somalia.

Keywords: Education finance, Somalia, education access, Education Finance Performance Index (EFPI), government commitment

1. Introduction

Effective management of education finance plays a pivotal role in ensuring equitable access to education (Bush, 2008). Education finance refers to the various financial and non-monetary resources allocated to support educational endeavours (Murray et al., 1998). Despite significant strides in expanding access to education in Somalia, low gross enrollment rates and high out-of-school child ratios highlight the urgent need for optimally allocated, spent, and accountable education funds. To ensure every Somali child has access to quality education, it is imperative to establish a transparent and efficient education finance system that strategically channels necessary resources.

In an increasingly interconnected and diverse world, the concept of universal access to education transcends mere academic pursuit to become a cornerstone of societal progress and equality (Swargiary & Roy, 2023). It encapsulates the fundamental belief that individuals, irrespective of their social class, race, gender, sexuality, ethnic background, or physical and mental abilities, deserve an equitable chance to harness the transformative power of education (Capsada-Munsech, 2019). This principle emphasizes the critical need to dismantle systemic barriers that obstruct educational opportunities, highlighting how the collective strength and potential of society are unleashed when everyone is empowered through learning. As the global community addresses the complexities of modern challenges, including economic disparities and cultural divides, policymakers, economists, and social service providers in the education sector are bound by a common commitment to ensure that no one is left behind on the path to knowledge, enlightenment, and personal growth (Ryan, 2012).

Across the globe, countless children are deprived of education due to various barriers, notably poverty, which stands as a pervasive obstacle, particularly in places like Somalia where approximately 70% of the population lives below the international poverty line (O'Connor, 2021). Here, the daily struggle for survival and the immediate needs for food, shelter, and healthcare take precedence over education, stifling young aspirations and perpetuating a cycle of disadvantage that is incredibly difficult to break (Harper et al., 2003).

Within the specific context of Somalia, where poverty is a formidable and persistent foe, the impact on education is profound and far-reaching (Al-Ahmadi & Zampaglione, 2022; Chaudhry & Ouda, 2021). As household resources are stretched merely to secure basic sustenance, paying tuition fees becomes an unattainable dream for most families, leading to educational opportunities, which should be every child's birthright, being sacrificed due to overwhelming financial strain. The grim reality of economic fragility, conflict, political instability, and natural disasters casts a long shadow over the educational prospects of children, depriving them of learning opportunities and, in regions affected by prolonged conflicts such as those described by Assefa et al. (2023), schools are often reduced to ruins, erasing access to education for generations.

In the face of adversity, children encounter numerous barriers that distance them from education, such as treacherous journeys between villages and towns, which deter many households and leave vulnerable groups like girls and children with special needs without access to formal schooling, thereby perpetuating a cycle of limited opportunities and exacerbating existing inequalities (Gerbaka et al., 2021). The struggle for education in Somalia highlights the resilience of families forced to choose between risking their children's safety or depriving them of learning opportunities, necessitating a comprehensive approach that includes rebuilding infrastructure and addressing societal issues to ensure every child can thrive educationally (Karawita, 2019).

In significant urban centers such as Mogadishu and Baidoa, the prospect of education remains elusive for even the most privileged children due to a convergence of factors including inadequate educational resources, substandard infrastructure, and a shortage of qualified educators, which collectively compromise the educational experience, thereby stifling the potential of young learners and perpetuating a cycle of disadvantage that diminishes their capacity to fully engage in their studies and contribute effectively to their communities.

Tragically, the struggle to access quality education is exacerbated by the harsh realities of daily life, with some children starting their educational journeys burdened by hunger, illness, or exhaustion from household duties, which undermines their ability to participate in and benefit from lessons, ultimately jeopardizing their academic success and overall well-being—a stark reminder of the harsh trade-offs faced by many students and the urgent need for comprehensive support systems that address both educational and broader socio-economic challenges (Dryden-Peterson, 2015). Additionally, the global digital divide deepens these inequities, as approximately 70% of school-aged children worldwide lack internet access at home. In Somalia the situation is even more critical as only 8.7% of households have internet access, highlighting the imperative for concerted efforts to bridge this gap and ensure a more equitable educational landscape for all (Oyedemi, 2012).

