



AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK GROUP
GROUPE DE LA BANQUE AFRICAINE
DE DEVELOPPEMENT



COUNTRY GENDER PROFILE



REPUBLIC OF SOMALIA

Trends of Change in a Fragile and
Fragmented Context



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TRENDS OF CHANGE IN A FRAGILE AND FRAGMENTED CONTEXT

African Development Bank and UN Women

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Country Gender Profile Somalia is the product of a collaborative initiative led by the African Development Bank (the Bank) and UN Women. A task team comprised of experts from both institutions provided technical and administrative support for conducting the study.

The report was authored by Dr. Holly A Ritchie (Lead Consultant) and Sahra Ahmed Koshin who jointly conducted the data collection, analysis and writing. The process was managed and supervised by Mona Sharan (Task Manager, the Bank), who also edited the report. Hulda Ouma, Julius Otim, Kebedech Ambaye and Fatmata Sesay were focal persons from the UN Women Regional Office for East and Southern Africa (ESARO). Logistical and administrative support for conducting the data collection, technical consultations and dissemination was provided by the UN Women Country Office Somalia - Julius Otim, Osman Ali, Said Ogle, Ismail Mohamed and Pusparaj Mohanty.

The Bank Gender and Women Empowerment team (Marc Kouakou, Basil Jones) provided support for

facilitating the process. Comments received from peer reviewers from the Bank (Jerome Berndt, Albert Mafusire, Aissatou Dosso) and UN Women (Fatmata Sesay, Jebbeh Forster, Susan Mugwe, Sadiq Syed, Kebedech Ambaye, Hulda Ouma, Susan Mugwe and Julius Otim) were invaluable in finalizing the report.

The team is grateful for the support received from the management of both institutions including the Bank (Ms. Nnenna Nwabufo, Director General, Regional Office for East Africa, Ms. Amel Hamza, Director OIC, Gender and Civil Society Department) and UN Women (Dr. Izeduwa Derex-Briggs, Regional Director and Ms. Zebib Kavuma, Deputy Regional Director, ESARO).

The preparation of the report could not have been possible without the cooperation of the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development, Somalia. In particular, the support received from Minister Ms. Hanifa Ibrahim, Former Minister Ms. Deqa Yasin, DG Mr. Deeq Yusuf, and the technical team, is acknowledged with deep gratitude.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AfDB	African Development Bank
AMISOM	African Union Mission in Somalia
BDS	Business Development Services
CEC	Child Education Committee
CEFM	Child, Early and Forced Marriage
FHH	Households headed by females
FGM/C	Female Genital Mutilation (or Female Genital Cutting (FGC))
FGS	Federal Government of Somalia
GBV	Gender based violence
IDP	Internally Displaced People
ILO	International Labour Organisations
MFI	Microfinance Institution
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MOECHE	Ministry of Education of the Federal Government of Somalia
MOLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs of the Federal Government of Somalia
MoWHRD	Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development of the Federal Government of Somalia
NDP	National Development Plan
NEP	National Employment Policy (Federal Government of Somalia)
NGP	National Gender Policy
NRM	Natural Resource Management
PPDP	Public Private Development Partnership
PPP	Public Private Partnership
SGBV	Sexual and Gender-Based Violence
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SHG	Self Help Groups (group involved with savings and credit)
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNSOM	United Nations Assistance Mission in Somalia
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VSLA	Village or Group Savings and Loan Associations
WASH	Water Sanitation and Hygiene



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

I Introduction

1. Gender rights and equality remain critical issues in the uncertain context of Somalia, with low human development indicators, instability and climate change. In the past several years, there have been significant efforts at state building, and fostering peace and inclusion in Somalia. Key frameworks have been developed and international partnerships forged, with gender goals high on the agenda. Today the Federal Government of Somalia remains strongly committed to long-term peace, security and development, in a challenging social and physical environment. In addition to conflict and insecurity, the region suffers prolonged and severe drought, with famine remaining a 'looming risk' and 4.2 million people in need of humanitarian assistance.

Population displacement is a major phenomenon, with over 2 million IDPs. Somalis are considered highly resilient however, with supportive kinship systems and remittances from Somali diaspora.

2. A traditionally patriarchal Islamic society, Somali culture is considered socially conservative for women, with women's lives historically

restricted to the 'private domain,' leading to their constrained role in decision-making, and limited access to assets and resources. Yet, women have contributed significantly to peace building efforts in recent years, forging new public roles. New trends are also now visible in the political, social and economic domains.

3. This report is intended to inform development assistance policies, and strategies for intensifying impact on gender equality and poverty reduction in Somalia. Specifically the Country Gender Profile explores key gender inequalities that continue to constrain inclusive growth, identifies key gaps and challenges in current policies and programmes, and highlights best practices and strategies for action. This report takes a sectoral and institutional level approach to assessing gender equality and inclusion across Somalia and progress since 2012. The value of the report is not in the provision of new statistical data, but instead, in a consolidation of existing data and information, a distillation of emerging trends and perspectives, and institutional analysis. The primary focus of the report is on the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS), but trends and perspectives from the semi-autonomous regions of Somaliland and Puntland have also been integrated.

4. This profile draws from extensive desk research, recent field experiences and studies, and qualitative field research for this report in Mogadishu, Hargeisa and Garowe. The research was limited to the urban areas in the target locations, and did not include community-level visits, with constraints around time, security and access. Phase 1 of the study included 31 KIIs with government, aid actors, donors, civil society and business representatives across the three locations (as well as in Nairobi and online). In Phase 2, selected participants were invited to participate in four national level focus groups (FGs) in Mogadishu.

II State-building and Legislative Architecture in Somalia, and Inclusion

5. There is a general consensus that over the past decade, and particularly over the past five years, both attitudes and narratives towards gender equality and participation are improving in the Federal Government region with peace and state building efforts, and key frameworks including the new Provisional Constitution (2012), the National Gender Policy (NGP) and National Development Plan (NDP). Championed by the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development (MoWHRD), there have been significant strides in legislative and policy making to mainstream and integrate gender rights and equality, including the drafting of key Bills (related to Female Genital Mutilation or Cutting (FGM/C) and Sexual Offences). In contrast, in regions such as Somaliland, trends suggest a 'stagnation' in institutional-based change, with slow progress in the approval of key legislation, and in the implementation of Somaliland's NGP. Yet across the various contexts, there is an increasing level of 'consciousness' around gender issues at a government level.

6. While new laws and policies have been welcomed by gender activists as key documents to lobby for action in gender equality, and hold the government accountable, actual change on the ground in all regions has been slow. Development and gender indicators, in particular, maternal mortality, as well as rape, FGM/C and violence against women, continue to be poor.

Without a legal framework or guidance for rights' infringements, the research underscores the lack of enforcement of new gender laws and policies. As such, the provisions in the constitutions and legislation (and ratified conventions), particularly in the FGS, remain largely unrealized.

7. Respondents highlighted the 'absence of women in leadership', particularly in Somaliland, and a gap in 'mentors and role models' in (formal) institutions and in society encouraging women to participate. In all regions, National Gender Policies have not been publicly discussed or disseminated. With limited government capacities and allocated budgets, there is also a lack of practical action in working towards gender targets. Respondents emphasized the 'low public awareness and support' available for women (and minority groups) as there are few national campaigns and limited government outreach.

8. Tradition, culture and religious interpretation are cited to still be the major impediments in working towards gender equality and rights development. In particular, religious and traditional clan leaders may challenge the smooth implementation of gender laws and policies in fostering conservative narratives. Further, parliament and decision-making remains 'male-dominated', and 'overlooks progressive laws and policies'. Conservative attitudes and practices may be exacerbated by insecurity and situations of volatility. The threats by religious extremists remain a destabilizing force in the South Central region in particular.

9. Notably, women's political participation has improved after significant activism in the South Central region in 2016-17. Gaining support from the enacted 30% quota, 24% of parliamentary seats are now held by women in the FGS (increasing from 14% in 2012). This contrasts with the status quo in Somaliland and Puntland, where less than 1.5% of seats are held by women. Ultimately the 'prevailing culture and clan system' still remains the main highlighted obstacle to women's participation in these regions. While there has been progress in FGS, 'meaningful' representation and participation of women is described to be lacking.

According to some respondents, a 'lack of political will' has restricted the implementation of new legal provisions for women's inclusion. Others cited the high competition, family pressures and limited access to finances as factors that inhibit women's participation.

10. Overall despite challenges, there is a perception of 'gradual growth' in the participation of Somali women in the political arena, and a new perceived value for women's inclusion in politics for 'improved governance' and a more 'equitable Somalia.' This has triggered an increase in women's political movements / agency.

III Sector-Based Gender Analysis: Justice and Social Affairs

11. Gender Based Violence (GBV) remains a highly prevalent and persistent phenomenon affecting women and girls in Somalia. The most common forms of GBV include harmful traditional practices related to female genital mutilation or cutting (FGM/C), early and forced marriage, and physical and sexual violence, including Intimate Partner Violence (IPV). In recent years, there has been much effort at the institutional level in drafting new legislation on GBV, and in the creation of working groups and new monitoring mechanisms.

Yet regional campaigns, and community outreach programmes are still limited. Some recent efforts have been noted in Somaliland and Puntland by NGOs and civil society. There are also new initiatives in GBV response. In particular, improved forensic equipment for gathering evidence for GBV survivors has been introduced in Puntland.

12. In Somali culture, FGM/C is still highly prevalent, with an estimated 98% of women (aged 15-49 years) reported to have undergone the procedure in Somalia. Indicators point to limited change in rural areas but downward trends in urban areas and decreasing levels of popularity (World Bank and UN, 2017), although there are parallel indicators of the medicalization of the practice in some urban centres.

Shifts in the practices are linked to changing social preferences, education, and household wealth.

13. In Somalia, early or underage marriage remains the norm with an estimated 45% of young women aged 20-24, married by 18 years. In rural regions in Somaliland, trends from local research indicate a shift towards 'adolescent girl choice marriages' (15-18 years), with younger and arranged marriages becoming less common except in situations of extreme poverty. Drivers include education, girls' increasing assertiveness (and mobile phone use), social peer pressure, and poverty and family dynamics. Updated legislation and government campaigning on this issue remains elusive.

14. Physical, and sexual gender based violence (SGBV) remains highly prevalent with over a third of urban female respondents having experienced some type of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV). Outside of the home, there are rising incidents of sexual assault and rape. Non-partner sexual or physical violence is common (17% of urban females). SGBV incidents appear to be highest in conflict and insecure areas, but are also reported in urban centres. Urban incidents may be influenced by social media, as well as perceptions of a lack of penalties by authorities, although this requires further research. The legal response is now slowly ramping up in regions such as Puntland, and there are new trends in social activism. Public frustrations lie not just with the increasing incidences of SGBV, but also with the persistence of clan mediation for resolution of cases, and a culture of stigmatizing and shaming (of girls). The persistence and high prevalence of GBV is considered the main barrier that prevents women and girls from progressing beyond traditional gender roles, to participate fully in education and to expand their roles beyond the domestic domain, leading to their 'cyclical marginalization and subjugation'.

IV Sector-based Gender Analysis: Education and Maternal Health

16. There have been commendable and visible efforts by the authorities to support strategy and policy

development in the education and health sectors over the past decade, with strong commitments from the Ministries of Health and Education in each of the three regions. In Somaliland, primary education has been free since 2011.

17. Yet 60% of school aged children and youth remain out of school (OCHA, 2018) with some differences across regions. With the educational push in recent years, government figures indicate that there are now higher rates of (primary) school participation in the more stable regions of Puntland and Somaliland. Net enrolment at primary level is just 17% for both sexes but gender differences increase at higher levels of education. Vulnerable groups include IDPs, pastoralist/nomadic groups, poor households, the disabled, and minority clans. Schools are characterized by overage enrolment, as a result of school availability, affordability and accessibility. This influences enrolment data at lower levels of education. Besides access, school participation may be influenced by complex family dynamics, including poverty, family preferences, household chores (girls) and mothers' own level of education. Across the three regions, the key education strategy includes the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) 2018-2020.

18. Maternal health indicators illustrate that the health status of women in Somalia remains dire. Somalia reports some of the highest maternal and infant mortality rates in the world, although slight gains have been made in recent years. Access to maternal and child health services is extremely limited outside of urban centres, with less than 1 in 10 births attended to by skilled health personnel (regional figures are higher however), poor utilization of antenatal care, and low use of family planning methods. Factors such as a lack of health awareness among women and restrictive gender norms influence utilization of maternal and child health services.

19. The health system in Somalia is fragmented and under-resourced, and is thus not meeting the healthcare needs of the population, falling far from its delivery targets in both the number of

existing facilities (less than 40% of expected target) or skilled health staff (less than 20% of expected target) according to WHO (2016) in OCHA (2018). The Somali Health Policy (2014) is considered the major policy platform for cross-regional collaboration and improved health service delivery. Greater efforts are now needed to operationalize the policy and support health sector reform for strengthening the quality and availability of health services across the country, in particular for maternal and child health.

V Sector-based Gender Analysis: Participation in the Economy

20. Gender and socio-economic dynamics play a central role in Somalia in influencing access to, and participation of women in livelihoods, business, services, and resources. Women are cited as critical 'economic actors', although they still remain largely outside of the formal economy. Only 27% of women report being employed (including self employment). Yet there are new emerging economic trends with pressures on traditional livelihoods, including women's participation in trading and micro-enterprise, and business organisation (Puntland). As women entrepreneurs are challenged by low access to credit, remittances from diaspora are a crucial support dynamic (particularly for urban middle class women). **21. The economy is still predominantly rural in Somalia; although traditional rural-based livelihoods are increasingly at risk due to pressures such as climate change, land degradation, population explosion and urbanisation (with men leaving to work as migrant labourers, and increasing land pressures on women).** Women remain centrally engaged in the livestock (e.g. milk chain) and the agricultural sector, but are often restricted to the lower ends of the value chain.

22. A new phenomenon that has emerged in the past 20 years is the participation and dominance of women in the informal sector (up to 70%). More formally, women are also active in medium to large enterprises making up almost two thirds of total business owners. But in larger scale enterprises, women tend to belong to the diaspora or educated elite. In poorer households,

women typically work as petty traders, and are now the main bread earners. Poor women suffer a lack of access to business resources, services, and networks that inhibit business growth and development.

23. The development of savings groups (e.g. Self Help Groups) in regions such as rural Somaliland has boosted women's businesses, and led to both social and economic benefits. Micro Finance Institutions (MFIs) such as MicroDahab are now supporting individual women and groups gain access to micro and SME loans (although they face barriers in the South due to insecurity).

24. The formal wage sector remains male dominated and women and youth face discrimination in accessing formal employment, particularly in the public sector. Women and youth are typically relegated to lower positions, and earn lower salaries for similar work as men.

25. Sector-wise, the infrastructure and transport sector (roads) are growth and investor areas but remain dominated by men (and in Public Private Partnerships (PPP)). The service sector remains the most dynamic sector in Somalia, including telecommunications, mobile banking, and energy. A major potential growth area includes Information Communication Technologies (ICTs), particularly for skilled youth and university graduates, and women. Meanwhile, the energy sector remains male-dominated although there appears to be growing interest among young women to participate in the emerging renewable energies sector.

26. Recently a new National Employment Policy (NEP, 2019) was drafted, with the inclusion of women, youth, and IDPs as vulnerable groups. A Gender Economic Empowerment Strategy has also been formulated by MoWHRD as an addendum to the National Gender Policy. The inclusion of other vulnerable subgroups in the labour force such as young men, diaspora and minority groups has not yet been adequately addressed. The role that technology and ICTs can play in promoting the economic participation

of youth represents a gap for future research.

VI Evaluating Gender Equality, and Inclusion in a Fragile Context

27. In evaluating gender dynamics and change in Somalia, it is critical to appreciate the impact of 'fragility' on gender equality and women's evolving agency (Ritchie, 2016). Somalia remains a physically challenging context, with pressures such as land degradation and climate change. It is also a highly unstable context, and this influences both delivery and access to basic services. Instability also affects women's public participation and women's labour market activity in particular.

28. While the international community and donors have focused their efforts and attention on promoting gender equality in legislation, there appears to have been slow grassroots progress. In particular, there has been slow transformation of local women organizations, which is perceived to be curtailing 'change on the ground'. Gender activists and women's groups have played a key role in bridging the gap between the community and local leaders through local and national advocacy, and through social media. However to date, a 'strong and united women's movement' has not yet developed.

29. Overall, while there is a tangible shift in formal attitudes towards gender equality and inclusion across Somalia, there is now a need for strategic 'empowerment initiatives' to push the agenda forward on the ground and build resilience, including through campaigns and media, improved service delivery (and regional lesson-learning), and civil society capacity building.

VII Recommendations

30. The report identifies concrete sector recommendations for accelerating the advancement of gender equality and building resilience including through formal institutions and political participation, social affairs and justice,



education and human capital development, health systems strengthening, and economic growth and development (including agribusiness, enterprise, and employment). These include:

- Promoting gender equality in institutional structures and legislation by strengthening the Constitution, approving and implementing laws/policies, promoting gender quotas, instituting key gender units, developing gender indicators and budgets, and public awareness raising.
- Promoting gender equality in social affairs and justice by facilitating urgent national level dialogue on SGBV, approving and enacting key legislation (and developing new legislation where there are gaps), supporting prevention and response, and increasing community action/advocacy.
- Promoting gender equality in education, and human capital development by the development of national campaigns to support children/girls in school (and possible subsidies, and/or free primary education), civic education, school improvement through Child Education Committees, vocational training through mobile units, scholarships, and ICT youth training.
- Improving maternal health by strengthening health systems, rehabilitating health sector infrastructure; improving service delivery, implementing community outreach and national health communication campaigns.
- Promoting gender in the economy by raising awareness of 'Women in the Economy' and exploring employment quotas; facilitating a National Action Plan for women's employment; and developing a nationwide strategy to establish women's Self Help Groups (SHGs).
- Promoting gender equality in infrastructure development by facilitating women's inclusion in road projects (through PPDP), developing legal standards, and supporting professional training in renewable energies. Community recommendations include supporting WASH projects through school development plans, and facilitating solar energy products through MFI schemes.
- Promoting gender in the environment by forming a National Commission for the Environment with the inclusion of women, and developing local strategies in rangeland management.



