

Academic Staff Views of Higher Education Quality in Somaliland

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

By

Thomas J. Jones

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Advisor: Deanne L. Magnusson

November 2014

Acknowledgements

King Solomon said, “It is the glory of God to conceal a matter; to search out a matter is the glory of kings” (Book of Proverbs 25:2, *New International Version*) I have felt surrounded by royalty throughout the educational and research process of completing this thesis, searching out the hidden things of this world.

I’m very thankful for the advisors and teachers who have guided me through my studies. Foremost has been the care shown me by my advisor, Deanne Magnusson. Her ability to juggle a host of students, to be available, to communicate over the vast distances that separate us, and to impart a clear vision for the work has been crucial to my success.

I must also acknowledge Gerald Fry, David Chapman, David Arendale, and Darwin Hendel for their input into my research and their faithful scholarship. I cannot forget Dr. Fry’s input in Toronto when my study was hanging by a thread. I cannot forget Dr. Chapman’s wisdom in streamlining my study, my life situation, and my work responsibilities. I cannot forget Dr. Hendel’s clarity on my research methods and updates on literature relevant to my topic. I cannot forget Dr. Arendale for participating on my committee even while on sabbatical.

Then, I need to acknowledge those who have sacrificed for the sake of Somaliland higher education. I cannot forget Dr. Kenidid, Dr. Gaas, Dr. Suliman, Mr. Ahmed Bogore, Mr. Cadnan, Mr. Ihsan, and the lecturers and administrators in Somaliland who graciously hosted me. I cannot forget the Dilworth, Sugimoto, and Decker families who provided their insights on higher education, opened their homes to me, chauffeured me, and provided a sense of security. They are my heroes.

Finally, I have to acknowledge my faithful, beautiful wife. You prayed I would get a doctorate before I even applied for graduate school. Your love, encouragements, proofreading, and partnership with me in this cannot be overstated. You're my queen.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to Annalena Tonelli and Dick and Enid Eyeington who sacrificed their lives in Somaliland to educate the peoples of the Horn of Africa.

Abstract

Academic quality in ‘peripheral’ universities in sub-Saharan Africa is a critical issue for international higher education development. The purpose of this study is to determine academic views of institutional quality in the Republic of Somaliland, to understand the purpose and framework for measuring quality in their system. Significant enrollment growth, new institutional formation, private higher education expansion, and very limited public resources define a region like Somaliland. Though growing equity of access for students is suggested, system growth in a context of limited resources raises significant questions regarding institutional quality and academic intensification. A congruent, mixed-method of surveys (N = 166) and interviews (37) are used to determine academic viewpoints at three sample institutions: University of Hargeisa, Amoud University, and Admas University College. From these data, academic staff in Somaliland mostly define institutional quality according to the foundational purposes of maintaining civil peace through youth engagement and economic development through human capital training. Academic staff agreed that the overall qualification and training of lecturers was a limiting factor for higher education quality. Due to human resource flight during the civil war of the late 1980s-90s and significant growth of the higher education sector, lecturers are under qualified compared to international and regional standards; only 4% hold a doctoral qualification. Consistent with this result, academic staff view the number of professors with doctoral degrees as the most important indicator of quality in higher education. Though, as is shown in qualitative interviews, phenomena related to students (post-graduate employment, enrollment, and performance on international exams) are also important indicators of institutional success.

Table of Contents

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------|------|
| Acknowledgements | i |
| Dedication | iii |
| Abstract | iv |
| List of tables | x |
| List of figures | xii |
| List of abbreviations | xiii |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | 1 |
| Problem statement | 1 |
| Statement of study purpose and research questions | 3 |
| Theoretical framework | 4 |
| Definition of key terms | 9 |
| Importance of the Horn of Africa for this study | 10 |
| Researcher's positionality | 13 |
| Summary | 14 |
| Chapter 2: Literature Review | 15 |
| Quality in SSA Higher Education | 17 |
| World class universities | 18 |
| <i>Abundance of resources</i> | 19 |
| <i>Accumulation of talent</i> | 24 |
| <i>Favorable governance</i> | 26 |
| Diversification | 28 |
| Ranking systems and league tables | 30 |

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Quality assurance | 34 |
| Summary | 35 |
| Economic Responses to Massification in Higher Education in LEDCs | 35 |
| Rate of return | 35 |
| Balancing economic and social benefits | 37 |
| The market and the professoriate | 40 |
| ‘Marketized’ higher education critics | 41 |
| Summary | 47 |
| The Academic Profession in SSA | 48 |
| Cross-national studies | 49 |
| <i>Carnegie foundation study</i> | 51 |
| <i>Changing Academic Profession</i> | 52 |
| <i>Paying the professoriate</i> | 55 |
| <i>Center for Higher Education Transformation</i> | 57 |
| Internationalization | 59 |
| Identity, attitudes, and values | 61 |
| Conclusion | 62 |
| Chapter 3: Methodology and Methods | 64 |
| Research Context | 64 |
| Pre-colonial education | 65 |
| Colonial education | 66 |
| Post-colonial education | 67 |
| Current situation | 68 |

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Research Methodology Rationale | 72 |
| Methods | 74 |
| Authorizations | 75 |
| Sampling strategies | 76 |
| Data collection strategies | 77 |
| Data sample collected | 78 |
| Data analysis strategies | 78 |
| Addressing Study Limitations and Validity..... | 80 |
| Chapter 4: Results | 82 |
| Institutional Characteristics | 82 |
| Academic Staff Professional Characteristics | 85 |
| Qualifications | 86 |
| Employment characteristics | 88 |
| Work load and profile | 90 |
| Personal characteristics | 91 |
| Linguistic profile | 92 |
| Teaching and research | 93 |
| Academic staff evaluation | 95 |
| Satisfaction and perception of development | 98 |
| Academic Staff Perspectives of Higher Education Quality..... | 98 |
| Quantitative data of academic staff perspectives of factors affecting higher education quality | 98 |

| | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Quantitative data on academic staff view of key indicators of higher education quality | 101 |
| Academic staff perspective of the goal of higher education in Somaliland .. | 103 |
| Qualitative data of academic staff perspective of factors affecting higher education quality | 106 |
| Qualitative data on academic staff view of key indicators of higher education quality | 117 |
| Summary | 123 |
| Chapter 5: Discussion of Findings | 125 |
| Ramifications for Higher Education Theory..... | 125 |
| World-class university framework | 125 |
| Massification | 128 |
| Ramification for Public Policy..... | 132 |
| Limitation of Research..... | 135 |
| Suggestions for Further Study..... | 137 |
| Summary | 138 |
| References | 139 |
| Appendix A: Questionnaire | 158 |
| Appendix B: Interview Protocol | 170 |
| Appendix C: Interview Consent Form | 171 |
| Appendix D: Authorization Communication for Survey Reproduction | 172 |
| Appendix E: Additional Characteristics of the Somaliland Academic Staff Sample | 173 |

Appendix F: Higher Education Sector Goals of the Ministry of Education and Higher
Education in Somaliland175

List of Tables

| | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Table 1.1: Trow’s conceptions of ‘elite,’ ‘mass,’ and ‘universal’ higher education | 6 |
| Table 2.1: Institutional Characteristics of Various Universities Seeking World Class Status | 22 |
| Table 2.2 Academic professional salary range in select countries | 25 |
| Table 2.3: Percentage of graduate students at selective universities | 26 |
| Table 2.4: Ranking criteria for two major systems | 31 |
| Table 3.1: Demographic information for Horn of Africa | 70 |
| Table 3.2: Survey response rate for academic staff in the three institutions of higher education | 79 |
| Table 4.1: Institutional characteristics of universities in Somaliland | 83 |
| Table 4.2: Qualifications of academic staff in Somaliland | 86 |
| Table 4.3: Characteristics of employment for Somaliland academic staff | 88 |
| Table 4.4: Division of work for academic staff in Somaliland | 91 |
| Table 4.5: Gender and age of Somaliland academic staff | 91 |
| Table 4.6: Native languages of academic staff in Somaliland | 92 |
| Table 4.7: Somaliland academic staff use of native language in teaching | 93 |
| Table 4.8: Somaliland academic staff use of native language in research | 93 |
| Table 4.9: Teaching vs. research preference for academic staff in Somaliland | 94 |
| Table 4.10: Sources of funding for Somaliland academic staff research | 95 |
| Table 4.11: Frequency of academic staff evaluation | 95 |
| Table 4.12: Academic staff views of the impact of evaluation | 96 |
| Table 4.13: Key individuals involved in academic staff evaluation | 96 |

| | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Table 4.14: Factors affecting the quality of teaching in Somaliland | 99 |
| Table 4.15: Factors affecting quality of higher education in Somaliland | 100 |
| Table 4.16: Indicators of teaching quality for Somaliland academic staff | 101 |
| Table 4.17: Indicators of higher education research quality in Somaliland | 102 |
| Table 4.18: Indicators of higher education quality in Somaliland | 103 |
| Table 4.19: List of factors affecting higher education quality extrapolated derived from qualitative analysis of Somaliland academic staff interviews | 106 |
| Table 4.20: List of indicators used in Somaliland higher education encoded from qualitative analysis of Somaliland academic staff interviews | 118 |
| Table 5.1: A comparison of social transformation in Martin Throw's theory to Somaliland academic staff responses in surveys and interviews | 128 |
| Table E.1: Citizenship of Somaliland academic staff sample | 173 |
| Table E.2: Level of parental education for academic staff in Somaliland | 173 |
| Table E.3: Marital status and number of dependents that academic staff support in Somaliland..... | 174 |
| Table E.4: Factors influencing faculty views of their academic work..... | 174 |

List of Figures

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Figure 1.1: Map of the Horn of Africa | 11 |
| Figure 2.1: Model of a world class university | 20 |
| Figure 2.2: Ecosystem influencing the performance of top research universities | 20 |
| Figure 4.1: Percent of country of study for bachelor degree holders in Somaliland | 87 |
| Figure 4.2: Percent of country of study for Master and Doctoral degree holders Somaliland | 87 |
| Figure 4.3: Histogram of year Somaliland academic staff began working in higher Education | 90 |
| Figure 4.4: Cloud diagram representation of response to “What is the goal(s) of your institution?” | 105 |
| Figure 4.5: Cloud diagram representation of response to “Give two or three indicators of quality in Somaliland.” | 117 |
| Figure 5.1: Model of a world class university | 125 |

List of Abbreviations

HOA – Horn of Africa

LEDC – Less Economically Developed Country

SSA – Sub-Saharan Africa

Admas – Admas University College

UOH – University of Hargeisa

AU – Amoud University

CAP – Changing Academic Profession

MoEHE – Ministry of Education and Higher Education

THE – Times Higher Education

UD – Université de Djibouti

UN – United Nations

IRIN – Intergovernmental Regional Information Network

ESSP – Education Sector Strategic Plan

OECD – Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

Chapter 1: Introduction

Maintaining or improving the quality of higher education institutions in an era of rapid expansion and limited resources is an important research topic in the field of international higher education, especially in less economically developed countries (LEDCs). Examples of the ramifications of poor quality in higher education systems are slowed economic development (Cloete, Bailey, Pillay, Bunting and Maassen, 2011), human capital flight (Bloom and Sevilla, 2004), and social unrest (Scheifelbein, 2012). In Chapter 1, the study is introduced through a problem statement, a presentation of the study purpose and research questions, the theoretical framework for the study, definitions of key terms, the strategic nature of the research context, and the researcher's positionality.

Problem Statement

Increasing access to higher education learning is promoted in the international educational development literature for the growth of LEDCs (Asian Development Bank, 2010; World Bank, 2000, 2002; African Development Bank, 2012a, 2012b). A demand for increased access to higher education has occurred in conjunction with the market driven demand for skilled laborers in today's 'modern' knowledge societies (Heynemann, 2006; Materu, 2007; Munene and Otieno, 2007; Teferra, 2001; Teferra and Altbach, 2003; World Bank, 2000). Many countries have embarked, therefore, on establishing at least one 'world-class' university (WCU) in their educational system in order to provide the highest level of learning and knowledge to their society (Altbach and Salmi, 2011). However, massive enrollment growth in higher education and limited resources in developing countries have resulted in poor organizational quality and sub-par student

performance outcomes, even in countries' 'flag-ship' institutions (Bunting and Cloete, 2012). Thus, in regions with limited resources like Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), where increased access has become a strategy for educational development at various levels (primary, secondary, etc.), quality of education is often neglected (ADB, 2011; Chapman and Miric, 2009; Materu, 2007; Immerwahr, Johnson, and Gasbarra, 2008).

The quality of higher education institutions in SSA is often connected to the quality of academic professionals in the region (Bunting and Cloete, 2012). Teachers, researchers, and administrators are the key professionals who perform the majority of the work of universities (Teferra and Altbach, 2003; Enders and deWeert, 2009).

Characteristics such as their training, degree of qualification, salary, career plan, and work load are central to the overall efficiency and quality of the organization. However, they are also affected by the organizational environment they find themselves in (Altbach and Salmi, 2011). Examples of environmental influences on higher education in SSA include: government finance structures, patent law, tuition sharing, private industry support, or secondary educational quality.

Investigations into educational quality for peripheral regions (like SSA) or institutions (non-research or non-doctoral granting) have received little attention in the academic literature. Peripheral institutions are defined by their relative unimportance in international rankings, limited research output, inability to attract competitive resources and talent, and their geographic location (Scott, 2007; Rhee, 2011; Altbach, 2002). The contrast created by the center-periphery image defines the 'haves' and 'have-nots' in global higher education that is an increasingly competitive and internationalized system. Where the 'center' of the academic profession has received much attention in

international research, Altbach (2011) has asserted, “there are an estimated 3,500,000 full-time academics in developing and middle-income countries, with perhaps an equal number of part-time teachers. Yet little is known about the professionals responsible for teaching and research in these universities” (p. 205). This raises many questions for dramatically increasing student populations in areas with limited access to internationally recognized higher education institutions. How will these academic professionals respond to growing student demand for access and the quality of their academic work?

Statement of Study Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to determine academic staff perspectives of institutional quality in Somaliland. By researching this topic, knowledge is expanded in the field of international higher education in a number of ways. First, a study at peripheral institutions like those of Somaliland can provide insights into faculty views regarding quality, purpose, and intention which are all critical for continued development of higher education in a LEDC. Second, the Somaliland region has been a region devoid of much higher education research due to the prevalence of civil war with greater Somalia and the peripheral nature of institutions outside of Mogadishu, Addis Ababa, Kampala, and Nairobi. Third, this work is developing research tools for the region where less studied institutions need to be analyzed and supported through empirical data. These data can be used to inform organizational development and change. Finally, as globalization and internationalization of higher education goes forward, a gap is filled in the higher education literature on peripheral institutions that international partnering universities, NGOs, and aid organizations can utilize to strengthen higher education experiences for staff and students in this region.

Three specific questions are explored in this study to advance the underlying purpose. They are as follows:

- How do academic professionals define the purpose of their institutions?
- What are the factors academic professionals view influencing the quality of education in Somaliland?
- What do academic professionals perceive as indicators of quality higher education in Somaliland?

Theoretical Framework

In this study, Martin Trow's theoretical work on the implications of transitioning from 'elite' to 'mass' to 'universal' higher education is utilized. The aspect of his theory that has the most relevance for SSA at this time is the transition from 'elite' (<5% of an age cohort) to 'mass' education (15%-50%). 'Massification,' a related term, is defined in higher education by the dramatic increase in tertiary education enrollment of an educational system. Trow (1974, 2000, 2004, 2005, 2010) developed his theory around trends in higher education in America and Europe. He suggests the dramatic increase in enrollments, especially in America after World War II, to be a process of moving from 'elite' to 'mass' education (Trow, 1974). He argues that this trend was a reflection of the democratic and egalitarian values of the culture. Problems within higher education in America at the time could "be understood better as different manifestations of a related cluster of problems, and that they arise out of the transition... from elite to mass higher education" (as cited in Burrage, 2010, p. 89). Issues closely related to academic professionals include curriculum and forms of instruction, recruitment, training, and socialization of staff, setting and maintenance of standards, motivation and morale, and

the relation of research to teaching. Other external issues that affect the profession include student unrest and disruptions in the universities, recruitment and selection of students, forms of examinations and the nature of qualifications awarded, job placement, as well as institutional finance and governance. These concepts and associated societal attitudes are shown in Table 1.1.

For non-Western contexts, massification theory has been applied to higher education studies by scholars such as Altbach (2012) and Schofer and Meyer (2005). In a recent interview, Altbach argued, “If you had to generalize, there are three or four [major trends in higher education] and they all emanate from one word: massification” (IP World, 2012, p. 10). According to Schofer and Meyer’s (2005) analysis of world-wide educational data from UNESCO, massification is the result of a complex mix of factors including: increased secondary enrollments, decreased state control over education, interconnectedness with world society and its structure, expansion of human rights, rise of educational planning, the acceptance of a more open-system, and an “unlimited progress” attitude toward higher education. Schofer and Meyer (2005) suggest in their research, “the global trends are so strong that developing countries now have higher enrollment rates than European countries did only a few decades ago, and currently about one-fifth of the world cohort is now enrolled in higher education” (p. 898). Thus, based on Schofer and Meyer’s data showing a 20% enrollment of the eligible cohort and Trow’s 15% threshold, globally speaking, the world has moved into an era of mass-higher education, albeit not equally distributed.

Table 1.1

Trow's conceptions of 'elite,' 'mass,' and 'universal' higher education (Trow, 2005)

| <u>Attribute</u> | <u>Elite (0-15%)</u> | <u>Mass (16-50%)</u> | <u>Universal (over 50%)</u> |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Attitudes to access | A privilege of birth or talent or both | A right for those with certain qualifications | An obligation for the middle and upper classes |
| Functions of higher education | Shaping mind and character of ruling class; preparation for elite roles | Transmission of skills; preparation for broader range of technical and economic elite roles | Adaptation of 'whole population' to rapid social and technological change |
| Curriculum and forms of instruction | Highly structured in terms of academic or professional conceptions of knowledge | Modular, flexible and semi-structured sequence of courses | Boundaries and sequences break down; distinctions between learning and life break down |
| The student 'career' | "Sponsored" after secondary school; works uninterruptedly until gains degree | Increasing numbers delay entry; more drop out | Much postponement of entry, softening of boundaries between formal education and other aspects of life; term-time working |
| Institutional characteristics | -Homogenous with high and common standards - Small residential communities - Clear and impermeable boundaries | - Comprehensive with more diverse standards - "Cities of intellect" - -mixed residential/commuting - boundaries fuzzy and permeable | - Great diversity with common standards - Aggregates of people enrolled some of whom are rarely or never on campus - Boundaries weak or non-existent |
| Locus of power and decision making | The Athenaeum--small elite group, shared values and assumptions | Ordinary political processes of interest groups and party programs | Mass publics' question special privileges and immunities of academe |
| Academic standards | Broadly shared and relatively high (in meritocratic phase) | Variable; system/institution 'become holding companies for quite different kinds of academic enterprises' | Criterion shifts from 'standards' to 'value added' |

Table 1.1 (cont.)

| <u>Attribute</u> | <u>Elite (0-15%)</u> | <u>Mass (16-50%)</u> | <u>Universal (over 50%)</u> |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Access and selection | Meritocratic achievement based on school performance | Meritocratic plus 'compensatory programs' to achieve equality of opportunity | open,' emphasis on 'equality of group achievement' (class, ethnic) |
| Forms of academic administration | Part-time academics who are 'amateurs at administration'; elected/appointed for limited periods | Former academics now full-time administrators plus large and growing bureaucracy | More specialist full-time professionals. Managerial techniques imported from outside academe |
| Internal governance | Senior professors | Professors and junior staff with increasing influence from students | Breakdown of consensus making institutional governance insoluble; decision-making flows into hands of political authority |

These transitions within communities, from educating ‘elites’ to educating the ‘masses,’ have not been well studied in SSA. Especially in HOA, where institutions formed since the late 1990s through the 2000s have not developed from a tradition of training an ‘elite’ class for ruling their communities like in traditional European or American campuses. Therefore, one cannot be sure that the social foundations of democracy, liberalization, and egalitarianism will define expansion. Perhaps institutions of SSA, having been founded on ‘newer’ principals more closely connected to the marketplace than colonial institutions of previous generations will need to be modeled differently as they continue to expand. Li (2012), Huang (2012), and Amano (2010) have had to adapt Trow’s three stage evolution of higher education for their studies of the educational transitions in China and Japan. Trow (2000) himself has admitted,

While American higher education shows its origins in European models, it developed under different circumstances, in response to quite different historical, social, political, cultural and economic forces. There are lessons in that experience, but they are limited, and there is a danger of learning the wrong lessons and drawing inappropriate conclusions from the American experience. (p. 4)

Thus, with the expectation that his theory will need careful application in a SSA context, Trow's theory of educational growth serves as a starting place for analyzing the transitions that are beginning to take place in African higher education.

For studying how academic staff view quality in peripheral higher education institutions in SSA, Trow's theory helps us frame the attitudes of faculty depending on the social conception of higher education in their system. Even though these academic professionals only educate a small minority of their population (<5%), it is possible that the attitudes of faculty may be more indicative of 'mass' or 'universal' education than that of 'elite' because of the external forces that have initiated the peripheral universities in question. Trow's conceptualization of ten aspects of higher education as it moves through elite, mass, and universal stages of development are shown in Table 1.1. Seven of these aspects relate to attitudes inherent to the work of the academic profession, these include: the functions of higher education, curriculum and forms of instruction, institutional characteristics, locus of power and decision making, academic standards, forms of academic administration, and internal governance. SSA as a region has *not* passed over Trow's threshold defining the movement from elite to mass education,

however if current growth trends continue, the time of 'elite' higher education in SSA is over for some countries and the rest are heading in that direction.

Definition of Key Terms

A number of ideas need close definition for clarity of understanding. Some concepts have already been introduced (massification and peripheral higher education). However, two terms that are a focus of this study include 'the academic profession' and 'higher education'.

The academic profession. 'Faculty' form the heart of this profession (Enders, 2007), but they often occupy "different worlds, small worlds" (Clark, 1989, p. 7). Understanding the particular characteristics of academic staff careers, biographies, and values in HOA is a significant part of this thesis research. However, for the sake of this study, the academic profession is defined by the teachers, researchers, administrators, and staff who participate in tertiary level educational organizations. Especially important to note is that these individuals are not necessarily defined by a doctoral degree in the international higher education arena. From the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, 'academic professionals,' 'faculty,' 'academia,' and 'academic staff' are used nearly interchangeably. However, certain studies differentiate between academic professionals with different roles (researchers, teachers, or administrators) or qualifications (BA/BS, MA/MS, or Ph.D.). Thus, when necessary appropriate distinctions are given, but in general, the term 'academic staff' and 'lecturer' are used because of their prevalence in the local context.

Higher education. A second idea that needs close definition is what is meant by higher education. The diverse institutions that fall under this category of education

internationally can be ambiguous (Ng'ethe, Subotzky, and Afeti, 2008). The Carnegie foundation has developed a system for classifying American institutions along categories of purpose, size, and types of degrees granted (McCormick and Zhao, 2010). However, for this study, higher education is also an inclusive term that includes all types of tertiary education, adult learning, and post-secondary education. This is needed because the institutions of peripheral African higher education may have more in common with non-baccalaureate granting institutions or 'trade schools' than elite 'flagship' research universities or 'all-inclusive' doctoral granting institutions.

Importance of the Horn of Africa for this Study

The Horn of Africa (HOA) is loosely defined as the countries (or parts thereof) of Somalia, Ethiopia, Djibouti, Eritrea, and Kenya (see Figure 1.1). It is often denoted by its Islamic religion, nomadic heritage, susceptibility to ecological instability, civil wars, pirates, and poverty. This region is particularly interesting for this study due to the rapid expansion of higher education and peripheral nature of its institutions to the global higher education system.

Djibouti, for example, has been a country of interest for development of higher education due to the high demand for service professionals. The government offices, port, and foreign military institutions demand a steady influx of workers with technical expertise and critical thinking skills. Thus, the Université de Djibouti (UD) was inaugurated in 2000 as an attempt to offer post-secondary diplomas to their population. Previously, students would have had to travel abroad for this type of education (Dudzik, 2008). Djibouti, like SSA in general, still offers higher education for less than 10% of its population (2012 est., Djibouti Ministry of Education, 2012). This is significantly behind

countries in North America and Western Europe at over 70% (UNESCO, 2009). However, where higher education enrollment has leveled in OECD countries, university student enrollment across SSA has increased by over 150% since 1995 (UNESCO, 2009; Altbach, 2012). In Djibouti, the new institution has experienced student enrollment growth rates of over 400% in the last ten years (Djibouti Ministry of Education, 2010).



Figure 1.1. Map of the Horn of Africa (CIA, 2011)

Ethiopian higher education also represents a part of the HOA landscape. Teferra (2012, para. 4) suggests “the most phenomenal growth in African higher education expansion may be in Ethiopia where the number of public universities has grown from 2 to over 30 and student numbers ballooned from some 50 thousand to more than 400 thousand in a decade.” Areaya (2010) shows in his research that,

A tension has been created between government’s political desire for massification of higher education on one hand, and the inherent desire of the universities and their academic communities for quality education by way of academic intensification on the other hand. Accordingly, the quality of teaching and learning in Ethiopian public universities currently is at risk. (Areaya, 2010, p. 93)

Eastern regions of Ethiopia, which is considered a part of HOA, include the University of Jigjiga, Haramaya University, and Dira Dawa University which have been recently founded in the last 10-15 years. These all represent the kind of ‘peripheral’ institutions considered in this study in contrast to the long-standing center for higher education at Addis Ababa University.

Massification has been a significant issue for Kenyan higher education (Orieno, 2007; Oanda and Jowi, 2012). From a single institution in the 1960s higher education has blossomed and as of 2009 there are “7 traditional public universities and 12 newly established university colleges and over 22 private universities with varying levels of accreditation” (Otieno and Ngolovoi, 2009). However, the center of higher education for Kenya, located in Nairobi, is often difficult for north-eastern or coastal Kenyans to access

due to ethnic and geographic inequalities in the education system (Alwy and Schech, 2004). This is exactly the part of Kenya that would be considered to ethnically include Somalis and therefore be included in HOA.

Finally, Somalia has struggled to recover from the destructive civil war that engulfed it in the 1980s and 1990s. Basic education of an entire generation of youth has been jeopardized by continued instability, famine, inability of international assistance to reach affected populations, and the difficulty of administering public education in crisis regions. Yet, in the midst of this strife higher education is expanding rapidly. In particular Somaliland, a politically autonomous state that declared independence from Somalia, has developed over 20 private institutions of tertiary education in less than twenty years. However, as neighboring regions have taken significant steps to improve quality of higher education from central ‘flag-ship’ institutions outward, Somalia has had to start from square one. Without access to the traditional center of Somali higher education in Mogadishu, Somalilanders were forced to initiate their own systems for engaging youth and providing hope for its fledgling, democratically elected state. Somaliland higher education’s ‘peripheral’ status is unquestioned and forms the strategic focus of this study.

Researcher’s positionality

For the past eleven years I have worked in conjunction with higher education institutions in HOA. In 2003, I worked with an international, non-governmental organization with a mandate to train teachers for secondary education institutions in Somaliland. Our project was based at Amoud University, which is one of the sampled institutions in this study. Unfortunately, our project at Amoud was cancelled due to insecurity, specifically, the deaths of three other expatriate teachers in Somaliland to

whom this dissertation is dedicated. When this occurred, another non-governmental organization asked if I would work with them in improving higher education program capacity in nearby Djibouti, where I have worked for the last ten years. At the Université de Djibouti, I have served as an English professor, program coordinator, and researcher. Since 2008, I have frequently returned to Somaliland to advise universities on program reform, other non-governmental agencies on project implementation, and Somaliland government offices on policy in education. Eleven years in the HOA region has given me in depth knowledge of the local languages, cultural norms, and educational systems.

Summary

HOA is a region that has had very little attention in the higher education academic literature of the last twenty years because of the intense civil war in the region. Because of this, in Chapter 2, a review of literature of the academic profession and quality outside this particular region of Africa is considered. Though understudied in general compared to Western higher education, SSA still has significant data and comparative literature from which this study is framed. This review technique is validated by the fact that many of the professors who teach in HOA are actually trained in non-SSA countries, have experienced the academic profession abroad, and have brought those values, expectations, and identity back to their home countries (Teferra and Altbach, 2003). For institutions of the HOA region, research to measure academic views of quality in the midst of local and global pressure for increased access comes at a critical time.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Educational researchers, theorists, and planners who study higher education in Africa have had varied responses to the tremendous growth of student enrollments in LEDC contexts. As stated earlier, SSA still lags behind most regions of the world in higher education enrollments, but that doesn't mean there hasn't been tremendous growth. In this chapter, focus is placed on the massification of higher education internationally with a particular emphasis on 'quality' discussions and 'world class' university literature. These are important foundations for understanding the economic, social, and political responses driving further expansion of higher education as well as for scholars who are critical of change to the basic tenets of academic freedom and learning that have been institutionalized in the academic profession. Other topics closely related to the transition from elite to mass higher education internationally are diversification of university types and the rise of ranking systems, thus these topics are also considered in this section.

After reviewing literature on quality in higher education, external forces that surround the professoriate and higher education are considered. In general, scholars tend to think of growth and transition from two distinct camps. The first has its roots in economic theory. Traditionally, this group favored primary education investment to higher education, but recently has turned to a more balanced educational planning approach that supports all levels of learning. Then, the second camp of scholars is critical of 'market' driven change in the academic profession. They see massification as an opportunity for politicians and administrators to usurp the traditional values of academia through accountability, managerialism, and marketization. In SSA, this second group of

scholars sees the potential for the hegemonic relationship between external funder's policies and regulations (i.e. World Bank, United States Agency for International Development, European Union, etc.) and a country's higher education policies to affect the positive organizational development in LEDCs' higher education systems (Holland, 2010; Collins and Rhodes, 2010).

The ways external funders or international educational policies affect higher education in a specific local context are complicated. Holland (2010) gives us an example of how to conceptualize the mixing of international and local forces on a higher education system in his historical analysis and ethnographic study of institutional formation in Malawi. From a diverse body of Malawian sources (teachers, students, administrators, local and international documents, NGOs, etc.) he sought to argue "that shifts in local and transnational political systems as well as in the prominent features of the ascendant imported model can create and be experienced as "waves" of institutionalization" (p. 201). The "waves" experienced in Malawi due to the close political relationship with Britain and the US was first a colonial influence, then post-colonially, an expanding American influence, then the rise of neoliberalism coinciding with the Reagan and Thatcher administrations, and finally a rise in Higher education support due to recent World Bank publications in conjunction with discourse around 'knowledge economies' which are discussed later in this chapter. He observed that the policies and institutional traditions of these two "allies" (US and UK) had significant ramifications for the Higher education system of Malawi. Due to the lack of sufficient investment resources, Malawi was dependent on foreign aid and expertise to initiate and sustain their system. Holland's data shows:

that institutional models do...travel across national boundaries from core to periphery countries, promoting conformity with institutional forms found in rich and powerful nations...[yet,] rather than a uniform and unidirectional progression tied to a global culture of modernity, there can be multiple institutional waves with different origins and conflicting organizational scripts that can intermingle in confusing and contradictory ways in a single setting over time. (p. 218).