The ramifications of inadequate access to quality education extend far beyond the classroom, significantly undermining future employment opportunities and economic mobility as young individuals transition into adulthood without the necessary skills and knowledge. Lack of access to education also correlates with poorer health outcomes and increased vulnerability to detrimental health consequences, thereby perpetuating a cycle of disadvantage that diminishes their capacity to participate in decisions shaping their lives and communities, ultimately stunting their ability to contribute meaningfully to societal development (Branson & Zuze, 2012; Anderson, 2023; Cadenas et al., 2023; Walker & Unterhalter, 2007).

Despite commendable efforts to improve access to education over the past decade, the challenges in Somalia persist, and the statistics reveal the gravity of the situation. With the region's lowest gross enrollment rate (GER), Somalia's education landscape is marked by glaring disparities (Osman & Abebe, 2023). The meagre 14.3% GER for lower primary education, which only accommodates 170,594 out of 1,196,188 children, paints a sobering picture of the uphill battle that lies ahead. The story remains strikingly similar for upper primary education, where the GER stands at 14.4%, failing to reach most eligible students. A mere 14.3% of secondary school-age children have access to education, leaving nearly 900,000 teenagers without the opportunity for further learning. These disheartening numbers underscore the urgent need for comprehensive and targeted interventions to break the cycle of exclusion and pave the way for a more inclusive and equitable education system that empowers the youth to shape a brighter trajectory for themselves and their nation.

Table 1: Somali School Enrollment Statistics

School-Age Children				Children With Access to School			
Lower Primary	Upper Primary	Secondary	Total	Lower Primary	Upper Primary	Secondary	Total
1,196,188	1,022,209	888,482	3,106,879	170,594	147,139	126,768	444,501
38.50	32.90	28.60	100.00	38.38	33.10	28.52	100.00
Out-of-School Children (%)				Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) (%)			
Lower Primary	Upper Primary	Secondary	Total	Lower Primary	Upper Primary	Secondary	Total
85.74	85.61	85.73	85.69	14.26	14.39	14.27	14.31

Source: FGS Ministry of Education

Table 2: Region's Gross Enrollment Ratio

Country Name	Gross Enrollment Ratio (Primary School, 2020)	Gross Enrollment Ratio (Secondary School, 2020)
Burundi	118.96	45.09
Djibouti	73.85	54.27
Eritrea	54.72	47.70
Ethiopia	119.40	34.94
Kenya	103.21	56.76
Rwanda	131.31	44.32
Sudan	78.95	45.86
Somalia	14.33	14.27
Tanzania	96.91	31.42
Uganda	102.70	24.64
Region's Mean GER	**97.78**	**42.78**

Source: World Bank

Table 3: Scenario Analysis

Option 1: Best Case	Primary School Enrollment	Secondary School Enrollment
Somalia	2,648,766.02	504,302.38
Option 2: Worst Case		
Somalia	1,213,906.84	218,921.96
Option 3: Region's Mean		
Somalia	2,169,148.59	380,092.60

Source: FGS Ministry of Education

Table 4: Region's Out-of-School Children Analysis

Country Name	Out School Children (OOSC)	Population	% of OOSCG to Population
Somalia	2,662,378	15,890,000	16.76
South Sudan	1,088,325	11,190,000	9.73
Eritrea	241,988	3,456,421	7.00
Sudan	2,130,650	43,850,000	4.86
Djibouti	30,897	988,002	3.13
Tanzania	1,812,727	59,730,000	3.03
Kenya	1,381,464	53,770,000	2.57
Ethiopia	2,187,570	115,000,000	1.90
Burundi	140,973	11,890,000	1.19
Rwanda	121,348	12,950,000	0.94
Uganda	328,897	45,740,000	0.72
Egypt	90,674	102,300,000	0.09

Source: World Bank

Despite commendable efforts, Somalia's education financing falls short, with minimal government allocation compared to regional averages. A significant concern is the public perception of education's value, impacting resource allocation. Historical data highlights a decline in education expenditure relative to GDP, emphasizing the need for renewed investment.