I. CONTEXT AND PURPOSE

Gender rights and equality remain critical issues in the uncertain context of Somalia with the persistence of poor human development indicators and instability, and new threats posed by climate change. Situated in the Horn of Africa, Somalia has struggled with protracted civil war and unrest for over three decades, and remains politically complex and fragile.³ Somalia is currently made up of (at least) three major administrative regions, including the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) in the South Central region, and the self-declared, semi-autonomous and more stable regions of Somaliland and Puntland in the north. In the past several years however, there have been significant efforts at state building, and fostering peace and inclusion by the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS). Key frameworks have been developed and international partnerships forged, with gender goals high on the agenda.

Today the FGS remains strongly committed to long-term peace, security and inclusive development, in a challenging social and physical environment. In addition to conflict and insecurity, the region suffers prolonged and severe drought, with famine remaining a 'looming risk' and 4.2 million people in situations of vulnerability to disease and hunger. With crisis and instability, population displacement is a major phenomenon and there are over 2 million IDPs. Across the Horn of Africa and Yemen region, there are also an estimated 870,000 Somali refugees. Somalis are considered highly resilient however, with supportive kinship systems and remittances from the diaspora.

This report presents a Country Gender Profile for Somalia examining core trends in gender and inclusion, new policies and legalisation, and institutional capacity to promote gender equality, particularly in a fragile and fragmented context, with change and progress assessed since 2012. In this introductory chapter, the report objective, approach and methods are elaborated. Towards understanding the scope of gender equality and development, the importance of appreciating institutions and cultural dynamics is emphasised. The patriarchal nature of Somali society, and the varying impact of war and poverty (and local conditions), is discussed. Finally, the report structure is outlined and the limitations described.

1.1 REPORT OBJECTIVE AND APPROACH

The Gender Profile is intended to inform development assistance policies, and support strategies for promoting gender equality and poverty reduction in Somalia. Specifically the report explores key gender inequalities that are continuing to constrain inclusive growth, identifies key gaps and challenges in current policies and programmes, and highlights best practices and strategies for action. In this way, it is aligned with the UNDP's Gender Brief (2014), EU's recent gender profile reports (Musse and Gardner, 2013; SIDRA, 2016b), and the Beijing 20+ Review (UNECA, 2014).

The report takes a sectoral and institutional approach to assessing gender equality and inclusion across Somalia to examine trends on the ground, and progress within specific key line ministries, legislation and services, and persisting challenges. The value of the report is not in the provision of new statistical data, but instead, in a consolidation of information known, a distillation of key trends (and attitudes / perspectives) and institutional progress, and in-depth analysis. The report takes a predominant focus on the Federal Government of Somalia (and the South-Central region), but integrates progress in the semi-autonomous administrative regions of Somaliland and Puntland, and thus draws attention to regional differences.

With a great deal of effort and attention placed on national state-building in Somalia as a 'platform' for gender equality and development, particularly in the South-Central region, the report elaborates initially on progress in institutional arrangements, policy making and women's political participation. It then turns to progress and change related to specific sectors, including social affairs and justice, education and health, and the economy. It highlights institutional-level progress and strategies, and development initiatives led by different stakeholders. It discusses women and girls' (changing) participation in social, economic and political spheres, and access to basic services and resources. From an economic perspective, the report includes key trends related to gender and participation in rural livelihoods, access to resources, enterprise and employment.

Methodology

The study is based on a review of literature, recent field experiences and studies, and qualitative field research conducted in Mogadishu, Hargeisa and Garowe. Practical research tools included key informant interviews (KIIs), focus group discussions and observation. Phase 1 of the study included 31 KIIs with government, aid actors, donors, civil society and business representatives across the three locations. Additional interviews were conducted in Nairobi, and online. In Phase 2, selected participants from Phase 1 alongside other key actors were invited to participate in four national level focus groups in Mogadishu. These meetings aimed to reflect on, and further interrogate key themes that had emerged in the first phase of the research, and allow additional points of clarification to be included in the research findings. Discussions were largely conducted in Somali although some contributions were given in English. Details of participants are provided in Appendix 2.

1.2 INSTITUTIONS, CULTURE AND GENDER IN SOMALIA

This report places a strong emphasis on examining institutions and their dynamics towards appreciating gender and development, particularly in fragile environments (Ritchie, 2016) such as Somalia. In Somalia, formal institutions are still being established in a challenging context, and informal institutions remain dominant in social, economic and political life, including norms, customs, and traditions. Social norms and relations shape evolving patterns of institutions, and are the roots of exclusion (World Bank, 2013b). Gender inequality and exclusion are linked to the persistence of discriminatory norms and relations, and the inequitable distribution of resources. Such gender-related discrimination is often the underlying cause of poverty and underdevelopment within less developed societies, particularly amongst women and girls. It is also a critical barrier to the attainment of the 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Given the link between gender inequality, poverty and development, an institutional analysis can shed light on the dynamics of evolving norms and formal laws, and social, political and economic trends.

Multi-dimensional exclusion but diverse and changing realities

While slowly changing, and varying across rural to urban contexts, women in Somalia still face high levels of political, social and economic exclusion, as evidenced by low human development indicators (see Appendix 3). In particular, violence against women cuts across all aspects of women's lives, and remains 'deeply embedded' in the local culture (UNDP, 2014). In the transition from a predominantly nomadic and pastoralist society, traditional structures and customary laws have been strained, with varying effects on women and girls. Gender relations and roles have evolved and shifted, particularly with war and displacement over the past three decades (Musse and Gardner, 2013). This has led to women's increasing household responsibilities as family breadwinners, and large numbers of female-headed households living as IDPs (with men killed in conflict, absent, or working as migrants). As highlighted by a Rift Valley Institute discussion forum, while Somali women have often suffered 'disproportionately' from the civil war and gender-based violence, the conflict has also ushered in new opportunities for them to assert themselves socially and politically.

Towards examining gender and social change, it is critical to appreciate regional trends and path trajectories, with the varied nature of sub-realities within Somalia. Somali society is strongly patriarchal, with clearly delineated roles and responsibilities of men, women, boys and girls. Box 1.1 outlines the traditional gender roles and responsibilities of Somali men, women, girls and boys, and highlights the impact of war and poverty (particularly as a result of increasing rural livelihood pressures). Among men and boys, this has led to trauma, loss of employment and migration (including out of Somalia). Meanwhile, for women and girls, war and poverty have had more mixed effects. On one hand, it has increased their role in peace building, and responsibilities in the household in the absence of men. On the other hand, it has increased both women and girls' vulnerability to violence, and changing land and climate conditions. The changing roles of Somali men and women, and evolving gender norms and rights are elaborated and further discussed in this report.

Box 1.1: Traditional gender roles and responsibilities in Somalia, and impact of war and poverty

<p>MEN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Men are traditionally the 'protectors' of family security, primary breadwinners and the central decision-makers, in both public and private settings ☐ Men control household expenditures ☐ Their place is outside the home <p><u>Impact of war and poverty:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Men face loss of employment, particularly with rural pressures (climate change), and increased dependency on women - a source of shame for some men, especially many older men ☐ Men face combat-related trauma, physical injury, psychological trauma ☐ Men face separation from family, loss of or failure to regain assets ☐ Men engage in 'family splitting', as an important survival mechanism 	<p>WOMEN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Women are 'homemakers' and responsible for bearing and raising children, food production and all domestic tasks ☐ Their place is inside the home <p><u>Impact of war and poverty</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Women face continued exclusion from actual political and public decision-making fora, but may be intermediaries in clan conflicts (in bringing parties together) and involved in peace building ☐ Women bear the double burden of earning an income and domestic duties ☐ Women are vulnerable to violence in and out of the home (with insecurity in the South) ☐ Women face land pressures - land alienation, degraded resources, and vulnerability to drought
<p>Boys</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Boys are expected to take on the traditional role of young men ☐ Required to take care of livestock/herding duties from the age of 10 <p><u>Impact of war and poverty</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Boys in pastoral communities are prone to school drop out ☐ In the case of absent fathers, and with increasing rural livelihood pressures, older boys may flee to urban areas. ☐ Boys may engage in risky behaviour such as illegal migration and recruitment into street gangs or armed groups (militia) 	<p>GIRLS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Girls are expected to take on the traditional role of wife and mother, and support household level chores and responsibilities ☐ Girls have little or no agency in choices and decisions that affect their lives, with early marriage and FGM/C common - preserving girls' sexual purity, and ensuring family honour is considered paramount <p><u>Impact of war and poverty</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Girls face increased risk of being physically/sexually assaulted ☐ Girls face increased risk of child labour (particularly poor / minority girls)

Source: Derived from Musse and Gardner (2013)



Appreciating clan dynamics and gender

It is pertinent to elaborate on the influence of clan identity and loyalty, and its impact on women's lives, power and opportunity. While for men it is clear which clan they are associated with (their father's), women have more 'choice' (although not necessarily their own), and may align with their father's, mother's or even husband's clan. As elaborated by Musse and Gardner (2013), this ambiguous position of women and the importance of the clan is the reason that women can act as peace-negotiators in a conflict but have often been excluded from the formal peace talks themselves. Women also tend to be excluded from their clan's political decision-making forum, and men argue against women's inclusion in political decision-making structures and leadership. Such clan dynamics reinforce a social bias against women and girls, and assign them a secondary value to that of men and boys. The bias manifests itself in terms of family investment in girls' skills (e.g. education), with a preference for boys to be educated; and women's low access to formal employment, with positions and status reserved for men.

1.3 REPORT STRUCTURE

The report is structured as follows: **Chapter II** discusses state building, institutions and legislative architecture in Somalia as a platform for country gender and development, and specifically focuses on gender frameworks, rights and policies, and women's political participation. **Chapter III** examines gender-related progress in the sectors of justice and social affairs in Somalia. In particular, the chapter investigates trends related to gender-based violence (GBV) including female genital mutilation or cutting (FGM/C), early and forced marriage, and physical and sexual-based violence. It discusses institutional progress, and laws, policies, and strategic action. **Chapter IV** examines gender-related progress in access to basic services, particularly in education and maternal health. The chapter discusses institutional progress, and policies, plans and service delivery in the health and education sectors. Chapter V examines

gender and the economy, and specifically discusses access to, and participation in livelihoods, enterprise and employment. It examines institutional progress; and policies, plans and affirmative action. Finally, **Chapter VI** summarizes, and reflects further on the study findings on gender equality, inclusion and development in Somalia. Finally, **Chapter VII** outlines key recommendations for promoting gender equality and inclusion in a fragile and complex environment.

1.4 REPORT LIMITATIONS

The practical research was limited to the urban areas in each of the target locations, and did not include community-level visits due to constraints around time, security and access.¹⁰ In reaction to the ongoing struggles for gender recognition and (women's) equitable participation, discussions in the city were greatly dominated by legislative progress and political participation, particularly related to women. To explore thematic topics in more detail, the report endeavoured to draw on various field level studies and gender research across the region. It is important to note that the report is not a comprehensive reference document on all gender-related issues affecting the Somali population, or a full (formal) institutional level analysis. Rather, the report aims to capture key characteristics of the country/regional situation in terms of gender equality and development, and highlight critical trends related to gender and change with available data and studies. The report does not look in detail at the situation of HIV AIDS (with its low prevalence), trafficking (with limited information), or cross-border migration, although such topics warrant future investigation. Data was predominantly drawn from the Multi Indicator Cluster Surveys led by national and regional authorities with UNICEF (MICS 2011), the UNDP Human Development Report (2012), World Bank (2016, 2017, 2018) or updated thematic surveys with the FGS (e.g. UNFPA, 2016). There is limited availability of comprehensive national level data for Somalia (including Somaliland and Puntland). Further, where data is available, it is rarely disaggregated by sex or gender-relevant categories such as age or minority / majority group.



II. STATE-BUILDING AND LEGISLATIVE ARCHITECTURE, AND INCLUSION

In this chapter, the scope of state building, institutions and legislation in Somalia and progress towards inclusion over the past decade is discussed with a focus on gender frameworks, rights and policies, and women's participation. This chapter is aligned with Pillar 1 of the New Deal approach that focuses on the constitution and inclusive politics. In particular, the chapter discusses institutional arrangements and gender, including rights achievements (laws and policies), and the status of women's political participation. The Reflections section discusses current trends and persisting challenges in working towards gender equality and political inclusion.

2.1 INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS AND GENDER

The past decade has seen a momentous sea change in institutional recognition of gender equality, and commitment and efforts towards realising gender rights and inclusion, particularly by the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS). The FGS now appreciates the role that the state itself needs to play in promoting gender equality and inclusivity (UNECA, 2014), and prioritises the empowerment of women through participation in decision-making, highlighting such inclusion as 'instrumental for peace and development', and essential for 'rebuilding the new Somalia'¹².

Significant efforts in promoting gender equality with new legal frameworks, policies and structures in FGS

Three key country frameworks have been drafted that provide strong platforms for promoting gender equality and development, with support from international partners. At an overarching state level, the *Provisional Constitution* (2012) has included important new gender provisions and an 'ambitious' articulation and protection of citizen rights. Notably, in 2013, a Draft Constitution Technical Review Committee was established, with two lawyers, including one woman. Meanwhile, the international community's Compact for Somalia under the 'New Deal Framework' (2013) and the New Partnership for Somalia (NPS) have mainstreamed and prioritised gender commitments, with a specific focus on addressing gender disparities across sectors. Finally, the National Development Plan (NDP) (2017-2019) articulated a national framework for country development, with a notable alignment to the SDGs and goals to promote gender equality, in particular SDG 5: Gender Equality as a 'platform for all other sustainable development goals'¹³.

In examining institutional progress in promoting gender, it is pertinent to look closer at evolving structures within the FGS (and regional) institutions, and achievements in policies and action.

2.1.1 Government ministries and focal points

Spearheading gender rights, as emphasised in the Provisional Constitution, a new women's ministry was configured in 2013 in the FGS. Replacing the

Ministry of Human Rights, the Ministry for Women and Human Rights Development (MoWHRD) was established to better support gender and rights development in Somalia. In addition to leading the development and implementation of relevant gender laws and policies, the task of MoWHRD is to ensure coordination between the various ministries on gender as well as to coordinate actions between Government, civil society and NGOs for the Peace and State building Goals Working Groups set up by the government to implement the New Deal Framework. A focal point has been appointed to promote inter-ministerial coordination mechanisms on gender, strengthen gender mainstreaming across the ministries and sectors, and ensure implementation of strategic interventions.

The MoWHRD has been proactive in recent years in the drafting of important legislation on gender and rights development, especially those related to the protection and security of women and girls. Gender Units have been set up in key ministries such as the Ministry of Constitutional Affairs to support gender mainstreaming and to ensure there is gender equality during the constitutional review process. Ministries have now developed (or are developing) their own gender policies and gender budgeting guidelines. The development of relevant monitoring frameworks and the tracking of gender budgeting across ministries remain key outstanding areas of action for the MoWHRD.

2.1.2 National Gender Policies

As key national reference and guidance platforms for the promotion of gender equality and inclusion, national gender policies (NGPs) have been formulated in each of the three regions, most recently at FGS level. These have been well received by civil society and women's groups. Yet to date, beyond gender activists, their public impact seems to be limited, with little knowledge or awareness of their existence amongst other social groups. The policies have not yet been publicly debated or disseminated beyond government circles.

The development of NGPs was initiated in Somaliland and Puntland in 2010-2011. In Somaliland, a National Gender Policy was drafted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and approved in 2011. Yet this was perceived as largely 'externally developed' and 'driven by donor language' (NAGAAD, 2019). Meanwhile, Puntland drafted a National Gender Policy in 2010 but this was not approved.

After facilitating broad internal and external consultation, the FGS finally developed their own draft National Gender Policy in 2013.¹⁶ The goal of the NGP in the FGS is to promote gender equality and sustainable human development in Somalia

by ensuring that equal value is placed on the contributions of women and men as equal partners in development.

The draft NGP provides basic guidance for gender sensitive programming in the areas of economic empowerment, education, health and governance and political participation with various cited 'indicators', or gender achievements outlined to facilitate the monitoring and evaluation of this policy. This included (although not limited to) the following key measures:

- Proportion of women in government institutions, private sector, Civil Society Organizations ;
- Development of gender sensitive policies, guidelines, protocols, action plans, and standard procedures (and their implementation in all government institutions, private sector and CSOs);
- Number of sensitization campaigns on gender equality and men and women's participation ;
- Number of traditional leaders supportive of gender equality and women's participation;
- Number of gender related reforms introduced in all the sectors;
- Proportion of women in security sector institutions and justice system;
- Number of sectors with sex disaggregated data;
- Number of gender units in public and private institutions, and the level of budget allocation for gender initiatives in all sectors.

Figure 2.1: Selected Gender-related goals/targets in gender equality and inclusion in FGS

NGP Goals (2013)	<p><i>Gender and political Participation</i> <i>(Including but not limited to)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Developing strategies to promote equal political participation of women and men.</i> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Supporting and safeguarding the promotion of national policies that guarantees women's quota in all government and private institutions.</i>
NDP Targets (2017)	<p><i>'Create an enabling legal, policy and institutional environment to achieve gender equality and equal opportunities..'</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Key legislation and policy frameworks enacted and popularized (CEDAW, Sexual Offences Bill, FGM Bill, FGM Policy, UNSCR 1325 National Action Plan) <input type="checkbox"/> Increase women's representation in political and leadership positions up to 30% by 2019 <input type="checkbox"/> Monitoring framework to measure women's rights and gender equality in place by 2019 <input type="checkbox"/> Mechanism for tracking public allocations to gender equality in place by 2019

While indicators could be improved, at a fundamental level, the NGP is viewed positively by various actors, and is perceived to bolster gender-mainstreaming efforts and create new opportunities for tracking progress.²⁰ Notably, it includes explicit reference to facilitating the implementation of Resolution 1325, a GBV policy, gender mainstreaming and institutional capacity building, and an economic empowerment policy (with an emphasis on vulnerable groups such as women). In 2017, the National Development Plan (NDP) pushed the gender agenda forward, with the mainstreaming of gender and the inclusion of gender-related targets.