Holland found that British values and American values in higher education systems weren't totally synonymous. Nor were the changing policies in regards to foreign aid and value for higher education therein.

Thus, as literature on international higher education is considered, there is reason to believe that in a context like HOA, there will be a complex mix of local and international policies and social trends affecting the institutions in which faculty participate and the work that they do. For faculty in this region, institutionalization of work practices and identity in international contexts is almost guaranteed since there are limited masters or doctoral level studies in HOA universities (Teferra & Altbach, 2003). For example, in a country like Djibouti, one-hundred percent of teachers and researchers have received their masters and doctoral degrees abroad.

Quality in SSA Higher Education

Literature related to 'quality' in any system, seeks to define an "elusive concept" (Burrows, Harvey, and Green, 1992, p. 1). Villanueva, 2012; Wolhuter, Kangumu, and Mungongi, 2014). Harvey and Green (1993) suggested five different models for considering a quality discussion for higher education: as exceptional; as perfection (or consistency); as fitness for purpose; as value for money; and as transformative (as cited in

Harvey and Williams, 2010, p. 6). A mix of these values (or entirely new values) may be seen in institutions' traditions. In the following review, literature that highlights the comparative (and often competitive) nature of quality is explored. However, the researcher assumes a significant finding of this study is the local policy construction by Somaliland academic staff because "analysis of quality should not be detached from purpose and context" (Harvey and Williams, 2010, p. 7).

World-class universities. Many countries are putting a significant amount of their educational resources into higher education in order to build at least one institution that qualifies as a world-class university (WCU). In a recent publication for the World Bank entitled *The Challenge of Establishing World-Class Universities* (2009), Jamil Salmi, puts forth a model of a WCU based on case studies and ranking system techniques (Figure 2.1). His research has been based on isolating the factors that have helped certain universities to rise quickly in international rankings as well as evaluating what factors have contributed to the long-term development of perennially high-ranked institutions. Within this model, three overarching inputs—the concentration of talent, favorable governance, and abundant resources—create the basic formula for competing on the world-class level. Salmi (2010) later suggested that this situation needs the proper ecosystem (Figure 2.2), "which represents the relevant external forces that directly influence—positively or negatively—the ability of research universities to prosper" (p. 325). His definition, which includes phrases like 'abundant,' 'favorable,' or 'concentration of talent,' is comparative in nature and thus needs to be empirically defined in relation to other institutions. It can often be difficult to compare institutional data because of the different mandates and goals these institutions operate under. Thus,

‘world-class’ generally refers to tertiary institutions that grant doctoral degrees, do research, and are considered the pinnacle of a diversified system of higher education. In the following section, data is reviewed from the literature on higher education institutions using Salmi’s model as an outline with an appropriate comparison to this study’s research context where possible.

Abundance of resources. The amount of resources a university uses to pay its staff, run its facilities and laboratories, and perform research is an important indicator of its status in the world market of higher education. As suggested by Pilay (2010) and Johnstone (2008), universities are being encouraged to think about how to diversify their funding base as government resources are limited. Albach and Salmi’s (2011) model of a WCU includes five categories of funding: 1) government financing; 2) tuition and fees; 3) endowment income, donations, lottery, and corporate support; 4) competitive research funding; and, 5) consultancies, training, and contract research. Jongbloed (2004) theorizes that the type of higher education funding is related primarily to two dimensions: 1) the degree of centralization in funding and, 2) the degree of focus on student versus program outcomes. The method, or blend, in state and private funding for institutions is diverse and highly ranked institutions may have a majority of private or public funding. No matter the strategy of funding higher education, Johnstone (2011) finds that the issue of funding internationally comes down to three trends: “(1) the tendency of unit, or per student, costs to increase in excess of a country’s prevailing rate of rising prices...; (2) the worldwide pressure of increasing enrollments...; and (3) the inability of governmental revenues...to keep pace with these surging revenue requirements” (p. 53).

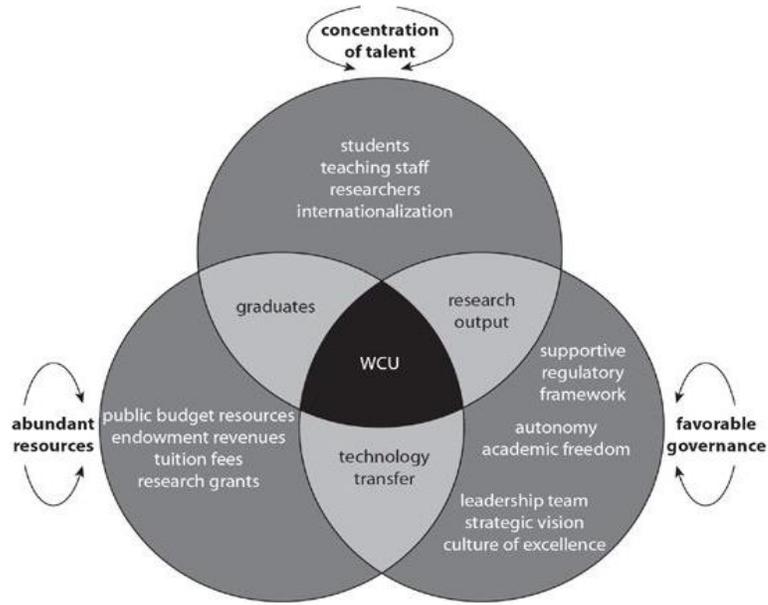


Figure 2.1: Model of a world class university (Salmi, 2009)

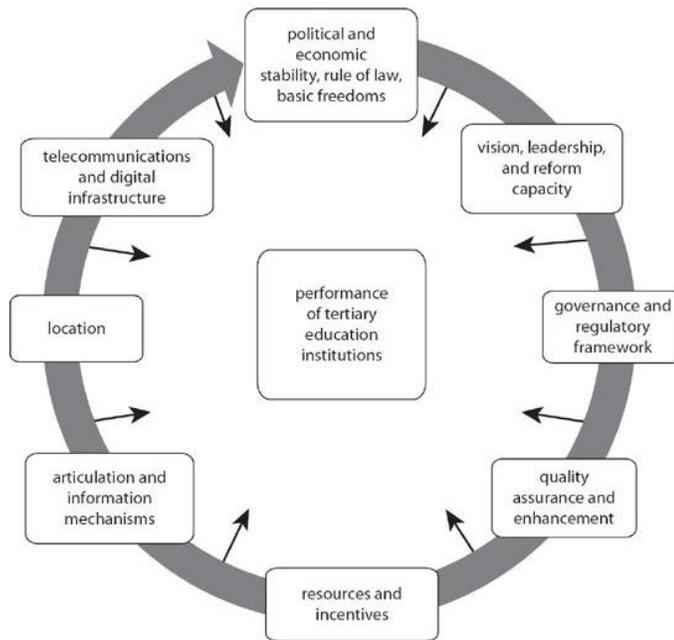


Figure 2.2: Ecosystem influencing the performance of top research universities (Altbach and Salmi, 2011).

In Djibouti, like most francophone university systems, government funds a vast majority of the budget with some private NGOs, multilateral or bi-lateral partners, and student fees making up the rest of the institutional income (Some, 2010; Teferra and Altbach, 2007). Some efforts toward cost sharing have been promoted throughout SSA (Johnstone, 2008; Johnstone, 2011; Pillay, 2010; Some, 2010). Other regions of HOA that lack official international recognition (Somaliland and Puntland) or that have weak central government (Mogadishu) have seen a proliferation of privatized higher education funded mostly by tuition, foreign entities (FBOs, NGOs, etc.) and some remittances. Whether government funded or privately funded, the periphery of higher education in the region is not enjoying a great boom in available resources.

Salmi (2009) suggests in his model that one of the clearest indicators of world class rank is the expenditure per student. For example, the National University of Singapore, often ranked in the top one-hundred universities globally spends nearly \$40,000 per student (Altbach and Salmi, 2011). Djibouti on the other hand spends less than \$2500 per student (personal observation) and in Somaliland it is less than \$500 per student. A list of universities and their characteristics are shown in Table 2.1. This small sample of data collected from case studies on universities' development toward world class status highlights the diversity in institutions that exist (size, method of funding, etc.). Only two of the listed universities would be considered in the top one-hundred WCUs (Singapore and Pohang). However, it is interesting to see how Somaliland universities can barely compete with even unranked institutions' budgets, student characteristics, and graduation rates. So, where will Somaliland students look for a 'world-class' education?

Table 2.1

Institutional Characteristics of Various Universities Seeking World Class Status

| Institution (year established)** | Number of students (that graduate) | Student-to-faculty ratio | Share of direct public funding (%) | Endowment (Millions of US\$) |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Higher School of Economics, Russia (1992) ** | 16,000 (2,400) | — | 33 | 0 |
| Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (1991) ** | 9,271 (3,302) | 19:1 (or maybe 14-15:1) | 63 | 0.25 |
| Indian Institutes of Technology (first founded in 1950 in Kharagpur) ** | 28,000 (12,000) 25,705 | 6:1 to 8:1 | 70 | 0 |
| Monterrey Institute of Technology (1943) ** | (3,600)(Monterrey campus) | 12.2:1 | 0 | 1000 |
| National University of Singapore (1980) ** | 27,396 (6,300) | 14.4:1 | 58 | 1000 |
| Pohang University of Science and Technology (1987) ** | 3,100 (1,700) | 6:1 | 15 | 2,000 |
| Pontifical Catholic University of Chile (1882)** | 22,035 (2,806) | 8:1 | 11 | 0 |
| Shanghai Jiao Tong University (1896) ** | 43,000 (14,000) | 15:1 | 40 | 120 |
| University of Chile (1842) ** | 30,702 (4.569) | 9:1-15:1 | 11 | 0 |
| University of Ibadan (1962)** | 19521 (7382) | 16:1 | 85 | 0 |
| University of Malaya (1949) ** | 26,963 (8,900) | 12:1 | 60 | 0 |
| Universite de Djibouti (1999)* | 8000 (n/a) | 21:1 | n/a | 0 |
| University of Hargeisa (2000)* | 5000 (n/a) | 15:1 | 1 | 0 |
| Amoud University (1996)* | 4100 (n/a) | 19:1 | 1 | 0 |
| Admas University College (2006)* | <1000 (n/a) | 27:1 | 0 | 0 |

Table 2.1 Cont.

| Institution (year established) | Annual budget (Millions of US\$) | Per student expenditure (US\$) | Ranking (THE) | Ranking (Webometrics) |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Higher School of Economics, Russia (1992) ** | 45.5 | 2,843 | Not ranked | 726 |
| Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (1991) ** | 267 | 28,850 | 41 | 363 |
| Indian Institutes of Technology (first founded in 1950 in Kharagpur) ** | 123 | 4,400 | Not ranked | 1791 (365 for Bombay) |
| Monterrey Institute of Technology (1943) ** | 1150 | 10,200 | Not ranked | 799 |
| National University of Singapore (1980) ** | 1370 | 39,000 | 34 | 86 |
| Pohang University of Science and Technology (1987) ** | 220 | 70,000 | 28 | 609 |
| Pontifical Catholic University of Chile (1882)** | 453 | 20,500 | Not ranked | 799 |
| Shanghai Jiao Tong University (1896) ** | 700 | 16,300 | Not ranked | 83 |
| University of Chile (1842) ** | 520 | 17,000 | Not ranked | 221 |
| University of Ibadan (1962)** | 47 | 2,390 | Not ranked | 3411 |
| University of Malaya (1949) ** | 271.6 | 14,000 | Not ranked | 707 |
| Universite de Djibouti (1999)* | 13.3 | 2,230 | Not ranked | 14587 |
| University of Hargeisa (2000)* | 2.0 | 400 (est.) | Not ranked | 17662 |
| Amoud University (1996)* | 2.0 | 400 (est.) | Not ranked | 17924 |
| Admas University College (2006)* | 1.0 | 400 (est.) | Not ranked | 18909 |

*Note: data reflects estimates from 2009-2013 and personal correspondence with universities in the Horn of Africa

**Data taken from Altbach and Salmi (2011)

Accumulation of talent. Universities who are able to attract the best students and staff tend to be better placed to develop toward a WCU (Salmi, 2009). Though the local market of brilliant minds is helpful for building up a first-rate research institution, pressure exists to recruit from international markets as a way to quickly boost the level of top talent where this resource is limited. Institutions that utilize English as an organization language are favored therefore due to the ability to recruit and integrate staff from higher ranked institutions, to access and understand research literature that exists mostly in English, and to publish in top English language journals.

This also means that for the developing world, a desire to participate in the global knowledge race will mean a push to internationalize their staff. This can be difficult given the difference in salary between SSA contexts and elsewhere. Table 2.2 shows salaries for academic staff from a variety of locations. A professor holding a doctoral degree at the University of Djibouti has a salary of approximately \$1800 per month, Somaliland salaries for full time academics are around \$800 per month, compared to an average American academic salary of around \$6000 per month (Djibouti Ministry of Education, 2009; Altbach et al, 2012; personal correspondence, 2014). Even if the cost of living is less in a context like the Horn of Africa— enabling them to retain local talent—the fact that they are not able to attract international academics limits their ability to advance in global higher education competition.

Another clear indicator of talent contributing toward the development of a WCU is the number of graduate students at an institution. This is a sign of the institution's ability to support advanced research teams. Top ranked institutions may have over 50%

Table 2.2

Academic professional salary range in select countries (Altbach et al, 2012)

| <u>Country</u> | <u>Entry</u> | <u>Average</u> | <u>Top</u> |
|---------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| Armenia | 405 | 538 | 665 |
| Russia | 433 | 617 | 910 |
| China | 259 | 720 | 1,107 |
| Somaliland † | 600 | 690 | 1,200 |
| Ethiopia † | 864 | 1,207 | 1,580 |
| Kazakhstan | 1,037 | 1,553 | 2,304 |
| Latvia | 1,087 | 1,785 | 2,654 |
| Mexico | 1,336 | 1,941 | 2,730 |
| Czech Republic | 1,655 | 2,495 | 3,967 |
| Turkey | 2,173 | 2,597 | 3,898 |
| Colombia | 1,965 | 2,702 | 4,058 |
| Brazil | 1,858 | 3,179 | 4,550 |
| Djibouti** † | 2,591 | 3,180 | 3,769 |
| Japan | 2,897 | 3,473 | 4,604 |
| France | 1,973 | 3,484 | 4,775 |
| Argentina | 3,151 | 3,755 | 4,385 |
| Malaysia | 2,824 | 4,628 | 7,864 |
| Nigeria | 2,758 | 4,629 | 6,229 |
| Israel | 3,525 | 4,747 | 6,377 |
| Norway | 4,491 | 4,940 | 5,847 |
| Germany | 4,885 | 5,141 | 6,383 |
| Netherlands | 3,472 | 5,313 | 7,123 |
| Australia | 3,930 | 5,713 | 7,499 |
| United Kingdom | 4,077 | 5,943 | 8,369 |
| Saudi Arabia | 3,457 | 6,002 | 8,524 |
| United States | 4,950 | 6,054 | 7,358 |
| India | 3,954 | 6,070 | 7,433 |
| South Africa | 3,927 | 6,531 | 9,330 |
| Italy | 3,525 | 6,955 | 9,118 |
| Canada | 5,733 | 7,196 | 9,485 |

Notes. Dollar values in PPP.

* Somaliland data retrieved from data on Somalia as a whole.

**Djibouti data retrieved from personal correspondence.

†Horn of Africa country.

of their student population in graduate studies (see Table 2.3). HOA universities do not fit this characteristic either, with less than three percent of the student body in any of their graduate programs. However, it is noteworthy to consider the fact that graduate programs

have been recently initiated. This shows that HOA leaders are committed to growth in this area.

Table 2.3

Percentage of graduate students at selective universities(Altbach and Salmi, 2011)

| <u>Institution</u> | <u>% of Graduate Students</u> |
|------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Indian Institute of Technology–Bombay | 58 |
| Pohang University of Science and Technology | 55 |
| Shanghai Jiao Tong University | 42 |
| Ibadan University | 37 |
| Hong Kong University of Science and Technology | 36 |
| University of Malaya | 33 |
| National University of Singapore | 23 |
| Higher School of Economics | 15 |
| University of Chile 15 | 15 |
| Monterrey Institute of Technology | 14 |
| Pontifical Catholic University of Chile | 13 |
| Université de Djibouti* | 0.5 |
| University of Hargeisa* | 1 |
| Amoud University* | 3 |
| Admas University College* | 0 |

*Note: data reflects estimates from 2013, institutional document analysis, and personal correspondence with HOA administrators

**Data taken from Altbach and Salmi (2011)

Favorable governance. Altbach and Salmi’s (2011) define favorable governance as “appropriate regulatory framework, strong and inspiring leadership, and adequate management [that will] significantly influence the ability of research universities to prosper” (p. 331). The amount and type of leadership that is necessary (or desired) by academic staff is debated as a managerial class of academic staff arises (Dearlove, 1997; Stewart, 2007; Lauter, 2002; Bollier, 2002). Clearly however, with the change toward mass education, high associated cost of higher learning, and tightening of government resources to fund institutions, this is a critical time for leadership to find balance between

being innovators of efficiency, marketization, and production of the academic product without neglecting to guard basic values of respect, academic freedom, and collegiality (Shattock, 2002; Winter, 2009; Dearlove, 1997).

Salmi's conceptualization of favorable governance focuses not only on the internal management of universities but on the national governance structures they fall under, especially in international contexts. These external frameworks guard academic freedom, ensure stability for pursuing patents, criticizing government and using knowledge in the local context, and sufficiently partnering with higher education to find funding, both internally and externally (Salmi, 2009). Leadership in HOA public governance of tertiary education has had many issues. Frequent changeover, no public administration experience, no organizational management training, and a highly centralized structure have all limited the efficiency and positive development of the organization. Other, darker issues, such as accusations of nepotism, fraud, and theft will not even be covered in this analysis, but will need to be addressed by local stakeholders of institutions. Contrastingly, for emerging institutions, some researchers have shown that academic workers tend to be more favorable of leadership even though they enjoy less personal freedom in their work (Locke, Cummings, and Fisher, 2011). So, though some aspects of governance may be lacking competency in this context, it may have little effect on faculty employment considerations and job satisfaction.

Diversification. Another model for understanding the context of WCUs is through the diversification of higher education institutions and mandates. As mentioned earlier, HOA institutions have a difficult time comparing with institutional characteristics of schools working toward WCU status. Massification is again at the heart of this trend of

stratifying and diversifying the types, values, and purposes of specific institutions due to the mandate on systems of education to select the best students for the highest levels of advanced education (McCormick and Zhao, 2010). However, critics suggest that higher levels of vertical differentiation in a system may not promote the educational quality (by virtue of specialization) that is hoped for (Teichler, 2008).

The Carnegie foundation's classification system of the early 1970s was an effort to give researchers of higher education a model from which comparative education inquiries could be made. This reflected the diversified California higher education system developed by Clark Kerr (McCormick and Zhao, 2010). Like rankings, the danger classification brings include limiting perspectives on what is right for an institution; basing categories off of static past phenomena that might not represent the dynamic reality of higher education today; trade-offs among conflicting goals; and, difficulty with novel methods of organization within a system (McCormick and Zhao, 2010). The Carnegie foundation's "basic" classification includes the following types of institutions: Associate's Colleges, Doctorate-granting Universities, Master's Colleges and Universities, Baccalaureate Colleges, Special Focus Institutions, and Tribal Colleges. This classification system is specific to the United States. In HOA, institutions generally follow their colonial heritage (French, Italian, or English) and efforts to harmonize curriculum and diplomas across university networks internationally (Shabani, 2013).

In SSA, diversification and massification of higher education has resulted in the expansion of private institutions. A positive result of this type of diversification has been increased access for women (Onsongo, 2007). For studies into academic staff in peripheral universities in SSA, private higher education may have significant data for

institutions that are similar in characteristics to the universities of HOA, especially where government financing of higher education is impossible (Mogadishu, Somaliland, Puntland, etc.) (see Ishengoma, 2007; Obasi, 2007; etc.). Some of these institutions are funded by religious denominations as in the case of Tanzania (Ishengoma, 2007) or by market demand for access (Mabizela, 2007; Obasi, 2007; Nwenke, 2008). Mabizela (2007) argues specifically that newer generation private higher education institutions (like that of HOA) are a “direct consequence of the hegemonic neo-capitalist and neo-liberal post cold war social context” (p. 22). As argued later in this review, World Bank policies of structural adjustment and privatization acted as external forces of development in this sector. However, in Nigeria for example, internal forces such as “the inability of public universities to cope with increasing demands for admission; inability of the governments to fund expansion; the concomitant falling standards in public universities; frequent closures and unstable academic calendar due to staff and students’ unrest” played a key role in the development of private higher education as well (Obasi, 2007, p. 42).

Institutional diversification through privatization creates a significant concern for some scholars (Altbach, 1999). Two chief concerns are that these institutions will be outside of accountability to their community and will not be under the quality control systems of the governing authorities. Mabizela (2007) suggests a strong private-public partnership is needed for delivering quality higher education to students. According to him, private higher education institutions’ responsibilities include: 1) Complying with government regulations; 2) Competing well with public universities; 3) Actively assisting in community development issues; 4) Absorbing demand not only by admitting students

rejected by public universities but by attracting students who actively choose private education over public; 5) Continuing to admit women and other disadvantaged populations; and 6) Continuing to be open to 'life-long' learners. Governments' part in this public-private partnership is to assure access of qualified applicants to higher education, assure quality of the private higher education sector to protect consumers, facilitate the movement of students from the various institutions in the system, and to incorporate private higher education into government planning (Mabizela, 2007; Njuguna Ng'ethe, Subotzky, and Afeti, 2008).

Ranking systems and league Tables. International and national ranking systems are a part of the global competition of knowledge societies (Salmi, 2009; Hazelkorn, 2009). Consumers, funders, governments, and employers use these competitive 'scores' to make judgments about the quality and efficiency of institutions without really understanding the measures that go into developing the rank (Tofalis, 2012). Salmi's (2009) WCU model is based off of characteristics that help to define these rankings for institutions. Table 2.4 shows the weight given to the different measures of two of the most popular ranking systems, *Times Higher Education World University Rankings* (THE) and the *Academic Ranking of World Universities* (ARWU) compiled by the Shanghai Jiao Tong University and now maintained by the Shanghai Ranking Consultancy. These rankings reflect the importance of research to the score of each university. THE also incorporates a professional survey but isn't clear what criteria academics use to 'peer review' their ranking of universities (Ioannidis, Patsopoulos, Kavvoura, Tatsioni, Evangelou, Kouri, Contopoulos-Ioannidis, and Liberopoulos, 2007).

Table 2.4
Ranking criteria for two major systems.

| <u>Times Higher Education Ranking-QS</u> | | |
|------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|
| <u>Criteria</u> | <u>Indicator</u> | <u>Weight</u> |
| Industry Income – innovation | Research income from industry (per academic staff) | 2.50% |
| International diversity | Ratio of international to domestic staff | 3% |
| | Ratio of international to domestic students | 2% |
| | Reputational survey (teaching) | 15% |
| Teaching – the learning environment | PhDs awards per academic | 6% |
| | Undergrad. admitted per academic | 4.50% |
| | Income per academic | 2.25% |
| | PhDs/undergraduate degrees awarded | 2.25% |
| Research – volume, income and reputation | Reputational survey (research) | 19.50% |
| | Research income (scaled) | 5.25% |
| | Papers per research and academic staff | 4.50% |
| | Public research income/ total research income | 0.75% |
| Citations – research influence | Citation impact (normalized average citation per paper) | 32.50% |
| <u>Shanghai Jaio University Ranking System</u> | | |
| <u>Criteria</u> | <u>Indicator</u> | <u>Weight</u> |
| Quality of Education | Alumni of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals | 10% |
| Quality of Faculty | Staff of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals | 20% |
| | Highly cited researchers in 21 broad subject categories | 20% |
| Research Output | Papers published in Nature and Science* | 20% |
| | Papers indexed in Science Citation Index-expanded and Social Science Citation Index | 20% |
| Per Capita Performance | Per capita academic performance of an institution | 10% |

Notes. THE retrieved from <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/2013-14/world-ranking/methodology>; Shanghai Jaio University Ranking System retrieved from <http://www.shanghai-ranking.com/ARWU-Methodology-2011.html>

Scholars have attributed the rise of ranking systems to the global massification of higher education (Albach, 2013; Hazelkorn, 2009; Teichler, 2008). SSA, on the cusp of

mass higher education, doesn't have any institutions that appear on global rankings of the top one-hundred universities. For example, in 2012 for THE, Africa had four institutions in the top 400 in the world. All of them in South Africa, with University of Cape Town the highest ranked at 113. Universities are excluded from this particular ranking if their publication rate was less than 200 articles per year. Peripheral institutions like those of HOA rarely appear in systems that use filters like these due to relatively low amount of resources, smaller institutional size, or teaching focus of academics that detracts from incentive to publish. One of the only places you will find institutions of HOA ranked is in regional 'league Tables' or a system that uses mostly 'web influence' based analysis that is able to account for any 'university' that has at least a website. A few HOA institutions' composite scores at such a website—incorporating their web presence, 'impact', 'openness', and 'excellence'—puts them around 15,000 – 20,000th place out of around 20,000 globally in 2012 (Webometrics, 2012). Needless to say, HOA academic staff aren't touting their score on local television. So why even take interest in ranking systems? Does the growth of these rankings have any effect on higher education in HOA or SSA? Hazelkorn (2009) argues that with the push for knowledge based economic development, "High-ranked and not-ranked, international facing and regionally-focused, all institutions have been drawn into the global knowledge market, challenging underpinning assumptions about (mass) higher education" (p. 4). Thus, the academic workforce may have to come to grips with this reality as they seek to put themselves on the same level as other WCUs who do make the list. As Stolz, Hendel, and Horn (2010) assert:

[Ranking systems] have ‘‘cemented the notion of a world university market’’ ... in which higher education systems and higher education institutions are measured according to their relative standing on a global scale, thus introducing the notion of competition among higher education institutions as a new paradigm in most countries. (p. 509)

Scholars have four general criticisms of higher education ranking systems. First, they make a philosophical criticism that the encroachment of the ‘market’ on higher education policy and development will deter academic freedom and scientific inquiry (Deem, Mok, and Lucas, 2008; Hazelkorn, 2009; Stolz, Hendel, and Horn, 2010). Second, there is a criticism that the wide variety of ranking systems, both local and internationally, have unclear ranking methods which makes it difficult to compare diverse institutions especially internationally (Westerheijden, Federkeil, Cremonini, Kaiser, and Beerkens-Soo, 2011; Tofallis, 2012; Wende, 2008). Third, there is a criticism that the rankings are heavily weighted toward a specific type of ‘research university’ and neglects the values of other tertiary education institutions that may have a high quality according to the specific purposes and functions of the institution (Altbach 2012; Wende, 2008;). And finally, it is questionable whether the rankings actually help to improve the quality of the institutions measured (Wende, 2008; Altbach, 2006b; Hazelkorn, 2009). Yet, as most scholars suggest, growing participation in the global ‘knowledge’ economy will mean that eventually, institutions in SSA will come face to face with the pressures of ranking if they aren’t already being defined by the way these instruments measure ‘quality’ higher education.

Quality assurance. Ranking universities is not the only control for institutional quality in the global higher education system. Governments and organizations also use internal and external quality examiners that can assure the value of the educational institution to the community. This brings academic staff under the scrutiny of organizational development specialists, accreditation boards, or government oversight (Materu, 2007). Yet, as suggested in the introduction to this section, many scholars struggle to define ‘quality’ (Harvey and Williams, 2010; Materu, 2007; Bunting and Cloete, 2004).

Institutions often use internal measures and studies to make decisions for the improvement and development of their systems. However, there is increasing pressure to develop external accountability measures that justify the public investment in their higher education sector (Materu, 2007; Reisberg 2011; Kogan, 2004). The problem with external review of universities and their staff is that they often miss the qualitative data that shapes a higher education environment in favor of performance indicators (publications per academic, PhDs awarded, etc.) (Kogan, 2004). Along this line of thought for academic staff, Reisberg (2011) has suggested “although ‘globalization’ and the resulting mobility of individuals, institutions, and activities underscore the growing importance of international benchmarks and standards for higher education, quality management has to remain a largely local endeavor” (p. 143). It is this discussion between the external and internal forces that will need to be brought to bear on an investigation of the academic staff views in a context like HOA.

Summary. In this section the literature outlining the basic definitions of quality, diversification, and ranking that takes place in higher education internationally has been

reviewed. Key debates have been highlighted around quality assurance and ranking that many scholars find problematic to the continuing development of true ‘quality’ in the higher education sector. It is important for these issues to be well understood by key stakeholders in the development of national systems of higher education. This study’s primary research questions revolve around the academic professional conceptualization of these issues for a peripheral institution. In the next section, the economic response to mass higher education for SSA is considered.

Economic Responses to Massification in Higher Education in LEDCs

Rate of return. Higher education has not been universally supported in the international educational development scholarship for LEDCs’ systems. Psacharopoulos (1972, 1986, and 2004) has been a leading author in educational development for the last forty years. His work shaped significant policy directions in educational development. As an economist at the World Bank, he helped develop rate of return analyses to show that investment in primary education had a higher *social* rate of return compared to tertiary education. It is not that he didn’t, at various points, communicate the significant value of higher education, both for public and private benefit. It is merely that the relative value of basic education over higher education is where educational development agendas felt they could receive the most economic return for their financial investment. For example, in 1972, he argued that the higher education sector has a significant private and social benefit that is greater than other physical capital investments. This was not a strong argument *for* public investment in higher education *over* or *equal to* more basic education, but potentially, a stronger public investment than other sectors (roads, ports, etc.). Subsequently, Psacharopoulos (1986) reiterated that greater higher education

investment may not be advisable in LEDC contexts because the “real priority for educational expansion may lie in the lower levels of education.” (Psacharopoulos, 1986, p. 564).