Somalia's unique focus on tertiary education is apparent, with around 24% of the education budget allocated to institutions like the Somali National University. This strategic investment aims to nurture expertise and innovation, contributing to a skilled workforce. Per-student expenditure further highlights Somalia's dedication, allocating $2,280 per tertiary student, well above neighbouring countries like Rwanda and Kenya. This commitment extends to secondary education, where Somalia's expenditure per student surpasses the regional average, contributing to a comprehensive educational journey. Notably, Somalia prioritizes primary education, allocating approximately 60% of its GDP per capita, far exceeding the regional average. This emphasis underscores the significance of building a strong foundation for future development and global competitiveness, promoting inclusive and equitable access to quality primary education.

Table 5: Government Expenditure on Education (% of government expenditure)

No.	Country Name	Government Expenditure on Education, Total (% of government expenditure)
1	Ethiopia	24.00
2	Burundi	20.74
3	Tanzania	20.50
4	Kenya	19.04
5	Djibouti	13.99
6	Egypt	12.26
7	Uganda	11.25
8	Rwanda	10.78
9	**Somalia**	**3.28**
10	South Sudan	0.87

Source: World Bank

Table 6: Government Expenditure on Education (% of GDP)

No.	Country Name	Government Expenditure on Education, Total (% of GDP)	
		1975	**2020**
1	Burundi		5.04
2	Djibouti		3.63
3	Egypt	4.89	2.48
4	Eritrea		2.13
5	Ethiopia		5.07
6	Kenya	5.61	5.08
7	Rwanda		3.33
8	Sudan		2.02
9	**Somalia**	**1.28**	**0.43**
10	South Sudan		n.a
11	Tanzania		3.23
12	Uganda	3.22	2.59

Source: World Bank

Table 7: Expenditure on Tertiary Education (% of Education Expenditure)

No.	Country Name	Expenditure on Tertiary Education (% of Government Expenditure on Education)	
		1972	**2020**
1	Burundi		24.23
2	Djibouti	2.77	16.50
3	Egypt	23.23	23.23
4	Eritrea	n.a	n.a
5	Ethiopia	18.50	47.85
6	Kenya	13.72	13.07
7	Rwanda		19.82
8	Sudan	21.28	21.28
9	Somalia	2.90	23.96
10	South Sudan		31.46
11	Tanzania	12.68	21.40
12	Uganda	23.17	16.30

Source: World Bank

Table 8: Government Expenditure Per Student (Tertiary)

No.	Country Name	Government Expenditure Per Student, Tertiary (% of GDP Per Capita)	GDP Per Capita	Government Expenditure Per Student, Tertiary
1	Burundi	308.80	236.80	731.22
2	Djibouti	193.01	3,363.71	6,492.45
3	Egypt	n.a	3,876.36	n.a
4	Eritrea	592.34	501.36	2,969.75
5	Ethiopia	266.23	943.97	2,513.10
6	Kenya	76.42	2,006.83	1,533.68
7	Rwanda	97.66	833.83	814.31
8	Sudan	n.a	764.34	n.a
9	Somalia	511.46	445.78	2,280.00
10	South Sudan	n.a	1,535.71	n.a
11	Tanzania	631.62	1,135.54	7,172.28
12	Uganda	91.44	858.06	784.65

Source: World Bank

Table 9: Government Expenditure Per Student (Secondary)