Yet little progress has been reported on the attainment of the NDP indicators and targets, beyond the development of legislation (Section 2.2) or political participation (Section 2.3). With limited capacities and budgets, there appears to be insufficient strategic action on working towards cited targets, for example in organizing national level campaigns or gender-related reforms. There is also a lack of monitoring frameworks to ascertain positive progress where it exists, for example women in security sector institutions and justice (Chapter 3).

It is worth noting that the NGP process has been rife with challenges, and remains a draft. It is important to appreciate deeper political and social dynamics that are inhibiting the NGP implementation and action. In mid-2016, according to United States State Department (USSD), the Council of Ministers in Somalia approved a subsequent NGP plan, which included programmes to promote awareness of and sensitivity to gender issues and support the development of tools to measure gender inequities in policies and programs. The initiative was subsequently denounced by the Islamic Scholars Union indicating internal contention over the realization of such policies. With escalating tensions, the Minister of MoWHRD was reported to have received several death threats from extremist Islamic groups that accused her of ‘pushing for women’s representation in government’ as both un-Islamic and a threat to family structures. Currently, UNDP in coordination with UN Women and women’s

civil society organizations are working together to support the MoWHRD to finalize the NGP and plan through a consultative process that includes Puntland, Jubbaland and Somalis in Diaspora.

2.2 PROGRESS IN GENDER, RIGHTS AND LEGISLATION SINCE 2012

The drafting of crucial documents such as the National Gender Policies and National Development Plans have provided key platforms and entry points for further promoting gender equality and action, particularly related to new legislation. Recent progress has been made at both an international level, in terms of the recognition of core global gender frameworks, as well as at a country level, in the formulation of new protective laws and policies for women and girls, in addition to policies to protect children and the disabled.

2.2.1 International instruments on gender and human rights

The FGS now recognizes several international gender and human rights frameworks and is signatory to a number of international conventions and treaties that provide guidance for the achievement of women’s empowerment and gender equality. As a UN Member State, Somalia agrees to the ‘oversight of various UN human rights bodies, including the Human Rights Council and its Universal Periodic Review and thematic special procedures’. In terms of conventions, UNDP (2014) indicated that Somalia has so far ratified three (out of the four) international bills on human rights, including the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; and the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; and the African (Banjul) Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights, in 1985. It has signed but still not ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the Maputo Protocol). More recently, it has now ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child

(2015), and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2018).

- Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa

Yet efforts remain at ratifying or implementing the following key gender frameworks:

- Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)
- United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (UNSCR)

In 2019, MoWHRD confirmed that they had established a CEDAW ratification advocacy committee. There are also continued efforts towards accelerating the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, supported by UN Women and other actors.

Box 2.1: Key international instruments signed/recognized by Somalia

<i>Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment from 1995</i>	✓
<i>The UN Sustainable Development Goals (UNDP 2015)</i>	✓
<i>African Charter on Human and People's Rights Protocol (ACHPR)</i>	✓
<i>Protocol on the Prevention and Suppression of Sexual Violence against Women and Children</i>	✓
<i>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</i>	✓
<i>International Covenant on Economic, Cultural and Social Rights (ICESCR)</i>	✓
<i>UN Security Council Resolution on Women, Peace and Security (UN 2002)</i>	✓
<i>The UN policy on Gender and Empowerment of Women (UN 2006)</i>	✓
<i>Global Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (2015)</i>	✓
<i>United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD)</i>	✓
<i>Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)</i>	Signed but not ratified
<i>UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (UNSCR)</i>	✗
<i>Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa</i>	Signed but not ratified

UN Approach to Gender in Somalia

The UN Women is the UN body dedicated to gender equality and the empowerment of women that supports the recognition of gender rights and global obligations in Somalia, and coordinates and promotes all activities related to advancing gender equality. The UN Women is also involved in all deliberations and agreements linked to the 2030 Agenda.²⁸ In 2018, the UN Gender Equality Strategy (2018-2020) for Somalia was drafted. At present, a

new UN Strategic Framework (UNSF) is also being developed as a response to the NDP and in alignment with the National Gender Policy (FGS). Further, in order to better structure UN engagements on gender across UN interventions in Somalia and to work towards gender targets set out in the Somalia-specific assistance framework, a UN Gender Accountability Framework (UNGAF) is being drafted. This will serve as 'an umbrella tool for the implementation of the thematic gender priorities as defined in the NDP and the UNSF'.

²⁹ In particular, the UNGAF is envisaged to enable the UN to help Somalia achieve all gender-related goals of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), (endorsed at the UN General Assembly in September 2015).

2.2.2 National development of gender-related laws and policies

Complementing global frameworks, over the past decade, there have been major national/regional level legislative efforts and progress, in the development of specific laws and policies related to gender rights and protection. Across the three regions, in vein with the NGPs and NDP targets, major gender-related bills that

have recently been passed or are under development in each region include the Human Rights Commission Bill, Sexual Offences Bill and Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C) Bill. Other policies passed or in development include the Disability Act (FGS), draft Child Protection Policy (Somaliland and FGS) and the draft Family Act (Somaliland and FGS). Progress towards gender rights and protection, and access to justice are discussed further in Chapter 3. Beyond protection issues, MoWHRD has been seen as progressive in supporting women's land and property ownership, as articulated in the FGS constitution, although no major policies or strategies have been formulated to push for national level action.

Box 2.2: Progress in Gender-Related Legislation across Somalia since 2012

	FGS	Somaliland	Puntland
Human Rights	Human Rights Commission Law APPROVED (2018)	Human Rights Commission Act APPROVED (2010)	Human Rights Defender Act APPROVED (2011)
Sexual Offences	Sexual Offences Bill (SOB) Awaiting approval	Sexual Offences Bill (SOB) Awaiting approval	Sexual Offences Act APPROVED (2016)
FGM	Draft FGM/C Bill Awaiting approval	Draft FGM/C Bill Awaiting approval	<u>Zero Tolerance' FGM/C Policy</u> Awaiting parliament approval
Disability	National Disability Agency Act APPROVED (2018)	/	/

2.3 PROGRESS IN GENDER AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION SINCE 2012

The FGS Provisional Constitution (2012), the New Deal Framework, and the various NDPs and NGPs have all emphasized the importance of gender equality in political and public participation – in peace talks, electoral processes and government office. In recent years, in line with the various provisions and targets, there has been a push towards realizing women's political participation in Somalia, with the reassertion of quotas and increased lobbying, although progress remains slow in Somaliland and Puntland.

2.3.1 Women and youth in peace processes

The inclusion of women, youth and minorities in peace and reconciliation processes is viewed as critical for long-term peace and balanced country development. Women's traditional and current role in peace initiatives was highlighted by respondents and deemed instrumental in moving beyond conflict. To increase women's active participation in actual talks, legislation is often viewed as the key mechanism to overcome cultural discrimination. However, in recent academic research on Somali peace-building, a third of female respondents reported a lack of education as a major constraining factor, and almost a quarter cited a lack of funds.

Despite favourable legislation, both women's (and youth's) continual exclusion from clan-related politics and peace talks is still deeply rooted in complex issues related to the 'gendered nature of the clan system,' and 'women's dual clan identity and cultural beliefs' influencing their public roles and access to resources. In February 2019, a major UN peace-building fund was launched to address displacement, stabilisation, reconciliation, and state building and land disputes. It also aims to promote 'gender sensitivity' with a focus on women as peace builders in the National Defectors Programme, offering another mechanism to foster women's inclusion in country peace processes.³³

2.3.2 Participation in formal electoral processes and decision-making

Women's participation in formal political processes is strongly influenced by clan and social dynamics, although there have been notable gains in recent years with the increasing engagement of women (in FGS). As highlighted, the constitutions of the three major Somali administrations – FGS, Somaliland, and Puntland – promote equality between men and women in relation to political participation, despite their differing trajectories to developing their administrations and governing bodies (Musse and Gardner, 2013). Yet, exclusively male forums have tended to persist, with quotas unrealized, and 'seats, responsibilities and resources' allocated along clan lines. Change is now finally being ushered in however, with quotas enacted in the FGS (the minimum quota of 30% women), and a new sense of agency amongst women. In Somaliland and Puntland, there has also been a drive for increasing women's political participation, with minimum quotas also set and enacted (25% and 30% respectively).

Federal Government of Somalia

In 2014, women's participation in decision-making within the Federal government remained relatively low and contentious, with 14% of seats held by women in Parliament (2012 elections), and just 10% of cabinet positions occupied by women after a government reshuffle (5 out of 55 ministers were

women, including two Ministers and three Vice Ministers), representing a setback (from 20%). The election of women to Parliament had elicited much resistance and opposition from clan leaders who objected to women candidates representing their clans, as they perceived women to be affiliated with various clans, and thus not 'reliable' candidates for public office.

In 2016, there were major lobbying efforts to push for the realization of quotas in the Federal Government, with the FGS presidential election process. Viewed as a particularly pivotal year for women's participation and inclusion, the 30% quota for women's representation was finally instituted for women in politics; including in the senate, parliament, and government positions. Indicating support towards gender equality, this has been mirrored at regional state level with variations on the quota established. Almost doubling previous achievements, a proportion of 24% of women was nominated to the National Constituent Assembly (NCA) in 2017. Women also secured 14% of seats in the National Federal Parliament (NFP). Further, in the election process, the highest number of women contested key posts: there were two female presidential candidates; and two women ran for seats as mayors in Garowe and Qardho. The Chair of the National Independent Electoral Commission is also now currently a woman. There have also been some key notable appointments of women within other public sectors such as the armed forces, with a woman recently even appointed Brigadier General in the FGS, becoming the highest-ranking female in the Somali Police Force.

Despite these achievements, women remain under-represented at the political leadership level. In the FGS election process, out of 23 parties registered with the National Independent Electoral Commission, only one party has a female leader.

Women's underrepresentation in the country's political parties' leadership is perceived to be a significant barrier to their broader political participation, creating 'unequal power balance and influence'. A major reported constraint is the lack of

finances, and capital for women to form independent parties or campaign against male opponents. The political stakes are cited to be rising: 'if the gender quota is not enforced by 2020 when Somalia goes to elections again, women's participation will

significantly reduce'. As highlighted by UNECA (2014), the persistence of the 4.5 clan system in FGS is still considered to be a key barrier to women achieving 30% proportion representation (Box 2.3).

Box 2.3: Somalia's 4.5 Power sharing system

The 4.5 formula relates to the Somali clan-based power-sharing system. The system allocates equal quotas for representation of the four major clans, with 0.5 allocated to a 'composite of minority groups' including women. The system is criticized for 'deepening clannism, and for not aiding women or minority groups'.

Source: Musse and Gardner, 2013

Somaliland and Puntland

Change in women's political participation is slower in Somaliland and Puntland. In Somaliland, only 1% of parliamentary seats are held by women. At the same time, more progressive political systems are reported to be in place, such as cross-clan politics and democratic elections. With the persistence of traditional attitudes however, major decisions tend to be made along clan lines to ensure 'peace and security' and thus women remain marginalized (Musse and Gardner, 2013). In 2018, there was reported to be a major push for change by women activists in Somaliland, with a campaign created, '#acceptwomensleadership', and the establishment of a Quota Task Force (NAGAAD, 2019).

Meanwhile, in Puntland, change on the ground is still minimal, with only 1.5% of parliamentary seats held by women, despite quotas having been enacted. In a survey in 2016, Somali women's participation in

politics in Puntland was found to be very low (SIDRA, 2016c). This was attributed to the lack of clear policy and legal frameworks that support and promote women's political participation, and the conservative position of elders who believe that female political participation stands against Somali tradition. In 2018, Puntland President Abdiweli Ali Gaas signed a new Presidential decree for the 30% quota for women in Puntland Parliament. At the most recent election (December 2018), Puntland had only one woman in Parliament (out of 66 members of the Puntland State Parliament (MPs)), although there are several female ward councillors. Persisting challenges in women's political participation in Puntland were attributed to barriers related to 'tradition and culture', but a lack of enabling legal frameworks and 'political will' were also highlighted. Other factors include, women's economic disenfranchisement, women's limited access to education, and importantly, the lack of 'women for women' mindsets, which would encourage women voters to support female candidates for political office.

Table 2.1: Legislative and Executive Institutions Governing Somalia, and Gender Dynamics (March 2019)

ADMINISTRATION	FEDERAL GOVERNMENT OF SOMALIA	PUNTLAND ¹	SOMALILAND ²
TYPE OF GOVERNMENT	PARLIAMENT Selected by 135 clan elders following the 4.5 formula for clan-balance	HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES	Bicameral: <i>House of Representatives (elected), and (unelected) House of Elders</i>
NUMBER OF PARLIAMENT SEATS HELD BY WOMEN	80 (24.5%) out of 329	1 (1.5%) out of 66	1 (1%) out of 82 in House of Representatives 0 (0%) out of 82 in House of Elders
WOMEN IN CABINET POSITIONS	2 out of 10 (20%)	1 out of 18 (Minister of Women's Development and Family Affairs)	2 (4%) out of 50
LOCAL GOVERNMENT SEATS HELD BY WOMEN	N/A	62 (25%) out of 250	9 (%) out of 375

2.4 SUMMARY AND REFLECTIONS ON PERSISTING CHALLENGES

Over the past decade, and particularly over the past 5 years, attitudes and narratives towards gender equality and participation have been improving, particularly in the Federal Government region with peace and state building efforts. Achievements include the new Provisional Constitution (2012), the National Gender Policy and the National Development Plan. These have prompted significant strides in legislative and policy making to mainstream and integrate gender equality and human rights. At an institutional level, this is considered, in itself, a major achievement for gender equality as it opens up new pathways to addressing inequalities and harmful practices. In Somaliland, there appears to be a 'stagnation' in the formalization of gender rights, as there is slow progress in the approval of key legislation, and in the implementation of the NGP. Meanwhile in Puntland, while progress also appears to be slow, the mood was more positive, as key legislation such as

the Sexual Offences Act had been approved, and the FGM/C policy was close to being so. Across the various contexts, there is an increasing level of 'consciousness' around gender issues at the government level, signaling a movement beyond the notion that 'gender' is 'taboo'. For aspiring women, this has created new beliefs around their legitimate role in politics and decision-making.

Going beyond legislation?

Championing change in the Federal Government region, the MoWHRD has largely spearheaded government efforts, with the support of development partners and gender activists. In particular, the drafting of crucial documents such as the NGP and NDP are considered key steps towards fostering change and for integrating gender perspectives in government policy and programmes. International conventions have also been signed and ratified, and there is now a greater willingness by the government to embrace global gender goals. Key bills related to human rights, sexual offences and

FGM/C have been drafted, thus setting into motion critical frameworks for GBV criminalization and prosecution (discussed further in Chapter 3). Within government ministries, there is a new requirement for gender representation with dedicated gender units.⁴³

Although new laws and policies such as the NGPs have been welcomed as key documents to spur action in gender equality across Somalia, and hold the government accountable, actual change on the ground is still slow. Overall, there is poor performance on gender indicators such as maternal mortality, rape, FGM and violence against women; and the country has been unable to meet international targets such as those set in Beijing (or the MDGs/SDGs). In the absence of a legal framework or guidance for rights' infringements, there is a lack of enforcement of new gender laws and policies; and thus the provisions in the Constitutions and new legislation, particularly in the FGS, remain largely unrealized. This has led to palpable frustrations in regions such as Somaliland, where key gender-related laws and policies were drafted several years ago but remain 'non-functioning'. Respondents drew attention to the 'absence of women in leadership' in Somaliland, and a lack of mentors and role models encouraging women to participate. In all cases, NGPs remain 'inactive', with limited government capacities and allocated budgets, and a lack of practical action in working towards broad gender targets. In the FGS, this includes, for example, organizing national level campaigns, or establishing monitoring frameworks. In regions such as Somaliland, NGOs have struggled to use the NGP to advocate for change.

Religion, culture and politics in a fragmented environment

Religious and traditional clan leaders may challenge the smooth implementation of gender laws and policies. In the absence of government recognition of cultural barriers and a new, more inclusive narrative, there remains insufficient institutional-level support for uplifting the status of women, with a low resulting proportion of women in higher decision-making positions. The implementation of the new Constitution, state rebuilding reform

processes and governance decentralization also face rejection by the clan system that still 'thrives after the fall of the Somali government in the 1990s'. From the perspective of government gender advisors, there remains a 'clash between [culture], traditions, and tenets of the modern state'. Respondents also highlight the lack of gender budgeting and limited 'political will', besides the positive efforts of the MoWHRD (and particularly the Minister herself). A further weakness reported is the existence of parallel governing bodies and power structures in Somalia, and regional variations in legislation and policies. The threats by religious extremists remain a destabilizing force that undermines the adoption of progressive attitudes and women's participation.

Overall, despite progress in dialogue and discussion, tradition, culture and religious interpretation are cited as the major impediments to the pursuit of gender equality in Somalia. Gender equality, and particularly women's participation and development, is still viewed as a donor-led agenda, and is perceived by conservatives (and particularly the less educated) as a 'western-driven ideology'. In particular, there remains sensitivity around cultural norms and traditions; and a misconception that 'gender' equates to women and that laws are seeking to disrupt traditional ways of life. Pervasive misunderstandings, misinformation and a general distrust and fear of change are highlighted as key factors that fuel resistance and opposition to gender equality and rights (with women afraid to participate for fear of men's backlash), particularly those concerning family gender roles and cultural practices. Such attitudes and perspectives may be exacerbated by a sense of insecurity, particularly among the poor and less educated.

Political participation and the rise of women's movements

Nonetheless, in the FGS, there have been significant political achievements, with the enactment of the 30% quota, after major lobbying in Mogadishu. Women now hold almost a quarter of parliamentary seats in the FGS, above countries such as Singapore, Ireland and Kenya.⁵² Meanwhile the other regions lag behind

at less than 1.5%. Despite the quota and increasing numbers of women in politics in the FGS, there may be an absence of 'meaningful' representation and participation as women's representatives in Parliament are considered weak, and not pursuing 'equal representation' or their rights as laid out in the Constitution. In particular, a lack of party-based politics and the current 4.5 system of selection are considered the main obstacles. In Mogadishu, IIDA recommend strengthening the current quota system with legislation that would contain a provision for nominating extra women members of parliament if the number of elected women falls below the target.