Then in 2004, Psacharopoulos and Patrinos updated their rate of return analysis. Here they included statistical data from over ninety countries. They reiterate the relative importance of investment in primary education but include the caveat that, “in the updated data set the private returns to higher education are increasing” (Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2004, p. 112). The strength of their research has been its ability to communicate to policy makers about the relative importance of educational investments in comparison to other types of public ventures that are more physical in nature. However, a significant shortcoming they allude to is the inability of their statistical analysis to correctly account for all the social benefits of the tertiary educational process. This point is exacerbated by admittedly problematic sampling, especially in LEDCs. Other authors have supported the idea that it is difficult for these empirical, numerical analyses to rightly compare the complex educational planning necessary for the local African contexts surveyed (Altbach et al, 2012; Mok, 2000; RIHE, 2007). This reality has opened the door for more qualitative studies of LEDC educational contexts in order to more fully represent the costs and benefits of the various levels of educational experiences for youth. A question often posed by scholars is how will movement toward mass higher education be funded in countries that are struggling financially and have other pressing concerns both educationally and otherwise (health, infrastructure, etc.) (Bloom and Sevilla, 2004)?

Balancing economic and social benefits. Scholars of World Bank publications in 2000 and 2002 support a shift away from merely rate of return justifications for educational investment and have been often cited in literature as ‘water-shed’ documents for renewed interest in higher education. The report, *Higher Education in Developing Countries: Peril and Promise*, co-directed by David Bloom, a Harvard economist, focused on privatization and market reform for higher education development. The authors of this document assert, “while the benefits of higher education continue to rise, the costs of being left behind are also growing. Higher education is no longer a luxury: it is essential to national social and economic development” (World Bank, 2000, p. 20). Their argument is based on expanding economic frameworks beyond rate of return analysis, because a highly educated population is “well positioned to be economic and social entrepreneurs, having a far-reaching impact on the economic and social well-being of their communities” (World Bank, 2000, p. 39). The “social well-being” and “far-reaching impact” have been difficult to quantify historically and need more research to describe in the various contexts where higher education expansion is taking place (Bloom and Sevilla, 2004; CHET, 2012).

In a second World Bank publication entitled, *Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education* (2002), the authors continued the argument that the 2000 publication started. Here the authors state, “strengthening the capacity of tertiary education institutions to respond flexibly to the new demands of knowledge societies will increase their contribution to poverty reduction through the long-term economic effects and the associated welfare benefits that come from sustained growth” (p. xxxi). The authors of this document—directed by Jamil Salmi—focus on an economic development

discourse including a system of mass higher education in LEDCs. Similar to Trow's (1974) analysis on America's movement toward a 'mass' education system, they see the undergirding pressures for change in LEDCs to be, "the spread of economic liberalism, growing political pluralism, and a rising public demand for tertiary education" (World Bank, 2002, p. 69). The authors belie their market orientated outlook by their recommendations for more links with local economic drivers, less state control over the financing and governing of universities, and promotion of corporate-like structures for the management of the educational 'products' of universities.

These recent balancing trends of higher education as an economic driver as well as a social benefit can be seen in Pillay's book, *Higher Education Financing in East and Southern Africa* (2010). His recommendations for financing reform in the region include more private-public partnerships, departmental differentiation in government funding favoring programs with higher social rates of return (i.e. education, medicine), and cost-sharing with students. These certainly show a 'market' oriented outlook. However, in reporting on the significant growth of private education in the East and Southern African region he is concerned because "the value of higher education for economic growth and broader social and sustainable development has not yet been fully recognized by African governments" (p. 4). This echoes the blended discourse of market and social benefits discussed in The World Bank publications reviewed. For example, to address the issue of private education quality and accountability, Pillay noted and encouraged the "dual-track" system that exists in many public universities. Within this system, regular students who qualified for "normal" entrance into a program are funded by the government and a parallel group of tuition paying students is also accepted who wouldn't have normally

met the requirements of the system. This brings in the funds that might have gone to a private system to help with the budget deficits of the public system.

Another book representative of the balance of market and social benefits to Higher education is Johnstone's, *Financing Higher Education* (2008). Here the author endeavors to show the state of "cost-sharing" from an international comparative stance. He states, "The fundamental condition of higher education...is dominated by the radically diverging trajectories of higher education costs and available governmental revenues, underscoring the worldwide search for other-than-governmental revenue sources for higher education" (p. xv). Johnstone speaks directly into the reality of HOA as he considers this "austerity" debate to be "especially felt in low income countries that are still trying to change from 'elite' to 'mass' tertiary-level participation, at the same time as they are trying to become more economically competitive in an increasingly global economy" (p. 5). Evidence provided in his book shows that 'free' higher education still limits equity and access of marginalized populations due to the limited number of places available for students who qualify (see Altbach, 1999). Ultimately, students from higher socio-economic classes have the extra resources necessary to gain private tutoring, books, and thus, advantages on competitive exams. Thus, Johnstone suggests that a balanced system—that takes into account both the significant role of the market and state in mass higher education financing—is necessary for national economic growth, fair distribution of resources, and considerations of access and equity.

The market and the professoriate. Clark's book, *Creating Entrepreneurial Universities* (1998) and its successor *Sustaining Change in Universities: Continuities in Case Studies and Concepts* (2004), brings the discussion of the market and university to

the role of the academic professional. His scholarship initially focused on case studies of twenty-seven European institutions about which, Shattock (a close coworker) claimed Clark “had undoubtedly a fascination with the restrictions – financial, cultural and organizational – that appeared to be imposed on the typical European university” (Shattock, 2010, p. 265). Clark’s five characteristics for “entrepreneurial” universities are “diversified financial base, strengthened steering core to make policy, expanded outreach periphery, bolstered academic heartland, and integrated entrepreneurial culture” (as cited in Levy, 2006, p. 114). As competition for resources from state and private sources intensifies and student tuition rates continue to rise, Clark’s ideas suggest that a change of core identity is needed in faculty that aligns them more with the market than before. Though this work focused on top-tier research institutions—which have deeply established traditions as universities and not corporations—the role they play in developing standards for broader academia should not be overlooked. An entrepreneur (at least a successful/rich one) is the pinnacle of super-heroes in the ‘market’ world. It is this identity that Clark suggests is necessary (at least in part) for the twenty-first century academic.

To this point, in their edited book, *The Changing Face of Academic Life*, Enders and de Weert (2009) analyze the forces affecting the professoriate in Western Europe. They isolate five “decisive drivers: 1) massification; 2) expansion of research; 3) growing emphasis on the societal relevance of higher education and research; 4) processes of globalization and internationalization; and, 5) policies and practices towards marketization and managerialism” (p. 253). Enders and de Weert see two narratives prevalent in academic writing about the profession. First, there is a narrative that dictates

knowledge as the newest driver of economic and social development of nations. Within such a world, who would be better placed than the academic professionals, experts at discovering and disseminating new ideas? Yet, Enders and de Weert see a second narrative, one that is concerned that the professoriate is a profession in decline and being over-run by political and economic forces to the detriment of learning and academic freedom. The next section of this essay will draw on Enders and de Weert's (2009) "second narrative."

'Marketized' higher education critics. Many Higher education scholars are concerned about the changes happening to the academic profession due to external and internal forces as a result of massification. This section seeks to address the scholars who have taken a critical stance toward marketization, increased accountability, Western academic dependency, and some forms of internationalization. Most of these authors relate these trends with neoliberalism or Western dominance of educational development discourses. It is fitting here to offer some definitions of terms used. "Marketization" is a broad term that encapsulates both managerialism and privatization but specifically refers to the exposure of public services or goods to market forces (i.e. competitive private contracts, cost-sharing, relevance of instruction to the private sector, etc.). "Privitization" refers to the movement away from state control, in this case, of the product and finance of higher education. "Managerialism" for higher education refers to the movement toward a management class of individuals at a university who have authoritative responsibility for the functioning of the institution in place of the academic workers themselves. In this study to assess the extent to which academic staff in peripheral higher education adhere to international quality standards, it is important to also assess the extent to which they

associate these standards with the economic pressures of external funding bodies (EU, WB, USAID, etc.).

Especially in the US, marketization of academic work is met with significant criticism. Bollier (2002) and Lauter (2002) are examples of two scholars who are critical of market ideology being utilized to reform universities. Bollier (2002) boldly asserts, "As we in the academy begin to use business-speak fluently, we become accustomed to thinking in commercialized terms about education. We talk no longer as public intellectuals, but as entrepreneurs" (p. 22). Lauter's piece compares the mismanagement and subsequent disciplinary action against the University of Adelphi to the debacle and mismanagement of the private corporation Enron. He argues that the prevalent ideology of both, admittedly extreme cases, should not be analyzed simply as cases of bad management practices but as institutions functioning within a prevalent ideology. Lauter suggests that the marketization or corporatization of university management should be looked at critically "because the unalloyed promotion of the free market as the standard of value has, as Adelphi and Enron make clear, led neither to truth seeking nor to sound education" (p. 32).

Where Lauter's and Bollier's pieces represented more polemic discourses on the encroachment of market forces on academia, Currie (1998) is an example of peer-reviewed research into the views of faculty on this issue. She agrees that "a shift from elite to mass higher education is producing radical changes at universities" (p. 15). However, she argues that governments are the chief source of institutional pressure for change by demanding market-like accountability and measureable output. Her contribution to the debate explored and compared the views of American and Australian

academics with data previously collected on Canadian and New Zealand academics. In question were faculty views toward a “performativity” attitude in university accountability structures. “Performativity” is described as the process of “government ministers or legislators...attempting to increase productivity through regulatory mechanisms including performance indicators and quality assurance exercises” (p. 19). Her data showed both quantitatively and qualitatively that a majority of faculty considered that their institutions “are becoming more corporate, more technocratic, more utilitarian, and far more concerned with selling products than with education” (p. 26). Therefore, Currie warns that “without more awareness and organized resistance to the globalization agenda that links universities to markets, the result will be a greater shift in faculty expectations from ‘scholar’ to ‘entrepreneur’” (p. 28). This is again a key auxiliary—similar to Bollier above and in contrast to the ‘entrepreneurial’ language of Clark—the identity of the scholar is under pressure to change in the context of mass higher education. She suggests more research is needed into the relationship between performance and the accountability techniques used to measure academic output. Specifically, how faculty morale is correlated with the type of accountability used in an institution.

Henkel (2009) is an example of a third scholar who has highlighted neo-liberal forces in academic faculty identity formation. Henkel argues that market orientation and academic capitalism have dynamically changed the identity formation of new faculty: “The developments [of academic identity shift] have been taken furthest where the influence in governments of neo-liberalism and new public management are strongest” (p. 90). Henkel’s original work, reproduced and expanded in this chapter contribution,

was an ethnographical study of biological scientists and science policy in the United Kingdom (2005). She is critical of how policy changes, and the ideologies associated with them, have changed the power structure of universities and thus the institution in which academic identity is formed. She states, "Probably the most significant change is in the role and power of the institution in higher education, as the mediator of national policies and the coordinator of academic participation in various markets" (p. 90). Given that her sample was limited to biological sciences in the United Kingdom, her work is not generalizable to SSA.

Here is where Altbach (2006) has made significant contribution to scholarship on marketization and privatization of higher education *internationally*. He takes up the issue of "entrepreneurialism" in academia by reviewing Clark's (2004) book. Clark focused specifically on European universities, where Altbach expands the consequences of his ideology to LEDCs and gives voice to some pointed questions for non-Western contexts:

Who in this entrepreneurial universe will provide instruction to large numbers of students in mass higher education systems around the world? In developing countries, particularly, where enrollments continue to expand rapidly, how will entrepreneurialism solve the crisis of expansion? Clark does not focus on the rapidly expanding private higher education sector in many countries, a sector that has largely developed to serve mass demand for access, nor does he discuss the relatively unselective public universities that exist around the world. Is it realistic for institutions like these to become entrepreneurial—or, for that matter, is it desirable for them to distance themselves from their mission to provide wide access to postsecondary education? What responsibility lies with the state to

support higher education for the public good? What aspects of the academic tradition are worth keeping regardless of the growing demands of the market? (Altbach, 2006a, p. 934)

One wonders if publication of Altbach's edited book, *Private Prometheus: Private Higher Education and Development in the Twenty-First Century* (1999), one year after Clark's initial publication was an attempt to answer some of these very questions. Altbach asks, "Will private higher education be so dominated by the market and the need to serve immediate needs that it will not be able to share the traditional commitment of higher education to the pursuit of knowledge and truth and to the values of academic freedom and free inquiry?" (p. 14). At stake, it seems, are some of the key values and roles of faculty.

Another example of scholarship critical of the role of The World Bank in the promotion of educational reform of universities in LEDCs is Collins and Rhoads (2010). Here the authors use a case study of the Ugandan and Thai higher education systems to confront a global power dynamic. The aim of their study was "to better understand the role the World Bank potentially plays in producing and/or reproducing global inequities through its higher education policies" (Collins and Rhoads, 2010, p. 182). This clearly shows their critical stance toward the hegemonic power of the Bank and its neoliberal values, including marketization of higher education. They desire to further the dialogue about its 'real' historical influence, and then give evidence through two case studies of Uganda and Thailand. They purposefully chose these two locations because of the difference in colonial experience between the two—Uganda having been colonized by a European power but not Thailand—but both having received World Bank loans for

higher education. The authors conclude that though the World Bank has improved its policies toward balanced educational development lending (discussed above); it is reluctant to admit its past responsibilities in under-developing/underperforming countries. They conclude that the World Bank needs to be held more accountable for its impact on higher education policy in places like Uganda and Thailand.

Mok (2000) addresses another aspect of marketization on mass higher education in an era of limited resources. His article focuses on the growth of corporate style quality assurance and management in the City University of Hong Kong (CityU) and National University of Singapore (NUS). He first reviews what he calls a “tide” of managerialism that has swept across western higher education such that “university professors must participate in the education market by selling/marketizing their skills and knowledge, and institutions of higher learning adopt an entrepreneurial approach to making themselves more competitive in the marketplace” (Mok, 2000, p. 151). However, in studying the processes by which CityU and NUS evaluate their institutions’ quality in comparison to experience with western institutions, he found that there was less western managerial influence than expected. He suggests, “These two examples point to the fact that not all nations have responded to globalization in the same way because of the specificities of national history, politics, culture, and economy” (p. 174).

Marketization of higher education has also been addressed by scholars highlighting specific issues for SSA (Sall, 2004; Alidou, Caffentzis, and Federici, 2008; Mamdani, 2008; Obamba, 2009; Ogachi, 2011). In SSA, Obamba (2009) found that “Marketization therefore suitably satisfies the universities’ natural instincts for economic survival at a time of severe financial distress and stiffer competition” (p. 125). However,

as Ogachi (2011) noted, the greater emphasis on market ‘ideologies’ in higher education has not produced a higher quality of education. For SSA, marketization, in some contexts has meant increasing teaching hours for lecturers because of changing institutional and work practices and a decreased emphasis on knowledge production or research. In response to these trends, some scholars such as Alidou, Caffentzis, and Federici (2008), suggest that, “To deny Africans [knowledge production] in this period in history is to condemn them to the fate of being the damned of the earth once more and to put the ability of Africans to manage their own resources in peril” (p. 61).

Summary. Massification of higher education around the world is forcing change on the traditional values, norms, and roles of professionals who work in this environment. It is diversifying higher education into stratified ‘haves’ and ‘have-nots,’ producing a highly competitive industry of advanced learning. One body of scholars is calling academia to embrace marketization, privatization, and more business-like culture. However, change does not come easily to long-established traditions, especially at the heart of higher education. Scholars who are critical of the international development agenda of multi-lateral agencies and the forces of marketization, entrepreneurialism, and neo-liberalism are important to review for research of factors affecting the quality of higher education today. The topics of educational financing structures, the role of the state in governance of universities, and faculty identity are all potentially salient issues for SSA. However, it is important to note that many of the studies and literature reviewed in this section have focused on the major trends in the academic profession in Western contexts or the ‘center’ of higher education hierarchy. Like Holland’s findings on Malawi or Mok’s research on South East Asia suggest, these debates and forces may have some

effect on faculty in SSA, however this will be a complex mixture of international and local forces that need more research to add to the empirical body of knowledge trying to understand the phenomena. The next section will review the international empirical surveys of the academic profession in order to situate the key units of comparative analysis in the Somaliland context.

The Academic Profession in SSA

Phillip Altbach has studied trends in international higher education for several decades. He suggests that global trends toward mass education, accountability, privatization, and marketization have defined the academic profession at the turn of the century (Altbach, 2002). These pressures have meant that the traditional roles, training, and characteristics of academic faculty internationally are in a state of flux (Altbach, Reisberg, Yudkevish, Androushchak, & Pacheco, 2012; Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). In Altbach's edited volume on the professoriate, *The decline of the Guru* (2002), he suggests that for peripheral institutions not at the center of Northern based academia, "the severity [of this crisis] may be especially great... where the traditional roles of the professoriate are often less well established, the financial and other resources less adequate" (Altbach, 2002, p. 3). He goes on to make a strong case for further research into "peripheral" institutions:

By the mid-1990s, 44 million of the world's 80 million postsecondary students were in developing or middle-income countries—despite the fact that only 6 percent of the population in these countries have attained postsecondary degrees, Further, many developing countries are building up large and complex academic systems, including research universities. Yet, very little is known about

the professionals who are responsible for teaching and research in these universities. (Altbach, 2002, p. 1)

This research into a peripheral institution like those of Somaliland represents an effort to mitigate the lack of knowledge on the profession in these contexts. In this section, four cross-national studies are reviewed on the professoriate and observations of major trends in the profession are reported. Then, various national studies are considered that have been used to compare to the international trends as exemplars for research into a specific context like HOA.

Cross-national studies. Globalization and internationalization of academic work is playing a major role in changing academics. Globalization for higher education is defined here as increasing movement toward international interconnectedness of ideas, research, educational products, and faculty culture. Internationalization is a movement to make the work of faculty relevant beyond local communities, to encourage the flow of knowledge workers across borders, and an effort to build global networks of education, knowledge, and research. Although global trends have been considered, most scholars recognize the significant diversity in the profession across regions, nations, within differing types of institutions in nations, and even across departments in universities themselves. As Mok (2000) concluded for the two closely related Asian contexts he studied (Malaysia and Singapore), "while there are clear globalization trends, especially in the economy and technology, the nation-state is still a powerful actor in shaping the nation's development and in resolving global-national tensions" (p. 174).

Scholars who have participated in cross-national studies of the professoriate often include sections related to the center and periphery of the global academic profession.

The center being the research universities in more economically developed regions and the periphery being the higher education systems that are less recognized for their research production, international rankings, and international influence. Because of the historical significance of the colonial era in the formation of higher educational systems in SSA, this scholarly discourse often arises in cross-national comparisons where systems in SSA are included.

Cross-national studies of the professoriate are characterized by a research method that mostly employs a common survey protocol in order to compare responses across groupings of countries, types of institutions, or characteristics of faculty (gender, age, level of schooling, etc.). Much of the labor in international surveys of faculty has been to understand the historical, political, and contextual factors common to various groupings of countries in order to correlate those factors with happenings in the academic profession. Surveys have been supported by interviews with key higher education professionals (teachers or administrators) in two of the cross-national studies (CAP, Paying the Professoriate) and with further national document analysis in the third (CHET).

Enders (2007), doing an extensive literature review in an effort to isolate key trends in the academic profession concludes with two overarching storylines. First, he says that “the changing nature and role of knowledge in society seem to be accompanied by changes in higher education” (p. 5). So, like the many authors who address higher education, the profession is denoted by “change,” mostly due to the expansion of knowledge as an economic driver in combination with the increasing demand for access. His second point is that “faculty are the heart and soul of higher education and research.

But they are not one heart and one soul...the idea that there is a single academic profession [is being] more and more contested” (p. 9). It is important, then, going forward to look carefully into the way “faculty” are defined in studies in order to make proper comparisons of empirical data across regional, national, and institutional boundaries.

Carnegie foundation study. The first example of a cross-national study on faculty is *The Academic Profession* (1994), published by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Boyer, Altbach, and Whitelaw reported data from close to 20,000 respondents in 14 countries and nearly every continent (except sub-Saharan Africa). The authors’ stated goal “was to learn more about the condition of the professoriate from a larger perspective and, in the process define priorities that could strengthen the academy worldwide” (p. 1). Significant assumptions made in the study were: 1) institutions surveyed were well established and funded, offering students at least a baccalaureate degree; 2) faculty respondents had some teaching or research responsibilities, and; 3) institutions and faculty names were randomly selected. The desire to represent the professoriate globally as *one* general unit with a common identity pervades the book. However, the authors, in their assumptions, had to greatly limit where and who they actually surveyed in order to narrowly constrain the profession into what they defined were its locations, actions, and functions. Thus, the survey is limited to the central, ‘premier’ institutions worldwide, excluding many periphery institutions. However, they still found significant variation across the profession and made efforts to group countries with similar characteristics in order to theorize about social trends. Topics covered in the study address issues of employment (professional activity, satisfaction, workload, participation in leadership, etc.), demographics (age, gender, etc.),

productivity (publications, students, etc.), and organization (governance, internationalization, relationship with society, etc.). Conspicuously absent from this research is data on faculty pay and compensation (see Altbach et al, 2012).

The ultimate goal of the study was to identify a set of questions about the professoriate that needed further research to address. The four questions were posed as follows: How will institutions of higher learning achieve both access and excellence; How can the university reorganize itself to achieve both efficiency and collegiality; How can both teaching and research be appropriately recognized and rewarded; and, How can scholars also harness their collective talents for the public good? (Boyer et al, 1994). These questions have been taken up in various studies that utilized the Carnegie data or used it as a comparative set for their own original research (i.e. Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999; Welch, 1997). This foundational study served as a basis for the longitudinal study that followed: *The Changing Academic Profession (CAP)* survey.

CAP. The CAP survey was undertaken by the Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE) at Hiroshima University in Japan (2007). This cross-national study was conducted in twenty-two countries, utilizing most of the same survey protocols as the Carnegie study in order to observe longitudinal trends in the professoriate. It included one country from SSA—albeit an outlier for the region—South Africa. The objective of the CAP survey was as follows: To what extent is the nature of academic work changing; What are the external and internal drivers of these changes; To what extent do changes differ between countries and types of higher education institutions; How do the academic professions respond to changes in their external and internal environment; What are the consequences for the attractiveness of an academic career; and, What are the

consequences for the capacity of academics to contribute to the further development of knowledge societies and the attainment of national goals? (CHERI, 2010)

Some changes isolated by the study were presented at a 2009 conference in Japan. Arimoto (2009) saw the social transitions from 1994 to 2007 from an industrial society to a “knowledge” society as foundational to the changes going on in the academic profession surveyed (RIHE, 2009). He focused on the transformation necessary in higher education to become more “knowledge exporting” rather than “knowledge importing.” Arimoto’s point was expanded upon by Teichler in the same conference report. He suggested that in the midst of this rapidly changing economic and social environment, the “details of the biography, employment and work [of academic professionals] are of the utmost importance for the proper functioning of academic work” (RIHE, 2009, p. 58). Like the Carnegie study of 1994, the CAP data focused on research universities in mostly middle to high development nations. Teichler’s analysis limited the data even further to five economically advanced countries: Australia, Germany, Japan, the UK, and the USA. Even when trying to limit the differences between national development and educational development indices, Teichler found significant variation in academic biographies, careers, and work. He concludes therefore that the “institutional frameworks for academic careers and for the employment and work characteristics are strongly shaped nationally” (p. 62).

Though the major bulk of scholarship isolated the significant variation between national data, which speaks to the growing diversity in higher education, a few overarching trends were also reported (RIHE, 2009). These include: a growing percentage of academic staff with higher degrees, especially doctorates; An increased

introduction of fixed-term appointments; high job satisfaction; increased cumbersome administrative processes and a top-down management style; increased pressures on faculty, especially on young faculty in the research arena; and, feminization, especially in countries such as the USA, the UK, Japan and Mexico (RIHE, 2008, p. 402-403).

Scholars have used the data from the CAP survey to address specific issues within the professoriate such as globalization, management, or governance. Bentley and Kyvik (2011) used data from thirteen of the CAP survey countries to speak to the academic workloads across national boundaries. Here too, in line with Teichler's analysis, they found that, though there is a prevalent idea of isomorphism inherent to globalization of the academic profession, significant variation was found even in the limited nature of the survey. Bentley and Kyvik attribute this more to the type of organizational management and structure of university systems within nations. In this, they are attempting to connect globalized management theories with the realities of academic employment traditions of countries.

Locke, Cummings, and Fischer (2011) used the CAP survey data in their edited book entitled, *Changing Governance and Management in Higher Education*. They hypothesized that "where governance is shared between institutional managers and academics themselves, faculty are more likely to report that the management of their university is consultative and feel they have primary influence over decisions on academic matters" (Locke et al, 2011, p. 371). The authors connected this self-determination with faculty satisfaction and career longevity, ultimately influencing quality of teaching, research, and service. The book employed scholars from individual countries to interpret data in comparison to the broader set. Locke et al. in concluding the

text, believed their hypothesis had merit with the exception that it only partially helped to explain the responses of academics in the CAP data set. They suggested, like many authors, that local conditions and historical circumstances had a high importance as well. One method they used to differentiate these contextual considerations was to suggest some were ‘emergent’ and others ‘mature.’ They found the data set more representative of their hypothesis in mature systems. Academics in emergent higher education systems tended to be more satisfied with less “primary influence,” an important caveat for a SSA research context like Somaliland.

Paying the professoriate. Altbach et al (2012), perhaps in an effort to account for lacking empirical data in the two previous cross-national studies, focused their research on a comparison of compensation, remuneration, and contracts for the professoriate. This study expanded research of the fourteen Carnegie study countries to twenty-eight countries on all continents. From SSA, Ethiopia and South Africa were included, albeit they represent two very different higher education systems in terms of educational quality. A common survey was employed in each country to enable cross-country comparisons. Again, like the cross-national studies above, most data reported was focused on the top institutions in each context in which faculty meet certain criteria for academic work defined by research and teaching. However, some effort was made to understand the private and peripheral institutions at which professors from primary universities ‘moonlight’ in order to supplement their salary. Admittedly, the authors were hard pressed to take account of this wide variation of supplemental data in the reporting of the ‘official’ salaries of academics. Nevertheless, the cross-national patterns that they found were: some disparity between the highest and lowest salary between countries; a

great variety in the fringe benefits of professors across countries; the rules for entry into, advancement, and to maintain a post in academia across countries was very complex; the academic profession was generally seen to be a stable job due to the nature of the employment contract; and, fulltime, tenure track positions are shrinking in number around the world in favor of more part-time or fixed-term employment.

It was assumed that the book's great strength would be the breadth of the study and the ability to make cross-national comparisons. This was not the case. The authors admit,

...that there is a great deal of complexity regarding total salary packages and that only limited generalizations are possible. Some cross-national patterns emerged, but it is clear that the realities of the academic profession remain embedded in national circumstances and result in increasingly varied patterns of salaries remuneration, and the terms and conditions of academic work” (p. 33).

The real strength of the book, then, is the case studies of the varied countries considered. The ability to compare new data with these case studies may be informative for continued exploration of higher education patterns for efficiency and development. An example apt for this essay is the case of Ethiopia. Ayalew (2012) provides rich data of the unfortunately abysmal state of the academic profession there. She concludes,

“given the expansion of the system and need for provision of quality education through better remuneration in particular, the current salary and benefit scheme fails to prevent faculty dissatisfaction and apathy; neither does it enable the existing faculty to live a life worthy of their professional status” (p. 133).

Questions linger of differences between the central institution of Addis Ababa University, and the more periphery institutions that would be considered part of HOA (Eastern Ethiopia). Are professors equally dissatisfied with the profession across the region?

Center for Higher Education Transformation. The Center for Higher Education Transformation (CHET), based in South Africa has specialized in cross-national studies on the continent, making their data important for comparative research in higher education scholarship for the region. Though the center focuses on organizational data, key indicators relevant to faculty have been collected as well (percent of faculty holding doctoral degrees, publication rates, average research budgets, etc.). Two studies are particularly salient for academic staff. The first looks at empirical data for the role higher education has in national development (Cloete, Bailey, Pillay, Bunting and Maassen, 2011) and the second focused their cross-national study on performance indicators in SSA higher education institutions (Bunting and Cloete, 2012). Both studies relied on interviews, statistics and document analysis of ‘flagship’ universities in eight African countries: Botswana, Tanzania (Dar es Salaam), Ghana, Mozambique (Eduardo Mondlane), South Africa (University of Cape Town), Uganda (Mekerere), Mauritius, and Kenya (Nairobi).

Bunting and Cloete’s (2012) study on performance indicators showed key indications of faculty output in ‘flagship’ universities in SSA. In general, outside of the University of Cape Town, academic staff do not have sufficient funding for research (<\$20,000 per year), are not able to publish in competitive journals at the benchmark rate (0.50 publication per year), and are not able to supervise new doctoral candidates through to graduation at an acceptable rate (<15% per academic faculty). However, five of the

eight flagship institutions are able to employ staff holding doctoral qualification at a benchmarked rate (>50%). The remaining universities, Eduardo Mondlane, Mekerere, and Mauritius, come close to the goal.

Research connecting these educational organizations to economic development and participation in the knowledge economy was the basis of the research done by Cloete et al (2011). Using the same data as the 2012 study, the South African researchers found: except for the University of Cape Town, the knowledge production output variables of the academic cores were not strong enough to enable universities to make a sustainable contribution to development; and, none of the universities in the sample seemed to be moving significantly from their traditional undergraduate teaching role to a strong academic core that could contribute to new knowledge production and, by implication, to development. (Cloete et al, 2011, p. 37)

The data collected by CHET is valuable for regional comparisons of higher educational institutions. Though this shows characteristics of input and output for academic staff, it does not measure the same type of professional information as the Carnegie or CAP survey data that assessed the views of academic staff on various employment issues (satisfaction, hours of work, etc.). Nevertheless, it forms an important guide for assessing parts of the higher education environment that Altbach and Salmi (2011) propose are key for developing a WCU. Are these the benchmarks of the flagship institutions of HOA, their leadership, and their academic staff? Are the goals of the institutions comparable? Where CHET research is helpful in understanding these performance indicators and the goals of flagship African institutions, it will be important

to compare the organizational differences that shape the characteristics of the academic profession in HOA.

Internationalization. The effect of internationalization on national systems of higher education has been highlighted by numerous authors. Topics considered include cross-border partnerships (Chapman, Cummings, and Postiglione, 2010; Samoff and Carrol, 2004), academic mobility (Welch, 1997; Musselin, 2004; Tremblay, 2005), and knowledge transfers (Teichler, 2004). When considering academic staff specifically, Welch (1997) considered the development of mass higher education to be strengthening the importance and breadth of the internationalization process. This is due to the increased demand for academic staff, especially in contexts where there are indigenous shortages. His review of the Carnegie survey data of the early 1990s showed that when the professoriate is delineated along indigenous and ‘paripatetic’ (expatriate) lines, significant differences of value and performance are shown. His research found that the differences had positive outcomes for staff who had international experiences.

Tremblay’s (2005) research into doctoral student migration and immigration also showed positive benefits for both sending and receiving contexts because of ‘novel ideas’ outside perspectives bring to receiving institutions, unburdening of the higher education sector in the sending community, and potential for remittances or knowledge transfer with returning academics. However, other authors caution that the internationalization of higher education, especially along the lines of research and institutional partnerships, could reintroduce colonial type dependencies (Samoff and Carrol, 2004) and focus on Western academic discourses rather than issues relevant to local African contexts (Teichler, 2004).