No.	Country Name	Government Expenditure Per Student, Secondary (% of GDP Per Capita)	GDP per capita	Government Expenditure Per Student, Secondary
1	Burundi	31.25	236.80	74.00
2	Djibouti	0.73	3,363.71	24.48
3	Egypt	13.80	3,876.36	534.82
4	Eritrea	9.31	501.36	46.66
5	Ethiopia	16.76	943.97	158.25
6	Kenya	21.66	2,006.83	434.74
7	Rwanda	21.67	833.83	180.72
8	Sudan	n.a	764.34	n.a
9	Somalia	26.25	445.78	117.00
10	South Sudan	11.95	1,535.71	183.49
11	Tanzania	14.95	1,135.54	169.74
12	Uganda	n.a	858.06	n.a

Source: World Bank

Table 10: Government Expenditure Per Student (Primary)

No.	Country Name	Government Expenditure per Student, Primary (% of GDP Per Capita)	GDP per capita	Government Expenditure Per Student, Primary
1	Burundi	12.93	236.80	30.62
2	Djibouti	37.32	3,363.71	1,255.45
3	Egypt	9.85	3,876.36	381.63
4	Eritrea	5.27	501.36	26.41
5	Ethiopia	7.88	943.97	74.35
6	Kenya	10.95	2,006.83	219.77
7	Rwanda	4.26	833.83	35.48
8	Sudan	-	764.34	n.a
9	Somalia	60.12	445.78	268.00
10	South Sudan	4.58	1,535.71	70.31
11	Tanzania	9.52	1,135.54	108.15
12	Uganda	5.62	858.06	48.21

Source: World Bank

In an increasingly interconnected and diverse global landscape, the concept of universal access to education stands as a cornerstone of societal progress and equality. It embodies the belief that every individual, regardless of his or her background, deserves an equitable chance to harness the transformative power of education. However, despite the recognition of its significance, numerous barriers persist, hindering the realization of this vision in the context of Somalia, where economic fragility, conflict, political instability, and natural disasters have collectively contributed to a challenging educational landscape. As a result, a substantial portion of the population, particularly children, lack access to quality education, perpetuating cycles of disadvantage.

2. Methods and Materials

Research Design, Data Source, and Sampling

This study employed a quantitative research design to investigate the determinants influencing education finance performance within Somalia's education system, focusing on the interactions between the Education Finance Performance Index (EFPI) and various independent variables such as government recognition, financial resource management, governance, and accountability. Utilizing multiple regression analysis, this research explores both direct and indirect effects to reveal the complex relationships and causal links shaping EFPI.

Data for the study was collected through a survey conducted in July 2023, which gathered responses from a diverse cohort of participants across different sectors, positions, and educational backgrounds within Somalia. A purposeful or stratified sampling strategy was adopted to ensure a comprehensive representation of the educational landscape, enhancing the validity and depth of the data set. This approach facilitated a detailed examination of the multifaceted dimensions of education finance, aiming to contribute significantly to discussions on educational policies and management in Somalia.

Construct development

This study built robust constructs to ensure the integrity of analyses and interpretations, focusing on interrelated variables: the Education Finance Performance Index (EFPI), Government Recognition and Commitment (GRC), Financial Resource Management (FRM), Governance and Accountability (GA), and Human Capital Development (HCD). Through rigorous formulation and psychometric validation, the study offers a strong framework for understanding the educational system's dynamics and the impact of these constructs on educational excellence. EFPI, a key construct, measures academic achievement and holistic student development, enhancing our understanding of educational effectiveness. The development of EFPI and other constructs is detailed in subsequent sections to ensure conceptual clarity and empirical rigour.