The key socio-cultural barriers inhibiting Somali women's political participation have been clearly articulated in recent 'Gender Gap' research in Somaliland (NAGAAD, 2019). These included the persistence of norms/attitudes that relegate women's influence largely to the domestic sphere, women's lack of social capital in a society that values clan and family membership, lower educational attainment among women compared to men, and the lack of financial resources for women candidates to afford campaign expenses. Furthermore, decisions on political participation are also often made in informal gatherings of men. This study herein also highlighted the high competition and clan/family pressures as inhibiting factors that restrict women's campaigning and political participation. Clan elders may further oppose women leaders who are perceived to have 'unpredictable' potential allegiance: 'Will she honour her husband's clan or stay devoted to her father's side' is a question she must constantly face'. Male elites view women as a threat to their seats/position and are reported to engage in smear campaigns. In addition, there is tension between women's organizations and civil society, and female and male politicians. The 30% quota was described as a 'minimum', with organizations such as Somali Gender Equity Movement (SGEM) pushing for a 40% quota to be included in the FGS constitution review process (and the 2019 Women's Charter even calling for 50/50 representation, as discussed in Chapter 6). Respondents highlighted that political participation, leadership and decision-making are still all perceived as male domains, and

these views perpetuate 'narrow gender-based roles and inequalities'. Overall, women's participation and contribution at high-level talks, for example related to the New Deal and Peace and State-building Goals, still remains limited.

In general however, there is clearly 'gradual growth' in the participation of Somali women in the political arena, and a new value for women's participation in politics for 'improved governance' and a more 'equitable Somalia' (SIDRA, 2016a). With increased efforts and attention, the 2016 election process was viewed as a particular turning point for women's participation in the FGS, as there was high visibility of women in national-level processes and forums that were previously 'exclusively the preserve of men'. This has triggered an increase in women's political movements and agency, and led to a new 'recognition of the interdependence between peace-building, development and human rights', boosting a discussion around 2030 Agenda - the plan of action for implementing the SDGs - and fueling a 'narrative around moving towards durable and sustainable peace'.

Appreciating regional variations, and constraints

Several regional variations in jurisdictions, and laws and policies exist in Somalia. Differences are observed across sub cultures, civil society, narratives and perceptions (both across, and within the three main regions). In Puntland, the society was perceived to still be highly traditional, and discriminatory of women, as indicated by respondents in Mogadishu. Yet the research indicated that attitudes might be shifting in urban areas in Puntland⁵⁹, with 'considerable commitment at the highest political level' and several women now in government and the public sector. The view that women cannot be leaders and hold a political office is thus changing in this region, with some women perceived as being stronger than male colleagues in terms of performance, commitment and transparency.

In the South Central region, the main challenges reported include the unequal distribution of

resources, traditional cultural practices and the pervasive violence and insecurity.⁶² Although security has generally improved in the region, the combination of systematic attacks by Islamic militias, threat of sexual assault, and intermittent conflict over resources have prevented women from actively participating in political and social activities that advance their rights. There was a sense in both South Central and Somaliland that with the absence of women in decision-making, the overall situation was getting worse, particularly related to incidences of GBV. Yet in more stable Somaliland, there has now been an increase in pledges of financial support provided by the government and donors

to organizations that advocate for women's rights. Additionally, there is now a greater willingness by the Somaliland government to employ women in various sectors and ministries and to implement laws that support women's rights.

Minority groups such as the disabled, or less powerful clans have yet to receive targeted attention and support. While there has been progress in legislation (National Disability Agency Act), without affirmative action, women and girls with disabilities are likely to experience 'double discrimination' which includes vulnerability to social discrimination, and gender marginalisation.

Box 2.4: Views on gender laws and rights development, and participation in Mogadishu and Hargeisa

"Somalia has some of the most progressive laws and policies on gender rights and equality. However, this is mostly on paper because there is still a lack of financial support for implementation..." (Ministry of Constitutional Affairs, Mogadishu)

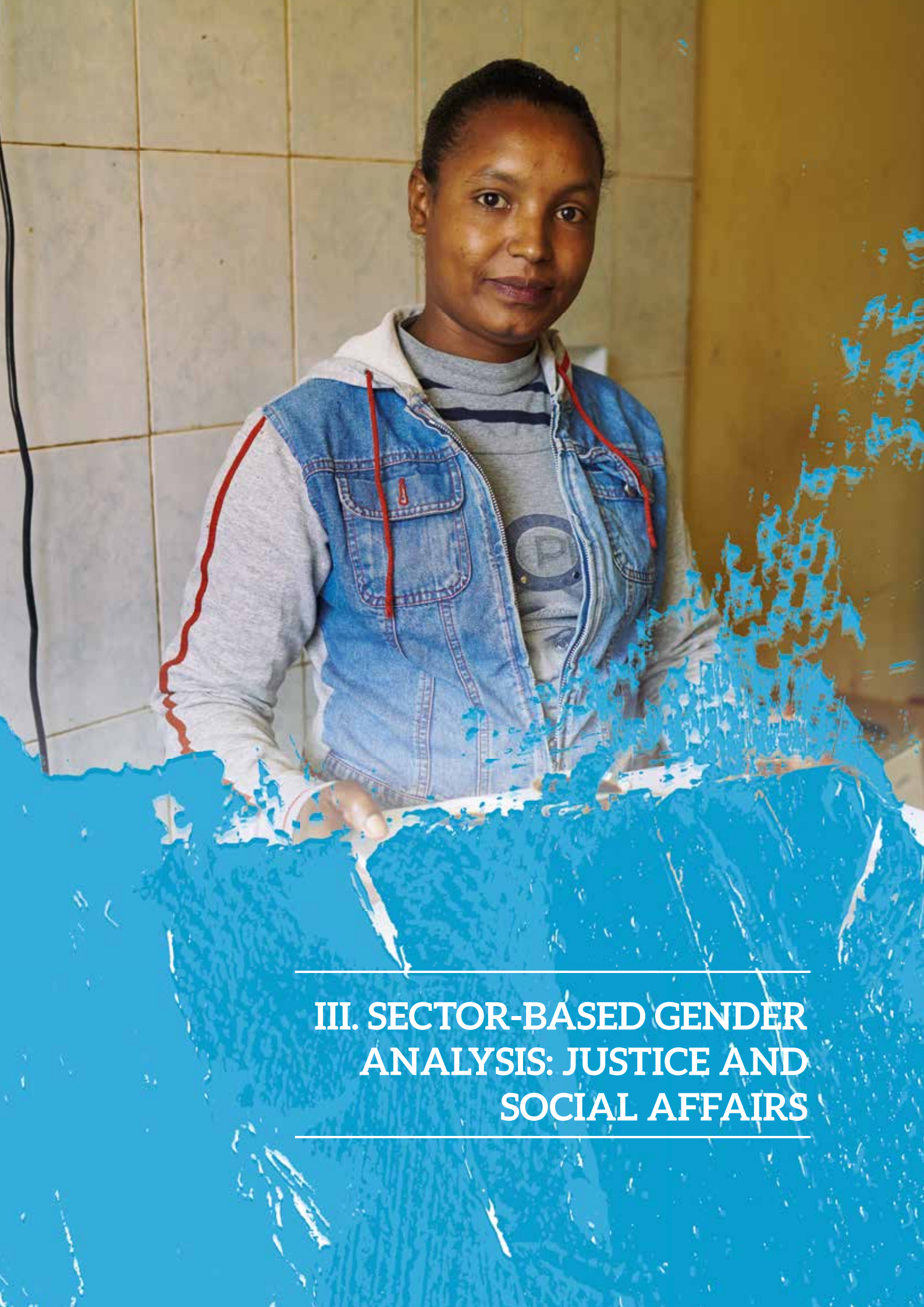
"Religious and traditional leaders mostly control what the government do. This means that many well meaning laws and policies do not get implemented..." (Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development, Mogadishu)

"Cutthroat competition, a lack of financial muscles to sustain a political campaign (with the majority of women expected to play the role of family breadwinners) and deeply entrenched customs are all barriers to realizing gender rights and equality..." (IIDA, Mogadishu)

"There remains an absence of women in leadership, both in the government and in the private sector. Women don't have any mentors and role models in the systems and in society..." (Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs (ME-SAF), Somaliland)

Key messages: Change (2012-19) in Gender, Institutions/Legislation and Political Participation

- In FGS, institutional / legislative change related to gender is considered significant in terms of new national frameworks (NDP), National Gender Policy (NGP), and gender policy/law making (Draft Sexual Offences Bill, Draft FGM Policy, Disability Act and Human Rights Commission Law). With the enactment of the 30% quota in 2016, women now hold 24% of parliamentary seats.
- In Somaliland, institutional / legislative change related to gender is viewed as 'stagnating' in terms of the approval of key legislation. The NGP was drafted in 2011 but remains to be implemented. Various human rights bills have been drafted – including the Sexual Offences Bill and FGM Policy – but there is little progress in their enactment. With recent lobbying, political quotas have been enacted (25%), but women still hold only 1% of parliamentary seats.
- In Puntland, institutional / legislative change related to gender is viewed as slow but progress is being made. The Sexual Offences Bill has been approved, and the FGM Policy awaits final approval. The NGP was drafted in 2010 but remains aspirational. Despite a new quota decree for women's participation (30%), only 1.5% parliamentary seats are held by women. Overall however, there is a strong sense of positivity at a grassroots level, with new gender-related campaigns and opportunities for women's networking.
- All regions face a lack of national campaigning and public debate on gender policies, and a lack of measurement frameworks. In South Central, security inhibits women's participation and change.



III. SECTOR-BASED GENDER ANALYSIS: JUSTICE AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS

In this chapter, the report examines gender-related progress in justice and social affairs in Somalia. In particular, the chapter focuses on the scope and situation of gender-based violence (GBV), including female genital mutilation or cutting (FGM/C), early and forced marriage, and physical and sexual-based violence. These remain key areas of concern for human rights, security, and quality of life. In assessing institutional protection and response, progress in legislation and access to justice is discussed.

This chapter is closely aligned with Pillar 2 and 3 of the New Deal approach that emphasize security, injustices, and access to fair and affordable justice processes. It is also related to SDG 5: Gender Equality, SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities, and SDG 16: Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions.

3.1 STATUS AND TRENDS RELATED TO GBV

GBV remains a highly prevalent and persistent phenomenon facing women and girls in Somalia. The most common forms of GBV include harmful traditional norms and practices related to female genital mutilation or cutting (FGM/C), early and forced marriage, and physical and sexual violence (including Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)). GBV also impacts men and boys (Johns Hopkins University, 2018). Contextual factors such as prolonged conflict, cultural norms and recurring disaster put women and girls at increased risk of GBV (UNECA, 2014).

The availability of data on the prevalence of GBV has been a major challenge in Somalia. The most recent UN supported government data were reported in 2011-2012 (Somaliland and Puntland). In 2017, a joint World Bank/UN study conducted by Johns Hopkins shed some light on the current scope of GBV across urban regions in Somalia, including FGM/C, early marriage, and physical and sexual violence; and related attitudes. GBV was reportedly experienced by large numbers of women and men in their lifetimes (particularly FGM/C for females). Attitudes towards GBV varied but there was general social support for such practices. While the practice of FGM/C appears to be declining, over 1 in 3 male and female respondents still agreed to early marriage, and viewed domestic violence as an acceptable form of disciplining women.

Figure 3.1: Attitudes and practices related to GBV in Somalia

INDICATORS RELATED TO GBV	NATIONAL (WORLD BANK/ UN2017)	SOMALI-LAND (MICS 2011)	PUNT-LAND (MICS 2011)
FGM/C			
PRACTICE: PREVALENCE OF FGM	98%*	99.1%	98%
ATTITUDES: PROPORTION OF WOMEN / MEN THAT AGREE TO FGM	(URBAN) 18% women 28% men	28.9% women	57.8% women
CHILD MARRIAGE (UNDER 18 YEARS)			
PRACTICE: WOMEN (20-24 YRS) THAT WERE MARRIED BEFORE 18 TH BIRTHDAY	45%*	29.3%	29.8%
ATTITUDES: PROPORTION OF WOMEN / MEN THAT SUPPORT EARLY MARRIAGE (UNDER 15 YRS)	(URBAN) 37% women 47% men	/	/
PHYSICAL AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE			
PRACTICE: WOMEN REPORTING PHYSICAL VIOLENCE BY THEIR HUSBAND / MALE PARTNER	(URBAN) 28%	/	/
PRACTICE: WOMEN REPORTING SEXUAL VIOLENCE BY THEIR HUSBAND / MALE PARTNER	(URBAN) 25%	/	/
ATTITUDES: PROPORTION OF WOMEN / MEN THAT BELIEVE HUSBANDS ARE JUSTIFIED TO BEAT THEIR WIVES FOR DISCIPLINE	(URBAN) 34% women 33% men<	54.6% women **	30.6% women **

*UNDP (2012)

**Note: MICS indicator relates to domestic violence

3.1.1 FGM/C

A traditional and deeply rooted custom in pastoralist communities in Northern and Eastern Africa, Female Genital Cutting (FGC) or Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is the cultural practice of removing all or parts of a girls' clitoris. Variations of this invasive practice are carried out according to local customs and beliefs. In its simplest form, this refers to some level of excising of the clitoris of a girl or woman. In its more extreme form, this includes 'infibulation' (WHO Type III): the excising of the clitoris and labia, and the stitching together of the edges of the vulva (the external opening of the vagina). Until recent times, FGM/C has been a common, socially acceptable and condoned practice in pastoralist communities across East Africa.

In Somali culture, FGM/C is still highly prevalent, with an estimated 98% of women (aged 15-49 years) having undergone the procedure (UNICEF, 2013), and 'little change over time'.⁶⁷ This usually entails the most severe form, WHO Type III, known in Somalia as the 'Pharaonic' type, involving the cutting of the clitoris, flesh removed from the labia minor and/or labia major, and then the skin sewn closed leaving a very small vagina orifice (Newell-Jones, 2016). The recent GBV study by the World Bank/UN (2017) indicated that FGM/C prevalence was lower in urban localities (65%). Support for FGM/C appears to be diminishing in such areas, particularly amongst women (18% agreed with FGM/C).

In a study in Somaliland, a primary reason for the continuation of female genital cutting was that it is considered a traditional cultural practice, with religious motivation/obligation cited as a secondary reason (Newell-Jones, 2016). While FGM/C is not endorsed within Islam, a 'weak' hadith indicates reference to the practice (ibid.). The notion of purification 'xalaalayn' is also important and related to reducing girls' sexual desire and hence sexual activity, with FGM/C viewed as protecting girls from pre-marital sex (Ibid). FGM/C is often considered a pre-condition for the important ritual of marriage.

3.1.2 Early and forced marriage

In traditional pastoralist communities, marriage was viewed as the 'ultimate goal' for a girl and imperative to her livelihood security. Early marriage (below 18 years) was common, and in particular, child marriage' among girls, with girls often married by the age of 12 or 13. In some pastoralist communities, marriage typically followed the start of menstruation. By the age of 15, an unmarried girl would be considered 'flawed' and not playing her appropriate social role as a wife and mother' (CARE, 2009). The family of the girl also customarily received a 'bride price' of cattle. 'Arranged' marriages describe situations wherein a man, or boy approaches a girl's family, and if approved, the parents of the girl proceed with the marital process with the corresponding family (although the mother and daughter have the right to refuse). A 'forced' marriage refers to marriages that are arranged and conducted without the girl's consent; and may include 'compensation' marriages, where girls are offered in marriage to resolve cross clan disputes and 'strengthen peace', or in the event of a murder. Rural girls could also traditionally exert their own marriage choice, through 'consented abduction' (where the girl elopes with her future spouse), but the bride price may then increase.

In Somalia, early or underage marriage remains the norm according to available figures, with an estimated 45% of young women aged 20-24, married by 18 years (UNDP, 2012), although estimates are lower in regions such as Somaliland and Puntland at less than 30% (MICS, 2011). Child marriage (under 15 years) of those aged 20-24 years has declined, at 8% (SDG, 2018). Traditional attitudes, however, have prevailed as almost half of urban men, and over a third of urban women were shown to support child marriage (under 15 years), or believe it is socially acceptable (World Bank/UN, 2017). Nearly 19% of urban adult women (15 years and above) indicated that they had been forced to marry (ibid.). In recent times, it appears that arranged and forced marriages are becoming less prevalent among younger generations in regions such as (rural) Somaliland, and there is an increase in choice-driven adolescent marriages. Girls' marriage tends to lead to a drop out from education (Ritchie, 2017), with adverse impacts on the development of life skills and future livelihood options.

3.1.3 Physical and sexual violence

Physical violence refers to Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) or domestic violence, as well as other forms of non-domestic violence. Sexual violence may include domestic sexual assault, or non-partner sexual assault. The phenomenon of domestic violence such as wife battery (a traditional practice used to discipline and control women) is still socially accepted across communities in East Africa. Sexual violence, and particularly rape (non-partner) has been traditionally viewed as highly taboo across the region, and in Somalia was considered an ‘appalling violation of clan honour and customary conventions to protect women and children...[such] that an incident could spark a war’ (Musse and Gardner, 2013). The surge in sexual assault during the conflict years was described as ‘shocking’ for Somali culture, with rape having been used as a weapon of war, particularly since the onset of civil war in 1991-92.

In recent years, an increased incidence of violence and rape has been reported across Somalia, and large numbers of women are reported to have experienced sexual harassment, assault and exploitation (UNECA, 2014: 23). In 2015, there were 7439 reported cases of SGBV in Mogadishu alone, and 5,600 SGBV cases in Puntland (between mid 2014 to mid 2015). From January to June 2018, GBV services (post rape treatment as well as GBV trauma) under the Somalia Protection Cluster reached 19,371 individuals, including women (64%) as well as girls, boys and men. In 2019, the incidences of SGBV were perceived to be rising (in particular in urban areas). While there was a lack of clarity on prevalence, there was a strong sense that many cases were being unrecorded.