Another example of scholarship focused on the movement of academic staff in Africa is Cross and Rouhani (2004). They reviewed literature related to the flow of scholars and students into and out of the South African higher education system. Two studies formed the bulk of their empirical data: the South African Migration Project and the Education Policy Unit Study done at the University of Western Cape. What is evident in the studies and to the scholars is that, “the patterns of international exchange, inter-institutional cooperation, and staff and student mobility were shaped under colonialism and followed a colonial logic” (p. 237). This “logic” manifests itself today in the preference of South African universities and faculties to partner with European or American institutions instead of other African institutions. Cross and Rouhani conclude that an influx of students from other African nations desiring higher education in the South African system is creating pressure to better understand the flow of staff and international linkages that may be strategic for capturing this revenue in a strenuous economic environment.

For studies into the local academic profession in Somaliland or in HOA, internationalization will be an important topic to consider. For Somaliland, as stated earlier, few teachers or researchers have received their advanced degree locally. Other institutions in the region depend heavily on diaspora professors to both initiate, support, and work in the newly developing institutions of Hargeisa and Mogadishu. Further study to understand the flow of academic labor is necessary to correctly understand faculty characteristics, values and intentions. Welch’s (1997) analysis of the Carnegie survey showed that the non-indigenous professor was less likely to want to remain in the institution s/he currently served in and that there was an inconsistent level of satisfaction

among these professors across nations. What will external professional training mean for the lecturers in Somaliland, their performance, and job satisfaction?

Identity, attitudes, and values. Another area of study for the academic profession focuses on its core identity, attitudes, and values. These authors are grouped together because of how attention is given to the way current trends in higher education affect an individual's core nature. Some authors model the academic profession's values (Gappa, Austin, Thrice, 2005), some consider the changing identity of academics due to outside forces on higher education (Brennan, 2007; Henkel, 2009; Winter, 2009; Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999), and others consider current attitudes of faculty given changes in their profession (Fowler, 2005; Nixon, 1996). However, Clark's (1989; or Enders, 2007) caution to researchers of higher education is still pertinent today: that they occupy "small worlds, different worlds" (p. 7). Thus, a comparison of the identity, values, and attitudes of medical faculty in a cancer research center (i.e. Henkel, 2009) may have little in common with Somaliland academic staff in small, teaching centered, African universities. Yet, these studies are useful for comparing and understanding the institutional characteristics that support and develop the faculty or staff that work in them.

An important attitude characteristic for the productivity and employment outcomes of the professoriate is the level of stress academic staff face at work and the effect this has on job satisfaction, performance, and longevity. This specific attitude has been focused on by many in academic literature as well as the cross-national surveys of academics (Vardi, 2009; Rose, 2000; Abousarie, 1996; Copur 1990). Vardi (2009) considered the massification of higher education to be a key component of stress for the

academic. Within the context of a large Australian university, his findings showed that the added stress associated with increased growth in the sector adversely affected work performance. Somaliland is a good example of a growing higher education sector in which trained staffing resources have not kept pace with increasing access to higher education.

Conclusion

In this chapter, literature has been reviewed that frames the current knowledge on the academic profession and their views in the global arena. Consensus from nearly all authors shows that the chief driver of current issues in the academic profession in many LEDC contexts is derived from the growing student enrollment, number of institutions, and participation at this level of education. Although SSA still lags behind other regions of the world, global enrollment in higher education could be classified as ‘mass.’ This pressure on individual higher education systems and therefore the academic profession is forcing national debates on the ‘changing’ nature of the profession and the work of higher education in general. Where one thought on the changes taking place in academia considers the ‘knowledge’ workers to be well placed in a competitive world of ‘knowledge’ economies, another group of scholars are wary of how the traditional values will fit into the growing system. The old parable of ‘new wine’ in ‘old wineskins’ may be an apt description of many situations for the professoriate today. Yet, few studies look into faculty viewpoints on the issue of quality in light of the ‘mass’ era, especially in SSA.

The major international studies reviewed on the professoriate are mostly focused on the central regions of academia globally. The *Carnegie* study, the *CAP* study, and

Paying the Professoriate look only into a specific type of institution (research, doctoral granting, or ‘flagship’) leaving the very diverse and ‘mass’ systems of higher education focused on teaching lacking key data on the academic profession in their ‘peripheral’ institutions. Even the *CHET* study, which only considered African institutions, selected only the top institutions in eight national contexts. A perfect example of this in the HOA region is Ethiopia which has grown from two institutions to thirty in the last decade and where most often research such as the CHET study focus solely on the apex of this national system, Addis Ababa University. This has left room in the academic literature for studies into higher education quality and the academic profession in non-doctoral, low-research based institutions such as those in Somaliland.

For a context like the University of Hargeisa, Amoud University, and Admas University College, which are ‘remote’ in terms of the global higher education landscape, research that measures academic staff’s view of institutional quality advances knowledge in the field of international higher education. First, this case study shows one system’s professional response to massification in SSA. Second, this work further develops research tools for the region where more peripheral institutions need to be analyzed and supported through empirical data. These data inform organizational development and change. Third, this case may be insightful regarding the way remote higher education faculty access ‘central’ higher education knowledge and institutions. Finally, as globalization and internationalization of higher education goes forward, this research will not only be helpful to Somaliland, but to international partnering universities, NGOs, and aid organizations that are looking to strengthen higher education experiences for staff and students in Africa.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Methods

The following discussion is used to address the rationales and practices for the methods employed in this study. A description of the research site, methodological rationale, data collection strategies, and instrument protocols are included. Again, the purpose of this study is to determine academic staff perspectives of institutional quality in Somaliland. Specific questions that this research will address include: in what ways do academic staff define higher education quality in Somaliland; what are the factors academic staff view influencing the quality of education in Somaliland; and, what do academic staff perceive as indicators of quality higher education in Somaliland? In an effort to generate data representative of the entire Somaliland higher educational system and to gain deep understanding of academic professional views, a mixed-methods approach is employed (Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2009; Maxwell, 2005).

Research Context

The historical formation of the countries of the Horn of Africa (HOA) is an important factor for considering the current state of higher education quality. Somaliland higher education, in particular, has been defined by waves of influence during its pre-colonial, colonial, statehood, and post-civil war eras (Holland, 2010). Ultimately, these phenomena have led to Somaliland currently being defined by its low human development status, human capital flight, unrecognized international political status, and minimal economic activity due to poor infrastructure and lack of stable governance. Research into higher education in this context needs careful consideration of historical trends. Because of this, each of these eras is considered for its effect on higher education and this study.

Pre-colonial education. Education in pre-colonial Somaliland was either informal or focused mostly on religious education (Abdi, 1998; Lewis, 1993; Morah 2000). This type of education may have been appropriate for the mostly nomadic herdsmen of the region. Rodney (1974) suggests, “Altogether, through mainly informal means, pre-colonial African education matched the realities of pre-colonial African society and produced well-rounded personalities to fit into that society” (p. 239). Though this era did not produce a very literate population (5% by 1970; Bekalo, Brophy, and Welford, 2003), Somali intellectuals and leaders were often denoted by their strong oral competence in poetry and stories. Lewis (1993) suggests, “Every elder is expected to be able to hold an audience for hours on end with a speech richly laced by judicious proverbs and quotations from famous poems and sayings” (p. 50)

There are at least two ramifications of pre-colonial values for the educational landscape of Somaliland. First, individuals in the current system still place a high value on oral communication developed in the nomadic setting. However, population estimates show that Somaliland circa 2003 was only slightly less urban (45%) than overall Somalia in 2012 (48%) (CIA, 2012; Bekelo et al., 2003). With an urbanization rate of 3.79% change per year, Somaliland has switched from being mostly rural to mostly urban in the last ten years. The social value of oral histories, poetry, and prose developed in the pragmatism and prevalence of nomadic culture is being increasingly challenged in urban and professional settings. Secondly, pre-colonial Islamic religion and values play a central role in the educational sector (Morah, 2000). One of the only functional educational options for youth during the civil war were the informal Koranic schools. As a result of this value, nearly every higher education institution includes an Islamic/Arabic

studies department, mosques on campus, student Koranic recitations and clubs, and adherence to Islamic holidays.

Colonial education. Colonial rule of Somaliland has had significant effects on the current higher education landscape (Olden, 2008; Samatar, 2001; Abdi, 1998; Lewis, 1993). The region was colonized by the British Empire in the 1880s. Education over the colonial period “demonstrates a systematic conformity to the general colonial education system with imperialist governments training low-level administrative personnel to help them administer the colonial territory effectively” (Abdi, 1998, p. 331). However, no higher education institutions were initiated in Somaliland during the colonial.

Some Somalis, especially in the Northwest, resisted both colonialism and the ‘secular’ education systems associated with their administration. The most famous character for the Somaliland region was Mohammed Ibn Abdullah Hassan, dubbed the ‘Mad Mullah’ by the British Empire. His actions against external rule in the early 1900s and 1910s, often framed as a religious *jihad* against the infidels, resonated for a long time within the Somali national conscious (Olden, 2008; Jalata, 2013). Most community leaders have been deeply religious men who were negative toward colonial education, believing that ‘secular’ education would involve the conversion of children to Christianity (Samatar, 2001). However, resistance eventually waned and English language schools focused on primary education formed during the 1930s and 1940s.

An obvious ramification for the current landscape of higher education is that the official language of education is English. Though English dominance of higher educational globally may be more due to the prevalence of academic research and knowledge published in this language (Altbach & Salmi, 2011), in Somaliland where

university research is limited, English is seen as a language useful for securing better employment, a language of international trade, and a language of international cooperation. Another ramification is that many of the forms and language of higher education institutions have been adopted from British systems. For example, Somaliland uses the English term ‘lecturer’ when referencing their teaching professors. Another example is that institutions offer a four-year diploma compared to the three-year diploma offered in most French-based higher education systems. Other examples include choice of curricula, educational policies, and institutional forms that reflect the colonial link for Somaliland. The influence of colonial era was important, but not all encompassing. Evidence of more recent policies, post-colonial phenomena, and civil war are also very significant for the current higher education landscape.

Post-colonial education. Post-colonial education up until the civil war has seen a number of waves of influence affecting the current state of higher education in Somaliland. These include sub-eras of the first civil administrations of Somalia; the military administration of Siyad Barre; and the devolution into civil war. First, the proliferation of primary education flourished in the first administrations after colonialism up until the Ethiopian-Somali war of the 1970s, when economic regression meant a scaling back of government investment in this area (Abdi, 1998; Bekelo et al., 2003). This was supported by the transition from British and Italian administrations to local governance and the need for trained civil servants. Then, during the regime of Siyad Barre, the introduction of the Latin script for Somali language education and massive literacy campaigns also promoted the overall expansion of education in the region (Abdi, 1998). It was assumed that the common language, culture, and religion within the state of

Somali would be a strategic advantage for stemming conflict observed elsewhere in Sub-Saharan Africa. Samatar (2001) suggests,

Shared values across communities are the basis of civic bonds and trust in a society. But the state must take leadership in nurturing society-wide civic bonds...

I argue that the causes of the Somali calamity are: leaders' failure to nurture shared cultural and social commonalities and sectarian entrepreneurs' instrumentalist accentuation of social differences. (p. 642)

Thus, an aroused public suspicion coupled with growing nepotism, corruption, and mismanagement of public resources produced a context that eventually led to civil war.

The collapse of the state into warring clan-based fiefdoms resulted in the total destruction of most of the infrastructure of education and higher education. Education was probably the sector most influenced by war. Leeson (2007) found that many key indicators of development actually improved under a stateless situation. However, educational indicators such as enrollment and literacy decreased in the 1980s compared to data from the early 2000s. It meant that most Somaliland students' access to the previous higher education center of Mogadishu was cut off, and that nearly an entire generation of university students had little or no opportunity to avail themselves of their academic potential. Especially in the capital city of Hargeisa where government forces bombed and shelled indiscriminately, schools and learning institutions were not spared ruin. Human capital to perform the functions of teachers and administrators of schools were either sacrificed to security forces and armed militias or found better opportunities outside of their ruined country. Afrax's reflection on this era in Somali history is discouraging: "The entire fabric of the Somali society has been damaged, the existence of

the whole nation has sunk into a deep, dark sea of unimaginable human and material disaster, and the communal mind of the people is in a coma” (as cited in Abdi, 1998, p. 327).

Current situation. For over twenty years, Somaliland has acted as an independent state from Somalia. Somaliland has established two branches of parliament, an executive, judiciary, ministries, police, and military services, and has held both regional and national elections for parliamentarians and presidents (Bradbury, 2008). The most recent characteristic data of Somalia/Somaliland, Kenya, Ethiopia, Djibouti and the United States are shown in Table 3.1. Data on Somaliland, separate from Somalia, are limited due to the lack of current research, government resources, and census infrastructure. Where data are available for the broader Somalia, these numbers are reported. The United States is included for comparative reference external to the region. Comparing countries in HOA, indicators of the Somaliland population demonstrate the significant humanitarian crisis of this context. Though it is a small country compared to Ethiopia and Kenya, the average Somaliland woman has two more children (6.1) than her average Kenyan (4.0), Djiboutian (3.7), or Ethiopian (4.7) neighbor. The higher birth rate has created a ‘youth bulge,’ consistent with all the countries of the region, but Somaliland’s situation is the most dramatic at 44% of the population. The only indicators mitigating the rapid population growth is the high rate of infant mortality (100 deaths per 1000 births) and short average lifespan (52 years). The infant mortality rate is especially severe at over twice the rate for Ethiopia (52) and Kenya (48). Djibouti, a close cultural neighbor, has a similarly high infant mortality rate (72). This trend has been associated with the prevalence of female genital mutilation in these two countries (Nordqvist, 2006).

Table 3.1

Demographic information for Horn of Africa (UNESCO, 2011; MoEHE-Somaliland, 2012).

| | <u>Somalia/ Somaliland</u> | <u>Djibouti</u> | <u>Kenya</u> | <u>Ethiopia</u> | <u>United States</u> |
|----------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| Total population (000) | 3,500 ^a (est. 2014) | 906 | 41,610 | 84,340 | 313,085 |
| Annual population growth rate (%) | 1.75 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 2.1 | 0.7 |
| Population 0-14 years (%) | 44 | 35 | 42 | 41 | 20 |
| Rural population (%) | 62.3 | 23 | 76 | 83 | 18 |
| Total fertility rate (births per woman) | 6.08 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 4 | 1.9 |
| Infant mortality rate (0/00) | 100 | 72 | 48 | 52 | 6 |
| Life expectancy at birth (years) | 52 | 58 | 57 | 59 | 79 |
| GDP per capita (PPP) US\$ (2009) | 600 (2010 est.) ^b | 2 296 | 1 710 | 1 109 | 48 112 |
| GDP growth rate (%) (2009) | 2.6 (2012 est.) | 5 | 4.4 | 7.3 | 1.7 |
| Children of primary school-age who are out of school (%) | 54 (2012) ^a | 48 | 16 (2009 est.) | 13 (est.) | 4 (2010) |
| Pre-primary (GER) | n/a | 4 | 43 (2002) | 5 | 65 |
| Primary (GER) | n/a | 59 | 91 (2002) | 106 | 100 (2002) |
| Secondary (GER) | 10 (est. 2012) ^a | 36 | 41 (2002) | 38 | 93 (2002) |
| Tertiary (GER) | <5 (est. 2014) ^a | 5 | 3 (2002) | 8 | 73 (2002) |
| Pupil / teacher ratio (primary) | n/a | 35 | 47 (2009 est.) | 55 | 14 (2010) |
| <u>Public expenditure on education</u> | | | | | |
| as % of GDP | 2.6 (est. 2012) ^a | 8.4 (2007) | 6.7 (2010) | 4.7 (2010) | 5.6 (2010) |
| as % of total government expenditure | 7.2 (est. 2012) ^a | 22.8 (2007) | 17.2 (2010) | 25.4 (2010) | 13.1 (2009) |

Notes. All values are for 2011 unless otherwise stated; Somaliland has little published information separate from Somalia

^a Indicates Somaliland and not Somalia.

^b Actual GDP per capita for Somaliland estimated at \$347 per year.

Educational indicators also point to the crisis in Somaliland. Especially compared to Ethiopia and Kenya, who have made significant strides to achieve universal primary education, out of school rates for these countries are 16% and 13% respectively. Somaliland lags at 54% of primary aged children out of school. Finally, investment in education in Somaliland is also significantly behind its neighbors at 2.6% of the national GDP and only 7.2% of the government budget. Ethiopia in comparison spent 4.7% of its GDP and 25% of its national governmental budget on education. The instability of the Somaliland context has meant a majority of the budget be dedicated to police and security forces.

Economic indicators for Somaliland are also shown in Table 3.1. The overall economy, like pre-colonial times, is still mostly dependent on the sale of meat and hides from pastoral activities to Arab countries. Population growth and urbanization have limited the number of people who can participate in husbandry (Bekalo et al., 2003; see Table 3.1). Somaliland has very low employment to population ratios with less than 30% of males and 20% of females in the 15-24 year olds participating in the job market (Chandran, 2014). Remittances form a significant part of the livelihood of Somaliland people at over 500 million dollars per year (Bekalo et al., 2003). Even in the midst of this bleak socio-economic situation, for the last twenty years there has been significant growth in higher education.

It is clear from these data that Somaliland is one of the least developed regions in the world. The human development index for Somalia/Somaliland has not been published; however Djibouti, Kenya, and Ethiopia, which are all classified as 'low human

development' countries, have characteristic data that puts them ahead of Somalia/Somaliland in health, education, and economic indicators.

Research Methodology Rationale

In order to answer the research questions of this study, a mixed-methods, critical realism (or 'pragmatic') approach is used (Jones, 2011; Creswell, 2014). The critical realism world view in social science research incorporates the belief in an objective reality that can be studied and 'known,' yet also opens up research to multiple forms of 'knowing' in order to minimize the weaknesses of research using only one method. Jones (2011) states,

The concrete multifaceted objects of our observable world require rational theoretical abstraction to distinguish contingent from necessary relations, to identify structures and counter-factuals. Intensive work, including qualitative research, is required to see how mechanisms work out in particular cases... (p. 204).

Like critical realism, the pragmatic worldview in social science research takes emphasis off the epistemological debate over reality and focuses on generating various types of knowledge around the research problem. Creswell (2013) talks about the pragmatic worldview in social science as "not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. This applies to mixed-methods research in that inquirers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research" (p. 11). For a study of faculty views of quality in Somaliland, where little research has been conducted, this research paradigm generates multiple forms of data that are suitable to answer the research questions. "Rational theoretical abstraction" of academics' views is

produced from survey data. Deep understandings of how “mechanisms” or factors such as massification, internationalization, training, or gender affect academic professional’s views are gathered from interview data and observation of the specific study.

This use of multiple case studies for the Somaliland context is based on the availability of educational institutions to the researcher and the research timeframe. Since the higher education system of Somaliland has over 20 institutions, three institutions are selected based on their importance to the system and in the case of Admas, its unique characteristic of supplying an Ethiopian diploma in Somaliland. Yin (2009) argues that the relevance of case studies in social science research enables “an empirical inquiry that: investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 18). So, with multiple institutions available for comparative analysis, in-depth questions of higher education quality are able to be pursued in this research that add to the international higher education understanding of faculty quality construction.

Quantitatively, characteristic data of the institutions and academic staff are generated in order to construct a rational conceptual model of faculty views on quality (Dilman, 2010; Somekh & Lewin, 2011; Creswell, 2014). The questionnaire developed to collect these data from faculty includes seven sections: 1) Factors affecting quality; 2) General work situation; 3) Teaching quality; 4) Research quality; 5) Management quality; 6) Career quality; and, 7) Personal information. Because the units of analysis are academic professionals, the questionnaire was adapted from the Changing Academic Profession survey (Teichler, Arimoto, & Cummings, 2013). This study, which was reviewed in Chapter 2, is designed to analyze the longitudinal changes in the academic

profession with data collected in the mid 1990s from the Carnegie foundation (Boyer, Altbach, & Wightlaw, 1996). Though the survey formed a basis for identifying significant work areas of academic professionals (2 -7 noted above) it is necessary to create questions that reflect current literature on factors affecting higher education quality (Teichler, Arimoto, & Cummings, 2013; Boyer, Altbach, & Wightlaw, 1996; Altbach, Reisberg, Yudkevich, Androushchak, & Pacheco, 2012; Bunting & Cloete, 2012) and indicators commonly used to measure performance (Albach & Salmi, 2010; Bunting & Cloete, 2012). The survey instrument can be found in Appendix A.

Qualitatively, data gained through interviews and observations are important for developing a fuller model of organizational quality and objectives (Maxwell, 2005; Somekh & Lewin, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Materu, 2007; Bunting & Cloete 2012). The semi-structured interview protocol used is shown in Appendix B. The researcher's field notes over the course of this year and experience working as a professor in the region since 2005 also shape the qualitative analyses of the institutions. Qualitative data are important for this study due to the definitional aspect to understanding 'quality' for Somaliland academic staff. Definitions in the literature have focused on both external evaluations of performance parameters (research publications, grants, etc.) as well as internal analyses of 'fitness for purpose,' 'exceptionality,' 'conformance to standards,' or 'value for money' (Villanueva, 2012; Wolhuter, Kangumu, & Mungongi, 2014).

Methods

In this study a convergent parallel mixed method is used in which multiple data types are collected simultaneously, are integrated, and analyzed for convergence (Creswell, 2014). The types of data that are sampled include a survey, interviews,

documents, and field notes. Contradictions are explained and noted for further investigations. A convergent method is used in lieu of a sequential method due to time limitation in data collection. As survey data was collected over the course of a few months, initial interviews were performed and documents were collected. These may have affected the subsequent interviews in the data collection process, however, the core questions addressing faculty views on quality were consistently addressed. Interviews were completed once convergence of the data was achieved.

Authorizations. To perform a study in Somaliland, institutional authorization was sought from research center directors and the office of the presidents of the three respective universities. Their support of this research was central to the effective collection of data. However, on an individual level, authorization was also needed for interviewing because of the intrusive and potentially dangerous nature of collecting views and opinions for specific academic staff. Individual participants are assured of confidentiality in the publication of this study. A copy of the interview consent form is shown in Appendix C

Authorization for the use of the *Changing Academic Profession Survey* was sought from the international coordination center for the study in Germany. The response given was that this survey is open to the public for use. E-mail correspondence can be found in Appendix D. The research center in charge of the *Changing Academic Profession Survey* only asked that acknowledgement is given in reporting and that any key results or publications as a result of the study be communicated to the center for their reference.

Sampling strategies. Various sampling strategies were utilized in the mixed-method approach of this study. Regarding survey sampling, since the population of lecturers was relatively small ($n \sim 650$) the entire population was contacted. This represents not only professors with doctoral status, but also individuals with Master's degrees, those who work part-time, or professional lecturers. A sample of approximately 250 individuals was desired to be statistically representative of the entire sample (Utts & Heckard, 2006). But for increased confidence in analysis, a practical response rate of about 50 percent (300) was sought to increase statistical power.

Regarding interview sampling, a stratified random sample was employed (Utts & Heckard, 2006). Groups were stratified according to function within the institution in order to do comparative analysis of faculty views based on educational achievement (Master's or PhD) and position within the institution (assistant professor, professor, etc.). Thirty-seven interviews were conducted. A caveat is noted for administrative individuals of high rank (Minister, Deans, President, Vice-President, etc.); due to the limited availability and number of these academic staff ($n < 10$), and the value of their knowledge to answering the central research questions, a purposeful sample was utilized. Female academics are significantly under represented in Somaliland higher education. Though interviews were sought to represent the views of these individuals no interview data was collected from female academics due to availability and time restraints.

Data collection strategies. Various collection strategies were employed in the mixed-methods approach of this study. First, regarding survey sampling, in order to maximize survey response rate, the following design considerations were employed (Dillman, 2000): letter hard copies of the survey are utilized in place of electronic

surveys due to limited or unstable internet access; multiple contact strategies (personal visits, faculty meetings, etc.); administrative authorization and encouragement in support of survey was included; and phone calling and in-person requests were used.

Due to the political and cultural values of the Somaliland educational system, strong administrative support is garnered in order to clarify issues and ensure the timely completion of the survey by individual professors. The hierarchical structure of individual institutions supports the use of this technique in the local context (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Northouse, 2013). Somaliland institutions have multiple faculty units. In each unit, the dean of the faculty was utilized as a distribution point. Follow-up was conducted with the dean and individual department heads to monitor the response rate to the survey. Ultimately, phone calling and personal appeals were utilized to achieve an acceptable completion rate.

Professors in Somaliland communicate in multiple languages (English, Somali, Arabic, etc.). However, the official educational language of Somaliland higher education is English. Therefore, the survey and interviews were conducted in English. Preliminary surveys given to academic administrators before mass distribution showed a completion time of around fifteen to twenty minutes for the English version.

In conjunction with survey sampling and collection, semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect qualitative data on higher education in Somaliland. The random stratified selection of individuals is an effort to reflect a diverse range of voices from across faculty units. Interviews were 20-40 minutes in length and were recorded for analysis and transcribed for later coding. Summaries of key findings from interviews were returned to participants for comment on what was reported in order to check for

comprehension and consistency. However, the response from academics to member checks generated no conflicting information to the data generated in the original interviews.

Documents were collected for analysis from official university or government offices. Yin (2009) notes, “For case studies, the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources” (p. 103). Other opinion-based documents on higher education in Somaliland (political flyers, social media, etc.) were avoided due to the limited ability to trace authorship. Some documents were collected from online sources based on the above qualification and others were collected from various offices related to higher education. Human resources, accounting, and individual departments provide both qualitative and quantitative documents regarding the histories of the three institutions, quality assurance procedures, enrollment data, employment data, and strategic plans. These materials were used for triangulation of data collected in interviews and surveys.

Data sample collected. 166 surveys were collected from the three institutions. Response rate varies as shown in Table 3.2. A significant issue with collecting surveys at the University of Hargeisa in particular was the level of part time labor. Over 95% of lecturers are reported to be working part time for the institution and are therefore rarely available to participate in interview or survey completion. For this reason, the response rate at the University of Hargeisa is a sample size of 47 (14%). More discussion on the limitations of the study is covered in Chapter 5. Professors working part time at one institution may also work for multiple universities. No duplicate surveys were collected. However, this phenomenon confounds the response rate because the actual population of

academic staff sector wide is less than reported by each individual institution. Also, the number of part-time academic staff who would self-identify primarily with another professional activity (medical doctor, business owner, etc.) instead of a lecturer also reduces the number of ‘academic staff’ for the country.

Table 3.2

Survey response rate for academic staff in the three institutions of higher education.

| | Sample | Population | Response rate |
|--------------------------|--------|------------|---------------|
| Admas University College | 24 | 37 | 65% |
| Amoud University | 94 | 227 | 41% |
| University of Hargeisa | 47 | 344 | 14% |
| Total | 165 | 608 | 27% |

Qualitative data, as per the methods discussed above was collected mostly through semi-structured interviews. There were 12 administrative officials interviewed from the three institutions including presidents, vice-presidents, quality assurance and directors. Also interviewed were two government officials associated with the regulation of higher education. In addition to the administrative informants on quality frameworks for Somaliland higher education, 23 lecturers from the three institutions were interviewed in order to observe any variance between administrative and academic staff viewpoints as well as variance from doctoral degree holders to bachelor degree holders. A number of informal interviews occurred throughout the research process and were included in the qualitative analysis through the researcher’s field notes.

Data analysis strategies. A mixed method research project incorporates multiple analysis strategies. As noted above, survey and interview data were analyzed congruently and synthesized in order to isolate patterns for the inductive, iterative research process. Survey data were analyzed using a number of statistical tools. First, data were entered

into an excel spreadsheet to facilitate data cleaning. From individual questions the mean responses, standard deviations, sample distributions, and standard of error were analyzed for practical significance, with special consideration of abnormal results in comparison to global and regional data (Bunting & Cloete, 2012; Teichler, Arimoto, & Cummings, 2013). Then, to consider faculty views on institutional quality between institutions, analyses of variance was performed to test for statistical significance. Utts and Heckard (2006) suggest that “analysis of variance is a versatile tool for analyzing how the mean value of a quantitative response variable is related to one or more categorical explanatory factors” (p. 561).

Qualitative sources of data (interviews, field notes, documents, etc.) were analyzed for emerging trends and patterns. Special attention was given to non-conforming or contradicting patterns between quantitative and qualitative data sets.

Addressing study limitations and validity. There are a number of limitations and threats to the validity of this study. Yin (2009) identifies four validity threats to social science research: construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability. First, regarding construct validity, a case for using academic professionals as the unit of analysis has been made in the above literature review. Specific characteristics and attitudes collected from these units generate the information necessary for addressing the research questions asked. Second, since there are no causal relationships under investigation, internal validity is not an issue in this non-experimental study. However, regarding external validity, this is a study of the Somaliland higher education system, and its empirical data is limited in its generalizability to the Somaliland context. Where models for quality higher education are produced from this research, they should be

tested for consistency in other regional or international contexts for their applicability. Regarding reliability, caution should be exercised in comparing the results of this study because the higher education system of the region is relatively young (10-20 yrs.) and is experiencing rapid growth, thus there are likely to be significant changes in a relatively short period of time. Longitudinal studies should be conducted to understand these phenomena in more depth.

Another area of concern that threatens the reliability of data collected is the cross-cultural and multi-linguistic setting. To address this, the survey protocol was field tested before mass distribution. This serves as a method to pilot the data collection protocols as well as addressing the linguistic threats to data validity. Member checks were also utilized in two ways. First, preliminary results of survey data were evaluated during interviewing. This is a strength of a concurrent mixed-methods approach. The ability to use interviewing as a means to interpret survey results helps validate the quantitative data produced. Second, interview transcripts were e-mailed to participants with a short summary of the researchers interpretation of the interaction, which gave interviewees an opportunity to address miscommunication or misunderstanding of the research questions asked.

Chapter 4: Results

In the following chapter, the results of mixed-methods data collection discussed in Chapter 3 are reported. First, results are organized into data on institutional characteristics and academic staff characteristics of the three institutions. Where available, these data are compared to regional or international data as discussed in Chapter 2. Organizing data analysis in this way provides a contextual basis for determining academic views of institutional quality in Somaliland. These questions are addressed last in this chapter and are as follows: 1) How do academic professionals define quality for their institutions; 2) What are the factors academic professionals view influencing the quality of education in Somaliland; and, 3) What do academic professionals perceive as indicators of quality higher education in Somaliland? Quotes taken directly from interviews were not edited for grammar to maintain the original voice of interviewees.