Table 11: Construct Development

No.	Variable (construct)	Definition	Survey Items	Rationale
1	Education Finance Performance Index (EFPI)	A composite measure that assesses the overall quality, access, and sustainability of education finance in Somalia. It considers factors such as student outcomes, enrollment rates, educational facilities, and teacher-student ratios.	8, 11, 12, 13	This variable reflects the ultimate impact of education finance-related factors on the effectiveness of the education system.
2	**Government Recognition and Commitment (GRC)**	A categorical variable that indicates the level of acknowledgment and importance given by the Somali government to education finance in its policies and actions.	1, 2.	This variable captures the extent to which the government values education finance.
3	**Financial Resource Management (FRM)**	A composite measure that evaluates the allocation, utilization, and management of education funds in Somalia, along with the presence of effective systems and institutions for handling these funds.	3, 4, 5, 6, 7	This variable reflects the efficiency and effectiveness of financial resource management in the education sector

4	**Governance and Accountability (GA)**	A categorical variable that assesses the level of governance, integrity, and accountability in the management of education funds, considering issues such as corruption, mismanagement, and adherence to established protocols	6, 9, 14	This variable captures the extent to which governance and integrity impact education finance management
5	**Human Capital Development (HCD)**	A categorical variable indicating the efforts made by the Somali government to develop the competence and capacity of public servants involved in education finance management, encompassing incentives, remuneration, and capacity-building initiatives.	15	This variable reflects the focus on enhancing human capital for effective education finance management

Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression was used in this study to examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Through the analysis of different predictors, it is possible to gain a deeper understanding of nuances and patterns. In this approach, the specific impacts of individuals are quantified while confounding factors are considered, revealing hidden causal relationships and patterns. For a deeper understanding of the intricate relationship between EFPI and multiple independent and control variables, a thorough analysis of multiple regression was conducted. The regression model is presented below:

EFPI = β_0 + β_1(GRC) + β_2(FRM) + β_3(GA) + β_4(HCD) + β_5(Education) + β_6(Sector) + β_7(Position) + ε

3. Results of the Study

Descriptive Analysis

Summary Statistics

The analysis of the collected data provided meaningful insights into the demographic composition of the participant cohort. The mean age was 34.52 years, with a notable standard deviation of 8.22, indicating diverse age distributions and considerable age heterogeneity. Gender distribution showed a predominantly male presence (mean gender value 1.00) with moderate variability (standard deviation 0.34), revealing some female participants. While skewed towards males, female participation is evident. The most common qualification is 4.00 (master's degree), with a diverse range (standard deviation 0.63), emphasizing varied educational attainments.

Examining participant sectors, the mode sector was 2.00 (private sector), while a standard deviation of 0.96 indicated diverse sectoral representation. Despite being a dominant sector, variability highlighted participants from various sectors. Participant positions or status had an average of around 3.00 (senior level), with significant variability (standard deviation 1.33), reflecting diverse occupational or social strata. Regionally, participants mainly came from Benadir (mean value 6.00), yet a standard deviation of 1.30 underscored geographical diversity, suggesting participants from regions beyond Benadir. In essence, the analysis showcased a participant cohort with diverse ages, male-biased gender representation, varied qualifications and sectors, wide-ranging positions, and inclusive regional origins.

Table 12: Summary Statistics

	Age	Gender	Education	Sector	Position	State
Mean	34.52	1.14	3.57	2.10	3.30	5.29
Median	34.00	1.00	4.00	2.00	3.00	6.00
Mode	32.00[a]	1.00	4.00	2.00	3.00	6.00
Std. Deviation	8.22	0.34	0.63	0.96	1.33	1.30
Skewness	1.47	2.15	-0.26	0.56	0.81	-1.60
Kurtosis	3.54	2.66	-0.11	-0.59	0.78	1.32
Range	44.00	1.00	3.00	3.00	6.00	5.00
Minimum	21.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	65.00	2.00	5.00	4.00	7.00	6.00

The provided descriptive statistics offered insights into the distributional characteristics of the investigated variables. For the variable EFPI, its mean score of 3.71 and standard deviation of 0.87 indicated a relatively narrow dispersion around the mean. Negative skewness of -1.15 suggested a departure from normality with a longer tail towards lower scores, while positive kurtosis of 1.30 hinted at potential outliers on both extremes of the distribution. Similarly, variable GRC had a mean of 2.97 and a larger standard deviation of 1.14, indicating a wider scattering of scores. A slightly leftward skewness (-0.14) suggested a minor accumulation of lower GRC scores, while negative kurtosis (-1.13) implied a flatter distribution with possible outliers.