The joint World Bank/UN study (2017) examined the occurrence of physical and sexual violence among urban adults across the three regions. Over a third of urban female respondents had experienced some type of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), with 1 in 4 women experiencing sexual violence by their partners. Non-partner violence was also common, with 17% of female respondents experiencing non-partner violence (physical or sexual violence). Almost half of the women respondents indicated that they had suffered injuries from violence, and up to 70% had not received basic treatment for their injuries. Factors such as a lack of permission from spouses, accessibility of clinics (and transport), lack of childcare, shame, and the costs of treatment influenced women seeking care. Only 11% of women had reported the violence to an authority (local leader or police). Meanwhile, almost

a third of urban male respondents had experienced non-partner violence. Violence tends to begin during childhood, with 11% of females and 18 of males reportedly suffering from physical or sexual violence as children. A third of both women and men in the study believed that husbands are justified in beating their wives for discipline.

3.1.4 Human trafficking

A relatively less recognised or studied issue includes human trafficking. Somaliland and Puntland are allegedly the main ‘transit, destination and origin’ sites for internal as well as international trafficking victims (IOM, 2011 in UNDP, 2014). Women and girls are suspected to be victims of ‘forced labour, prostitution or sexual slavery or [even] organ removal’ (IOM 2011 and UNHCR 2012 in UNDP 2014). Respondents from Musse and Gardner’s (2013) research highlighted the risks related to tahriib (illegal migration), and high financial and human costs, with significant mortality rates among young men in particular (anecdotally up to 50%). Illegal migration is discussed further in Chapter 5.

3.2 LEGISLATION AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

3.2.1 Institutional oversight and capacity

The Ministry of Justice, and the Ministry of Women and Human Rights (on the National Human Rights Commission) are the lead ministries for gender legislation and upholding justice under the FGS. The MoWHRD plays an overall key role in promoting gender issues and access to justice through legislation, action plans and advocacy, and has been instrumental in pushing for change. The National Gender Policy (NGP) (2013) opened the door to the inclusion of violence against women as a key potential priority area (UNDP, 2014). Taking gender commitments forward, the National Development Plan (2017) specified ambitious targets (SGBV and FGM/C), which have remained difficult to implement and measure (see Box 3.2), without national campaigns and monitoring frameworks. More recently, the Human Rights Road Map (2013) and Action Plan (2015) outlines further goals and activities in the FGS region.

Existing and relevant codified civil laws (in the FGS) provide only limited legislative provisions for women and justice, and are contained in the Family Code (1975), and Penal Code (1963), including (part) references to rape, as well as inheritance, marriage, and polygamy.

Across the three regions, new legislation has now been drafted related to Sexual Offences, as well as FGM/C and Human Rights (Chapter 2), with specific progress noted in Puntland (approval of the Sexual Offences Act and the near approval of the Zero Tolerance FGM/C Policy). There has been little progress on marriage rights however, and formal law still lacks a definition of a child and the absolute minimum age of marriage. Meanwhile, there are no specific family laws in Somaliland or Puntland (SIGI, 2019).

3.2.2 Progress in access to justice

In 2014, the Beijing report emphasized the ‘weak justice system and institutions’ in Somalia, including the impunity of perpetrators of gender-based violence, and the limited national capacities to protect women and girls from SGBV (UNECA, 2014). Women were reported to suffer from insufficient access to confidential reporting mechanisms, inadequate legal aid services and a lack of finances to pursue justice. Officials and law enforcement agents often disputed reports of rape, and ‘alleged victims’ risk [of] intimidation and imprisonment’ (Musse and Gardner, 2013).

In recent years, there have been significant efforts to improve GBV prevention and response. In 2014, the UN facilitated training support to over 5,000 officers in South Central, including over 500 policewomen to step up efforts against sexual violence (UNDP, 2014). Furthermore, UNDP has provided capacity building to the judiciary to deal with cases of violence against women (OHCHR, 2016). In 2016, mobile courts were established to improve access to justice for GBV victims, including in rural areas (OHCHR, 2016). In IDP situations in Puntland, UNDP has extended support to GBV victims to improve access to informal and formal systems of justice.

There has also been structural progress in police response (Gender Units) and follow-up, strengthening local justice and psychosocial support related to GBV and SGBV. In selected police stations, a Gender Unit has now been established with donor support to specifically deal with GBV cases, although there are a limited number of female police officers who can actually handle GBV cases (OHCHR, 2016). The main challenges facing Gender Units include the lack of skills of female staff, the lack of interest of local male leaders, the lack of efficient process and satisfactory outcomes, and limited local coordination (SIDRA, 2017a). Meanwhile, supporting evidence-

based analysis, in 2017, UNFPA Somalia facilitated the establishment and implementation of the first Forensic Centre in Puntland with funding from the Government of Sweden. Seen as a major achievement in recognition of GBV, this centre aims to support survivors of sexual offenses, particularly for the provision of medical assistance, psychosocial support and legal aid.

Finally, there have been tangible steps to boost the participation of women in the justice system. While women’s participation remains limited in the South Central region, there appears to have been legal progress in regions such as Somaliland and Puntland, with significant numbers of female law graduates, the establishment of the Somaliland Women Lawyers Association, and one female judge (Musse and Gardner, 2013). UNDP continues to support legal training in both locations, and the professionalization of the justice sector in regions such as Puntland.

Figure 3.2 Selected gender-related goals/targets in social affairs and justice in FGS

<p>NGP Goals (2013) Section 2.3</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Eliminate all forms of gender discrimination</i> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Promote positive societal beliefs, attitudes and behavioural change pertinent to achieving gender equality.</i> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Improving services for the management of cases of GBV</i>
<p>NDP Targets (2017) Section 7.8</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Ensure a society that upholds gender equality, dignity, respect and fairness for all women & men</i> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>No of cases registered/pursued related to GBV - Reduce the incidence of <u>SGBV</u> 20% by 2019;</i> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Prevalence of FGM/C - Reduce the prevalence of <u>FGM/C</u> to less than 70% by 2019</i>
<p>MoWHRD Action Plan Goals</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Justice institutions start to address the key grievances and injustices of Somalis</i> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>More Somalis have access to fair and affordable justice.</i>

3.2.3 GBV Working Group, and donor initiatives: Support to Prevention and Response

With the high prevalence of GBV, a number of actors - including UN agencies, INGOs, and local NGOs - are supporting local authorities in national GBV prevention and response activities in Somalia. Co-chaired by UNFPA and UNHCR, the GBV Working group draws on a broad definition of GBV - including physical and sexual violence and harmful traditional practices - and supports policy development, technical advice and oversight of prevention and response to GBV in Somalia. A National Action Plan (NAP) has also been formulated. In 2015, UNSOM further supported the establishment of a National Hotline 5555 'Ceebla' ('no shame'), initiated by the Somali Women's Development Centre.

3.3 SUMMARY AND REFLECTIONS ON PERSISTING CHALLENGES

GBV remains highly prevalent in Somalia, and embedded in complex social dynamics. In recent years, there has been much effort at an institutional level in drafting new legislation on GBV (Chapter 2), and in the creation of working groups and new monitoring tools. There is, however, limited enforcement and implementation of new laws and policies, and enforcement mechanisms. There is also limited regional and community level outreach and civic education. In Puntland, gradual changes are occurring in urban areas where elders and religious leaders are embracing GBV campaigns (such as those against FGM/C). Anecdotally, and with assistance by NGOs, men at the community level are increasingly supporting initiatives that promote gender equality and rights, including local training on topics such as SGBV to safeguard the rights of women and girls. Notably, participants include young men who are 'willing to engage and also be agents of change in their communities'.⁸⁴

Reflecting on current mixed trends in GBV

The prevalence of FGM/C is showing downward trends in urban areas, although there are parallel indicators of the medicalization of the practice in urban centres. Shifts in the practices are linked to changing preferences, and modernization associated with higher education and household wealth. While data is lacking, there is reported to be limited change in the prevalence of FGM/C in rural areas, although there may be slight changes in the type of FGM/C conducted. The more severe type of FGM/C is indicated to be falling in popularity in parts of rural Somaliland and has been replaced by a 'lighter' version (Ritchie, 2017). This may be linked to changing religious narratives (the 'Sunna'). As highlighted by UNECA (2014), the key barriers to fostering change in practices include resistance from local communities, the lack of a common messaging by religious leaders, the emerging medicalization of FGM/C, and the poor access to communities in more remote rural areas. Despite concerns about slow legislative processes (particularly in FGS and Somaliland), civil society activism is now notable in Hargeisa, Somaliland and in urban Puntland. NGO-led behaviour change approaches have included drama and social dialogue, and these have proved to be effective alongside education and religious support. Meanwhile, the first FGM prosecution in 2018 in Mogadishu has sent a clear message of the government's tougher position on the issue (if still inadequate).

Early and forced marriages are still socially acceptable in all areas, although there are new emerging dynamics. In rural regions of Somaliland, there are indicators of a shift towards 'adolescent girl choice marriages', with younger and arranged marriages becoming less common except in situations of extreme poverty (Ritchie, 2017). Drivers include education, girls' increasing assertiveness and agency (possibly related to mobile phone use), and social

peer pressure. Other factors include more complex issues driven by poverty, and the loss of traditional family control, influenced by the absence of mothers (working as traders), and the father's use of khat. In rural areas, girl-boy relations are also impossible outside of marriage. Legislation and government campaigning on this issue remains elusive.

High levels of physical, and sexual violence (SGBV) are indicated across Somalia, particularly incidents of sexual assault and rape. Incidents appear to be most prevalent in conflict and insecure areas, but they are also common in urban centres. These incidents appear to have similar roots, with possible driving factors including young men's frustration, boredom and unemployment (exacerbated by the chewing of khat). In IDP areas, the context of instability appears to foster social breakdown with limited leadership and control, and there is an increase in incidents of abuse, particularly of vulnerable single or minority women who have little clan power and protection. In urban centres, incidents may be further driven by social media and the Internet (although this requires further study), as well as the perceived lack of penalties by authorities. The legal response is now slowly ramping up in regions such as Puntland, with a public prosecution in 2017. Social activism appears to also be on the rise. A deeper understanding of the increase in SGBV across Somalia is still lacking however, and the scope of incidences in less accessible Islamic Al Shabaab areas. From a public perspective, frustrations lie not just with the increasing incidences of SGBV, but also with the persistence of clan mediation, which may exempt men and boys from facing prosecution, and the tendency to stigmatize and shame girls instead of boys.

Appreciating impact of GBV, and context of fragility

The persistence and high prevalence of harmful traditional practices - FGM/C, early and forced marriage, and physical and sexual violence - is perceived to prevent Somali women and girls from fully participating in education and moving beyond the domestic domain, thereby keeping them in a state of 'cyclical marginalization and subjugation'⁹⁰. Ultimately, this influences the capacity of women and girls to challenge the status quo, and to engage in public life and community development. Women and girls in IDP camps are reported to face 'double the inequality, GBV and exclusion' compared to those in urban centres. IDP women have little access to both formal legal recourse, as well as traditional channels of support with an absence of strong clan systems in such contexts. Situations of fragility and livelihood pressures may lead to anti-social or violent behaviour among men.

Civil society and campaigning efforts remain notable in Somaliland and Puntland - particularly related to FGM/C - but outreach is limited. In Somaliland, civil society groups such as NAGAAD and the NAFIS Network are key champions of gender equality, and advocate against harmful practices such as FGM/C with a particular focus on addressing 'cultural barriers'. The 'lack of awareness and unity' amongst women themselves to advocate for change is still considered a major challenge. In strengthening formal justice systems, the core issues to be addressed include building the capacity of the police and relevant actors to deal with sexual offences. Meanwhile, government representatives in Mogadishu emphasized that the general public were still 'getting used' to the formal rule of law, with some even 'irritated' by the involvement of the authorities (in responding to injustices).

Box 3.2: Views on GBV and justice in Mogadishu

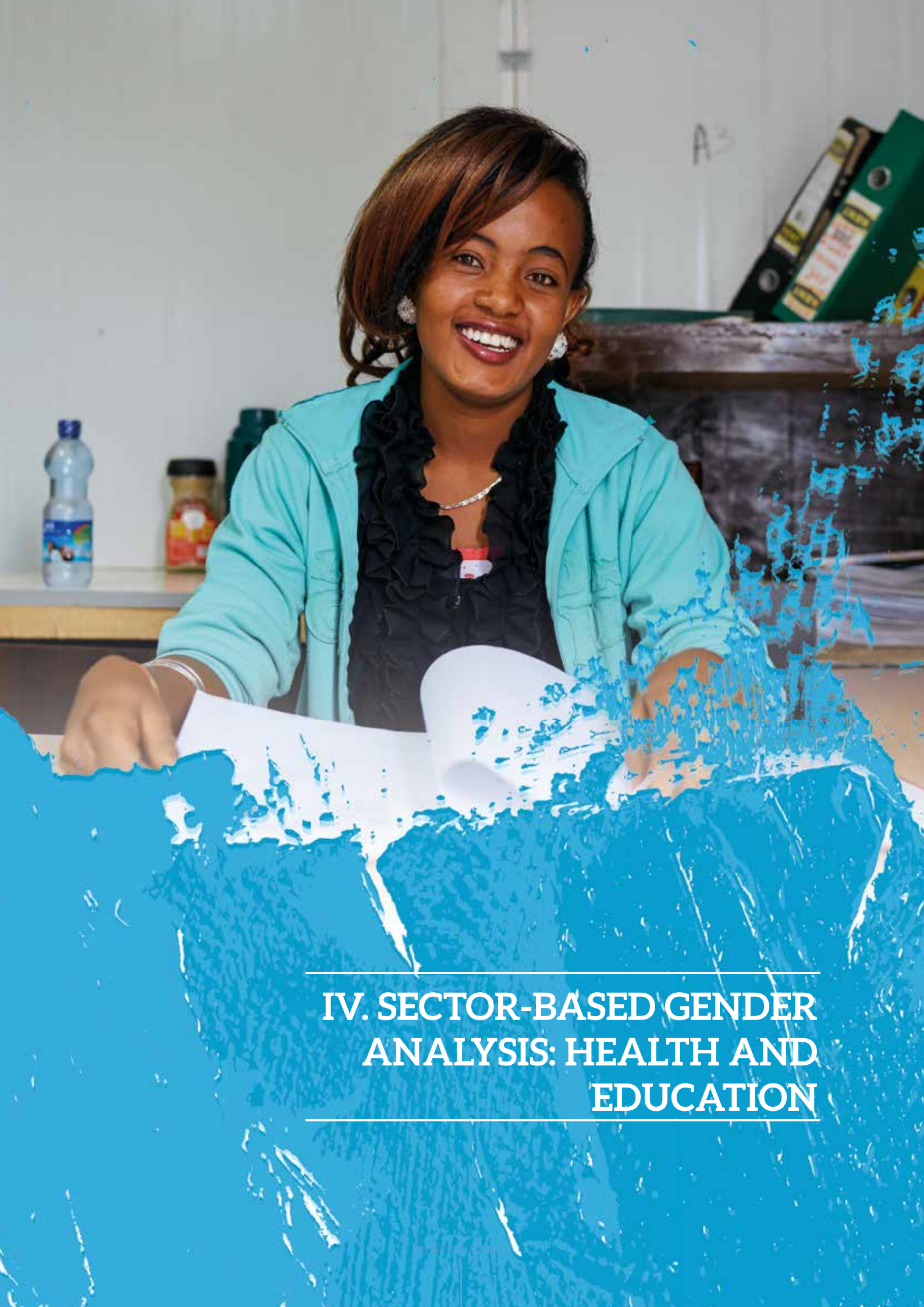
"One of the hurdles in addressing GBV is the traditional system that protects and shields men from facing justice. Consequently, the victims of violence do not get justice. Victims also do not fight for their rights due to a lack of awareness and limited education." (WAWA, Garowe, Puntland)

"IDPs are often left in a legal vacuum, with almost no access to legal remedies, because the formal justice system is not established in IDP camps, and traditional clan systems are often weakened as a result of displacement..." (SWDC, Mogadishu)

"The level of women's awareness [of their rights] is low, and there is also a low level of trust and cooperation amongst women themselves. This exacerbates the vulnerability of women ..." (Candlelight, Hargeisa, Somaliland)

Key messages: Change (2012-19) in Gender, Social Affairs and Justice

- Comprehensive and updated data remains limited but there are notable trends across the country. Legislation is improving, and activism is increasing in Somaliland and Puntland.
- FGM/C (98% prevalence) indicators point to possible downward trends in urban areas, linked to factors such as education, and household wealth. Rural areas may have little change.
- Early (45% prevalence, under 18 years), and forced marriage (19% urban prevalence) while still socially acceptable in all areas, may be less common in urban areas; and rural studies indicate a shift towards adolescent girl 'choice driven' marriage. Drivers include education, girls' increasing assertiveness (and mobile phone use), and peer pressure.
- Physical or sexual violence (17% urban prevalence / non-partner), including, sexual assault and rape (mostly females), is rising in conflict and IDP areas, as well as in urban centres. Drivers include young men's frustration, boredom and unemployment (exacerbated by the chewing of khat); insecurity and the perceived lack of penalties; and the possible use of social media.
- There are new government/donor efforts towards GBV prevention and response, with the GBV Working Group, the establishment of police Gender Units, and a new forensic facility in Puntland.
- All regions face a lack of enforcement of the law, particularly in the South Central region.
- IDPs and minority groups such as the disabled, or less powerful clans remain the most vulnerable.



**IV. SECTOR-BASED GENDER
ANALYSIS: HEALTH AND
EDUCATION**

In this chapter, the report focuses on gender-related progress in access to basic services, particularly in the education and health sector. The chapter explores trends related to school participation, and the status of maternal health (and related access to health services, and water and sanitation). In assessing the scope of formal services, it discusses institutional progress, and policies, plans and service delivery. This chapter is closely aligned with Pillar 5 of the New Deal approach that emphasizes access to fair service delivery. It is also related to SDG 3: Good Health and Wellbeing, SDG 4: Quality Education, SDG 5: Gender Equality, SDG 6: Clean Water and Sanitation and SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities.