Institutional Characteristics

Admas University College (Admas), University of Hargeisa (UOH), and Amoud University (AU) are the three higher education institutions considered in this research. Institutional characteristics are shown in Table 4.1. AU was the first founded, in 1996. All the universities were inaugurated shortly after the civil war of the late 1980s and early 1990s. All universities are functionally ‘private’ in that they receive their funding nearly entirely from student tuition. However, UOH and AU are “...regarded as a national institution[s]. National in the sense that it doesn’t belong to [a city] as such, but it is common for all the people” (Academic Administrator). Admas is not regarded as a ‘national’ institution not based on a difference in funding or community participation but

according to the Ethiopian diploma it grants to graduating students. The three institutions have been licensed by the Higher Education Commission of Somaliland. The university budgets are low compared to nationalized institutions in other regional centers such as Djibouti, Addis Ababa, Kampala, and Nairobi.

Table 4.1

Institutional characteristics of universities in Somaliland

| | Admas | UOH | AU |
|---------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Year founded | 2006 | 2000 | 1996 |
| Student Enrollment | 1431 (2013) | 5002 | 4031 |
| Percent of annual student Enrollment growth | 18% (8 years) | 24% (3 years) | 30% (4 years) |
| Budget (million USD) | 1.0 (est.) | 1.6 | 1.5 (est.) |
| Percent of staff with PhD | 6% | 4% | 5% |
| Percent of graduate students | n/a | 0.4% | 3% |
| Percent of students in STEM* | n/a | 37% | 31% |
| Female student enrollment | 40% | 38% | 27% |
| Number of students graduated | 400 (est. since 2006) | 2420 (since 2004) | 2487 (since 2003) |
| Number of lecturers | 37 | 344 | 227 |
| Number of Faculties | 4 | 12 | 15 |

Note. *AU does not classify freshmen students in STEM faculties until Sophomore year which raises this statistic to 42%.

Universities in Somaliland have grown steadily in number of institutions, number of faculties, and student enrollment, which is consistent with the massification of higher education in the region in general. First, the number of institutions in Somaliland has increased from zero to over 20 providers of tertiary education since 1995. In the past, students went to Mogadishu for tertiary education. This was reserved for only the top students who graduated from the secondary schooling system of northern Somalia.

Second, faculty or department growth has also been used as an indicator of overall system growth. Again, AU leads the Somaliland university system with 15 faculties, UOH has 12 faculties (which they term ‘colleges’), and Admas has four faculties. Finally, in the last 3-8 years, student enrollment has grown from 18%, 24%, and 30% for Admas, UOH, and AU, respectively. AU and UOH, which represent the largest universities in Somaliland according to enrollment and budgets, have current student enrollment of 4,031 and 5,002 respectively. Student fees range from \$150-\$300 per semester dependent on program and year of study but do not vary significantly between institutions.

Characteristics of the student population in Somaliland also highlight the nature of institutions in the region. First, female student participation in higher education ranges from 27% at AU to 38% and 40% at UOH and Admas, respectively. This lags behind more developed regions in higher education where female student populations are higher than or equal to male participation, however female participation has seen a positive trend over the last 15 years. Second, student participation in STEM subjects is 31% for AU and 37% for UOH (not applicable to Admas). Finally, student graduate education is still in its infancy in Somaliland. Admas, AU, and UOH have initiated some programs under the name of ‘post-graduate education.’ AU and UOH have 0.4% and 3% graduate student populations, respectively. Admas, which has initiated a post-graduate program, is still in the process of recruiting the students and staff to administer master’s level training. None of the institutions have initiated doctoral level programs. This is most likely due to the lack of sufficient doctoral level staff to grant this level of certification. Admas, UOH, and AU have 6%, 4%, and 5%, respectively, of academic staff with doctoral degrees.

Academic Staff Professional Characteristics

The key unit of analysis for this study is academic staff of the three institutions. Since interviews and surveys were conducted with them, it is important to consider their biographies, qualifications, and experiences in order to understand their place in the international higher education context. In general, these professionals who work in the institutions of Somaliland are distinguished from ‘administrative staff’ which includes leadership, staff management, finance and accounting, infrastructure management, and security. However, there are significant numbers of ‘administrative’ staff who also have responsibilities as ‘academic’ staff and thus were included in the survey sample population. The most common title for academic staff at the three institutions is ‘lecturer.’ None of the institutions had a tenure system for their academic staff or advancement from lecturer to ‘assistant professor,’ ‘professor,’ etc.

Where available, comparative data on the academic profession are taken from studies and literature reviewed in Chapter 2. Most frequently, these are taken from the Changing Academic Profession (CAP) study which is an international data set focused mostly on ‘flagship’ research and doctoral granting institutions. However, some regional data exist characterizing the academic profession compared to other sub-Saharan African countries, which was most frequently found in the Center for Higher Education Transformation (CHET) publications.

Qualifications. The type of degree qualifications of academic staff in Somaliland is shown in Table 4.2. Data are collected about staff qualifications from both documents and surveys. The academic profession is mainly in the hands of professional ‘lecturers’ who hold a bachelor (52%) or master (44%) level qualification, which is significantly

below both the international and regional levels for academic staff qualifications for flagship universities. In comparison, results from the CAP survey indicated 90-95% of staff have a doctoral level qualification in global flagship universities. Results of CHET research on flagship African universities indicated 19-71% of academic staff hold doctoral degrees and 24-61% have a master level qualification. No permanent academic staff in these two studies have bachelor degree qualifications.

Table 4.2

Qualifications of academic staff in Somaliland

| Degree | Survey Data (%) | Document Analysis (%) | CAP (%) | CHET (%) |
|------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---------|----------|
| Bachelor | 44 | 52 | | |
| Master | 48 | 44 | | 24-61% |
| Doctorates | 8 | 4 | 90-95 | 19-71 |

Note: Survey data are skewed slightly toward higher degree holders

Qualification of academic staff stems from the ability of Somaliland to support that level of education for the society in general. The percent of country of study for bachelor degree holders in Somaliland is shown in Figure 4.1. Academic staff holding bachelor degrees from Somaliland institutions represent only 50% of the total degree holders of that level. The second most prevalent country for staff to obtain a bachelor degree is Ethiopia at 14%. The percent of country of study for advance degree holders (masters and PhD) is shown in Figure 4.2. The Somaliland higher education system only prepares 4% of their advanced degree holders (all masters level). The majority (24%) of master or doctoral level academics received their diploma from Uganda at. In fact Somaliland is seventh in training advanced degree holders for the universities sampled: behind Ethiopia (12%), Kenya (9%), Malaysia (8%), and the United Kingdom (5%), respectively.

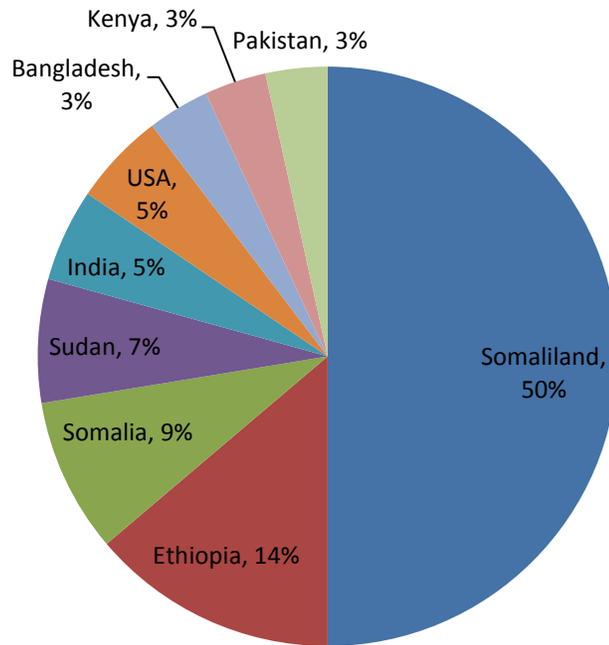


Figure 4.1. Percent of country of study for bachelor degree holders in Somaliland.

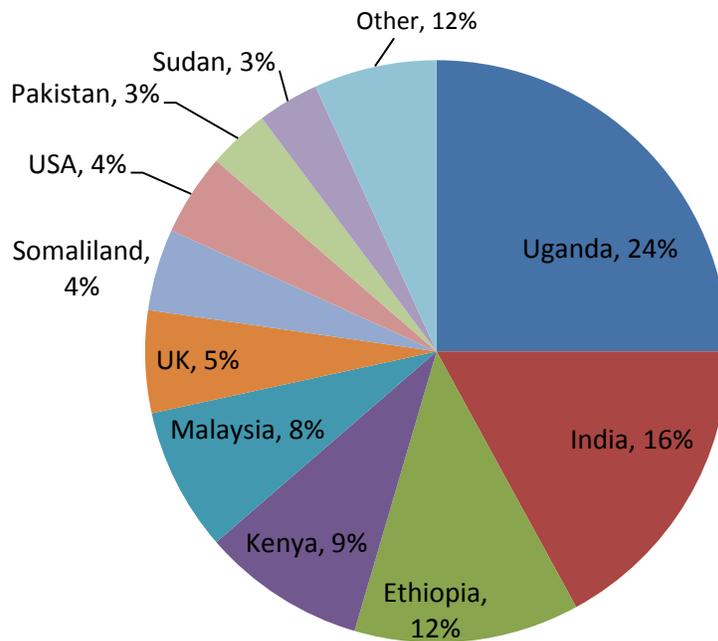


Figure 4.2. Percent of country of study for master and doctoral degree holders in Somaliland.

Employment characteristics. Three relevant characteristics of academic staff employment in Somaliland is the rate of employment (full time or part time), salary, and number of years in academic work. Academic staff in Somaliland are mostly employed on a part-time basis (85%). As stated earlier, there is little chance for ‘advancement’ or ‘tenure’ in the higher education academic system. The results of document analysis and the survey collected from the three institutions related to employment characteristics are shown in Table 4.3. Most permanent academic employees hold an administrative position within the university (dean, assistant dean, department director, etc.). UOH, the largest institution with 344 academic staff considers nearly all these employees as ‘part-time.’ This is a designation that does not necessarily mean a specific quantity of hours worked, but rather that the status of commitment between the institution and the academic is contracted on a yearly basis. Remuneration for part time staff is based on the number of credit hours taught. The percentage of academic staff indicating outside employment or outside salary was 45%.

Table 4.3

Characteristics of employment for Somaliland academic staff

| | |
|------------------------------------------|-------------|
| <u>Rate of Employment</u> | <u>%</u> |
| Full Time | 15 |
| Part Time | 85 |
| Outside employment | 45 |
| <u>Salary (per month)</u> | <u>USD</u> |
| Institution | 466 |
| Outside employment | 398 |
| <u>Length of employment</u> | <u>Year</u> |
| Year began work with current institution | 2011 |
| Year completed formal study | 2007 |

Note. Table shows mean values calculated from survey sample.

Regarding salary, on average, academic staff received \$466 per month in salary from their institution. With outside employment, most lecturers considered the academic profession to grant them a ‘livable’ wage in Somaliland where the average *yearly* GDP is estimated at \$600. Of the few expatriate staff interviewed, three indicated that one of the reasons that they came to Somaliland was due to the salary level in comparison with the cost of living. However, comparing this wage with regional wages in Ethiopia or Djibouti indicates that Somaliland has limited ability to attract more qualified scholars to their higher education system. A few lecturers express their frustration with this situation as follows...

there is a stagnancy in status...I mean salaries don’t increase, there is no advancement in this university ... (Lecturer)

In Addis Ababa, the head office, it is 18 credit hours. But here it is 21 credit hours with our basic salary...So when you compare that with the salary we are getting, it is really very frustrating. (Lecturer)

Regarding work experience, on average, academic staff sampled began their career in higher education in 2010. A histogram of when Somaliland academic staff began working in higher education is shown in Figure 4.3. The histogram is bi-modal with a significant gap from 1990 through 1995 due to the civil war between Somaliland and Somalia, which represents a significant ‘generation gap’ in higher education employment. A factor affecting the academic staff quality highlighted by interviewees is frustration between the older and newer generations of lecturers. Responding to the question of factors affecting the accomplishment of the UOH mission, one academic staff person said,

...we are in badly in need of teacher training. The teachers are... most of our teachers, our lecturers are young. Most of them are straight from universities and almost all graduated from universities that didn't make...that we consider not quality. Like India, Pakistan... third world countries (Lecturer).

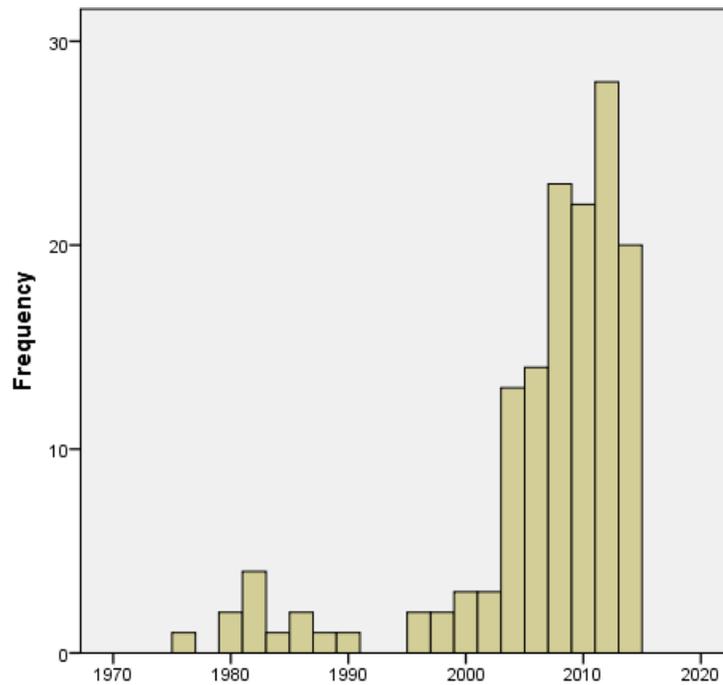


Figure 4.3. Histogram of year Somaliland academic staff began working in higher education.

Work load and profile. The work of academic staff in universities is usually split between teaching, research, service, and administration. The division of academic staff working in the Somaliland dataset and reported in the CAP survey for emerging countries is shown in Table 4.4. Somaliland academic staff slant toward teaching and administration at 48% and 25% of the workload, respectively. Emerging countries in the CAP survey also slanted toward teaching; however research still maintained a higher place in the academic workload at 29% verses Somaliland at 11%. The total workload of Somaliland academics (36 hours per week) was less than the CAP data for other

emerging countries (40 hours per week). This reveals the part-time nature of the academic profession sampled (CAP data for more developed countries were even higher, >50 hours of work per week).

Table 4.4
Division of work for academic staff in Somaliland

| Hours of Academic Work | Somaliland (%) | CAP-emerging countries (%) |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| Teaching | 48 | 46 |
| Research | 11 | 29 |
| Service | 17 | 5 |
| Administration | 25 | 12-25 |
| | <u>Hours</u> | <u>Hours</u> |
| Total (hours) | 36 | 40 |

Note. Table shows mean values calculated from survey sample.

Personal characteristics. Two key characteristics for academic staff are gender and age which are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5
Gender and age of Somaliland academic staff

| <u>Gender</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>CAP (US)</u> | <u>CAP (Japan)</u> |
|----------------------------------------|----------|----------------------------------------------------|--------------------|
| Female | 6 | 32 | 13 |
| Male | 94 | 68 | 87 |
| <u>Age</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>University of Nairobi (2006)^a, %</u> | |
| Percent of lecturers 50 years or older | 15 | 43 | |

Note. Table shows mean values calculated from survey sample. Average age for Somaliland lecturer is 35.

^aVan der Walt, Wolhuter, Potgieter, Higgs, Higgs, and Ntshoe, 2009

First, regarding gender, females represent only 6% of the overall academic staff. Even compared to CAP data for societies where males are considered to dominate the profession such as in Japan, Somaliland has a lower female participation rate. Second, academic staff in Somaliland are young. The University of Nairobi, another regional ‘flagship’ university, has 43% of staff age 50 or older, where only 15% of the Somaliland

academic staff sample are over 50. Other auxiliary personal characteristics such as nationality, marital status, number of dependents, and parents' educational attainment are reported in Appendix E.

Linguistic profile. Linguistic factors are an important part of understanding the higher education landscape of Somaliland. English language competence is highlighted in interview data as both a factor affecting the quality of higher education and the prevalence of English in the system as an indicator of university success. Somali remains the dominant language of the Somaliland context (76%, see Table 4.6), yet English is the most important language for both teaching and research (see Table 4.7 and Table 4.8). English, even though it is often stated as the default educational language, is only used 69% of the time in classrooms and sometimes in a mix of Somali and English. In contrast, English is more prevalent for academic research at 89% usage. CAP survey data reveals that Somaliland is not dissimilar to other non-native English speaking contexts like Malaysia (see Table 4.7 and Table 4.8).

Table 4.6

Native languages of academic staff in Somaliland

| <u>Language (or Language group)</u> | <u>%</u> |
|--------------------------------------------|----------|
| English | 5 |
| Somali | 76 |
| Other language groups: | 21 |
| Indian (Tamil, Telugu, and Hindi) | 5 |
| Kenyan (Luo, and Swahili) | 5 |
| Arabic | 2 |
| European (French, Romanian, and Norwegian) | 2 |
| Ugandan (Luganda) | 1 |

Note. Table shows mean values calculated from survey sample. Where multiple languages were indicated as "native" these individuals were counted in multiple of the categories above giving a total greater than 100%.

Table 4.7

Somaliland academic staff use of native language in teaching.

| <u>Language (or Language group)</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>CAP (Malaysia)</u> | <u>CAP (US)</u> |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Native language used for teaching | 22 | 21 | 86 |
| Non-native language used for teaching | 78 | 79 | 14 |
| <u>Non-native languages used for teaching</u> | | | |
| English | 69 | | |
| Somali-English mix | 8 | | |
| Arabic | 2 | | |
| French | 1 | | |

Note. Table shows mean values calculated from survey sample.

Table 4.8

Somaliland academic staff use of native language in research.

| <u>Language (or Language group)</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>CAP (Malaysia)</u> | <u>CAP (US)</u> |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Native language used for research | 11 | 21 | 85 |
| Non-native language used for research | 89 | 79 | 15 |
| <u>Non-native languages used for research</u> | | | |
| English | 82 | | |
| Arabic | 4 | | |
| Somali-English mix | 3 | | |
| Ethiopian | 1 | | |
| French | 1 | | |

Note. Table shows mean values calculated from survey sample.

Teaching and research. Teaching and research are considered the main work of the academic profession globally. The teaching-research nexus is often discussed in the higher education literature for characterizing the nature of the higher education institution in question (Teichler, Arimoto, & Cummings, 2013). Sixty-one percent of Somaliland academic professionals sampled at least ‘lean toward’ teaching over research compared to only 53% from the results of the CAP survey for research intensive universities (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9

Teaching vs. research preference for academic staff in Somaliland

| | Somaliland (%) | CAP (%) |
|----------------------------------------|----------------|---------|
| Primarily in teaching. | 24 | 13 |
| In both, but leaning towards teaching. | 37 | 40 |
| In both, but leaning towards research. | 31 | 40 |
| Primarily in research. | 8 | 6 |

Note. Mean values.

Academic professionals surveyed produced 0.1 peer-reviewed publications per academic staff per year, which is biased by the finding that non-Somaliland, expatriate academic staff produced nearly half (44%) of the publications represented in the sample. Eliminating these values from the calculation of academic publication rate yields 0.06 peer-reviewed publications per year per academic staff, which means in an institution of 350 lecturers, UOH produces around 20 publications per year. For comparison, a typical benchmark in Sub-Saharan African context is 0.5 peer-reviewed publications per permanent academic staff per year, nearly ten times the rate in Somaliland (Bunting and Cloete, 2012).

One issue that academic staff in Somaliland face is a lack of resources for funding research (see Table 4.10). Lecturers mostly used their own funds for financing their research (30%). The next highest contributor is “internal institutional resources” (29%). Document analysis indicates that these resources represented small grants for mostly social science or medical research related to public health studies. For the 39% of academic staff who report that they at least “lean toward research” or are “primarily interested in research,” this represents an important concern for Somaliland higher education institutions.

Table 4.10

Sources of funding for Somaliland academic staff research

| Source | % |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Internal institutional resources | 29% |
| Public research funding agencies | 5% |
| Government bodies | 7% |
| Business firms or industry | 5% |
| Private not-for-profit foundations/agencies | 16% |
| International entities (governments, not-for-profit foundations, or non-governmental agencies) | 4% |
| Personal resources | 30% |

Academic staff evaluation. Evaluation is an important component of quality assurance in higher education institutions. Academic staff responses to quality assurance and evaluation questions from the survey are shown in Tables 4.11, 4.12, and 4.13.

Table 4.11

Key individuals involved in academic staff evaluation

| | Teaching | Research |
|---------------------------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| My peers in my department or unit | 29% | 16% |
| The head of my department or unit | 43% | 27% |
| Members of other departments or units at my institution | 19% | 14% |
| Senior administrative staff at my institution | 33% | 18% |
| My students | 44% | 10% |
| External reviewers | 10% | 16% |
| Myself (e.g. a formal self-assessment) | 38% | 23% |
| No one at or outside my institution | 11% | 13% |

Key individuals involved in academic evaluation are shown in Table 4.11. The academic staff sampled chose “students” as the most frequently selected evaluator of their teaching (44%) before the head of their department (43%) or peers (39%). As is shown in qualitative data later in this chapter, the students’ role in evaluation may be a significant factor affecting the quality of higher education. Key evaluators of research were the head of the department or the academics themselves.

Academic view of the impact of evaluation is shown in Table 4.12. Though salary considerations have little to do with evaluations (9%), academic staff responded positively to being evaluated, 61% responded that they “change work practices in response to recommendations.”

Table 4.12
Academic staff views of the impact of evaluation.

| Question | % |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| I change work practices to accommodate evaluation recommendations | 61 |
| My salary is affected by my evaluations | 9 |
| My career advancement is affected by evaluations of my performance | 26 |
| Evaluations do not affect me in any way | 16 |

Frequency of academic staff evaluation is shown in Table 4.13. Results indicate that staff are evaluated once a term (45%) or once a year (23%). However, 19% said that they were not evaluated.

Table 4.13
Frequency of academic staff evaluation

| Frequency | % |
|-------------------|----|
| Once a term | 45 |
| Once a year | 23 |
| I'm not evaluated | 19 |
| Other | 11 |

A number of issues with quality assurance were highlighted by interview results. Comments fell into four broad categories: 1) evaluations aren't always shown to professors; 2) evaluations aren't used for improving organizational quality; 3) quality assurance is in its “infancy”; and 4) informal evaluations by students through complaints is more significant to teaching practices than more formal institutional evaluations. One administrative official stated...

We are in the process of just establishing [quality assurance] in order to see...if we are measuring up to what we said. So, we're just in the process of establishing that office that every university has, that will measure... that in fact the mission that we set to achieve is in fact achieved and is measured on ...and instruments are being developed. (Academic Administrator)

Satisfaction and perception of development. A final characteristic of academic staff in Somaliland is their overall views toward employment and institutional development. Some scholars have argued that academic attitudes toward stress, satisfaction, perception of quality, and institutional development have an effect on their productivity (Vardi, 2009; Abousarie, 1996; Copur, 1990). Survey data collected addressed these four areas of academic staff employment. First, when asked, “how stressful is your work environment?” 53% of Somaliland academics consider their stress level to be ‘low’ or ‘very low’. Second, when asked, “Since you started your career, have the overall working conditions in higher education improved or deteriorated?” 91% of academics believed that overall, their institutions have “a little improved” or “very much improved”. Third, when asked “How would you rate your overall satisfaction with your current job?” 57% responded that they are either “satisfied” or “very satisfied”. Finally, when asked to rank the overall quality of their institution 89% of academic staff considered the quality of their institution to be “average” or “high quality” or “very high quality”. Therefore, the academic profession in Somaliland has a positive outlook on both the profession and development of higher education in general. This is significant given the comparative level of higher education regionally, in the face of little economic support from their government, and the level of insecurity in the daily life of a Somaliland academic professional. Qualitative interview data suggest that academic views of institutional quality reported in surveys is based on a national or

regional comparative perspective instead of a broader comparison. As one lecturer reports, “I would say within the context of Somaliland it’s...one of the better universities. But if you compare it internationally, it’s not very good” (Lecturer). Appendix E contains a full description of Somaliland academic response to these four indicators with comparative mean values for each institution sampled.

Academic staff perspectives of higher education quality

As discussed above, academic professionals in Somaliland consider the quality of their institutions to be above average. Academic staff are also asked to rate the importance of typical factors affecting the quality of the system and typical indicators used to measure quality. First, quantitative data from survey respondents are considered. Then, results of data analysis of interviews and qualitative responses on the survey are used to add depth and check for consistency. The mean values of their responses are calculated and analyses of variance are performed to measure variation between institutions. This analytic technique is used to isolate the factors or indicators that were especially relevant to the lecturers sampled from a particular institution.

Quantitative data of academic staff perspectives of factors affecting higher education quality. Academic staff views of factors affecting the quality of teaching are shown in Table 4.14. An option to enter “other factor(s)” is given in the survey but responses are either unintelligible or too few to quantify for further analysis. Academic professionals ‘agree’ to ‘strongly agree’ that all of the factors presented were affecting the quality of teaching in Somaliland. Academic staff found the “Availability of library resources” to be the most agreed upon factor. Three of these factors (library, technology, and laboratories) relate to the infrastructure of the institution as a limiting factor in

teaching quality. The fourth relates to the human resources of the institution, their development, and prior training. Analysis of variance showed that AU lecturers are less concerned about “Ease of use of technology in your classroom(s)” than UOH or Admas lecturers; and, that Admas lecturers are more strongly concerned about “Level of assistance from teaching support staff (assistants, secretarial, etc.)” than UOH or AU.

Table 4.14

Factors affecting the quality of teaching in Somaliland

| Factor | Admas | Hargeisa | Amoud | Total |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|----------|-------|-------|
| Availability of library resources (books, videos, journals, etc.) | 0.23 | 0.68 | 0.57 | 0.55 |
| Extent of your teacher training | 0.57 | 0.50 | 0.81 | 0.70 |
| Ease of use of technology in your classroom(s) ^a | 0.68 | 0.62 | .97 | 0.84 |
| Access to laboratories | 0.62 | .78 | .91 | 0.84 |
| Level of your research activities | .91 | .78 | .90 | 0.87 |
| Level of administrative work | 1.15 | 1.02 | 0.82 | .92 |
| Level of assistance from teaching support staff (assistants, secretarial, etc.) | 0.70* | 1.135 | 1.188 | 1.098 |

Note. Mean values from survey data responding to the question "To what extent do you agree that the following affect the quality of your teaching?"

Scale: 0 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Strongly Disagree

^a $p < 0.05$, ANOVA analysis for difference among institutions

Academic views of factors affecting institutional quality are shown in Table 4.15. Academic professionals ‘agree’ to ‘strongly agree’ that all of the factors presented were affecting the quality of higher education in Somaliland. Again, an option to enter “other factor(s)” is given in the survey but responses are either unintelligible or too few to quantify for further analysis. “Clearly establish strategic vision,” “Level of faculty training,” “Level of student preparation for tertiary education,” “Extent of competence in the administrative team,” “Strength of collaboration between government and higher education,” and “Availability of research grants” have the highest agreement among

Somaliland academic staff with over 80% of respondents agreeing. It is shown through analysis of variance among institutions that Admas lecturers more strongly agree than UOH or AU lecturers that “Extent of common organizational culture toward excellence” and “Level of academic freedom” are critical factors affecting institutional quality. This phenomenon reflects the expatriate attitude at Admas toward Somaliland higher education. As shown in the section on academic staff characteristics, Admas lecturers, due to the nature of this institution as a “foreign” diploma, have a more negative view of cultural aspects of higher education than more “national” universities.

Table 4.15
Factors affecting quality of higher education in Somaliland

| | Admas | Hargeisa | Amoud | Total |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|----------|-------|-------|
| Clearly establish strategic vision | .50 | .78 | .67 | .67 |
| Level of faculty training | .54 | .81 | .69 | .70 |
| Level of student preparation for tertiary education | .70 | .95 | .81 | .83 |
| Extent of competence in the administrative team | .54 | 1.03 | .84 | .84 |
| Strength of collaboration between government and higher education | .58 | .92 | .89 | .85 |
| Availability of research grants | .88 | .73 | .90 | .85 |
| Extent of common organizational culture toward excellence ^a | .46 | .96 | .95 | .87 |
| Level of university endowment revenues | .87 | .96 | 1.02 | .98 |
| Degree of internationalization | .83 | .96 | 1.07 | 1.00 |
| Level of public budget resources allocated | .87 | .93 | 1.09 | 1.01 |
| Level of academic Freedom | .71* | 1.03 | 1.15 | 1.04 |
| Amount of university tuition revenues | 1.00 | 1.22 | 1.18 | 1.16 |

Note. Mean values from survey data responding to the question, “Consider the following factors affecting higher education quality. To what extent do you agree that these factors significantly affect the quality of your institution?”

Scale: 0 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Strongly Disagree

^a $p < 0.05$, ANOVA analysis for difference among institutions

Quantitative data on academic staff view of key indicators of higher

education quality. Survey responses for academic views of indicators of the quality of teaching, research, and the overall tertiary system are shown in Tables 4.16, 4.17, and 4.18, respectively. Regarding indicators of quality teaching (Table 4.16), academic staff ‘agree’ to ‘strongly agree’ that “Degree to which instruction is student centered,” “Student evaluations,” and “Number of hours in class” are important. “Student evaluations” is the most agreed upon indicator of quality for all academic staff surveyed with 85% responding ‘agree’ or ‘strongly agree’.

Table 4.16

Indicators of teaching quality for Somaliland academic staff

| | Admas | Hargeisa | Amoud | Total |
|---------------------------------------------------------|-------|----------|-------|-------|
| Degree to which instruction is student centered | .65 | .83 | .97 | .88 |
| Student evaluations | .74 | .89 | .92 | .89 |
| Number of hours in class | 1.18 | .98 | .82 | .92 |
| Student exam scores | .95 | 1.08 | 1.00 | 1.01 |
| Classroom observations by another academic professional | 1.30 | 1.08 | 1.01 | 1.07 |
| Number of students who pass | 1.00 | 1.14 | 1.09 | 1.09 |

Note. To what extent do you agree that the following indicators are important for evaluating your teaching?

Scale: 0 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Strongly Disagree

^a $p < 0.05$, ANOVA analysis for difference among institutions

Then, regarding indicators of research quality (Table 4.17), academic professionals ‘agree’ to ‘strongly agree’ that “Number of publications per professor”, “Research that is focused on the local community or national context,” “Percentage of Master's or PhD students,” and “Amount of collaborative research with international scholars” are important for evaluating research quality. However, “number of publications per professor” is the most agreed on indicator with 85% of academic staff responding “agree” or “strongly agree.”