For variable FRM, the mean score was 3.55 with a standard deviation of 0.95. A negative skewness of -0.85 pointed to a left-skewed distribution with low FRM scores, and positive kurtosis (0.25) indicated some deviation from a normal distribution with slightly accentuated peakedness and tails. Variable GA had a mean of 3.59 and a standard deviation of 0.99, with negative skewness (-0.67) indicating a tendency towards lower scores, while negative kurtosis (-0.30) suggested less peakedness and thinner tails, implying a more uniform distribution with fewer extreme values. Variable HCD, with a mean score of 3.68 and a standard deviation of 1.10, displayed a negative skewness of -0.91, showing an asymmetric distribution with a tail of lower scores. Positive kurtosis (0.29) indicated a moderate deviation from normality in terms of peakedness and tails, suggesting the presence of outliers.

Table 13: Summary Statistics

	EFPI	GRC	FRM	GA	HCD
Mean	3.71	2.97	3.55	3.59	3.68
Median	4.00	3.00	3.80	4.00	4.00
Mode	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Std. Deviation	0.87	1.14	0.95	0.99	1.10
Skewness	-1.15	-0.14	-0.85	-0.67	-0.91
Kurtosis	1.30	-1.13	0.25	-0.30	0.29
Range	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00

Reliability Analysis (for Predictor Variables)

In my study, I employed Cronbach's Alpha for reliability testing, a well-established psychometric measure crucial for ensuring the internal consistency and reliability of scales containing multiple items often found in survey instruments. Cronbach's Alpha served as a standard method to assess the dependability of such scales by quantifying the extent of internal coherence among their constituent items. This application contributed significantly to the validation process by offering insights into measurement robustness and the collective capture of the underlying construct's essence. Illustrating the significance of Cronbach's Alpha in psychometric assessment, our evaluation of the 15-item education finance scale exemplified its utility. This assessment aimed to establish the interconnectedness and consistent measurement of the education finance domain. The reported Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .909 demonstrated a notably high level of internal consistency within the scale. This coefficient reflected strong agreement and coherence among the diverse items, suggesting their cohesive functioning as a measurement tool. Consequently, this robust internal reliability coefficient enhanced the instrument's credibility and dependability in examining the complex dimensions of education finance, thereby reinforcing the integrity of subsequent analyses and interpretations.

Table 14: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.909	.912	15

Regression Analysis

The present study employed an encompassing Multiple Regression Analysis with the primary objective of investigating the overall impact of a number of explanatory variables on education finance performance. These variables encompassed multifaceted dimensions such as Government Recognition and Commitment (GRC), Financial Resource Management (FRM), Governance and Accountability (GA), and Human Capital Development (HCD). Additionally, the analysis incorporated three control variables: education, sector, and position. This analytical approach aimed to unravel the complex interrelationships between these variables and their association with EFPI.

Multiple regression analysis helped to figure out the significance of the variables in explaining differences in the EFPI as a whole. The results showed that the combination of predictors and control variables helped explain a lot of the EFPI score variation. The relatively high coefficient of determination (R-squared) of 0.699 demonstrated that the variables under study could account for about 70% of the variation in EFPI scores.

Examining the regression coefficients (B) yielded valuable insights into the individual influence of each predictor on EFPI while accounting for the effects of other variables. Notably, GRC exhibited robust statistical significance as a predictor, with a positive coefficient (B = 0.195, $p < .01$), highlighting the pivotal role of government commitment in fostering education finance performance. FRM was also identified as a consequential determinant, indicating a plausible positive connection between effective financial resource allocation and enhanced learning outcomes. GA played a pivotal role, emphasizing the importance of governance structures and accountability mechanisms in fostering an environment conducive to superior education finance performance.