4.1 STATUS AND TRENDS RELATED TO GENDER AND EDUCATION

A fundamental 'driver for sustainable development' (UNESCO, 2019), literacy is considered a basic human right permitting individuals to lead better quality lives, achieve improved health, and pursue employment and work opportunities. While over 50% of the population was literate in the 1975 census (for both sexes), current literacy levels are estimated to be extremely low in Somalia, with only 40% of the population over the age of 15 able to read and write (UNFPA, 2016a). Literacy is highest in urban areas (64.2%), and lowest amongst women (36.2%), older groups (of those over 60 years of age, less than 23% are literate) and nomadic groups (12.1%).

4.1.1 Trends in educational participation

Today there are an estimated 4.9 million school aged children in Somalia, but 3 out of 5 of these children remain out of school, particularly in the South Central region, with an estimated 75% of IDP girls not in school (OCHA, 2018). Since 2012, there have been concerted efforts to boost participation and enrolment levels across all three regions with major donor funding programmes and new government strategies (UNECA, 2014). At the primary level, the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) (UNFPA, 2016b) is approximately 17% for both sexes (across Somalia). At the secondary level, this drops to 9%. Gender disparities increase at higher levels of education, with

the gap progressively widening at the secondary and tertiary levels.

Delayed enrolment and poor school attendance may also affect the quality of education received and educational attainment. In 2011, the MICS regional level figures indicated primary school attendance to be 55.4% for males and 47.3% for females in Somaliland (MICS, 2011), and slightly lower levels in Puntland (see Figure 4.1). Attendance data was not available for the South Central region.

Figure 4.1: Key Educational Indicators in Somalia

PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION SERVICES	NATIONAL (UNFPA, 2016b)	SOMALILAND (MICS 2011)	PUNTLAND (MICS 2011 MOE 2017)
NET ENROLMENT RATIO (PRIMARY LEVEL)	17.5% male 17.3% female	/	53.5% male 43.3% female (2016-17)
PRIMARY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE**	/	55.4% male 47.3% female GPI = 0.85	46.4% male 40.3% female GPI = 0.87
NET ENROLMENT RATIO (SECONDARY LEVEL)	9.5% male 9.1% female	/	12.4% male, 9.1% female (2016-17)
SECONDARY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE**		16.3% male 24.3% female GPI = 0.67	18.4% male 11.2% female GPI = 0.61
NET ENROLMENT RATIO (TERTIARY LEVEL)	6% male 4.6% female	/	/
BASIC EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT (ADULTS 25+)	28.2% male 20.5% female	/	/

** percentage of children of primary school age attending primary or secondary school (adjusted net attendance ratio),

*** percentage of children of secondary school age attending secondary school or higher (adjusted net attendance ratio)
GPI = Gender Parity Index

In recent years, there has been a major drive towards girls' education in particular in Puntland, and government statistics (2016-17) indicate that female participation, as a proportion of the total enrolment, has risen sharply, especially at the secondary and tertiary levels. It is estimated that there is 44.7% female enrolment in primary, 37.6% female enrolment in secondary and 39.9% of total enrolment in tertiary education (SIDRA, 2018). The educational statistics in Puntland further indicate that primary net enrolment has risen from 37.5% (41.3 male, 33.8 female) in 2012/3 to 48.4% (53.5 male, 43.3 female) in 2016/17. Secondary level net enrolment has risen from 5.5% (6.5 male, 4.4 female) in 2012/3 to 10.8% (12.4 male, 9.1 female) in 2016/17.⁹⁶

4.1.2 Vocational and ICT training

Adult vocational training services can provide opportunities to student dropouts to engage in non-formal skills development. While such projects have been initiated in Somalia, the outreach has been considered 'limited' (UNECA, 2014). In the NDP, there are plans to expand adult literacy and non-formal education, support ICT skills, and 'provide quality learning opportunities to the large numbers of youth and adults who missed out on formal education during the civil war' (NDP, 2017). Such plans have not yet been rolled out on a significant scale, and warrant attention in content and design to promote equal opportunities. In the recent 'Gender Gap' research in Somaliland (NAGAAD, 2019), gender norms still shaped the choice of trainings offered, reinforcing traditional expectations that young men participate in physical craftsmanship, and young woman participate in "female activities" such as cooking, tailoring, and henna art, thus constraining both men and women from venturing into new vocations.

4.2 STATUS AND TRENDS RELATED TO MATERNAL HEALTH (AND WASH)

The provision of maternal health services is considered vital for the health and survival of mothers and children. The availability of optimal

maternal healthcare during pregnancy and childbirth not only reduces maternal and infant mortality and morbidity rates, but it also accrues long-term socio-economic benefits by empowering women to be productive members of the labour force and improving overall household incomes (and the economic well-being of families and communities).

While many factors may contribute to maternal mortality, access to primary health care, skilled attendance at birth and emergency obstetric care are associated with improved rates of survival and better health outcomes.¹⁰⁰ Family planning services also contributes to a lower risk of maternal deaths and morbidities by an estimated 30%. Closely linked to family and maternal health, is access to improved drinking water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH).

Figure 4.2: Key Maternal Health (and WASH) indicators in Somalia

MATERNAL HEALTH AND WASH INDICATORS	NATIONAL (WHO 2015) DATA 2007	SOMALILAND (MICS 2011)	PUNTLAND (MICS 2011)
BIRTHS ATTENDED BY SKILLED HEALTH PERSONNEL	9%	44.1%	38.4%
ANTENATAL CARE (4+ VISITS)	6%	14.8% (by any provider)	3.3% (by any provider)
CONTRACEPTIVE PREVALENCE	15%	9.8%	2.6%
ACCESS TO IMPROVED DRINKING WATER	29.5%*	64.8%	41.9%
ACCESS TO IMPROVED SANITATION*	23.6%*	51.9%	51.1%

*https://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/somalia_statistics.html?p=printme#0

In 1991, the state collapse and conflict led to the breakdown of the weak national health system in Somalia. As recognized by the Ministry of Health in the FGS, the health situation today in Somalia remains dire, as the country reports some of the 'worst indicators in the world', particularly related to women. For example, the Maternal Mortality Ratio remains high at 732 per 100,000 births, and there may be a 1 in 22 chance of women dying due to pregnancy-related causes over the course of their lives (UNICEF, 2018a). Somalia reports the sixth highest lifetime maternal death risk in the world, and most maternal deaths occur due to preventable causes. Key determinants of maternal mortality in Somalia include a lack of access to emergency obstetric care for timely treatment of the main complications of childbirth such as haemorrhage, obstructed labour, eclampsia and infection (WHO, 2019). Maternal health is also linked to FGM/C in the Somali context, as well as socio-economic factors such as literacy levels, poverty and women's limited ability to control family decision-making regarding healthcare. Indicating slow but positive trends, some 'modest improvements' in maternal and infant health are reported to have occurred over the past five years (UNICEF, 2018a).

4.2.1 Trends in participation in maternal health services

Across Somalia, access to maternal and child health services is extremely limited, particularly in South Central and in the rural areas. In a context of fragility, with the threat of famine, drought and insecurity (particularly in the South), zonal, regional and district disparities persist in service delivery in addition to equity gaps related to population groups (UNICEF, 2018a). As indicated by WHO (2015), only 9% of births are attended by skilled health personnel, and only 6% of women receive adequate antenatal care. Regional data suggests that over 44% of births in Somaliland and 38% of births in Puntland were managed by skilled birth attendants (Figure 4.2), indicating that access to maternal healthcare in these regions might be better than the national average. Access to Emergency Obstetric Care however remains limited, particularly in the rural areas. The national Contraceptive Prevalence Rate is also low at 15%

(and even lower regionally) suggesting that family planning programmes remain weak. In 2018, OCHA reported that access to healthcare in South Central parts of Somalia was continuing to deteriorate due to widespread violence.

4.2.2 Trends in access to water and sanitation (WASH)

WASH remains a 'normative part of maternal, new-born and child health, at all levels of care' (UNICEF, 2018b). Water resources in Somalia are predominantly derived from surface water. Drought and displacement have contributed to increased water scarcity and vulnerability to waterborne diseases - almost 5.5 million people remain at risk of contracting waterborne diseases such as cholera (DINA, 2018). In poorer and rural households, women and children (especially girls) are responsible for all domestic chores, including the daily fetching of water for household consumption. In drought and IDP areas, a lack of water availability increases women's vulnerability, as women reduce their own water intake to reserve it for the family. Lack of adequate water further compromises women's personal hygiene and sanitation. The act of fetching water itself may further jeopardize the physical security of women (and children), as they may be forced to walk long distances in insecure areas.

Access to improved drinking water and sanitation is reported to be improving at a national level (OCHA, 2018), although it has been shown to be significantly higher in Somaliland and Puntland, as indicated in Figure 4.2. Despite improvements in access, a large proportion of the Somali population still reports low quality of those services (OCHA, 2018). UNICEF estimates that less than 30% of the population has reliable access to safe water throughout the year, and less than 25% resides in households with sanitary means of excreta disposal. An estimated 2.9 million people require urgent WASH support, with IDP communities, rural host populations (at risk of drought) and disaster prone districts remaining most vulnerable. In urban and sub-urban areas, access to water is less problematic; instead the quality of water available may be poor due to cross-contamination between water and sanitation systems.

While the Horn of Africa region suffers drought and declining access to water in many remote rural areas, the availability and access to water in parts of rural Somaliland were shown to have improved as a result of interventions by NGOs (Ritchie, 2017). The interventions included improved shallow wells with roof catchment, the installation of mini water systems with 'water abstraction' and solar technology (to power pumps), water management systems and training in hygiene and sanitation practices. In 2017 however, worsening drought led to a renewed crisis in water availability in the region.

4.3 INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK AND SERVICE DELIVERY: EDUCATION

4.3.1 Institutional oversight and capacity

The Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education (MoECHE) is the lead ministry for education in the FGS. The National Gender Policy (NGP) and National Development Plan (NDP) reinforce goals around promoting gender equality in free primary education. The MoECHE highlights the potential influence of education to support state building goals, and foster a 'peace dividend' that can increase the legitimacy of the state (MoECHE, 2017). Yet the numerous challenges posed by political and social risks in communities affected by 'conflict,

displacement, trauma and high level of poverty' are recognized.

Strategic policies and plans

In each of the three regions, the Ministries of Education recognise the importance of strengthening educational systems in Somalia in working towards educational targets, improving service delivery and equitable access for all (including marginalised groups).

There has been much effort at policy and strategy making in recent years. The three regions have now collaborated to develop coordinated and comprehensive Education Sector Strategic Plans (ESSP) 2018-2020. Supported by UNICEF, the ESSP outlines specific goals for increasing gender parity in primary and secondary education, complementing NDP targets (Figure 4.3). ESSP priorities also include increasing access to quality education for children, and equipping youth with the skills and knowledge needed to contribute to social, political and economic development. The policy articulates gender issues and highlights vulnerable groups, including pastoralists and IDPs. It also recognizes persisting socioeconomic inequities, with women from the richest wealth quintiles demonstrating lower educational indicators than men due to family preferences to educate boys.

Figure 4.3: Selected gender-related goals in Education in FGS

NGP Goals (2013) Section 4.3	<i>Promoting the sensitization of equal rights of boys and girls to free and compulsory primary education.</i>
NDP Targets (2017) Section 7.4	<i>Improve equitable access and increase the gross enrolment ratio in primary and secondary education, reduce gender disparity and address the early childhood education and development needs of 3-6 years age group of children</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Increase GER of primary schools from 30% to 45% by end of 2019 (5% per year); ➤ Increase GER of secondary schools from 26% to 35% by end of 2019 (3% per year); ➤ Reduce dropout rates at primary education level by 50% by end of 2019
ESSP PRIMARY EDUCATION 2018-2020	<i>Improve gender parity by increasing the gender parity index in CSS/FGS from 0.81 in 2016 to 0.9 by 2020.</i>

Cross regional collaboration has improved institutional capacity in the sector, including in the FGS, with an Education Information Management System (EIMS) now established in all three regions. The lack of nationwide data however continues to pose a constraint in efforts to measure progress towards respective ESSP targets (no data was available in this research).

The ESSP development process provided support for

shaping a shared agenda between the three regions for the next five years. The Global Partnership for Education highlights recent achievements in the support of improved learning outcomes including the development of the first unified curriculum and the implementation of a standardized exam system. The lack of reliable data on children's learning outcomes is acknowledged as a major impediment to assessing the effectiveness of education at the primary school level.

Figure 4.4: Institutional-Level (Ministry of Education): Gender Indicators

Region	FGS	Somaliland	Puntland
Gender Unit?	<i>(Unknown)</i>	<i>(Unknown)</i>	✓
Gender targets?	✓	✓	✓
Gender sensitive indicators?	✓	✓	✓

4.3.2 Service delivery

In 2012, the education sector across Somalia was rewarded with membership of the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) and financial support amounting to US\$14.5 million over three years (UNECA, 2014). In 2017, the projected funds available for the education sector in South Central region in Somalia from 2018-2020 was reported to reach USD 149 million (MoECHE, 2017). While there is now a strong push for the rollout of educational services (particularly in Somaliland and Puntland), the education sector remains heavily dependent on donors. Major donors include the EU, DfID, GPE and USAID.

Today the promotion of girls' education is emphasized as a major priority by donors and partners, with an estimated USD 35 million allocated into initiatives that 'keep girls in school and help reduce gender inequality in learning outcomes' (MoECHE, 2017). In addition to more female teachers, there is now increasing recognition of the importance of the addition of girl-friendly spaces, improved latrine facilities, the development of sex disaggregated data information management systems, and inclusion of gender focal points. The Girls Education Challenge,

funded by DfID, has provided scholarships and supports female teacher training. The government's agenda includes key future activities such as developing a 'gender and education policy' through extensive political and community level consultations to ensure that policy frameworks better cater for women's leadership (ibid), and related strategy documents. Communities are also expected to play an important role in promoting gender equity in education, increasing access for disadvantaged students, and taking a greater leadership role during periods of emergency to strengthen societal resilience and social cohesion. At a higher education level, accessibility to services in Somalia is characterized by 'high structural inequalities' between rural and urban regions, further influenced by factors such as socioeconomic status and gender (SIDRA, 2017b). Gender is arguably the strongest indicator for inequality in opportunity for access to higher education, and educational output and outcome (Lynch, 2009).

As highlighted by the GPE, the education sector has been challenged by protracted emergencies over the past two decades due to conflict, drought and flooding, with a 'lack of access and widespread inequity'.

In the South Central region of Somalia, formal service delivery remains limited, with most primary and secondary schools still managed by non-state providers. Financed locally or by donor contributions, most of the schools are either community-owned or under the management of private-sector umbrellas. The schools remain 'low quality', with unqualified and untrained teachers, multiple curricula, poor educational infrastructure and weak capacity for service delivery. There are operational plans afoot for developing a decentralized education system in the future.

IDPs and high-risk areas

OCHA (2018) reports that the Ministries of Education at the Federal and state levels continue to face major challenges providing educational services for IDPs, and children in less accessible and high-risk areas. In 2018, there were reports of direct attacks on education facilities, including over 60 verified school attacks or forced closures, and the abduction and detention of local people, 'including of teachers who declined to adopt the curriculum of non-state armed actors'.

Somaliland and Puntland

The donor GPE draws attention to variations in the delivery of educational services in Somalia, indicating greater progress in student enrolments in more stable Somaliland and Puntland where there is support for girls' education in particular.¹¹³ In 2013, the relative stability and administrative outreach in Somaliland and Puntland led to 'modest gains' in service delivery compared to the rest of the country (Logica, 2013). In recent years, Puntland's improvements in gender and educational delivery are especially remarkable, with significant increases in girls' enrolment, particularly at higher levels of education. A number of strategies have been attributed to this success, including targeted gender-related staff training, gender balanced education committees, appointment of focal points to support local governments in gender mainstreaming, engagement with non-government organizations, nomination of girl mentors, establishment of girls' forums, recruitment of female role models for schools, inclusion of girl friendly spaces, review of text books for gender sensitivity and appointment of a Gender

Technical Advisor within the MOE.

4.4 INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK AND SERVICE DELIVERY: MATERNAL HEALTH

4.4.1 Institutional oversight and capacity

The Ministry of Health and Human Services (MHHS) is the lead ministry for health in the FGS. Both the National Gender Policy (NGP), and the National Development Policy (NDP) include goals for reducing maternal, neonatal and child mortalities, and improving access to essential health services.

Strategic policies and plans

In each of the three regions, there is strong commitment for strengthening health systems, particularly for maternal health, improving service delivery and facilitating equitable access for all, including marginalised groups. Supported by UNICEF, UNFPA and WHO, the Essential Package of Health Services (EPHS) was designed in 2009 and comprises four levels of service provision: primary health unit (PHU), the health centre (HC), the referral health centre (RHC) and the hospital (H) (Ministry of Health, 2013). The EPHS provides the main framework and approach for the provision of essential health services for reduction of maternal, newborn and child mortality (UNICEF, 2018a).

The joint Somali Health Policy 2014 is considered the major platform for regional collaboration and improved health service delivery. Priorities of the policy include improving access to essential health services, in particular to reduce maternal, neonatal and child mortalities. While basic targets were outlined in the NDP in the FGS (see Figure 4.5), the health sector has yet to develop Action Plans to implement the Health Policy. Partners such as UNICEF have now aligned their health strategies to the Somali Health Policy (2014), and have drafted strategic documents such as Somalia Health Sector Strategy (2013-2016) to support the development of the Somali Health Authority's capacity to lead, manage and implement core components of the Health Strategy and plans by 2020 (UNICEF, 2018a).

Figure 4.5: Selected Goals in Maternal Health

NGP Goals (2013) <i>Section 4.2</i>	<i>Promoting reduction of maternal child mortality rate country wide by expanding maternal and child healthcare service</i>
NDP Targets (2017) <i>Section 7.2</i>	<i>Reduce maternal, neonatal and child mortalities and improve access to essential health services of acceptable quality, prevent and control communicable and non-communicable diseases and improve quality of life.</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>Reduce maternal mortality ratio from 732/100,000 in 2015 to less than 600/100,000;</i> ➤ <i>Increase skilled birth deliveries from 33% in 2014 to 55%;</i> ➤ <i>Increase contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) to >15%;</i>

As a complement to health sector policies, Somaliland and Puntland have also developed water policies that support access to water, but there remains limited capacity to enforce them. Without clear policy guidance and regulation, 'unsustainable, diesel pumping systems' are in use as opposed to renewable energy technology (UNICEF, 2018b). A few NGOs are trialing innovative solar systems (such as CARE in Somaliland). To date, UNICEF argues that there has been limited investment in water infrastructure and support to operation and maintenance, as efforts

tend to focus on short-term rehabilitation and repair. Drawing attention to the link to sanitation and hygiene, the UNICEF WASH strategy (2018-2020) highlights the main structural cause of low WASH service delivery to be a 'lack of policy' and the '[lack of] a coordinated, strategic water development plan' over the past two decades. A national WASH Policy is now being developed, although such policies are at risk of remaining aspirational without enforcement and regulation.