Table 4.17

Indicators of higher education research quality in Somaliland

| | Admas | Hargeisa | Amoud | Total |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|----------|-------|-------|
| Number of publications per professor | .69 | .71 | .91 | .81 |
| Research that is focused on the local community or national context | .77 | .82 | .89 | .85 |
| Percentage of Master's or PhD students | .92 | .80 | 1.00 | .93 |
| Amount of collaborative research with international scholars | .86 | .92 | 1.02 | .96 |
| Number of publications in international peer reviewed journals | .62* | 1.21 | 1.02 | 1.02 |
| External grants or funds raised for research | .83 | 1.11 | 1.02 | 1.02 |
| Amount of collaborative research with domestic scholars | 1.00 | .88 | 1.22 | 1.08 |

Note. Mean values from survey data responding to the question, "To what extent do you agree that the following indicators are important measures of research quality for your institution?"

Scale: 0 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Strongly Disagree

^a $p < 0.05$, ANOVA analysis for difference among institutions

Finally, regarding institutional quality (Table 4.18), academic professionals 'agree' to 'strongly agree' that "Number of professors with doctoral degrees," "International ranking of your institution," "Number of publications per year per academic," "Number of funded research projects," and "Student employment rate" are important for evaluating the quality of higher education in Somaliland. However, "number of professors with doctoral degrees" is the most important indicator shown to have over 85% of staff responding "agree" or "strongly agree."

It is shown through analysis of variance that Admas lecturers reported "student employment" as a more important indicator than UOH or AU lecturers. As a private institution competing for high school graduates from other institutions in the metropolitan area of Hargeisa, this is a significant promotional value for the institution. For example, an interviewee states...

Also another indicator that I can mention to you is in the form of jobs. Sometimes the commission when the election is there, they need more students who make every election issue ... so they need 1000 students ... So, we are the most students who get more than 400 students ... so 400 from Admas and 600 from 19 other universities! So that I can say shows that the quality of Admas is good.
(Admas Lecturer)

Table 4.18
Indicators of higher education quality in Somaliland

| Indicators | Admas | Hargeisa | Amoud | Total |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|-------|----------|-------|-------|
| Number of professors with doctoral degrees | .58 | .72 | .80 | .74 |
| International ranking of your institution | 1.08 | .68 | .90 | .87 |
| Number of publications per year per academic | .70 | .99 | .94 | .91 |
| Number of funded research projects | .75 | .83 | 1.00 | .91 |
| Student employment rate ^a | .58 | .95 | 1.09 | .96 |
| Number of graduate students (Master's or Ph.D.) | .87 | 1.02 | 1.17 | 1.09 |
| Enrollment in science and technology majors | 1.13 | .95 | 1.13 | 1.09 |
| Student graduation rates | .92 | 1.36 | 1.25 | 1.22 |
| Percentage of women involved in higher education | 1.04 | 1.36 | 1.43 | 1.35 |
| Minority population participation rates in higher education | 1.00 | 1.47 | 1.45 | 1.38 |
| Expenditure per student | 1.32 | 1.69 | 1.76 | 1.67 |

Note. Mean response to the question, "To what extent do you agree that the following indicators should be used to measure the quality of your institution?"

Scale: 0 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Strongly Disagree

^a $p < 0.05$, ANOVA analysis for difference between institutions

Academic staff perspective of the goal of higher education in Somaliland.

Qualitative data are collected from the survey mainly through two open response questions: 1) What is the goal(s) of your institution; and, 2) Give two or three indicators of quality in higher education in Somaliland. Understanding the objective of higher education in Somaliland is an important component of beginning to understand their views of quality (Harvey and Williams, 2010). A cloud diagram representation of the response to this question is shown in Figure 4.4. As one would expect, the emergent

theme of an 'educational' goal has the highest word count (8.49%). 'Quality' is the second most frequently used term in the responses (4.85%) suggesting the significance of this study in relation to the current landscape of higher education development in Somaliland. The third most frequent concept is 'development' (4.35%) denoting the significance of the place of higher education as an 'instrument' of development for lower economic development contexts (World Bank, 2002; CHET, 2011).

The final emergent theme relates to 'peace.' Though its word count is significantly less than the word count for 'educational' or 'development' values, the theme of 'peace' is clearly a part of the higher education history and values. Academic administrators state...

[When this institution was founded the] peace building process was going on in Somaliland, peace building, but not really peace mind you. But peace building efforts to contain the situation ... organizing them, reopen schools so that we have sort of restoration of hope at that point and you can only do that either with ... primarily two matters: either you create employment opportunities, which was not feasible at that time, or prolong the system of education and that was what was agreed upon. So, that is the reason, long answer maybe, but that was the reason, at that time it was necessary. It was part and parcel of the peace process, and it still is today. In your countries, you probably have...objectives higher education ... or education in general is to promote research and to conduct teaching and academic activities. But here also, there is a third element which that it is also part and parcel of the peace building process as well. (Academic Administrator).

When you consider our situation, ... our major objective at this stage of the country ... is to maintain peace. ... because to give hope to the young people at least we make them busy, make the young people very busy, that is a great one, really. Without these universities, no matter what the quality is, the young people would probably be on the roaming the streets and joining Al-Shabab and militias and all these things. But it is a hope that there is a university, so quality not really there...we are struggling really to improve. (Academic Administrator)

Qualitative data of academic staff perspective of factors affecting higher

education quality. Qualitative analysis of interview data revealed a number of factors that coincide with the quantitative data collected from surveys. A list of factors are shown in Table 4.19 which are coded using NVivo 10 software and are sorted according to the number of references in the transcriptions. Each of these factors is explained in this section and related to its confirmation or contradiction of quantitative data shown above.

Table 4.19

List of factors affecting higher education quality derived from qualitative analysis of Somaliland academic staff interviews.

| Factor | Interviewees (total 37) | References |
|--------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|
| Academic Staff | 29 | 62 |
| Governance (external) | 26 | 57 |
| Resources | 20 | 47 |
| Student university preparation | 22 | 44 |
| Research | 17 | 41 |
| Student power | 19 | 33 |
| War | 17 | 24 |
| Linguistics | 16 | 32 |
| Infrastructure | 14 | 17 |
| Tertiary options for students (no technical education) | 8 | 13 |

Academic staff. Lecturers, leaders, and higher education officials highlight the academic staff as one of the most important factors affecting the quality of higher education in Somaliland. This is consistent with literature identifying the academic profession as the main driver of the ‘work’ of higher education teaching and research (Enders & deWeert, 2009). From Tables 4.17 and 4.18, “Level of faculty training” and “Extent of your teacher training” are clearly identified by respondents as key factors affecting institutional and teaching quality, respectively. Since these institutions are

primarily focused on teaching and learning compared to research, these factors are a significant issue for the further development of higher education in the country. From interview analysis, this theme is clearly related to the level of qualification of lecturers as well as their teaching skills (pedagogy, exam preparation, curriculum development, English competence, etc.). This perspective is not isolated to one institution (Admas, AU, or UOH); or, position within the higher education landscape (presidents, deans, lecturers, etc.). For example, interview participants state...

So if you have good teachers that can deliver good instruction you will get students who learn well. So, if the teachers are not trained, students are not receiving output...good learning opportunities. As a result the quality, which the output of learning...the teaching and learning process is not good. So, in my definition quality is the education that high enough, competitive, that has benchmarks to world standards. That we don't have. So, I define quality that way. (Academic Administrator).

...we are in badly in need of teacher training. The teachers are...young. Most of them are straight from universities and almost all graduated from universities that ... we consider not quality.... like India, Pakistan, third-world countries. (Lecturer)

...At the same time they are not qualified lecturers, not trained, you know, almost ah...this semester, 376 lecturers...teaching, right now. 375 I do have you know. ... I assign the salary for ... so, only 28 of them are skilled, trained lecturers. (Lecturer)

External Governance. Another common theme academic professionals highlight in interviews is how governance of higher education is affecting quality. This phenomenon is consistent with quantitative data showing strong agreement from academic staff that the categories “Clearly establish strategic vision,” “Extent of competence in the administrative team,” and “Strength of collaboration between government and higher education” are affecting the quality of higher education.

Interviewees considered governance at best to be ‘well-meaning’ but inexperienced. At worst, interviewees accused the governance of nepotism, corruption, and incompetence. One administrative official suggested that in terms of governance, Somaliland is “just beginning to come out of the coma.” Most of the lecturers focused their comments on the higher education commission of Somaliland and its oversight, the Minister of Education. For example...

[The higher education commission] is too weak, fractional, ... they are not well trained to do this job. ...so they don’t provide anything to the universities ... So if you want to upgrade the quality of higher education in Somaliland you have to do something with the higher education commission. Number one. (Lecturer)

For example, when it comes to checking the quality of a private education institutions, they come once a year. Instead of checking the quality of the institution, seriously, they ask for money. It is very unfortunate. If they don’t curb this kind of corruption it will have a serious effect on everyone in the long run. (Lecturer)

What qualifies [the higher education commission] to do an evaluation of higher education? “Technical knowwho” They know each other. They are recruited to work at that place, maybe they are members of one big clan... (Lecturer)

Actually, in Somaliland we have a commission for higher education, but that commission does not have the capacity to address all these issues related to quality assurance in higher education. So, if there’s no capacity they cannot actually have an affect on quality assurance in higher education institutions. So, in my opinion, it is just a name, they have nothing to do with quality assurance in higher education. Just a name. (Academic Administrator)

...the commission in Kenya is a secretariat, a collection of highly paid professionals, high scholars, some of them used to be presidents of universities, and each one in his own field. Now, for [the commission] ... the president didn’t take highly qualified people, he simply selected based on clans, and that’s why...it’s not moving... (Academic Administrator)

Resources and infrastructure. The abundance of resources is a key component to developing world class universities (Salmi, 2009). Combining ‘resources’ and

'infrastructure' into a common theme makes this factor the most referenced in interview analysis. As shown in Table 4.1, overall budget for the universities in Somaliland are limited to, at most, a few million dollars. A close neighbor Djibouti, has a single higher education institution (Université de Djibouti) with an estimated public-private budget of nearly twenty million dollars and a comparable student population (~7000). Since there is little public investment in higher education in Somaliland, institutions are limited to tuition and donations for their resources. From Tables 4.16 and 4.17, academic staff 'strongly agree' to 'agree' that "Availability of research grants," "Level of university endowment revenues," "Level of public budget resources allocated," and "Amount of university tuition revenues" affect the quality of higher education in Somaliland. Relating to infrastructure, especially for teaching, academics 'agree' to 'strongly agree' that "Availability of library resources (books, videos, journals, etc.)," "Access to laboratories," "Ease of use of technology in your classroom(s)" significantly affects the quality of teaching. Interview responses highlighting 'resources' as a factor affecting quality include...

Actually, the obstacles are huge ...of establishing this purpose of Amoud university. And one of the major obstacles is that a university needs financial resources that can use for these activities...to finance its activities and its programs. (Academic Administrator)

So, actually, the scarcity of funds. These actually plan has cost tags for every project. So, without funds it is almost impossible to achieve this strategic plan. (Academic Administrator)

Specifically in fact in general, the problems are fund...funds. The budget allocated, for example, because Somaliland is not a recognized country the...the faults when its' not recognized it doesn't have...you know, it doesn't get the support that other countries get from...for example, that developing countries get from United Nations... trade interactions, transaction, not transactions ... in fact

the government is focused, solely focused on statehood and peace...so funds for education is very small, funds for education...of course the government is focused on primary and secondary education only, they are only involved in that and not in higher education. Universities are...what you call, simply private. The government supports them only a little bit, just, it's not reaching really. The problem is financial really, financial. It all comes to what? We cannot pay, the students cannot pay high tuition fees. People are very poor. Our tuition fee averages, you know certain faculties are more, but the average is \$200 per semester. (Academic Administrator)

there is not enough financial resources. The operation of the university depends on the tuition charges to the students. And, if you were to ask me how much is that, it is less than \$500 a year. And we have teachers and the teachers don't need much and the living standard is very expensive here as more people come to the city. So, financial resources is a challenge. (Academic Administrator)

Many of the above quotes include some aspect of institutional infrastructure as a part of their argument for the need for resources (libraries, books, laboratories, etc.). Interview responses highlighting 'infrastructure' specifically as a factor affecting quality include...

The major impediment is the lack of facilities in terms of general equipment and ICT equipment. By that I just want to say the computers in the laboratory and the audio visual equipment used for teaching and learning. So, lack of equipment is a major obstacle. (Lecturer)

Infrastructure for the social sciences, yes...but for the hard sciences, no. (Lecturer)

Right now...our main challenges are infrastructure... (Academic Administrator)

The other challenge: the infrastructure. This building that we are in, where Hargeisa university is located, used to be a high school. The high school has been converted to a university. So we don't have an auditorium, we don't have good libraries, we don't have enough classrooms for students. (Academic Administrator)

Student university preparation. According to academic staff in Somaliland, another factor affecting higher education quality is student preparation for tertiary education (Salmi, 2009). AU and Admas include programs focused on incoming students

to offer them the opportunity to master skills necessary for linguistic and scientific rigor of tertiary education. UOH requires students to take an entrance exam before admission to measure their linguistic and general knowledge competences. From Tables 4.16 and 4.17, academic staff 'strongly agree' to 'agree' that "Level of student preparation for tertiary education" affects the quality of higher education in Somaliland. An academic administrator states...

At the national [high school] examination, if they really take it seriously, you'll see the national examination, you'll see the standard when you see the paper...because the exam levels looks very high. Somehow, the students pass the examinations because, I don't know, let's be frank, politically the government doesn't want to have so many students out of schools. So thousand and thousands... they don't have choice for them they don't have vocational schools. So, what is going to happen if they ...they just go to the streets. So, I think it is the general policy of the ministry ...

Thus, because of the central government policy goal of maintaining youth engagement for peace and stability, students are often given a secondary education diploma which qualifies them for tertiary education study. Relating to student university preparation, academic staff state...

Of course, anywhere you go you have to face this especially the students who come from the secondary level are very far behind...So, we must take some time to help them understand (Lecturer)

The quality of the teaching learning system here it still has got some gap to be improved. You know our students are coming from some different backgrounds. The education in the elementary and the secondary schools here is really very poor. Really very poor. (Lecturer)

Research. As shown in the first section of this chapter, minimal research is being done throughout the higher education landscape of Somaliland (see Table 4.4). Yet, 76% of academic staff surveyed stated that they had at least an interest in research. This

phenomenon of recognizing the importance of research and the lack of institutional resources (material or human) allotted to research produces a concerned response from academic staff interviewed. From Table 4.16 and 4.17, academic staff 'strongly agree' to 'agree' that "Level of your research activities" and "Availability of research grants" effect the quality of higher education in Somaliland. So, when questioned on the importance of research to their institutions, interviewees state that production is very low and that this is a necessary venue for development. For example...

[Research is] very, very important, but to be frank, here no teachers are contributing to these articles [commenting on research publication measurement]. In another way we can do that we can hold conferences, seminars, and something like that. So, that we can improve and other people can improve their knowledge. (Lecturer)

Yes, why not? Teachers should be involved ... students should also be involved in simple research as already they are doing for the graduate course, but that is not enough. That is very important ... why students are dropped out, we can do research. Why students are not concentrating, we can do research [I think he is saying we can do research on the students]... how many students are supported by remittances. We need our students to be doing practical research. But we need books, this is lacking here. We need good books...There is a lot of potential to do research here, but we need support. You know managing classes and research is a heavy burden here. (Lecturer)

Another area that I'm recommending to emphasize is research and publications. The university doesn't exist only to do teaching and learning process also it should be an academic research in the country. There are a lot of potential areas that are required to have ... whether political or social or economical ... every angle it needs you know research. So, it's a virgin area. So, the universities also have to emphasize the research department, not only teaching. (Academic Administrator)

Frankly, [research activity] is very, very low. We can say even in a viable way...even...we face the dust...this school is concerned about that, it's under development now. We develop the policies, we develop the focus, we develop the people who are going to train the other people, we develop the areas we are going.

Still, Amoud doesn't have any publications or research that they produced by themselves. But there are some academic researches which are produced by the students that academically...that quality might be in doubt...but Amoud is still going to have research or develop the research itself it is going now. (Lecturer)

Student power through activism. Another factor that interviewees highlighted affecting the quality of teaching in higher education related to the power of the academic consumer in Somaliland, the student. Since the state has little resources to contribute to higher education and competition between universities for student enrollment is high, student 'consumers' of higher education have a lot of influence on tuition levels, class workloads, curriculum, and choice of lecturers. This phenomenon is not reflected in the survey instrument as a factor affecting quality; however items relating to this phenomenon include the fact that lecturers indicated students as the chief evaluator of their teaching (Table 4.11). Interview data reveals that this informal evaluation from students may have negative effects on teaching quality in higher education. For example...

So, they are trying to force the instructors to be lenient. Giving easy exams and what you call easy assignments. And these things come from the side of the population not from the side of the instructors. (Lecturer)

Yes, we have academic freedom society wise ... but still we feel we are not able to implement certain things because of student activism. If we pressurize more we will be branded as ... "he is not a good teacher." (Lecturer)

Two different students are there. Students who are grade oriented, thinking always about their grades, those students like a teacher who gives them grades without too much pressure. They will consider him as the best. (Lecturer)

Linguistics. Another factor that interviewees highlighted affecting the quality of teaching in higher education related to the English competence of lecturers and students. English language is considered important for the competitiveness of top research

institutions globally (Altbach & Salmi, 2011). Somaliland academic staff see English language competence in students as a problem stemming from the lower educational institutions (see section on “student preparation for tertiary education”). However, this linguistic issue is also highlighted for academic staff and students in relation to other factors considered (student power, academic staff, governance, etc.). It is set apart here due to the frequency in which it was mentioned as a key factor. The survey instrument does not isolate this as a factor specifically, but linguistic characteristics of staff are elicited and are shown in Table 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8. Interview respondents stated...

And one thing they can't go besides their laziness or lack of stamina is that their English is very poor. So, once he starts reading the first page and he can't get anything from it...I mean, what would you do...he would just put his hand on it and throw it into the trash, right? That is a major thing. (Lecturer)

English language is a problem that cuts across the board. 17 classes I visited...17 classes when I was the vice-president. Only two were giving their lectures in English. The other fifteen were giving their lectures in a combination of English and Somali, but usually 70% of the lecture was in Somali. ... And, the medium of instruction is English ... (Lecturer)

Our quality of instruction is also very poor. Even at university level, at lecturer level, there are lecturers who are teaching from A to Z in the Somali language and these students are going to fail their exams in English (Academic Administrator)

War. Another factor that interview respondents highlight affecting the quality of higher education is the instability of their region. Since Somaliland is not a recognized country, they have more difficulty relating with international entities, both private and public. Where surrounding countries like Kenya, Djibouti, and Ethiopia have made significant steps in advancing higher education quality in their contexts through government intervention, Somaliland and Somalia have had to rely mostly on private funds (tuition and donations) to advance their tertiary educational agendas. ‘War’ is not

isolated in the survey instrument as a factor affecting higher education quality. However, the repercussions of war, such as the destruction of infrastructure, limitation of resources, good governance, and human resource flight are reflected in academic staff responses to specific survey items. For example, as shown in Figure 4.3, the year academic staff began working in higher education indicates the dramatic closure of higher education during the years of the civil war. Also, the various governance issues highlighted above can be seen as the result of the destruction of government and the slow “recovery after the coma” (Academic Administrator). For example a few academic staff state...

There was another challenge which is actually, you know, the quality of the country after the civil war, the whole country was under wreckage. Then, establishing an institution...a higher education institution...in this kind of environment itself was an obstacle. (Academic Administrator)

When we talk about government and also the quality, the government can contribute to the quality, but the government needs a lot of basic requirements to contribute or to help or to assist to the quality of higher education. So, as you know, in this country, there were ... a lot of civil wars, and ...the government we have is so limited. (Lecturer)

Another challenge is that although Somaliland is peaceful, and thank God it's peaceful in a place where peace is not common, the government is not recognized by the international community. And that in itself denies the country opportunity for economic development, infrastructure, and rehabilitation resources. (Academic Administrator)

Tertiary options for students (no technical education). Another factor that interview respondents highlight affecting the quality of higher education is the lack of tertiary options for students. This phenomenon is not well represented in a survey item associated with factors affecting higher education quality. However, it does relate to overall acceptance of students to university level training who aren't prepared for this level of study where, in a more diversified post-secondary education system, these

students would have the option of technical professions and trades. Diversification in tertiary education is a natural phenomenon of massification (McCormick & Zhao, 2010). In Somaliland however, institutions are nearly homogenous in the scope of education they provide. There are no formal technical education opportunities for Somaliland youth as attractive options for future employment. Interviewees suggest that the matriculation of students to higher education institutions who would be better suited in technical education tends to lower the overall quality of education at the tertiary level. For example...

The other thing graduates from high schools they are going to the university level which is not existing an alternative. So the government of Somaliland also they need to think how they can establish a poly-technical school. So, some students could go to that area. ... whether plumbing or carpentry, or electricity, electronics, mechanics, welding, ... So, right now all of them, all the graduates from high school they don't have a single other choice, so they have to go to the university level. (Academic Administrator)

What employment opportunities exist? Not really anything. So, they go to university but they are not really cut out for academia whereas if there was ... two year job training or two year technical institute, you know, carpentry, plumbing, more of the skilled labor, building, welding, even things like office management, office skills, secretarial work, those kinds of things. If they had those things that don't require a four year degree but maybe a two year training more in skills training...ah...I think that a lot of students would go to those and then you'd get a better balance of academics in the university as opposed to having the lower to middle level students being there because there was nothing else for them to do. But there aren't institutions like that here...so you either finish your high school and secondary school and chew khat or you go to university and university is obviously the better option. (Lecturer)

Qualitative data on academic staff view of key indicators of higher education

quality. In Figure 4.5 a cloud diagram representation of the survey item, “*What are two or three indicators of higher education quality in Somaliland?*” is shown.

Consistent with the goals of tertiary education discussed above to educate youth for socio-economic development and to keep the peace, the highest weighted theme for indicators of higher education success is related to the phenomena of ‘students,’ ‘graduates,’ ‘enrollment,’ and ‘employment.’ This seems natural as an indicator because of the teaching focus of higher education and the post-war development agenda. Research as an indicator of higher education quality was over six times less prevalent in word count than students or graduates. This finding seems consistent with the current role of Somaliland higher education, yet in conflict with the desire of academic staff as shown in the section above on research affecting the quality of higher education institutions.

Table 4.20

List of indicators used in Somaliland higher education encoded from qualitative analysis of Somaliland academic staff interviews.

| Indicator | Interviewees | References |
|----------------------------------------------------|--------------|------------|
| Students (total) | 40 | 124 |
| Student employment | 19 | 52 |
| Student enrollment | 13 | 48 |
| Student competition in international exams/schools | 8 | 24 |
| Academic staff qualifications | 16 | 63 |
| International connections | 24 | 57 |
| Infrastructure (libraries, labs, etc.) | 6 | 16 |
| English use | 4 | 12 |

Qualitative analysis of interview data revealed a number of indicators that academic staff use to measure the quality of higher education. A list of indicators is shown in Table 4.20. These are coded using NVivo 10 software and are sorted according to the number of references in the interview transcriptions. The indicators “students,” “academic staff,” and “international connections” are explained in this section because of their overwhelming prevalence and related to their confirmation of quantitative data shown above.

Overall, qualitative data of indicators of higher education quality produced different results than the quantitative data set. Inconsistency in this result is perhaps a reflection of the relative infancy of quality assurance and measurement in the region. Lack of knowledge or application of institutional norms creates a variance of response and perhaps openness to new institutional measures (Harvey & Williams, 2010). One interviewee when prompted about what surprised him/her in the interview discussion responded, “I was surprised that you asked me about indicators of the educational institutions. Nobody asks this question because nobody knows what these are about” (Lecturer).

Students. Students are referenced twice as often as any other indicator of higher education quality in interviews with academic staff. This seems to contradict what is shown in quantitative data where academic staff qualifications, international connections, and research are more important than student indicators (see Tables 4.16, 4.17. and 4.18). It could be that ‘student enrollment’ is not asked in a general way in the questionnaire, but is asked according to “Enrollment in science and technology majors.” There are a number of aspects in which this higher education output is considered: employment, enrollment, and competition in international exams or schools. Regarding employment, no official number exists on the economic state of Somaliland but the estimated unemployment rate is over 50% making this an important issue for educational institutions in a competitive higher education environment. If more of an institution’s students achieve gainful employment this represents a success for their institution. For example, academic staff state...

And we give a quality education and our witnesses is our student output.
(Academic Administrator)

...[an important indicator is]...employability of the students (Lecturer)

...the reaction you get from employers who access graduates from Amoud University and say [stamp sound] ‘good quality’ ...and performance on the job
(Academic Administrator)

Enrollment is an important indicator of higher education quality for multiple reasons. First, because of the sector-wide goal to grow youth engagement in order to counter irregular migration, terrorism, increasing enrollment is considered part and parcel of the continued stability of the country. Then, investment in human capital to promote economic and social development contributes to this concept as an indicator. Next, enrollment growth within departments indicates the viability of the curriculum to be meeting the needs of the higher education consumers. Finally, enrollment is an indicator of competitive success over other institutions in the country and region. For example, a number of academic staff state...

[An indicator is] the number of students that come to the departments. These days the development studies department is considered—let me say—the best department. Why? We’ve got students starting from 26, then 68, then 123, now we’ve got 165 to 175. The ... increasing number... that one is an indicator.
(Lecturer)

...the enrollment. It’s basically the indication...the number of students...increasing or decreasing. (Lecturer)

Student performance on international exams or schools outside of the Somaliland environment is an important indicator of quality inside of the Somaliland context. Because of the weakness of the central higher education governance shown above, institutions look for measurement of their productivity from outside the local tertiary education context. This is particularly shown in student performance in graduate

education abroad or third party examinations to award scholarships or entrance to their higher education systems. Some academic staff state...

And our students are competitive when it comes to local and international universities also. We do have a lot of our products that do teach in universities here whether that is here or Gollis or Hargeisa or other universities. The other maybe benchmark can be the scholarship that Turkish government provide which our students got 70% of the total share. That means around 10 got the Turkish scholarship which was barely open competition for every students. Finally, out of all of those students ten students were selected for scholarships and out of that ten students seven were from Admas. (Academic Administrator)

So, the external examination is run by King's College...that means the teachers, the doctors we turned out made a very good impression on the people. Locally produced doctors. They found really out that they... very close... if not equal, to some of the doctors that graduated from abroad. (Academic Administrator)

There were some students who left here and took a test. They were looking for a scholarship and all of them who left here they got a scholarship. They did great. (Lecturer)

Academic staff. The teachers, lecturers, and staff of higher education institutions are the second most referenced indicator of quality for higher education. It is shown in qualitative interview data that this is mostly construed in three ways: staff qualification, internationalization, and curriculum. This is consistent with quantitative data. As shown in Table 4.18, "Number of professors with doctoral degrees" is the most highly agreed upon indicator for academic staff. As shown in Table 4.17, "Degree to which instruction is student centered" is the most highly agreed upon indicator of teaching quality. Finally, association with international collaborations and international ranking also show the value for indicators that are developed outside of the Somaliland context. For Somaliland, where a doctoral degree is not the standard for access to faculty positions (see Table 4.4), this is an important comparative indicator for institutions. One interviewee states...

When the university is hiring you, you have to have a master's degree at least. This is the first indicator, and you have to have some experience teaching. Maybe in secondary schools but the first indicator is that you have to have at least a Master's degree. (Lecturer)

International connections. As shown with student indicators, Somaliland higher education looks to international connections and comparisons as important indicators to the advancement of quality within their institutions. This is consistent with survey results showing that academic staff "agree" to "strongly agree" that "International ranking of your institution," is an important indicator. This value is often shown in the way academic staff reported on specific partnership programs with American or European institutions. A few academic staff state...

So, normally when we are making our promotion programs, first, we say that Admas is an international university that has accreditation ... the degree they are getting is recognized. (Academic Administrator)

Having international partners is important for improving our university and our systems. For example, recently ... in March, a representative from the University of Massachusetts visited us here ...so they are trying to establish some linkages or programs that we can cooperate between Amoud and the University of Massachusetts. So, we are concerned about international participation, international cooperation (Academic Administrator)

yeah exactly...we are applying now to be a member of a great association...international association of universities in Paris...I'm working on that these days. Also association of African universities, we are applying that also...also association of Arab universities, we are applying to them as well. We are a member of African virtual universities. And, you know, we are partnership...we have many close partnership with King's College and many institutions and international organizations... (Academic Administrator)

Amoud University exists to significantly contribute to the fullest ... development of Somaliland through educational development and training and enable them to freely interact with the global village. Today we are no longer isolated. We are part and parcel of the international community. Although politically we are not recognized, educationally we are recognized, we exist. We interact with others, it

is very important for us to interact with them because it is a win-win situation.
(Academic Administrator)

Summary

In this study academic staff perspectives of factors affecting higher education quality are reported. The clearest factor affecting higher education quality is academic staff qualification and training. Due to human resource flight during the civil war of the 1980s and 1990s (see Figure 4.3) lecturers are underqualified compared to international and regional standards, only 4% hold a doctoral qualification (see Table 4.3). This reality is clearly explained in an interview with a lecturer who quipped, “A janitor who cannot find a job can come teach at university.” Consistent with this result, academic staff view “number of professors with doctoral degrees” as the most important indicator of quality in higher education. Though, as is shown in qualitative interviews, student related outcomes (employment, enrollment, performance on international exams) are also important indicators of institutional success.

Higher education academic staff construct their quality framework based on their goals of educating youth, development, and peace. In concordance with these goals, lecturers, leaders, and politicians see academic staff as a key component to achieving their goals for higher education. At the same time, the limitations of the economic and social system of Somaliland restrict the ability of the communities to develop higher education further. Broader educational issues to prepare students, security, and mismanagement are seen as other critical factors affecting the system of education. In the next chapter, conclusions, recommendations, and limitations are considered based on the results of this study.

Chapter 5: Discussion of Findings

Higher education quality is an important issue confronting Somaliland. The significant growth of tertiary education in Somaliland in a context of limited resources or diversification has exacerbated the situation. Quality tertiary education systems are believed to be drivers of economic, social, democratic, and cultural growth. Regions like Somaliland, which are denoted by extreme poverty, civil war and poor infrastructure, and a struggle to provide basic, secondary, and tertiary education to their population. In this chapter, the ramifications of this research for theory and policy in higher education are explored first. Then limitations to this research and possibilities for further study are considered.

Ramifications for higher education theory

As discussed in previous chapters, to consider academic perspectives on higher education quality, two theoretical lenses are used to frame the quality discussion and underlying social construction of the purpose of higher education (Salmi, 2009; Trow, 1974, 2000). As previously discussed, Salmi frames the international discussion of quality in terms of competition for ‘world-class’ status and Trow’s model helps us to explore the underlying social foundations shaping higher education in growth transitions. For a higher education context like Somaliland, both of these frameworks are necessary for understanding the views of academic staff in a competitive, expanding system.