Moreover, the study underscored the significant influence of HCD on EFPI, highlighting the importance of investing in human capital to improve education finance performance. The impact of control variables also proved noteworthy, with education and sector displaying positive influences and position showing a relatively modest negative effect. Overall, the analysis shed light on the complex dynamics of education finance and its multifaceted influence on the education system in the context of Somalia.

Table 15: Reliability Statistics

Independent Variables	Coefficient	T-statistic	VIF
(Constant)	0.018	0.051	n.a
GRC	0.195	3.261***	1.205421
FRM	0.194	1.766*	4.051820
GA	0.400	3.983***	3.384929
HCD	0.292	4.213***	1.607954
Education	0.116	2.017**	1.115240
Sector	0.100	1.705*	1.162804
Position	-0.114	-1.921*	1.186282
R-squared (R^2)	0.699		
Adjusted (Adj. R^2)	0.678		
Durbin-Watson	1.865		
F-statistics (*prob*)	33.534	0.00	
Heteroskedasticity test: White			
F-statistics (*prob*)	1.214	0.24	
Obs*R^2	40.108	0.25	
Normality test: Jarque–Bera	2.692	0.26	

Discussion

This study embarked on an extensive exploration of the complex relationships between multiple explanatory variables and their collective impact on the EFP. By employing multiple regression analysis, the research aimed to comprehensively examine the roles of GRC, FRM, GA and HCD, as well as control variables including education, sector, and position, within the context of educational system performance. The principal objective was to uncover the statistical significance of these factors in explaining variations in EFPI.

The utilization of multiple regression revealed compelling results, underscoring the substantial contribution of the amalgamation of predictors and control variables to the explanation of EFPI score variance. The model exhibited a robust coefficient of determination (R-squared) of 0.699, indicating that approximately 70% of the observed variability in EFPI scores could be attributed to the considered variables. This finding highlighted the potency of the studied variables in unveiling the complex fabric of education finance performance. GRC emerged as a significant positive predictor of EFPI, emphasizing the pivotal role of governmental dedication in cultivating an environment conducive to enhancing educational outcomes. This observation suggested that policy initiatives aimed at strengthening government commitment hold the potential to yield tangible enhancements in educational system performance, accentuating the centrality of GRC in shaping the financial aspects of educational institutions.

FRM demonstrated a discernible positive influence on EFPI, highlighting the importance of effective financial resource allocation for improved educational outcomes. A well-executed strategy for managing financial resources can contribute to optimized learning environments, enhanced resources for educators, and enriched educational experiences for students.

This underscored the significance of refining financial management practices to enhance overall educational finance performance. GA emerged as a critical determinants of EFPI, emphasizing the need for well-structured governance frameworks and mechanisms of accountability in fostering educational excellence. Similarly, HCD highlighted a noteworthy positive effect, underlining the importance of investing in a proficient and motivated teaching workforce. Both GA and HCD underscored the need for policy interventions that prioritize transparency, accountability, and human resource development to enhance education finance performance.

The findings highlighted the pivotal role of government commitment, effective financial resource management, governance, accountability, and human capital development in shaping educational finance practices and ultimately enhancing educational outcomes.

4. Study Recommendationsy

These recommendations emphasize the need to prioritize government commitment, enhance financial management, establish effective governance mechanisms, invest in human capital development, and tailor strategies to sector-specific dynamics. By implementing these recommendations, stakeholders can collectively contribute to the enhancement of educational finance practices and the overall effectiveness of educational institutions.

1. Strengthen Government Commitment to Education Finance

Given the significant positive influence of GRC on the EFPI, policymakers should prioritize fostering a supportive and engaged governmental stance towards education. Strategic initiatives that reinforce government commitment to educational development can yield substantive enhancements in educational system performance. To achieve this, governments should allocate adequate resources, formulate policies that prioritize education, and engage in long-term planning to ensure sustained support for educational institutions.