Figure 4.6: Institutional-Level (Ministry of Health) Gender Indicators

Region	FGS	Somaliland	Puntland
Gender Unit?	<i>(Unknown)</i>	<i>(Unknown)</i>	×
Gender targets?	✓	✓	✓
Gender sensitive indicators?	<i>Limited / unclear</i>	<i>Limited / unclear</i>	<i>Limited / unclear</i>

4.4.2 Service delivery

Until recently, maternal health services have received 'insufficient resources', and as a result, services have not been accessible to most rural women (Musse and Gardner, 2013). At this time, the Ministry of Health reported that there were 8 referral hospitals, 10 regional hospitals and 26 district hospitals, 198 Health Centers (also referred to as Maternal and Child Health Centers and 269 Primary Health Units (also called Health Posts). The Health Posts aim to provide 'limited curative and preventive

Over the past few years, there have been efforts at improving health services, particularly maternal and child healthcare, with support of agencies such as UNICEF and UNFPA. This has included strategy development related to maternal health (for example in November 2016, a new Midwifery Strategy was initiated). Yet despite such steps, the overall health system is described to remain 'fragmented, under-resourced and ill-equipped to provide life-saving and preventative services' (OCHA, 2018). At present, Somalia is reported to have less than 40% of its target of two health facilities per 10,000 population; and has only 19% of its target skilled health workforce (WHO (2016) in OCHA, 2018). The drought has led to additional shocks in the health sector, with an estimated 32.6 million USD losses due to new cases of disease, and an increase in mobile health units and costs attached to their maintenance (DINA, 2018: 94). In almost three quarters of IDP settlements, maternity services were lacking. A survey conducted by DINA indicated that IDPs are an extremely vulnerable group, and are '2.5 times [less] likely to have access to medical health services' as compared to residents (DINA, 2018). While access remains challenging in conflict and insecure areas, a major nationwide strategy that is currently supported by UNICEF includes the essential package of Reproductive Maternal Neonatal Child Adolescent Health (RMNCAH) services. UNICEF forecasts that at the end of their current strategy (2018-2020), one third (about 3.6 million) of the Somali population will have benefited from improved health services (UNICEF, 2018a).

services' at the community level, but many were reported to be non-operational (FGS Ministry of Health, 2013). With limited health staff, less than 15% of the rural population had access to a provider (FGS Ministry of Health, 2013). Public health services were not free of charge as user fees were charged for medicines dispensed (UNECA, 2014). Besides disparate NGO efforts, there was no comprehensive national health promotion programme, with the exception of Child Health Days or ad hoc initiatives (FGS Ministry of Health, 2013).

Besides access and resource constraints, the health sector is constrained by erratic funding that may adversely impact service delivery. In 2017, UNICEF indicated that with the completion of the Joint Health and Nutrition Programme (JHNP) in 2016, alongside the Health Sector Coordination Mechanism, there would be a more 'fragmented approach' to development financing for the Health Sector (UNICEF, 2018a).

4.5 SUMMARY AND REFLECTIONS ON PERSISTING CHALLENGES

There have been commendable and visible efforts across Somalia in terms of strategy and policy development in the education and health sectors over the past decade, with strong commitments from the Ministries of Health and Education in each of the three regions, and new collaboration. Progress has been notable in the education sector in regions such as Somaliland and Puntland. In the South Central region, progress has stalled due to conflict, displacement and insecurity, and related protection issues for women and girls. In the health sector, with varying facilities and access, coupled with drought-driven shocks, progress in service delivery has been slow all round, with maternal health services described as 'extremely limited' across the country, particularly in rural and remote areas, and IDP settlements. In both sectors, vulnerable groups include IDPs, pastoralist/nomadic groups, poor and less educated households, the disabled, and minority clans.

Reflecting on trends in education, service delivery and institutional capacity

There are still exceedingly low levels of literacy and educational attainment, with lower levels amongst women. In 2018, the majority of children remained out of school, particularly in the South Central region. The educational drive in recent years has resulted in higher rates of school participation in Puntland and Somaliland, particularly among girls. Schools in South Central region are mostly run by private community education schemes, that have fees that are often prohibitive for very poor and minority households (and in such households, children may be working). In general, school participation may be influenced by availability of learning facilities; family poverty and inability to pay fees; household chores for girls; and the mother's own level of education. In rural Somaliland, studies indicate that adolescent girls' participation may be further influenced by the availability of female staff and facilities at schools, female role models, and adolescent girl (choice driven) marriage (Ritchie, 2017).

Today the educational sector remains challenged by both human and climate-induced crises, including persisting conflict, drought and flooding, leading to a 'lack of access and widespread inequity'. Despite formidable constraints, gains in girls' enrolment and improvements in school facilities have been reported in Somaliland and Puntland. Similarly, attitudes towards girls schooling are cited to be improving in Somaliland. Innovations in structures such as Child Education Committees (CECs) by NGOs such as CARE have been instrumental in encouraging girls' participation and garnering parents' support. There is now a demand by gender activists for more institutional-led efforts to boost the enrollment and retention of girls in school, to ensure quality female teachers and to facilitate more girl-friendly spaces as well as mentorship programs. In Puntland, while progress has made in enrolment, there is still a gap in male and female teachers in schools and universities (SIDRA, 2018). In general, positive developments in the education sector include cross-regional institutional collaboration

and the establishment of information management systems, and increasing service provision in more stable areas. The sharing of best practices seems to be limited however (particularly from Somaliland and Puntland), influencing the potential for cross-regional learning and the development of best practices.

Reflecting on trends in maternal health (and WASH), service delivery and institutional capacity

Access to maternal health services remains limited outside of urban centres (particularly FGS), although there are improvements (UNICEF, 2018a) and regional variations. In general, there are reported to still be significant 'inequities' in access to health amongst and across communities, shaped by location, clan hierarchy, livelihoods, displacement, and exposure to shocks and conflict-related stresses (Musse and Gardner, 2013). There are also varying levels of community exposure to health promotion (influencing awareness), and varying capacities of local health providers. Yet grassroots reports are lacking and it is difficult to assess change on the ground at both regional and local level, and to identify best practices.

Despite new cross-regional health policies, health services are under resourced and constrained by poor funding mechanisms. The measurement of progress towards targets is limited by a lack of regional, disaggregated and up to date data. Greater efforts are now needed to operationalize the Somali Health Policy, improve regional level data and support health sector reform for strengthening the quality and availability of health services across the country, in particular for maternal and child health. Meanwhile, a lack of water policies (South Central), or their implementation (Somaliland and Puntland) is inhibiting the development of WASH infrastructure and policy-making, further influencing progress in maternal and child health.

It is clear that further coordination and strategy making between government ministries is vital, including those related to health and water, to promote tangible change in family health and hygiene.

At a ministry level, gender units are lacking, and institutional capacity remains weak and is constrained by inadequate monitoring and evaluation systems. Illustrating additional challenges in project access, a gender focal point in Mogadishu highlighted frustrations over the lack of field interaction with beneficiaries, influencing monitoring and project design, including for maternal health (with reliance on junior local staff only), the lack of gender specialists within agencies, and the lack

of coordination between partners ‘the UN Gender thematic working group hasn’t met in months’. As emphasised by UNICEF (2018a), the use of maternal and child services may be boosted by community-based communication approaches, coupled with radio and mass media campaigns. Yet with little access to communities, it is still unclear to what extent such strategies are employed and mainstreamed by the various health ministries.



Box 4.5: Views on educational provision and participation

“Currently, there are efforts to encompass gender rights and equality into lessons, as teachers are more aware and sensitized. The education system has evolved and is [now] more attuned to the needs of female students: for example, schools and institutions of higher learning have facilities such as washrooms. This has led to an increase in the enrolment of girls, and improved the transition rate from secondary school to institutions of higher learning” (Ministry of Education, Garowe, Puntland)

“There is an increase in the enrolment of girls in schools and measures have been put place especially by local and international NGOs to ensure that they stay in school. Most NGOs have also adopted Gender Equality Markers to ensure the meaningful participation of girls and women” (SGEM, Mogadishu)

“The negative attitudes towards girl’s education are slowly reducing - even though this still remains a challenge - as the community witnesses the value of girls’ education. Yet, most of the rural community still hesitates to keep their girls in the schools, due to domestic work and a lack of [family] priority for girls’ education” (Ministry of Education, Hargeisa, Somaliland)

Key messages: Change (2012-19) in Basic Education and Maternal Health

- While there are regional differences, both sectors suffer a lack of access and inequity.
- Sixty % of children are out of school, particularly in the South Central region. There are low net enrolment rates (less than 2 out 10) at primary level, with limited gender differences, although the gender gap increases at higher levels of education. Schools are characterized by overage enrolment, and actual participation rates may be higher.
- Factors influencing participation include physical access to facilities; family poverty and household chores (girls); and early marriage and pregnancy. Legislation and cross-regional strategies are improving.
- Educational delivery, initiatives and campaigns are more notable in Somaliland and Puntland, with increased participation of girls in school. In Somaliland, this has been boosted by free primary school education and innovations such as Child Education Committees (CECs).
- Slight gains have been made in maternal health in recent years but the situation remains dire (particularly in FGS). Access to maternal and child health services is extremely limited, with less than 1 in 10 births attended by skilled health personnel, although higher figures are reported in Somaliland and Puntland. Factors influencing the utilization of maternal health services include access constraints, low awareness, and social norms. Cross-regional health planning/strategies are improving, but the sector is challenged by a lack of regional, disaggregated and up to date data.
- Access to WASH is reported to have improved but IDP and drought areas remain concerning in terms of water access, and sub-urban areas suffer water quality issues.
- Regional and urban-rural disparities exist. Poor and less educated rural households, IDPs and minority groups such as the disabled, or less powerful clans remain the most vulnerable.



**V. SECTOR-BASED GENDER
ANALYSIS: PARTICIPATION IN
THE ECONOMY**

The chapter specifically explores linkages between gender and access to, and participation in livelihoods, enterprise and employment. In examining government support towards inclusive economic development, it discusses institutional progress; and policies, plans and affirmative action. This chapter is closely aligned with Pillar 4 of the New Deal approach that supports Economic Foundations, and emphasizes employment and livelihoods, and the 'Social and Human Development' pillar under the NDP. It is also related to SDG 1: No Poverty, SDG 5: Gender Equality, SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth, SDG 9: Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure, and SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities.

5.1 STATUS AND TRENDS RELATED TO GENDER IN THE ECONOMY

5.1.1 Labour and employment overview

National data on the workforce with regional level

disaggregation remains limited in Somalia. As indicated by UNFPA, the working age population in Somalia is 6.3 million (age 15-64 years), just over half of the total population (UNFPA, 2016c). Of this proportion, the rural population and nomads comprise almost half of the working age population. In the context of East Africa, Somalis are shown to have the highest 'Age Dependency Ratios': for every 100 people of working age, there are 87 children and 4 older persons (UNFPA, 2016c).

Labour force participation

In the UNFPA survey, only half of the total working age population (age 15-64 years) remain economically active (labour force participation rate), with two thirds of this group male, and a third female (UNFPA, 2016c). In an earlier UNDP survey, the labour force participation was notably higher in Somaliland (70.27%), and in Puntland (83.95%), with almost no gender gap (UNDP, 2012).

Figure 5.1: Key Indicators for Gender in the Economy

PARTICIPATION IN ECONOMY	NATIONAL (UNFPA 2016c)	SOMALILAND (UNDP 2012)	PUNTLAND (UNDP 2012)
GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING AGE POPULATION (15-64 YRS)	50.1% male 49.9% female	/	/
LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE (15-64 YRS)	50.2% 63.6% male 36.6% female	70.27% 76.41% male 64.17% female	83.95% 85.56% male 82.31% female
EMPLOYMENT RATE (15-64 YRS)	38.1% 48.8% male 27.3% female	29.62% 36.26% male 21.79% female	52.97% 61.60% male 43.84% female
EMPLOYMENT IN AGRICULTURE, LIVESTOCK, FORESTRY, FISHERY	62.8% 60.1% male 67.8% female %	/	/
EMPLOYMENT AS MANAGERS OR PROFESSIONALS	9.2% 10.6% male 6.6% female	/	/
YOUTH EMPLOYMENT (14-29 YEARS)	32.41% 38.41% male 25.71% female (UNDP 2012)	15.76% 19.96% male 11.10% female	37.98% 44.12% male 31.31% female

According to the UNFPA survey (2016c), the lowest proportion of economically active people (aged 15-64 years) were from urban areas (38.5%, with just 24.6% of women), 15-19 years of age (30.1%), from the richest wealth quintile (40.8%), and had only primary level education (55.2%). In the urban areas, there is a notable gender gap among those that are economically active (52.6% of men, and 24.6% of women). Low levels of labour force participation are also found in IDP camps (43.3%), with lower numbers of men than women (55.3% of men, and 32.6% of women). Youth labour market participation (15-29 years) increases with age, with 54.6% of those aged 25-29 years in the labour force. An earlier survey indicated that 66% of youth aged 14 to 29 were economically active or participating in the labour force (UNDP, 2012).

Meanwhile, the highest proportion of economically active people were found in the nomadic areas (67.7%), were 40-49 years of age (over 68%), from the poorest wealth quintile (49.4%), and had tertiary level education (78.8%). A total of 38.1% of the working population was employed - including those in an employee-employer relationship or self-employed - (48.8% of men, and 27.3% of women). As indicated in the 2014 Labour Force Survey, only 1% of labour force participants had gone through vocational training (MOLSA, 2019).

In the Somali Poverty Profile (World Bank, 2017), gender-specific reasons are highlighted for women's lack of participation in economic activity. Housework was the main reported reason for women being out of the labour force (50%), followed by enrolment in school (19%), lack of husband's permission (16%) and disability or illness (4%). Among men, enrolment in school is the major factor (57%), followed by disability or illness (12%) and conflict (6%). Disability or illness is thus a more common constraint for men. In Mogadishu, the situation of insecurity affects conservative behaviour and labour force participation: more than 30% of inactive women report 'not being allowed by the husband' as the main reason for inactivity. It also affects men's economic activity in the city as about 2% of inactive men cite conflict-related insecurity as the reason for not participating in the labour force.

5.1.2 Evolving rural livelihoods and urbanization

The Somali economy is still heavily rural, with half of the population residing in rural areas. Traditional livelihoods are now deemed to be at risk (World Bank, 2018), with factors such as climate change, rising populations and land degradation. In reaction to such pressures, there is increasing rural to urban migration (particularly male youth). The livestock and crop sectors remain the key sources of economic activity, employment and exports (ibid); and pastoralists or agro-pastoralists occupy over two-thirds of the defined livelihoods zones across the three regions (FSNAU, 2012). Livestock products (cattle, camels, sheep and goats) not only contribute to the livelihood of the pastoralists, but also make up a substantial portion of the daily food intake of the population both in rural and in urban areas of Somalia. Livestock trading represents a crucial part of the economy, with livestock-related products accounting for approximately 40% of GDP and over 50% of export earnings (UNDP, 2012).

Women remain centrally engaged in the livestock and the agricultural sector, but often at the lower ends of the value chain. The milk value chain offers a 'promising' sector worth developing for women's economic empowerment, as women have dominance in dairy production and primary milk collection (although gendered value chain studies are lacking). A much smaller complementary rural industry includes fisheries. Women are active in the processing and trading of fish in coastal areas, and play a key role in inland fisheries (either fishing and/or trading fish). Meanwhile, with limited access to resources, minority groups may face particular livelihood constraints and often work as agricultural labourers; and in the absence of formal regulations, struggle with uncertain working conditions.

5.1.3 Trends in gender and enterprise

The economic lives of Somali women have evolved over the past few decades, expanding into employment and livelihood sectors traditionally held by men (World Bank, 2013). Typically, with little access to start-up capital, women are active in the informal economy as petty traders (approximately 70%), rather than the public and formal sector, which are still perceived as

male domains (Musse and Gardner, 2013). Yet slowly pushing boundaries, women traders have also crept into typical male sub-sectors within the informal economy, including those that are high-risk, such as khat sales, currency exchange, and the fuel trade. In poorer households, women's economic participation has been linked to changing household gender roles and responsibilities. Paradoxically, these types of activities may not be choice-led but have been described as a 'coping mechanism' (Burger, 2014). Poorer women now bear the 'double domestic burden' of both income generation and domestic responsibilities (World Bank, 2013). Often the domestic burden falls on younger girls in the family, who may be required to take over chores, often at the expense of education and skills development.

Challenged by little experience and access to credit, women's trading ventures and businesses typically remain micro or small. They are also constrained by the high cost of electricity, lack of business development services, restricted mobility, complex taxation policies, and a lack of networks. Business deals are often conducted informally and predominantly among men (Burger, 2014). Female businesses that are medium-sized may include women from the diaspora who have savings (Musse and Gardner, 2013) or from the educated populace (Burger, 2014). In high-level trading activities, elite women are now entering sectors that were traditionally dominated by men, for instance the livestock, fishery as well as petroleum importing sectors (Burger, 2014). Incorporating these workforce groups, Burger (2014) estimates that women may make up 60% of total business owners (micro-enterprises, as well as medium to large businesses).

Women's changing gender roles as family bread winners in the micro economy

The phenomenon of women's petty trading is now highly visible within rural and urban Somalia, as well as in regional diaspora communities. This may be particularly common in Somali households in which men have left to find work as migrants, and in situations of displacement (e.g. Ritchie, 2018). The level of income from typical urban trading activities may be limited - in the range of \$3-10 per day, as indicated anecdotally

in Musse and Gardner's report (2013) and in regional studies. Women may use the money to support the running of the household (basic food needs, rent, children's education), as well as money for men's khat, taxes and debts. In regions such as rural Somaliland, women have also become increasingly involved in similar 'non-traditional' economic activities, for example in charcoal production and trading. Local NGOs in Somaliland estimate that poor women are the primary breadwinners in approximately 70% of families.