World class university framework. Somaliland is not isolated from the international frameworks and trends affecting higher education development. In fact, because of the high number of professors who acquire their graduate diploma outside of Somaliland, over half of all lecturers are confronted with a comparison of higher

education internationally. It is not surprising therefore, to see academic staff perspectives of factors affecting higher education conform closely with Salmi's model (see Figure 5.1).

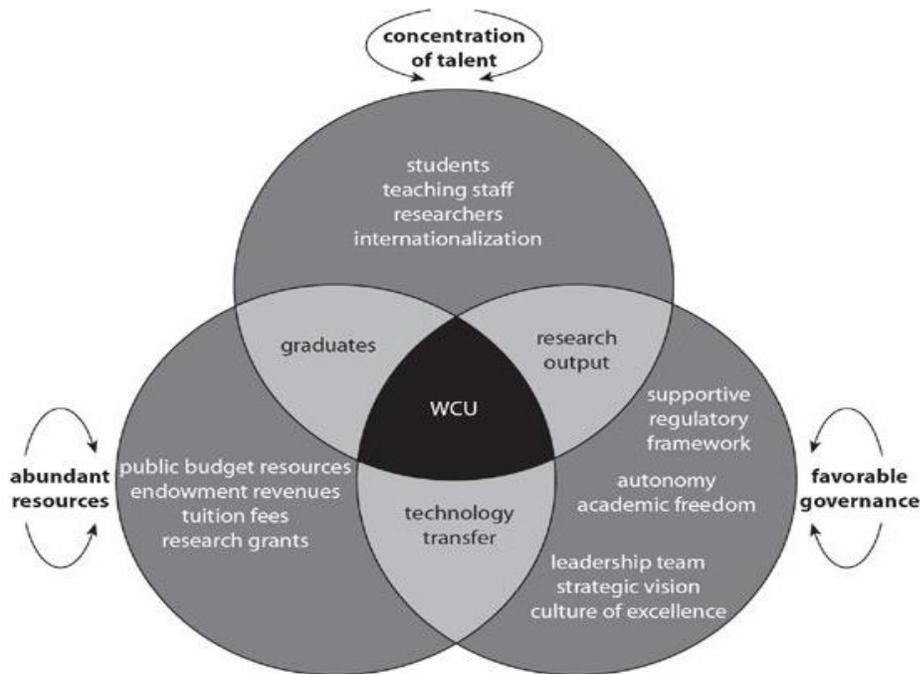


Figure 5.1: Model of a world class university (Salmi, 2009).

Clearly, academic staff perspective of higher education as a tool of ‘development’ and their view of research as an important part of the higher education landscape suggest a view of higher education that is consistent with international policies developed external to the Somaliland landscape (Cloete et al., 2011; World Bank 2002). This framework of competitive higher education is very relevant for the higher education landscape of Somaliland even though none of the universities in this study ‘compete’ for patents, grant funding, or international students. Regardless, ‘world-class’ models of higher education *are* relevant for Somaliland because of the mobility of academic staff,

the prevalence of privatized education and therefore competition for consumers of Somaliland higher education, and the tendency to borrow policy from a perceived ‘center’ of the international higher education system. As one academic administrator stated, “[other universities] are competing with Kenyan and Ethiopian universities and we are not. We’re setting our objectives higher, our targets, higher than this. If we compete with this we’ll never improve.” Another academic administrator even suggested the usefulness of policy borrowing for the development of Somaliland’s system,

...we know there is a common international standard with regard to higher education. But due also to the economic situation the government cannot afford to do so many things...if they follow the customs of the higher education policies of the neighboring countries or relevant countries, it would be possible to work with that policy.

It is significant to note the similarity between common themes of factors affecting higher education quality and the Salmi framework. Abundance of resources, abundance of talent, and favorable governance of higher education all came under pointed scrutiny in both quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Factors such as “academic staff training,” “student preparation for tertiary education,” and factors related to internal university governance all fall under the categorical framework of “abundance of talent.” Then, factors associated with an “abundance of resources” such as the “availability of research grants,” “public investment in higher education,” and “availability of library resources” all point to the inability of the private or public sector to raise significant funds for higher education. Finally, the weakness of the government to control the quality of higher education or to diversify higher education in order to meet the needs of the

country's development plan points to the lack of "favorable governance" in the Somaliland higher education landscape. Thus, although Somaliland higher education is not competitive in terms of attracting foreign students or staff, Salmi's model is still relevant for the factors that matter most to the academic staff of this region. In essence, Somaliland academic staff *are* pursuing a competitive higher education system.

Other social theories may be more relevant for certain aspects of the higher education system in Somaliland. Human rights, capability approach, or social cohesion theory may be necessary to account for certain aspects of the formation and expansion of higher education in the region. For example, the way students use a collective power structure to influence university policy may be better explained by social cohesion theory. However, as discussed above, neoliberalism and competitive higher education also is relevant to explain much of the power students have as consumers in a mostly privatized system. It is not the intention of this research to force a theoretical model onto the locally constructed values for higher education.

Massification. Trow's model is less applicable to the historical and social expansion of higher education in the Somaliland context than Salmi's competitive framework. According to Trow's framework, current enrollment rates in Somaliland (<5%) would represent an 'elite' status of higher education. At least from academic staff viewpoints, social attitudes toward higher education don't reflect these same values. The attributes of Trow's massification theory for 'elite,' 'mass,' and 'universal' higher education, as well as a conceptualization of Somaliland social attitude toward higher education based on quantitative and qualitative data as explained in Chapter 4 is shown in Table 5.1. Of the ten attributes associated with Trow's massification framework, seven of

the attributes for Somaliland contradict their current enrollment rate status. Why are Somaliland attitudes more consistent with ‘mass’ higher education than ‘elite’ higher education for the academic staff sampled?

Table 5.1
A comparison of social transformation in Martin Throw's theory to Somaliland academic staff responses in surveys and interviews

| <u>Attribute</u> | <u>Elite (0-15%)</u> | <u>Mass (16-50%)</u> | <u>Universal (over 50%)</u> | <u>Somaliland (<5% est.)</u> |
|----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1) Attitudes to access | A privilege of birth or talent or both | <i>A right for those with certain qualifications</i> | An obligation for the middle and upper classes | Admit as many as possible, even lower admission standards to increase enrollment of youth; a right |
| 2) Functions of higher education | Shaping mind and character of ruling class; preparation for elite roles | <i>Transmission of skills; preparation for broader range of technical and economic elite roles</i> | Adaptation of 'whole population' to rapid social and technological change | Keep youth busy to avoid conflict and instability in the region; Provide human labor to develop the country |
| 3) Curriculum and forms of instruction | <i>Highly structured in terms of academic or professional conceptions of knowledge</i> | Modular, flexible and semi-structured sequence of courses | Boundaries and sequences break down; distinctions between learning and life break down | Highly structured series of courses for students; For example, students have little choice for any ‘elective’ courses |
| 4) The student 'career' | "Sponsored" after secondary school; works uninterruptedly until gains degree | <i>Increasing numbers delay entry; more drop out</i> | Much postponement of entry, softening of boundaries between formal education and other aspects of life; term-time working | “Something to do”; not many options for post-secondary life in terms of employment; some fraudulent enrollment prior to secondary graduation; |
| 5) Forms of academic administration | Part-time academics who are 'amateurs at administration'; elected/appointed for limited periods | <i>Former academics now full-time administrators plus large and growing bureaucracy</i> | More specialist full-time professionals. Managerial techniques imported from outside academe | Former academics now full-time administrators plus large and growing bureaucracy |

Note. Red or italicized font denotes closest convergent theme in Trow’s framework to Somaliland values.

Table 5.1 (cont.)

A comparison of social transformation in Martin Throw's theory to Somaliland academic staff responses in surveys and interviews

| Attribute | Elite (0-15%) | Mass (16-50%) | Universal (over 50%) | Somaliland (<5% est.) |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 6) Academic standards | Broadly shared and relatively high (in meritocratic phase) | Variable; system/institution 'become holding companies for quite different kinds of academic enterprises' | <i>Criterion shifts from 'standards' to 'value added'</i> | Low standards designed to keep students in university for as long as possible |
| 7) Access and selection | Meritocratic achievement based on school performance | <i>Meritocratic plus 'compensatory programs' to achieve equality of opportunity</i> | open,' emphasis on 'equality of group achievement' (class, ethnic) | Meritocratic achievement based on school performance (yet, laxation of standards to increase enrollment) |
| 8) Locus of power and decision making | The Athenaeum--small elite group, shared values and assumptions -Homogenous with high and common standards | <i>Ordinary political processes of interest groups and party programs</i> | Mass publics' question special privileges and immunities of academe | Elders of the community who aren't necessarily a part of academia; presidents of individual institutions; board of directors |
| 9) Institutional characteristics | - Small residential communities - Clear and impermeable boundaries | Comprehensive with more diverse standards "Cities of intellect" --mixed residential/commuting boundaries fuzzy and permeable | Great diversity with no common standards Aggregates of people enrolled some of whom are rarely or never on campus Boundaries weak or non-existent | Limited choice of majors for students All commuting, clan-based, Not observed |
| 10) Internal governance | Senior professors | <i>Professors and junior staff with increasing influence from students</i> | Breakdown of consensus making institutional governance insoluble; decision-making flows into hands of political authority | President and full-time academic administrators; students have significant power in some arenas due to heavy reliance on tuition and competition between universities |

Note. Red or italicized font denotes closest convergent theme in Trow's framework to Somaliland values.

The overarching social values elicited from academic staff regarding the purpose for establishing higher education are peace and development. Peace, as shown in the

previous chapter, is a concept that undergirded the foundation of AU in particular. One academic administrator from AU states “In your countries, ...objectives of higher education ... is to promote research and to conduct teaching and academic activities. But here also, there is a third element ... that it is also part and parcel of the peace building process.” UOH, Admas, and other government officials reflect this value for higher education as well, having added the international recognition (Admas), Somaliland nationalism (UOH), and competition for local students as strong foundational values.

For Trow’s framework that reflected the transformation of social values of the United States and Europe, avoiding internal conflict and garnering international recognition were not strong social foundations for higher education. Thus, the Somaliland process of massification of higher education and the social views toward this level of education likely represents another transformational social process than the phenomenon that occurred in the United States during the 1960s and 1970s.

There may be a number of explanations for why higher education is not thought of as limited to an ‘elite’ section of society. First, since all the institutions in Somaliland have been recently initiated on foundational values different than long standing traditional universities of Europe or North America, the institutionalization of the individuals who are able or desire to access these organizations has ‘leapfrogged’ from an ‘elite’ social class to an intrinsic social perception of ‘mass’ higher education. Though there is not currently ‘mass’ enrollment, social conceptions of higher education initiated in the global context of mass education have produced a social attitude consistent with this phenomenon. One expression of this in the Somaliland context is that these institutions exist to “keep youth busy” (government official, lecturer, academic

administrator), so the more youth who are able to participate, the clearer they are achieving this objective. Since participation is still estimated at less than five percent of the eligible cohort, the social and historical path of higher education for the Somaliland society will be significantly different.

Ramification for public policy

Somaliland government's interest in higher education is a recent phenomenon (2012). First, universities did not exist in the pre-Somaliland, historical context of this region. Then, institutions have been initiated from the private sector with little oversight or licensing of their right to exist in the Somaliland context. Thus, over the last twenty years, public investment in higher education in Somaliland has languished due to the limited availability of resources, absence of government structure for it, and years of global development policy in which it has been considered a 'private good' and not a priority for public investment. With the benefits of 'externalities' such as training effective leadership, a knowledgeable electorate, a critical mass of problem solving graduates, etc. not clearly quantified, tertiary education in Somaliland is likely to continue to exist nearly entirely on tuition and private donations for the near future. As one academic administrator put it, "we're just coming out of the coma." In a time of awakening, there is a chance for great productivity and change (Hopkin, 2004).

Academic staff also admit that higher education in Somaliland is at a crossroads or a time of educational reformation. Rapid expansion for the last twenty years is being questioned due to the lack of quality output from academic endeavors. One lecturer stated, "[the university] has been going now for over 15 years and I really think in the last year or two they've come to the realization that they need to pursue quality and not just

quantity.” Evidence of this is the formation of a higher education directorate within the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MoEHE) in 2011. However, most lecturers and administrators express frustration with this situation and would like to see the Somaliland president sign the higher education act which would empower the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) to carry out its mandate of inspection and accreditation of universities in the system. For the meantime, CHE acts only on presidential decree in a limited capacity.

Thus, given that the current environment is favorable to increased quality interventions and given that there is now a government infrastructure established to act on these interventions, the results of this study are relevant for informing factors and indicators that matter most in the views of academic staff. As presented in Chapter 4—and categorized according to Salmi’s ‘world-class’ model for higher education—factors affecting higher education most clearly for academic staff include: availability of library resources (books, videos, journals, etc.) and the availability of research grants (resources); a clearly established strategic vision, strength of collaboration between government and higher education, and extent of competence in the administrative team (governance); and, extent of teacher training, level of faculty training, and level of student preparation for tertiary education (talent).

Current policy goals of the MoEHE (listed in full in Appendix F) expressed in the 2012-2016 Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) reflect the need for increased evaluation and research on higher education quality in the context. Though the minister for higher education was not available for interview in conjunction with this research, findings from the viewpoints of academic staff are consistent with MoEHE goals. The

results of this research could help prioritize goals that matter most to the institutions considered. Below, a number of recommendations are made based on these results however, governance is not considered in light of current policies which are hoped to alleviate this perceived need by academic staff.

First, more resources need to be allocated to higher education. Relevant literature considers a blended system of state and private sources of revenue for higher education to be the model that most supports the goals of excellence in academic pursuits and supplying human resources for the ongoing development of communities (Johnstone, 2008; Pillay, 2010). Resources drive many of the objectives of academic staff and MoEHE, however, the highest priority for academic staff is the availability of libraries, videos, journals, etc.

Second, the level of training for academic staff should be addressed. Most literature considers the lecturers and professors in higher education to be the linchpin of quality in the pursuit of academic excellence (Altbach, 2011; Enders & deWeert, 2009). Somaliland universities lag behind most regions in terms of the qualifications of academic staff. Two of the three institutions in this study employed significant number of professors with only a bachelor's qualification. Admas, as an exception in Somaliland, employed lecturers with a master's degree or higher because of its affiliation with Ethiopian regulations for the university sector. Future policy toward the accreditation of universities and licensing of institutions must address the level and number of master's and doctorate holders necessary in a faculty or university in order to address the relevant knowledge, competencies, and evaluation of the students being trained. In the meantime,

in-service teacher training should be considered for eliciting the most effective utilization of the teaching force currently employed.

Then, diversification of post-secondary education should be considered due to the development needs of the country, interests of students less likely to pursue ‘white-collar’ careers, and to address the reduction in standards for higher education entry. Though some critics warn diversification does not always produce positive movements in quality (Teichler, 2008), certainly the absence of any technical, vocational, and education training (TVET) leaves a void in the system for individuals interested in these types of careers. For MoEHE, TVET is an important component in the Somaliland plan for educational reform. This issue was addressed by multiple academic staff interviewed because it represents a lack of options in the tertiary education landscape of the region. In addition to this, MoEHE admits to the systematic loosening of standards in order to keep youth engaged in education. The ESSP states, “There is an unwritten rule regarding education in Somaliland stating that students do not fail certificate examination.” So, with more mediocre students flooding to higher education, which students are encouraged to take up the hands-on, infrastructure development needs of the country?

MoEHE’s priority in allocation of resources for preparing students for higher education is clearly focused on the improvement of ‘first-cycle’ education (K-8) not tertiary education. Education financing plans for 2012-2016 puts over six times more resources toward primary education than tertiary, TVET and teacher training combined. Though this may be strategic for accomplishing the global goal of universal primary education, without a balanced approach to educational financing, the graduates of

primary education may have nowhere to turn for the further education they desire if more consideration isn't also given to secondary and tertiary systems.

Finally, resources should be allocated to strategic research in Somaliland. Infrastructure for scientific labs is unrealistic, yet funds for public health studies, agriculture, geology, resource exploration, linguistics, and social phenomena are more easily attainable. Universities' lecturers could be a key resource for rigorous academic study. However, the number of staff holding doctoral degrees remains an issue for the work of rigorous theoretically based and epistemologically sound research endeavors. External partners (universities, institutes, etc.) may be necessary for the near future until a sufficient body of researchers can be employed internally.

Limitation of research

There are a number of limitations to this research both methodological and specific to the researcher. First, the sample size and population size limited the statistical analysis of quantitative data collected in the study. Twenty four surveys were collected from Admas, but this was reasonable given the population size of 37 lecturers. Forty seven surveys were completed at UOH, the largest institution in the study with nearly 350 'lecturers.' A more representative sample would have been over 150 surveys. However, there is a significant question regarding the actual population size and the commitment those lecturers to their higher education career. The extensive use of part-time lecturers at UOH and AU clouded the actual population of individuals who would primarily self-identify with the profession. Though lecturers are asked about their satisfaction with current employment, they are not asked in the survey if they would prefer employment elsewhere. The commitment of individuals to the higher education career and this

phenomenon's effect on higher education quality needs further investigation in Somaliland.

A second limitation of the study related to the parallel design of quantitative and qualitative data collection. Due to the limited time-frame of access to the institutions in question and their remote location, field testing of the quantitative survey instrument was through a few key individuals in academic administration who were holders of more advanced degrees (Master's and PhDs). Limited feedback on survey design from these individuals and assurance that lecturers' linguistic abilities would be sufficient to complete the questionnaire in a timely fashion proved somewhat false. Observation of individuals completing the questionnaire made it clear that English language competence was an issue for some and the length of the questionnaire (10 pages) made completion times longer than expected.

Also related to the limitation of parallel data collection methods for this study was that it did not allow significant alteration to the survey design to reflect some of the factors and indicators of higher education quality that arose in more in depth interview analysis. Student indicators related to enrollment or indicators related to non-violence in accordance with these values for higher education were not included in survey design. The survey included spaces for inputting "other indicators/factors" but only a few participants availed themselves of this option.

Another limitation of the survey and interview respondents was the possibility of attribution. This perhaps arose in reporting on higher education governance external to the institutions themselves. Because the CHE is external to the governing bodies of individual institutions, it is easier to attribute problems with higher education to these

external forces than to the internal management and work of the universities themselves. This research does balance the sampled institutions with interview data from the commission itself as well as planning documents from MoEHE which also are aware of the need to increase the strength of collaboration between institutions and government.

A final limitation of this study is the lack of access to other key institutions in the higher education landscape of Somaliland. The three institutions considered in this study do represent the oldest (AU), biggest (UOH), and first international branch campus (Admas) in Somaliland. However, two other universities are important in the national higher education discussion. The first is Gollis University which focuses on engineering and science based education with around 200 lecturers. The second is Burco University which is another regional university of over 80 lecturers. Both universities were founded in the last 10 years and are estimated to have over 5000 students. These universities were approached for participation but had not responded to inquiries for research access by the time data collection was completed.

Suggestions for further study

Somaliland has many interesting questions that remain for international higher education research. First, questions remain about the differences between higher education systems regionally. A study that explored similar questions of higher education quality should be conducted in peripheral institutions in Ethiopia, Kenya, and Djibouti in order to look for regional trends, observe differences based on systemic issues, and build consensus on theoretical issues related to massification of the system regionally. Second, research focused on student outcomes needs further exploration. Where this study focused on academic staff viewpoints, students who are the other major participant in

higher education need to be surveyed and interviewed for their viewpoints on quality and measurement of higher education experience. Finally, longitudinal studies of institutional development need to be considered that take into consideration the processes of institutionalization in this context, student trajectories from enrollment to employment, and academic staff careers.

Summary

Somaliland higher education is at a crossroads. Significant growth in youth participation in the last 15 years is seen as a great success of peace-keeping efforts. From the ashes of post-civil war ruin and continued insecurity they have built over twenty institutions of tertiary education. Now key stakeholders are asking questions of the basic foundations on which higher education was founded. If the effort to “keep youth busy” has succeeded, quality of that system is the next challenge they are facing. The increasing role of government, the institutionalization of practice, and competition both nationally and regionally will shape higher education for the near future. However, with continued instability, internal disagreement about the direction of higher education, war with neighboring Somalia/Puntland, and limited resources for infrastructure development at the pinnacle of the educational system, there will continue to be significant hurdles to overcome. One government official shared the Somali proverb, “*furan dufan lahaane wax ma dugaan*” (fingers without grease can’t massage anything). Until Somaliland receives international recognition as a political entity finding resources to improve higher education will continue to be difficult. Most likely, academic staff will look to non-governmental organizations, the Somali diaspora community, and international higher education partners for the “grease” necessary to improve higher education quality.

References

- Abdi, A. A. (1998). Education in Somalia: History, destruction, and calls for reconstruction. *Comparative Education, 34*(3), 327-340.
- Abousarie, R. (1996). Stress, coping strategies and job satisfaction in university academic staff. *Educational Psychology, 16*, 49-56.
- African Development Bank. (2012a). Proceedings of the African Development Bank's human capital development strategy. Retrieved from:
<http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Generic-Documents/Summary--AfDB%20HCD%20Strategy%20Consultation%20Djibouti.pdf>
- African Development Bank. (2012b). *Jobs, justice, and the Arab spring: Inclusive growth in North Africa*. Tunis-Belvedere, Tunisia: African Development Bank.
- Alidou, O., Caffentzis, G., & Federici, S. (2008). 'We no go sit down': CAFA and the struggle against structurally adjusted education in Africa. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa, 6*(2), 61-75.
- Altbach, P. G. (1999). *Private prometheus: Private higher education and development in the 21st century*. Greenwood Press: Westport, CT.
- Altbach, P. G. (2003). The costs and benefits of world class universities. *International Higher Education, 33*. Retrieved from:
www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/News33/text003.htm.
- Altbach, P. G. (2006a). [Review of book, *Sustaining change in universities: Continuities in case studies and concepts* by B. R. Clark, 2004]. *Journal of Higher Education, 77*(5), 932-934.

- Altbach, P. G. (2006b). The dilemmas of ranking. *International Higher Education*, 42, 2–4. Retrieved from:
http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/Number42/p2_Altbach.htm.
- Altbach, P. G. (2011). The academic profession. In P. G. Altbach (Ed.) *Leadership for world-class universities: Challenges for developing countries* (205-223). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Altbach, P. G. (2012). The globalization of higher education rankings. *Change*, 44(1), 26-31.
- Altbach, P. G., & Salmi, J. (2011). *The road to academic excellence: The making of world-class research universities*. New York, NY: World Bank. Kindle Edition.
- Altbach, P., Reisberg, L., Yudkevich, M. Androushchak, G., & Pacheco, I. (2012). *Paying the professoriate: A global comparison of compensation and contracts*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Alwy, A., & Schech, S. (2004). Ethnic inequalities in education in Kenya. *International Education Journal*, 5(2), 266-274.
- Amano, I. (2010). Structural changes in the higher education system in Japan: Reflections on the comparative study of higher education using the theory of Martin Trow. *Educational Studies in Japan: International Yearbook*, 5, 79-93.
- Asian Development Bank (2011). *Higher education across Asia: An overview of issues and strategies*. Mandaluyong City, Philippines: Asian Development Bank.
- Bekalo, S. A., Brophy, M., & Welford, A.G. (2003). The development of education in post-conflict 'Somaliland.' *International Journal of Educational Development* 23, 459–475.

- Bentley, P. J., & Svein, K. (2011). Academic work from a comparative perspective: A survey of faculty working time across 13 countries. *Higher Education*, 63, 529-547.
- Bloom, D. E., & Sevilla, J. (2004). Should there be a general subsidy for higher education in developing countries? *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 2(1), 135-148.
- Bok, D. (2003). *Universities in the marketplace: The commercialization of higher education*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University.
- Bollier, D. (2002). The enclosure of the academic commons. *Academe*, 88(5), 18-22.
- Boyer, E. L., Altbach, P. G., & Whitelaw, M. J. (1994). *The academic profession: An international perspective*. Ewing, New Jersey: California/Princeton Fulfillment Services.
- Bradbury, M. (2008). *Becoming Somaliland*. London, UK: Progressio/James Currey.
- Bunting, I., & Cloete, N. (2012). *Cross-national performance indicators*. Wynberg, South Africa: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.
- Bunting, I., & Cloete, N. (2004). *Developing Performance Indicators for higher education: A South African case*. Wynberg, South Africa: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.
- Burrage, M. (2010). *Martin Trow: Twentieth-century higher education, elite to mass to universal*. Baltimore, MD: The John Hopkins University Press.

Burrows, A., Harvey, L., & Green, D. (1992, August). Concepts of quality in higher education: A review of the literature. *Quality in Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.qualityresearchinternational.com/Harvey%20papers/Burrows%20Harvey%20and%20Green%20Concepts%20of%20Quality%20in%20Higher%20Education%20A%20review%20of%20the%20literature%20.pdf>.

Chandran, P. (2014, January 29). New World Bank GDP and poverty estimates for Somaliland. *World Bank*. Retrieved from <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2014/01/29/new-world-bank-gdp-and-poverty-estimates-for-somaliland>

Chapman, D. W., Cummings, W. K., Postiglione, G. A. (Eds.) (2010). *Crossing borders in East Asian higher education*. New York, NY: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-0446-6

Chapman D. W., & Miric, S. L. (2009). Education quality in the Middle East. *International Review of Education*, 55(4), 311-344.

Centre for Higher Education Research and Information. (2010, July 21). The changing academic profession. Retrieved from <http://www.open.ac.uk/cheri/pages/CHERI-Projects-CAP.shtml>

Central Intelligence Agency. (2011). Map of the Horn of Africa. Retrieved from <http://www.zonu.com/fullsize-en/2009-09-17-46/Horn-of-Africa-Shaded-Relief-Map.html>

- Clark, B. R. (1989). The academic life: Small worlds, different worlds. *Educational Researcher*, 18(5), 4-8.
- Clark, B. R. (1998). *Creating entrepreneurial universities: Organizational pathways of transformation*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Clark, B. R. (2004). *Sustaining change in universities: Continuities in case studies and concepts*. Berkshire: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University.
- Coaldrake, P., Stedman, L. (1999). *Academic work in the twenty-first century*. Canberra, Australia: AusInfo.
- Cloete, N., Bailey, T., Pillay, P., Bunting, I., & Maassen, P. (2011). *Universities and economic development in Africa*. Wynberg, South Africa: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.
- Collins, C. S., & Rhoads, R. A. (2010). The World Bank, support for universities, and asymmetrical power relations in international development. *Higher Education*, 59, 181-205.
- Copur, H. (1990). 'Academic Professionals: a study of conflict and satisfaction in the professoriate', *Human Relations*, 43, 113-127.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Kindle edition.
- Cross, M., & Rouhani, S. (2004). Vanishing borders and new boundaries: Student and staff mobility and the internationalisation of South African higher education. In P. T. Zeleza & A. Olukoshi, *African universities in the twenty-first century* (234-239). Dakar, Senegal: CODESIRA.

- Currie, J. (1998). Globalization practices and the professoriate in Anglo-Pacific and North American universities. *Comparative Education Review*, 42(1), 15-29.
- Dearlove, J. (1997). The academic labour process: From collegiality and professionalism to managerialism and proletarianisation? *Higher Education Review*, 30(1), 56-75.
- Deem, R. (2001). Globalization, new managerialism, academic capitalism and entrepreneurialism in universities: Is the local dimension still important? *Comparative Education*, 37(1), 7-20.
- Deem, R., Mok, K. H., & Lucas, L. (2008). Transforming higher education in whose image? Exploring the concept of the 'world-class' university in Europe and Asia. *Higher Education Policy*, 21, 83-97.
- Dillman, D. A. (2010). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd Ed.). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Djibouti Ministry of Education (2010). *MOE-Annuaire statistique*. Retrieved from www.education.gov.dj.
- Dudzik, D. (2008). *English Policies, Curricular Reforms, and Teacher Development in Multilingual, Postcolonial Djibouti*. (Doctoral Dissertation) Available from University of Minnesota Libraries (UMI Microform No. 3313436).
- Enders, J. (2007). The academic profession. In J. F. Forest and P. G. Altbach, (Eds.), *International Handbook of Higher Education* (2-21). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.
- Enders, J., & de Weert, E. (2009). *The changing face of academic life: Analytical and comparative perspectives*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Gappa, J. M., Austin, A. E., & Trice, A. G. (2005). Rethinking faculty work and workplaces. *Change*, 37(6), 32-39.
- Gappa, J. M., Austin, A. E., & Trice, A. G. (2006). *Rethinking faculty work: Higher education's strategic imperative*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Fowler, G. (2005). An analysis of higher education staff attitudes in a dynamic environment. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 11, 183-197.
- Integrated Regional Information Networks. (2009, December 10). Somalia: Attack on graduation ceremony the "last straw." Retrieved from <http://www.irinnews.org/Report/87387/SOMALIA-Attack-on-graduation-ceremony-the-last-straw>.
- Lee Harvey, L., Williams, J. (2010). Fifteen years of quality in higher education. *Quality in Higher Education*, 16(1), 3-36.
- Hazelkorn, E. (2009). Rankings and the battle for world-class excellence: Institutional strategies and policy choices. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, 21(1), 1-22. doi:10.1787/hemp-v21-art4-en.
- Henkel, M. (2005). Academic identity and autonomy in a changing policy environment. *Higher Education*, 49(1/2), 155-176.
- Henkel, M. (2009). Policy change and the challenge to academic identities. In J. Enders, & E., de Weert, (Eds.) *The changing face of academic life: Analytical and comparative perspectives* (78-93). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Heynemann, S. P. (2006). The effectiveness of development assistance in education: An organizational analysis. *Journal of International Cooperation in Development*, 9(1), 7-26.

- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Holland, D. G. (2010). Waves of educational model production in Malawi, 1964-2004. *Comparative Education Review*, 54(2), 199-222.
- Hopkin, A. G. (2004). 'Frame factors and a quality assurance agency in an "embryonic" higher education system', *Quality in Higher Education*, 10(3), 181-195.
- Houssein, A. D. (2010). *Pour l'enseignement du français et des « langues nationales » à Djibouti: Conditions pour une didactique intégrée dans l'enseignement des langues*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from l'Université Paul Valéry – Montpellier III.
- Huang, F. (2012). Higher education from massification to universal access: A perspective from Japan. *Higher Education*, 63, 257-270. doi:10.1007/s10734-011-9438-7
- Ioannidis, J., Patsopoulos¹, N. A., Kavvoura¹, F. K., Tatsioni, A., Evangelou, E., Kouri, I., Contopoulos-Ioannidis, D. G., & Liberopoulos, G. (2007). International ranking systems for universities and institutions: A critical appraisal. *BMC Medicine*, 5(30), 1-9. doi:10.1186/1741-7015-5-30
- IP World. (2012). Num6ers game. Retrieved from http://www.bc.edu/content/dam/files/research_sites/cihe/pubs/IB_World_Philip%20Altbach.pdf
- Ishengoma, J. M. (2007). The debate on quality and the private surge: A status review of private universities and colleges in Tanzania. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 5(2), 85-109.