2. Enhance Financial Resource Management Practices

Recognizing the noteworthy impact of FRM on EFPI, educational institutions should focus on refining their financial resource management practices. Implementing efficient fiscal planning and allocation strategies can lead to optimized learning environments, better infrastructure for educators, and enriched educational experiences for students. Enhancing financial transparency, accountability, and the strategic utilization of resources can contribute significantly to improving educational finance performance.

3. Foster Effective Governance and Accountability Mechanisms

Given the pronounced positive association between GA and EFPI, educational entities should prioritize the establishment and maintenance of strong governance frameworks. Clear lines of authority, transparent decision-making processes, and effective oversight mechanisms are pivotal in shaping the financial dynamics and overall efficacy of educational institutions. Strengthening governance practices that promote openness, responsibility, and ethical conduct can contribute to improved financial performance and educational outcomes.

4. Invest in Human Capital Development

The substantial positive effect of HCD on EFPI underscored the importance of investing in the professional development and skill enhancement of educators. Educational institutions should allocate resources for ongoing training, support, and continuous improvement initiatives for teachers. A proficient and motivated teaching workforce can significantly enhance classroom instruction, promote innovative pedagogical techniques, and ultimately contribute to the advancement of the education system.

5. Tailor Strategies to Sector-Specific Dynamics

Considering the varied impacts of the Sector on EFPI, policymakers should adopt tailored strategies that recognize sector-specific dynamics and contextual factors. Different educational sectors may inherently exhibit unique strengths and challenges. Therefore, designing sector-specific policies, resource allocations, and interventions can optimize financial outcomes and overall education finance performance.

5. Conclusion

This study explored the multidimensional landscape of education finance, unravelling the intricate interplay of various factors that collectively shape the EFPI. Through the application of multiple regression analysis, the study illuminated the significant contributions of government recognition and commitment, financial resource management, governance and accountability, and human capital development, as well as control variables like education, sector, and position, in driving variations in EFPI scores.

The findings underscored the pivotal role of government commitment in fostering an environment conducive to educational excellence, the potential benefits of refined financial resource management practices, and the crucial significance of well-structured governance frameworks and mechanisms.

Moreover, the study highlighted the compelling impact of investing in human capital development and tailoring strategies to sector-specific dynamics. As educational stakeholders and policymakers navigate the complex landscape of education finance, these insights provide a roadmap for informed decision-making, strategic interventions, and policies aimed at fostering improved education finance performance and, by extension, advancing the overall quality and effectiveness of educational institutions.

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Conclusion

In conclusion, the above proceeding resulted from the conference that the Heritage Institute for Policy Studies (HIPS) and the City University organized in Mogadishu under the theme of "Reshaping Somalia's Education for Development" in 2023. The forum provided the opportunity for researchers, stakeholders and policymakers to discuss the state of Somalia's education. The primary objective of the Forum was to explore ways to reshape the education system in Somalia for development. The forum brought together more than 400 participants from federal member states, the federal government, civil society, education umbrellas and the private sector.

Researchers presented fifteen policy papers at the conference. In the proceeding, eight of the fifteen papers were selected for publication. We believe that the papers presented at the conference proceeding have advanced our understanding of the Somali education system. The proceeding examined topics such as education finance, gender disparities, instructional methodologies, school leadership, special educational needs, and quality assurance in higher education. Each chapter offers practical recommendations, and the implementation of these measures will play a significant role in addressing critical issues within the country's education system.

We invite readers to actively engage with all the chapters presented in this conference proceeding. By perusing the entire document as a unified whole or delving into individual chapters that correspond to their interests, the papers in this proceeding are useful for education stakeholders. Each chapter offers distinct and self-contained analyses and recommendations. We hope that the insights and recommendations outlined within these papers will assist policymakers, educators, and stakeholders in implementing tangible measures aimed at fostering a brighter educational future for Somalia.