- Jalata, A. (2013). Colonial terrorism, global capitalism and African underdevelopment: 500 years of crimes against African peoples. *The Journal of Pan African Studies*, 5(9), 1-42.
- Jones, K. (2011). The practice of quantitative methods. In B. Somekh & C. Lewin (Eds.) *Theory and methods in social research* (2nd Ed.) (201-211). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Johnstone, D. B. (2008). *Financing higher education: Cost-sharing in international perspective*. Buffalo, NY: Sense Publishers.
- Johnstone, D. B. (2011). Funding of universities in the twenty-first century. In P. G. Altbach (Ed.) *Leadership for world-class universities: Challenges for developing countries* (52-69). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Jongbloed, B. (2004). Funding higher education: Options, trade-offs and dilemmas. Paper for fulbright brainstorms - New trends in higher education. Retrieved from: <http://doc.utwente.nl/56075/1/engpap04fundinghe.pdf>.
- Kogan, M. (2004). The development and use of performance indicators and performance measurement in the UK. In I. Bunting & N. Cloete, *Developing performance indicators for higher education: A South African case* (7-16). South Africa: CHET.
- Lauter, P. (2002). From Adelphi to Enron. *Academe*, 88(6), 28-32.
- Leeson, P. T. (2007). Better off stateless: Somalia before and after government collapse. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 35(5), 689–710.
- Levy, D. C. (2006). Market university? *Comparative Education Review*, 50(1), 113-124.

- Li, J. (2012). The student experience in China's revolutionary move to mass higher education: Institutional challenges and policy implications. *Higher Education Policy*, 25, 453–475. doi:10.1057/hep.2011.30
- Locke, W., Cummings, W. K., Fisher, D. (2011). Comparative perspectives: Emerging findings and further investigations. In W. Locke, W. K. Cummings, & D. Fisher (eds.), *Changing Governance and Management in Higher Education* (107-125). New York, NY: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-1140-2_6
- Mabizela, M. (2007). Private surge amid public dominance in higher education: The African perspective. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 5(2), 15-38.
- Mamdani, M. (2008). Higher education, the state and the marketplace. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 6(1), 1-10.
- Marginson, S. (2000). Rethinking academic work in the global era. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 22(1), 1-12.
- Materu, P. (2007). Higher education quality assurance in Sub-Saharan Africa: Status, challenges, opportunities, and promising practices. *World Bank Working Paper*, 124. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- McCormick, A. C., & Zhao, C. M. (2010). Rethinking and reframing the Carnegie classification. *Change*, 37(5), 51-57. doi:10.32000/CHNG.37.5.51-57.
- McNay, I. (2008). The crisis in higher education: The views of academic professionals on policy, leadership values and operational practices. *Higher Education Review*, 40(2), 3-25.

- Merisotis, J. P. (2002). Summary report of the invitational roundtable on statistical indicators for the quality assessment of higher/tertiary education institutions: Ranking and league Table methodologies. *Higher Education in Europe*, 27(4), 476–480.
- Merisotis, J. P., & Sadlak, J. (2005). Higher education rankings: Evolution, acceptance, and dialogue. *Higher Education in Europe*, 30(2), 97–101.
- Mok, K. H. (2000). Impact of globalization: A study of quality assurance systems of higher education in Hong Kong and Singapore. *Comparative Education Review*, 44(2), 148-174.
- Morah, E.U. (2000). Old institutions, new opportunities: The emerging nature of Koranic schools in Somaliland in the 1990s. *International Journal of Educational Development* 20, 305–322.
- Munene, I. I. (2009). *Transforming the academia: Exploring African universities in a comparative context*. New York, NY: Nova.
- Munene, I. I., & Otieno, W. (2008). Changing the course: Equity effects and institutional risk amid policy shift in higher education financing in Kenya. *Higher Education*, 55, 461–479.
- Musselin, C. (2004). Towards a European academic labour market? Some lessons drawn from empirical studies on academic mobility. *Higher Education*, 48(1), 55-78.
- Nixon, J. (1996). Professional identity and the restructuring of higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(1), 5-16.

- Njuguna Ng'ethe, N., Subotzky, G., & Afeti, G. (2008). *Differentiation and articulation in tertiary education systems*. World Bank Working Paper, No. 145. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Nordqvist, C. (2006, June 2). Female genital mutilation raises infant mortality and birth complications. *Medical News Today*. Retrieved from <http://www.medicalnewstoday.com/articles/44459.php>.
- Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (6th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Nwuke, K. (2008). The private provision of higher education in Ethiopia: Growth, challenges, and prospects. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 6(1), 71-94.
- Obamba, M. O. (2009). Myth and ceremony: Contested marketization and internationalization regimes in Kenya's higher education. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 7(3), 125-149.
- Ogachi, I. O. (2011). Neo-liberalism and the subversion of academic freedom from within: Money, corporate cultures and 'captured' intellectuals in African public universities. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 9(1), 25-47.
- Olden, A. (2008). Somali opposition to government education: R. E. Ellison and the Berbera school affair, 1938–1940. *History of Education*, 37(1), 71–90.
- Onsongo, J. (2007). The growth of private universities in Kenya: Implications for gender equity in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 6(1), 111-133.
- Onwunli, A. U., & Agho, A. O. (2004). Faculty opinion on shared authority: A Nigerian national survey. *Higher Education*, 48, 397-418.

- Otieno, w., & Ngolovoi, M. (2009). "Brief description of the higher education system in Kenya." Retrieved 9/10/2014 from http://gse.buffalo.edu/org/inthigheredfinance/files/Country_Profiles/Africa/Kenya.pdf
- Pillay, P. (2009). Challenges and lessons from East and Southern Africa. In J. Knight (Ed.), *Financing access and equity in higher education* (19-40). Rotterdam: Sense Publishing.
- Pillay, P. (2010). *Higher education financing in East and Southern Africa*. Somerset West, South Africa: African Minds.
- Psacharopoulos, G. (1972). The economic returns to higher education in twenty-five countries. *Higher education*, 1(2), 141-158.
- Psacharopoulos, G. (1986). The planning of education: Where do we go from here? *Comparative Education Review*, 30(4), 560-573.
- Psacharopoulos, G., & Patrinos, H. A. (2004). Returns to investment in education: A further update. *Education Economics*, 12(2), 111-134.
- Reisberg, L. (2011). Where the quality discussion stands: Strategies and ambiguities. In P. G. Altbach (Ed.), *Leadership for world-class universities: Challenges for developing countries* (128-144). New York, NY: Routledge. Retrieved from <http://site.ebrary.com/id/10452323?ppg=147> .
- Research Institute for Higher Education. (2009). *Changing academic profession in the world from 1992 to 2007*. Hiroshima, Japan: RIHE.

- Rhee, B. S. (2011). A world-class research university on the periphery: The Pohang University of Science and Technology, the Republic of Korea. In P. G. Altbach, & J. Salmi (Eds.), *The road to academic excellence: The making of world-class research universities* (101-128). Washington D.C.: World Bank. Kindle Edition.
- Rodney, W. (1974). *How Europe underdeveloped Africa*. Washington, DC: Howard University Press.
- Rose, M. (2000). *Future tense: Are growing occupations more stressed-out and depressive?* Future of Work Series, Working Paper 3. Leeds, UK: University of Leeds.
- Sall, E. (2004). Alternative models to traditional higher education: Market demand, networks, and private sector challenges. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 2(1), 175-210.
- Salmi, J. (2009). *The challenge of establishing world-class universities*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Samatar, A. I. (2001). Somali reconstruction and local initiative: Amoud University. *World Development*, 29(4), 641-656.
- Samoff, J., & Carrol, B. (2004). The promise of partnership and continuities of dependence: External support to higher education in Africa. *African Studies Review*, 47(1), 67-199.
- Scheifelbein, E. (2012, July 15). Improving higher education access and quality to stop social unrest. *University World News*, 230. Retrieved from <http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20120704184946472>

- Schofer, E., & Meyer, J. W. (2005). The worldwide expansion of higher education in the twentieth century. *American Sociological Review*, 70, 898-920.
- Scott, P. (2007). From professor to 'knowledge worker': Profiles of the academic profession. *Minerva*, 45, 205–215. doi:10.1007/s11024-007-9031-5.
- Shabani, J. (2013, May). Quality regimes in Africa: The reality and the aspirations. *Chronicle of African Higher Education*, 1(4). Retrieved from https://htmlprod.bc.edu/prd/f?p=2290:4:0::NO:RP,4:P0_CONTENT_ID:119954
- Shattock, M. (1999). Governance and management in universities: The way we live now. *Journal of Educational Policy*, 14(3), 271-282.
- Shattock, M. (2002). Re-balancing modern concepts of university governance. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 56(3), 235-244.
- Shattock, M. (2010). The entrepreneurial university: An idea for its time. *London Review of Education*, 8(3), 263-271.
- Schofer, E., & Meyer, J. W. (2005). The worldwide expansion of higher education in the twentieth century. *American Sociological Review*, 70, 898-920.
doi:10.1177/000312240507000602.
- Somekh, B., & Lewin, C. (Eds.) (2011). *Theory and methods in social research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stewart, P. (2007). Re-envisioning the academic profession in the shadow of corporate managerialism. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 5(1), 131–147.

- Stolz, I., Hendel, D. D., & Horn, A. S. (2010). Ranking of rankings: Benchmarking twenty-five higher education ranking systems in Europe. *Higher Education*, 60, 507–528.
- Tapper, T., & Palfreyman, D. (2002). Understanding collegiality: The changing oxbridge model. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 8(1), 47-63.
- Teferra, D. (2012, October 22). Construct, re-construct or self-destruct: Strategies for Africa. *Inside Higher Education*. Retrieved from:
<http://www.insidehighered.com/blogs/world-view/construct-re-construct-or-self-destruct-strategies-africa#ixzz2RwP241h2>
- Teferra, D. (2001). The knowledge context in African universities: The neglected link. *International Higher Education*, 25, 23-25.
- Teferra, D., & Altbach, P. G. (2003). *African higher education: An international reference handbook*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- Teichler, U. (2004). The changing debate on internationalisation of higher education. *Higher Education* 48, 5–26
- Teichler, U. (2008). Diversification? Trends and explanations of the shape and size of higher education. *Higher Education*, 56, 349-379. doi:10.1007/s10734-008-9122-8.
- Teichler, U., Arimoto, A., & Cummings, W. K. (2013). *The changing academic profession: Major findings of a comparative survey*. New York, NY: Springer.
doi: 10.1007/978-94-007-6155-1
- Tofallis, C. (2012). A different approach to university rankings. *Higher Education*, 63, 1–18.

- Tremblay, K. (2005). Academic mobility and immigration. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 9(3), 196–228.
- Trow, M. (1974). Problems in the transition from elite to mass higher education. In OECD, *Policies for higher education* (55-101). Paris, France: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
- Trow, M. (2000). From mass higher education to universal access: The American advantage. *Research and Occasional Paper Series: CSHE. 1.00*. Retrieved from <http://ishi.lib.berkeley.edu/sche/>.
- Trow, M. (2005). Reflections on the transition from elite to mass to universal access: Forms and phases of higher education in modern societies since WWII. Working Papers, Institute of Governmental Studies, UC Berkeley. Retrieved from <http://escholarship.org/uc/item/96p3s213>
- UNDP. (2012). *Somali youth charter*. New York: UNDP. Retrieved from <http://www.so.undp.org/shdr/Documents/Somali%20youth%20charter%20-%20Eng.pdf>
- UNESCO. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO. (2011). *UNESCO Statistical Database*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- UNESCO. (2012). *UNESCO Statistical Database*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Utts, J. M., & Heckard, R. F. (2006). *Statistical ideas and methods*. Belmont, CA: Thomson.

- Van der Walt, J. L., Wolhuter, C. C., Potgieter, F. J., Higgs, P., Higgs, L. G., & Ntshoe, I. M. (2009) Die akademie in Suid-Afrika: 'n vervullende professie? *KOERS*, 74(3), 409-435.
- Vardi, I. (2009). The impacts of different types of workload allocation models on academic satisfaction and working life. *Higher Education*, 57(4), 499-508.
- Villanueva, N. N. (2012). Assuring quality in Belizean higher education: A collective case study of institutional perspectives and practices (Doctoral dissertation). ProQuest. (UMI: 3504002)
- Welch, A.R. (1997). The peripatetic professor: The internationalisation of the academic profession. *Higher Education*, 34(3), 323–345.
- Webometrics. (2013). Djibouti. Retrieved from <http://www.webometrics.info/en/search/Rankings/Djibouti>
- Webometrics. (2013). Somalia. Retrieved from <http://www.webometrics.info/en/search/Rankings/Somalia>
- Wende, M. (2008). Rankings and classifications in higher education: A European perspective. In J. C. Smart (Ed.), *Higher Education: Handbook of Theory and Research* (49-71). New York, NY: Springer Science
- Westerheijden, D., Federkeil, G., Cremonini, L., Kaiser, F., & Beerkens-Soo, M. (2011). Ranking goes international. In M. Rostan and M. Vaira (Eds.), *Questioning Excellence in Higher Education: Policies, Experiences and Challenges in National and Comparative Perspective* (175–193). Rotterdam, Netherlands: Sense.

- Winter, R. (2009). Academic manager or managed academic? Academic identity schisms in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 31(2), 121-131.
- Wolhuter, C. C., Kangumu, B., & Mungongi, F. (2014). Higher education in Africa: Survey and assessment. *Higher Education Forum*, 11, 91-104.
- World Bank. (2000). *Higher education in developing countries: Peril and promise*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2002). *Constructing knowledge societies: New challenges for tertiary education*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Zezeza, P. T., & Olukoshi, A. (2004). *African universities in the twenty-first century*. Dakar, Senegal: CODESIRA.

Appendix A: Survey Instrument

Faculty Views of Higher Education Quality in the Horn of Africa

Questionnaire

**Research Conducted by Thomas Jones as a part of his doctoral studies at
the University of Minnesota**

Higher Education Quality in the Horn of Africa Questionnaire

Intro: Higher education quality is an important topic for the economic and social development of countries. Within higher education, teachers and researchers carry out the central role of their institutions. The following questionnaire was developed to measure faculty views about their work in the Horn of Africa.

The following questionnaire has 7 sections, A to G. For each section please answer the questions by writing your answers in the space provided. You may find that some complete sections are not relevant to you, in which case you can continue to the next section.

Please complete and submit this questionnaire before ____ / ____ / 2014. I'm very grateful for your time and effort in participating in this study. If you have any questions feel free to contact me at the following:

Thomas Jones
(+253) 77 01 87 78
jones214@umn.edu

The data collected will be anonymous, treated confidentially, aggregated and only reported in terms of general categories.

This research has been authorized by the central administration.

Begin questionnaire



A. Work Characteristics

A1 Considering all your professional work, how many hours do you spend in a typical week on each of the following activities?

Hours per week
when classes are in
session

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
|--|--|

Teaching (including preparation, advising students, assessing student work, curriculum development).

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
|--|--|

Research.

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
|--|--|

Service (including services to clients and/or patients, unpaid consulting, public or voluntary work).

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
|--|--|

Administration (including committees, departmental meetings, paperwork)

A2 Regarding your own preferences, do your interests lie *primarily* in teaching or in research? (Check one)

- Primarily in teaching.
- In both, but leaning towards teaching.
- In both, but leaning towards research.
- Primarily in research.

A3 How would you rate your overall satisfaction with your current job?

- Very High High Average Low Very Low
-

A4 Since you started your career, have the overall working conditions in higher education improved or deteriorated?

- Very much improved A little improved A little deteriorated Very much deteriorated
-

A5 How stressful is your work environment?

- Very High High Low Very Low
-

B. Teaching (Refer to the current academic year or the previous academic year (if you do not teach in this academic year). If you do not/did not teach in this or the previous academic year go to section C)

B1 What is the approximate number of students in a class?

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| | | |
|--|--|--|

per class

B2 To what extent do you agree that the following indicators are important for evaluating your teaching?

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of hours in class |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of students who pass |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Classroom observations by another academic professional |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Student exam scores |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Student evaluations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Degree to which instruction is student centered |

Other important indicators (please specify)

B3 To what extent do you agree that the following affect the quality of your teaching?

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of administrative work |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Extent of your teacher training |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of your research activities |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Ease of use of technology in your classroom(s) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Availability of library resources (books, videos, journals, etc.) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Access to laboratories |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of assistance from teaching support staff (assistants, secretarial, etc.) |

Other important factors (please specify)

C. Research (Refer to the current academic year or the previous academic year (if you are not active in research in this academic year). If you are not/were not active in research in this or the previous academic year go to section D)

C1 How many of the following scholarly contributions have you completed in the past three years? (Examples include scholarly books, articles published in an academic book or journal, research report/monograph, paper presented at a scholarly conference, professional article for a newspaper or magazine, or patent secured on a process or invention)

_____ scholarly contributions in the last three years

C2 How many of your publications in the last three years were...

_____ Published in a language different from the language of instruction at your current institution

_____ Co-authored with colleagues located outside your country

_____ Peer-reviewed

C3 In the last three years, which percentage of the funding for your research came from...

_____ Your own institution

_____ Public research funding agencies

_____ Government bodies

_____ Business firms or industry

_____ Private not-for-profit foundations/agencies

_____ International entities (governments, not-for-profit foundations, or non-governmental agencies)

_____ Others (please specify)

C4 To what extent do you agree that the following indicators are important measures of research quality for your institution?

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of publications per professor |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | External grants or funds raised for research |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Percentage of Master's or PhD students |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Research that is focused on the local community or national context |

- | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of publications in international peer reviewed journals |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Amount of collaborative research with domestic scholars |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Amount of collaborative research with international scholars |

Other important indicators (please specify)

D. Quality Assurance

D1 How often is your work evaluated?

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Once a year | <input type="checkbox"/> | I'm not evaluated |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Once a term | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (specify) |

D2 By whom is your teaching and research regularly evaluated? (Check all that apply)

- | teaching | research | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | My peers in my department or unit |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | The head of my department or unit |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Members of other departments or units at my institution |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Senior administrative staff at my institution |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | my students |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | External reviewers |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | myself (e.g. a formal self-assessment) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | No one at or outside my institution |

D3 If evaluated, how do evaluation results affect your work? (check all that apply)

- I change work practices to accommodate evaluation recommendations
- My salary is affected by my evaluations
- My career advancement is affected by evaluations of my performance
- Evaluations do not affect me in any way

E. Institutional Quality Framework

E1 What is the goal(s) of your institution?

E2 To what extent do you agree that the following indicators should be used to measure the quality of your institution:

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Student employment rate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of publications per year per academic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Student graduation rates |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of graduate students (Master's or Ph.D.) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Enrollment in science and technology majors |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Expenditure per student |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | International ranking of your institution |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Percentage of women involved in higher education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Minority population participation rates in higher education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of professors with doctoral degrees |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of funded research projects |

Other important indicators (please specify)

E3 Consider the following factors affecting higher education quality. To what extent do you agree that these factors significantly affect the quality of your institution?

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of faculty training |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of public budget resources allocated |

- | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Strength of collaboration between government and higher education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of academic Freedom |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of student preparation for tertiary education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Degree of internationalization |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Extent of competence in the administrative team |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Clearly establish strategic vision |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Extent of common organizational culture toward excellence |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Level of university endowment revenues |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Amount of university tuition revenues |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Availability of research grants |

Other important factors (please specify)

E4 How would you rate the overall quality of your institution?

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Very High | High | Average | Low | Very Low |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |

E5 What are two or three indicators of higher education quality in Somaliland?

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

F. Professional Information

F1 What is your highest degree of education? Where and when did you receive this degree?

Highest Degree:

Bachelor's Master's Doctorate

Year completed University Country

F2 Are you currently a student in a master's or doctoral program?

Currently enrolled

Masters Doctorate Not enrolled

Year you will complete your degree University Country

F3 Please, identify the academic discipline or field of your highest degree.

Highest Degree
(e.g. economics, law, physics, etc.)

F4 With which faculty and department do you primarily associate?

Faculty

Department(s)

F5 Do the courses you teach coincide with the field of your highest degree?

Yes No

F6 Please indicate the following

Year you began working in higher education.

Year you began working at your current institution

F7 Do you work for an additional employer or have you received paid employment from an external source this year?

No

Yes (please specify)

F8 What is your monthly income from the following sources?

\$_____ Your current university

\$_____ Other employment

F9 What is your academic rank?

- Lecturer
- Assistant Professor
- Professor
- Other (please specify).....

F10 Do you hold an administrative post?

- Department head
- Dean
- Director (please specify, i.e. "Director of Research").....
- Other (please specify).....

G. Personal Background

G1 What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

G2 Year of birth

G3 What is your marital status?

- Married
- Single

G4 If married, is your wife/husband employed?

- Yes, full-time
- Yes, part-time
- No

G5 Do you have dependents (children, parents, relatives, etc.) living with you?

- Yes, 1-2 dependents
- Yes, 3-5 dependents
- Yes, more than 5 dependents
- No

G6 What is your parents' highest education level?

- | Father | Mother | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Entered and/or completed tertiary education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Entered and/or completed secondary education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Entered and/or completed primary education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | No formal education |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Not applicable |

G7 What is your citizenship?

- Somaliland
- Dual Citizenship, Somaliland and (please specify)
- Other (please specify)

G8 What is your first language/mother tongue?

- Arabic
- English
- Somali
- Other (please specify)

G9 Which language do you primarily use in your teaching?

- First language/mother tongue
- Other:
(please specify)

G10 Which language do you primarily use in your research?

- First language/mother tongue
- Other:
(please specify)

Thank you

شكرا

Waad Mahadsantahay

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

Warm-up questions (5 min):

What was the best educational institution you've been a student at, what was it like?

Key questions (22 min):

1. What is the mission/purpose of your institution?
 - a. How is your institution accomplishing this mission?
 - b. What are the greatest obstacles to accomplishing this mission?
2. How is quality defined at your institution?
 - a. To what extent is quality defined according to the talent of staff or students?
 - b. To what extent is quality defined by the resources/budget of the university?
 - c. To what extent is quality defined by the good governance in Somaliland?
 - d. What does it mean to be a 'high' quality institution?
 - e. What does it mean to be an 'excellent' teacher? (Examples, heroes, etc.)
 - f. What does it mean to be a 'high' quality researcher at your institution?
3. What indicators are being used to judge the quality of your institution?
4. What types of activities are most valued at your institution?
 - a. How are people honored at your university?
 - b. How are resources allocated in the educational system for teaching, research and service?
5. What policies or practices have put or would put your institution on the path toward a 'high' quality institution?

Conclusion (3 min):

1. Is there anything about higher education quality that I should have asked?
2. Is there anything about our discussion that surprised you?

Appendix C: Interview Consent Form

Interview Consent Form

You are being asked to take part in a research study of academic professionals in Somaliland. We are asking you to take part because you have the characteristics necessary to answer the key questions of this study (age, gender, professional qualifications, etc.). Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to take part in the study.

What the study is about: The purpose of this study is to determine faculty views of quality in higher education in Somaliland.

What we will ask you to do: If you agree to be in this study, we will conduct an interview with you. The interview will include questions about your job, the hours you work, how much you earn, the number of classes you teach, your career, and views on your institution. The interview will take about 30 minutes to complete. With your permission, we would also like to tape-record the interview.

Risks and benefits: There is the risk that you may find some of the questions about your job conditions to be sensitive. I do not anticipate any risks to you participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life. There are no benefits to you. Somaliland is a very demanding place to be a professor and I hope to learn more about your experience.

Confidentiality: Your answers will be confidential. The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report we make public we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be kept in a locked file; only the researcher will have access to the records. If we record the interview, we will destroy the file after it has been transcribed, which we anticipate will be within two months of its recording.

Taking part is voluntary: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer. If you decide not to take part or to skip some of the questions, it will not affect you in any way. If you decide to take part, you are free to withdraw at any time.

If you have questions: The researcher conducting this study is Thomas Jones. Please ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you may contact Thomas Jones at jones214@umn.edu or at +253 77 01 87 78. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s), you are encouraged to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D-528 Mayo, 420 Delaware Street S.E., Minneapolis, Minnesota, 55455; telephone (612) 625-1650.

Statement of Consent: I have read the above information, and have received answers to any questions I asked. I consent to take part in the study.

Your Signature _____ Date _____

Your Name (printed) _____

In addition to agreeing to participate, I also consent to having the interview recorded.

Your Signature _____ Date _____

Signature of person obtaining consent _____ Date _____

Printed name of person obtaining consent _____ Date _____

This consent form will be kept by the researcher for at least three years beyond the end of the study.

Appendix D: Authorization Communication for Survey Reproduction

From: Ulrich Teichler [<mailto:teichler@incher.uni-kassel.de>]
Sent: Tuesday, January 28, 2014 9:54 AM
To: Hamish Coates; Thomas Jones
Cc: Lynn Meek; Leo Christiaan Johannes Goedegebuure
Subject: Re: Use of CAP questionnaire

Dear Thomas Jones,
there is no copyright of the CAP questionnaire. We expect everybody who uses the questionnaire or develops an own questionnaire largely inspired by CAP to this in his/her reports/publication.
We also expect them to let us know this (for example by sending the key report/publications). In contrast, our data set is open only to members of the CAP team.
All the best,
Ulrich Teichler

Am 28.01.2014 05:49, schrieb Hamish Coates:

Dear Thomas

Good to hear of your interesting work, and thank you for your inquiry.

I am not sure about the permissions for this instrument. Assume Kassel would cover this matter. I have copied this not to Professor Ulrich Teichler. Am also copying to my colleagues Professos Meek and Goedegebuure, who may know.

Best regards

Hamish

From: Thomas Jones [<mailto:jones214@umn.edu>]
Sent: Friday, 24 January 2014 7:45 PM
To: Hamish Coates
Subject: Use of CAP questionnaire

Hello Prof Coates,

I'm a graduate student at the University of Minnesota. I'm studying the academic profession and academic quality in the Horn of Africa. I would like to adapt the CAP survey for use in my thesis research and am writing to find where (or if) I need to ask for permission to adapt the survey. I've found it published online in various forms and have contacted incher-Kassel research center but haven't receive a response from them.

Thomas

Appendix E: Additional characteristics of the Somaliland academic staff sample

Nationality of academic staff sampled are shown in Table E.1. Of the three institutions surveyed, 72% of academic staff are Somaliland nationals (see Table E.1). This number is likely biased compared to the overall population of the academic profession of the country due to the fact that one institution (Admas) employs mostly expatriate staff (65%) and the survey response rate of UOH (the largest institution in the country) was low in comparison. The actual number of expatriate staff based on document analysis and interview data is closer to 6%.

Table E.1
Citizenship of Somaliland academic staff sample

| Citizenship | % |
|-------------------------------|----|
| Somaliland | 55 |
| Somaliland (dual citizenship) | 17 |
| Expatriate | 28 |

Note. Mean values.

Table E.2
Level of parental education for academic staff in Somaliland

| Level | Father (%) | Mother (%) |
|----------------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| Entered and/or completed tertiary education | 46 | 22 |
| Entered and/or completed secondary education | 19 | 12 |
| Entered and/or completed primary education | 12 | 16 |
| No formal education | 44 | 69 |
| Not applicable | 24 | 28 |

Note. Mean values.

Marital status and number of dependents of academic staff sampled is shown in Table E.3. Of these, 65% are married. Academics in Somaliland typically have large families. UNDP estimated fertility rates at 6.2 births per woman (2012, est.). More than 50% of academic staff sampled have between 2 and 5 dependents whether married or not.

In general, similar to more developed regions, academic staff parents were more educated than the general population with 46% of academics reporting that their fathers completed or entered tertiary education and 22% of academics reporting that their mothers completed or entered tertiary education (see Table E.2).

Table E.3
Marital status and number of dependents that academic staff support in Somaliland

| <u>Marital Status</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-----------------------------|----------|
| Married | 65 |
| Unmarried | 35 |
| <u>Number of dependents</u> | <u>%</u> |
| None | 23 |
| 1-2 dependents | 26 |
| 3-5 dependents | 28 |
| More than 5 dependents | 24 |

Table E.4
Factors influencing faculty views of their academic work

| | Admas | UOH | AU | Total |
|----------------------------------------|-------|------|------|-------|
| Stress ^a | 1.21 | 1.43 | 1.67 | 1.54 |
| Institutional development ^b | 0.83 | 0.64 | 0.73 | 0.72 |
| Job satisfaction ^c | 1.54 | 1.38 | 1.21 | 1.31 |
| Institutional quality ^d | 1.58 | 1.74 | 1.51 | 1.58 |

Note. Mean values from survey data responding to the questions:

^aHow stressful is your work environment? (0 = very high stress, 1 = mild stress, 2 = low stress, 3 = very low stress);

^bSince you started your career, have the overall working conditions in higher education improved or deteriorated? (0 = very much improved, 1 = a little improved, 2 = a little deteriorated, 3 = very much deteriorated);

^cHow would you rate your overall satisfaction with your current job? (0 = Very high satisfaction, 1 = high satisfaction, 2 = average, 3 = high dissatisfaction, 4 = very high dissatisfaction);

^dHow would you rate the overall quality of your institution? (0 = Very high, 1 = high, 2 = average, 3 = low, 4 = very low)

^e indicates $p < 0.05$ for ANOVA, thus, no significant variation among institutions

Academic staff attitudes toward higher education are shown in Table E.4.

Average values from the survey sample are reported from each institution for faculty stress, views of institutional improvement or deterioration, overall view of institutional quality, and satisfaction with their academic career. Anova results of difference among institutions revealed no significant variation.

Appendix F: Higher education sector goals of the Ministry of Education and Higher Education in Somaliland

- improve the legal framework and other enabling organisational infrastructure that support higher education;
- improve the financial capacity of the public higher education institutions by 500% within the next 5 years;
- increase equitable access and retention to higher education by 50% within the next 5 years;
- improve the quality of teaching learning for enhanced students achievement;
- promote and extend the provisions of science and technology faculties and courses;
- improve the quality of academic and research programmes;
- ensure that higher education opportunities and trainings match with the socio-economic needs of the nation and are competitive in the international labour market;
- provide female students and other disadvantaged students with special opportunities to access higher education;
- Improve physical facilities, training infrastructure and support services that relate to higher education;
- Ensure good accreditation and standardization of higher education institutions and programmes to fulfil quality assurance standards provided by the Commission for Higher Education;

- Develop competent, efficient and effective governing bodies for all higher education institutions; and,
- Create and expand linkages between local higher education institutions and international universities, organisation, research institutes and Somaliland diaspora communities (Somaliland Educational Sector Strategic Plan, 2011)