The emergence of poorer women as family 'breadwinners' represents a major changing dynamic in Somali households over the past two decades. Many such families are now dependent on women for their survival, even when adult men are present. Men have been argued to be 'less resilient' (Musse and Gardner, 2013). Yet with pressures on traditional livelihoods, it is clear that men often make deliberate choices to avoid certain socially 'shameful' economic activities such as petty trading. Informal and micro-based work thus remains dominated by women who are willing to take on such activities. As a result, complicated household dynamics have emerged, with women challenging men's identity as 'family protector and provider'. Ultimately though, for most women, new trading ventures remain a 'survivalist-oriented' business activity - as opposed to growth-oriented - with different objectives and outcomes (Berner, Gomez and Knorrninga, 2009). Many subsistence-level 'entrepreneurs' may in fact prefer to participate in wage income if available, instead of engaging in trade or micro businesses.

5.1.4 Trends in gender, social organization and representation

As highlighted by the World Bank (2013), Somali women's associations and organizations have proliferated since independence in 1960, and led to a vibrant civil society in Somalia. They have also played a central role in the delivery of basic services including healthcare, education and trade. Formal tradeswomen's associations and unions have remained elusive however. In 2013, the Chamber of Commerce was a predominantly male body and thus did not represent

businesswomen's interests (Musse and Gardner, 2013). Women's representation in the formal or strategic private sector interaction was also considered low (Burger, 2014). In 2018 however, there were some interesting new regional trends, with the development of a women's own business body in Garowe, Puntland (with support from IFC). The association aims to foster new networking opportunities, but has limited organizational and technical capacity. In focus groups, businesswomen highlighted the continued disunity amongst themselves, and distrust and competition that has been inhibiting collaboration. Even in the agricultural sector, there have been no registered women's cooperatives, although there is now growing interest among businesswomen to support collective agribusinesses.

At a grassroots level, there are notable developments in women's social and economic organization through savings groups in regions such as Somaliland, and the establishment of over 18,000 micro-enterprises. The engagement of women in savings groups – for example, Self Help Groups (SHGs) or Village Savings and Lending Associations (VSLAs) – has been a growing trend in rural communities in regions such as Sool and Sanaag in Somaliland, gathering pace in the past 10-15 years with support of international NGOs such as CARE and local partners (e.g. Candlelight). As in neighbouring countries such as Ethiopia and Kenya, women's social organization in savings groups has boosted women's skills and financial literacy, as well as enhanced their confidence and assertiveness. This has spurred trading activities and new business initiatives, and triggered greater involvement of women in community decision-making.

5.1.5 Trends in gender and access to resources and business services

Women's business activities often remain constrained due to illiteracy, inexperience and limited access to support and services. A major constraint is the lack of access to resources and capital. As per customary norms, women's rights to property, productive assets and land inheritance are limited, and are often abused by male relatives with clan elders' support (Musse and Gardner, 2013). In spite of newly articulated legal

rights (in the Constitution) and even women's Islamic rights, discriminatory customary practices persist. Phenomenon such as land grabbing by male relatives following the death of a husband or father remains common in rural areas. However, the research for this report highlighted the emergence of micro finance institutions such as MicroDahab, part of the well-known Dahabshiil Group, and now the largest MFI in Somalia, that now provides support to women, the youth and small and medium enterprises to get access to small and medium sized loans.

As highlighted by an ILO funded survey (SIDA, 2018), many women's businesses lack access to basic business support. The survey examined key dynamics of over 600 women's businesses located across South Central, Somaliland and Puntland, with the majority shown to be mostly small or micro enterprises and largely informal (90%). Over 30% of businesses were just one-woman enterprises, and over half had less than four employees. Firms were predominantly in traditionally defined women's sectors such as clothing, accessories, beauty, cosmetic, and grocery shops. Over two-thirds of these businesses had little or no access to support in entrepreneurship, financial literacy, vocational skills or management training. Reported priority needs included credit as well as financial literacy. Beyond economic factors, Ritchie (2016, 2018) has also drawn attention to deeper socio-cultural factors that influence poorer women's mobility and social acceptance in micro business in Islamic settings, and access to networks, services and resources.

5.1.6 Trends in gender and wage employment

Somalia is undergoing 'rapid urbanisation', with the combined pressures of 'rural distress, climate change, conflict and [the] restructuring of the economy' (MOLSA, 2019). This has precipitated great shifts and movement out of rural localities. In particular, young men are being compelled to look for migrant work: over half of the working age population (15-64 years) now resides in urban areas, or as IDPs near urban settlements (UNFPA, 2016c: 26).

The nature of the urban economy is thus changing with this influx, affecting the formal and informal economy, with a dominance and concentration of

commerce, services, educational institutions and administration.

While women are involved in formal employment, they tend to be placed at lower, supporting levels in businesses, institutions and organisations. A survey in 2012 indicated that women's wage employment was significant in Puntland (40%) and Somaliland (36%) but was lowest in South Central region (33%) (FSNAU, 2012). Stark gender gaps persist in both employment and the level of employed work, with men dominating in management and professional work (UNFPA, 2016c). As highlighted by the World Bank (2018), available economic opportunities remain fairly limited for both men and women. Young women, in particular, suffer discrimination at the workplace. Reasons cited for women's low employment included women's 'reproductive functions', their lack of technical skills, clan-based recruitment practices, and the 'non-female friendly working environment' of the private sector (UNDP, 2013).

5.1.7 Trends in gender and sector participation: infrastructure and services

In addition to agribusiness activities, telecommunications and digital finance, and trade and transportation are described as active areas in the economy (World Bank, 2018). The National Employment Policy (NEP) emphasizes the potential development of specific sectors, including light manufacturing related to agro-food, and leather; agriculture: fisheries, meat and milk, fruits, sesame; as well as renewable energy and construction (public works and housing) (NEP, 2019). At present, Somalia has a largely unregulated (and informal) economy and was ranked at the bottom of the 2017 Doing Business Survey (World Bank, 2018). Insecurity persists, and there is weak access to capital and investment support. Meanwhile high costs are associated with electricity, business registrations and construction permits (ibid). With good connections, existing businesses (and sectors) are often able to 'enjoy a degree of monopolistic power', thus inhibiting new business entrants (for example, women's businesses). In major sectors such as telecommunication and financial institutions, female employment has been previously reported to be as low as 1% (excluding menial, supportive work such as cleaning) (UNDP, 2013). Without government-led affirmative action, little has changed in recent years.

There is increasing donor interest in exploring the development of the renewable energy sector through public private partnerships (PPP), and the findings indicated the participation of women entrepreneurs in this emerging sector.

Appendix 5 includes a review of sector-related trends and gender, particularly related to infrastructure and the service sector (including ICTs and renewable energy) as potential growth areas for women's inclusion.

5.1.8 Situation of youth and minorities

Youth and minorities also struggle to participate in livelihoods and wage employment. The UNDP survey (2012) indicated the sense of hopelessness amongst male youth, with many offering no reasons for their unemployment, an indicator of their feelings of 'disenfranchisement and alienation'. In the recent UNFPA (2016c) survey, new trends indicate medium levels of employment, including self-employment, (but high levels of economic inactivity) among youth: 40.2% of those aged 25-29 years were employed (54% male, 29.5% female). Over 45% of that age group are reported as economically inactive (not working, and not looking for work), due to possibly delayed education or voluntarily opting out of the job market. Recruitment in the public sector and civil service posts is reported to be nepotistic and older males and educated diaspora are favoured over youth graduates from local universities. Youth, particularly young women, and those from minority clans face difficulties in securing livelihoods due to the lack of available jobs, poorly developed skills, and limited access to credit and capital assets. Young women's employment options are generally lower compared to men's, as they are disadvantaged due to lower levels of education and discrimination, and face social and family pressures to marry early.

Unemployment amongst youth contributes significantly to irregular migration and participation in extremist activities, including Al-Shabaab, the militant jihadist group. Among male youth, membership of an Islamic group can boost pride, create solidarity and increase employment opportunities (Musse and Gardner, 2013). Economic migration (and 'forced migration') remains a critical issue, both regionally

(with over 800,000 refugees), and as migrants flee to Europe and beyond, although estimates of total numbers of migrants are difficult to obtain. Migration (tahriib) is also triggered by insecurity and smuggling networks (Magafe). Both access to jobs for youth and coping mechanisms of unemployment remain culturally difficult. Insecure economic circumstances can lead poor young women to engage in prostitution in city environments.

5.1.9 Role of remittances and external support

Despite the collapse of the central government, a few key sectors have proved resilient in Somalia, including telecommunications, livestock and fisheries, boosted by the support of the Somali diaspora through the remittance banking system. Considered an important 'resilience mechanism' at a family level and a key source of income, a total of 20% of households in Somalia receive remittances, although only 7% of IDPs (World Bank, 2017). In Somaliland, remittances are now considered a major economic lifeline, supporting over 40% of households, and the region is considered 'one of the most remittance-dependent economies in the world' (World Bank, 2016). Shedding light on the social impact of remittances, the World Bank (2017) indicates that recipients of remittances in Somalia tend to in fact be less poor, and higher amounts of remittances are received in urban areas compared to rural or IDP areas. Females in urban middle class households constitute a large proportion of recipients. In the study, about 17% of households received less money than in the previous year because receiving remittances had become more difficult - particularly in IDP settlements (World Bank, 2017). Among vulnerable households in such settlements, the World Bank (2017) emphasizes that remittances are 'neither very prevalent nor effective in reducing poverty'. Mobile money plays a major role in money transfers, as the majority of the population across Somalia is 'unbanked' (World Bank, 2018). With almost 75% of the country covered by cell phone networks, and the existence of a number of cell phone operators, cash transfers are now commonly made through mobile phones (DINA, 2018).

5.2 INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK AND POLICIES

5.2.1 Institutional oversight and capacity

The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) is the lead ministry for labour related issues in the FGS. Economic development is further supported by the Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development (MoPIED), the Ministry for Agriculture and Irrigation (MoAI), the Ministry of Commerce and Industry (MoCI), and the Ministry of Public Works and Reconstruction (MPWRH). Both the National Gender Policy (NGP), and the National Development Policy (NDP) include goals of women's economic empowerment.

Strategic sector policies and plans

To date, there has been little progress towards National Gender Policy goals, including women's representation in the National Chamber of Commerce, the development of rural livelihoods (project specific), the establishment of quotas for women in employment (none), or vocational and entrepreneurial skills development (project specific).

In 2019, a working version of the National Employment Policy (NEP) was drafted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MOLSA). With an SDG inspired vision of 'Decent Work and Gainful Employment for All', three key objectives included improved employment governance; job creation through promotion of micro, small and medium enterprises; and the promotion of employment intensity of key economic sectors (NEP, 2019). Target groups include youth, women, IDPs, nomadic groups, and those with disabilities. Major challenges highlighted were the low economic participation of women, unemployment, precarious employment, and low education levels.

Highlighting extensive international support, the NEP mentions almost 20 'employment-related programmes', supported by donors across the three regions, and emphasizes the inclusion of vulnerable groups, such as women, youth and IDPs. The wide-ranging sets of initiatives proposed include support to agri-business and value chain development, vocational training, IT and communications, and infrastructure development including roads and electricity (see Appendix 6).

Figure 5.2: Selected Gender-related Goals in the Economy

<p>NGP Goals (2013)</p> <p><i>Section 4.1</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Increase the representation of women to a 'critical mass' in the National Chamber of Commerce <input type="checkbox"/> Create opportunities in rural areas to improve the economic status of rural women and men <input type="checkbox"/> Establish quota for women in employment. <input type="checkbox"/> Establish vocational, entrepreneurial and skills enhancement programmes.
<p>NDP Targets (2017)</p> <p><i>Section 7.6</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Support the labour market to create employment opportunities, increase productivity, economic growth <input type="checkbox"/> Provide all individuals for improved skills to access and gain decent employment <input type="checkbox"/> Support healthy and safe work places and promote standards and equity in the labour market <p><u>Gender Mainstreaming Pillar</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>Share of women in labour force: Target: 40%</i>

At present, the policy does not yet include gender-related targets or indicators; although the NEP indicates that specific targets and indicators will be developed after updated information has been collected. A strategic plan for affirmative action related to the NEP also needs to be formulated. Key priority sectors include energy and transportation infrastructure through Public Private Partnership (PPP) approaches. Gender equality standards still need to be defined by the government in such ventures. While the NEP highlights the importance of workplace

safety, as emphasized in the NDP, there is still a lack of sufficient protection for women and girls at risk of exploitation in domestic employment, although the revised Labour Code may address this area. In large infrastructure projects such as road construction, risk management standards exist at the donor level to protect petty workers from sexual assault, and there is now interest in the development of cross-institutional standards. Hitherto there are no actual specific legal protection measures in Somalia for precarious work linked to national development schemes.

Figure 5.3 : Institutional-Level (Ministry of Health) Gender Indicators

Region	FGS	Somaliland	Puntland
Gender Unit?	(Unknown)	(Unknown)	(Unknown)
Gender targets?	✓	✓	✓
Gender sensitive indicators?	✓	✓	✓

The MoWHRD has developed a Gender Economic Empowerment Strategy (2019), as an addendum to the National Gender Policy which aims to improve laws and policies related to women at work including sexual harassment, equal opportunities, minimum wage policies, and protection of women working in the domestic sector. An ILO-SIDA Public Private Development Partnership (PDDP) project (2019) on 'Women Employment Creation and Working Conditions' aims to address some of these gaps in facilitating legislative and institutional reforms; supporting women's employment, and association

and cooperative development (with 8,000 women), particularly focusing on the renewable energy sector; and commissioning studies to improve field-level evidence.

With ILO support, MOLSA and the Ministry of Planning, Infrastructure and Development (MOPID) are conducting a new Labour Force Survey in 2019 (NEP, 2019). There are also plans to establish a labour market information system to closely monitor employment outcomes (ibid). Other key and complementary labour policies that have been drafted include the Draft Social Protection Policy (under elaboration), the Draft

Labour Code (under elaboration) and the Civil Service Law No.11.

5.3 SUMMARY AND REFLECTIONS ON PERSISTING CHALLENGES

Socio-cultural factors still play a central role in Somalia in influencing access to, and participation in livelihoods, business, credit and services, and natural resources such as land and water (Musse and Gardner, 2013). In addition to gender, such dynamics may be influenced by age, clan membership (and kinship network), geography, and even the nature of Islamic faith (ibid). Although women function as critical economic actors, their work is still characterized by informality and precarity, thus limiting the scope for growth and development in the rural and micro-economy, and beyond. Almost two thirds of women (and over 75% in urban areas) remain outside of the labour force altogether. Cultural factors and local security conditions influence women's labour force participation. The persistence of cultural and religious barriers discourages women and girls from pursuing careers and higher education.

Reflecting on trends in the informal business sector, and networks

Women remain dominant in the informal sector in Somalia, and are breaking into traditional male domains (such as fuel trading). In growing and formalising their micro businesses however, poorer women struggle with a lack of access to resources and credit, as well as a lack of access to business services, networks and social support (and protection). Remittances from diaspora are a crucial support dynamic, but they tend to benefit women from the urban middle classes and not those who are most vulnerable.

At present, women who are involved in medium to larger enterprises tend to belong to the diaspora or the educated elite, with greater networks and social mobility. There is little cooperation and interaction between women entrepreneurs, and professional interactions are characterized by distrust and disunity. While men dominate in the Chamber of Commerce,

the establishment of new women's business bodies in regions such as Puntland offer new opportunities for women's business inclusion, networking, exchange and collaboration, and for representing women's business interests at a higher level.

At a grassroots level, the development of savings groups (e.g. SHGs, or VSLAs) in regions such as rural Somaliland is an important trend. Such groups can be linked to micro-finance organisations such as MicroDahab, that are now supporting women in accessing micro and SME loans, although they face barriers in the South Central due to insecurity and access. As highlighted by the Somaliland Women Chamber of Commerce (SLWCC), women's organisation into structures such as SHGs (and cooperatives) can be an 'effective model to increase the productivity of business activities, facilitate access to loan schemes for business activities or emergencies, and provide a social support network' (NAGAAD, 2019). There may be a strategic role for governments in the promotion of SHGs for financial inclusion (SEEP, 2018).

Reflecting on trends in the wage economy, and sector participation

The formal wage sector remains male dominated, with women discriminated against in accessing formal employment, particularly in the public sector (and are typically relegated to lower positions, and lower salaries for similar work). The public sector is also heavily biased against youth, although there may be emerging shifts in staff hiring preferences, with the increasing need for employees to be technology-literate (more common amongst the youth). Poorer men (particularly youth) struggle to find decent, socially acceptable work, or engage in self-employment, and this is possibly exacerbated by their khat addiction. Understanding complex linkages between poverty, gender norms and the use of khat, and young men's employment represents a gap for further investigation. Sector-wise, the infrastructure and transport sector (roads) are growth and investor areas but remain dominated by men (with PPPs).

Women may benefit from participation along the route as petty traders, although they remain at risk

of sexual assault (with little adequate protective measures by local authorities). A major potential growth area includes Information Communication Technologies (ICTs), particularly for skilled youth and university graduates, and women. The energy sector is also male-dominated, although there is interest and new participation by young women in the emerging renewable energies sector. There may also be emerging interest in the hospitality industry by women entrepreneurs (as indicated in the research).

Emerging policy, and gaps

An important step for promoting inclusive economic

development has been the new National Employment Policy (NEP, 2019), with the recognition of women, young, IDPs and minorities as vulnerable groups. This is complemented by other strategy documents that have been formulated regarding women's economic empowerment by MoWHRD and ILO. At present however, there remains an absence of adequate legal regulatory frameworks for the public and private sectors, which may support enabling environments for equality in employment, dignity and protection. Young men, diaspora and minorities are groups that warrant further research and attention.

Box 5.1: Views on gender and business

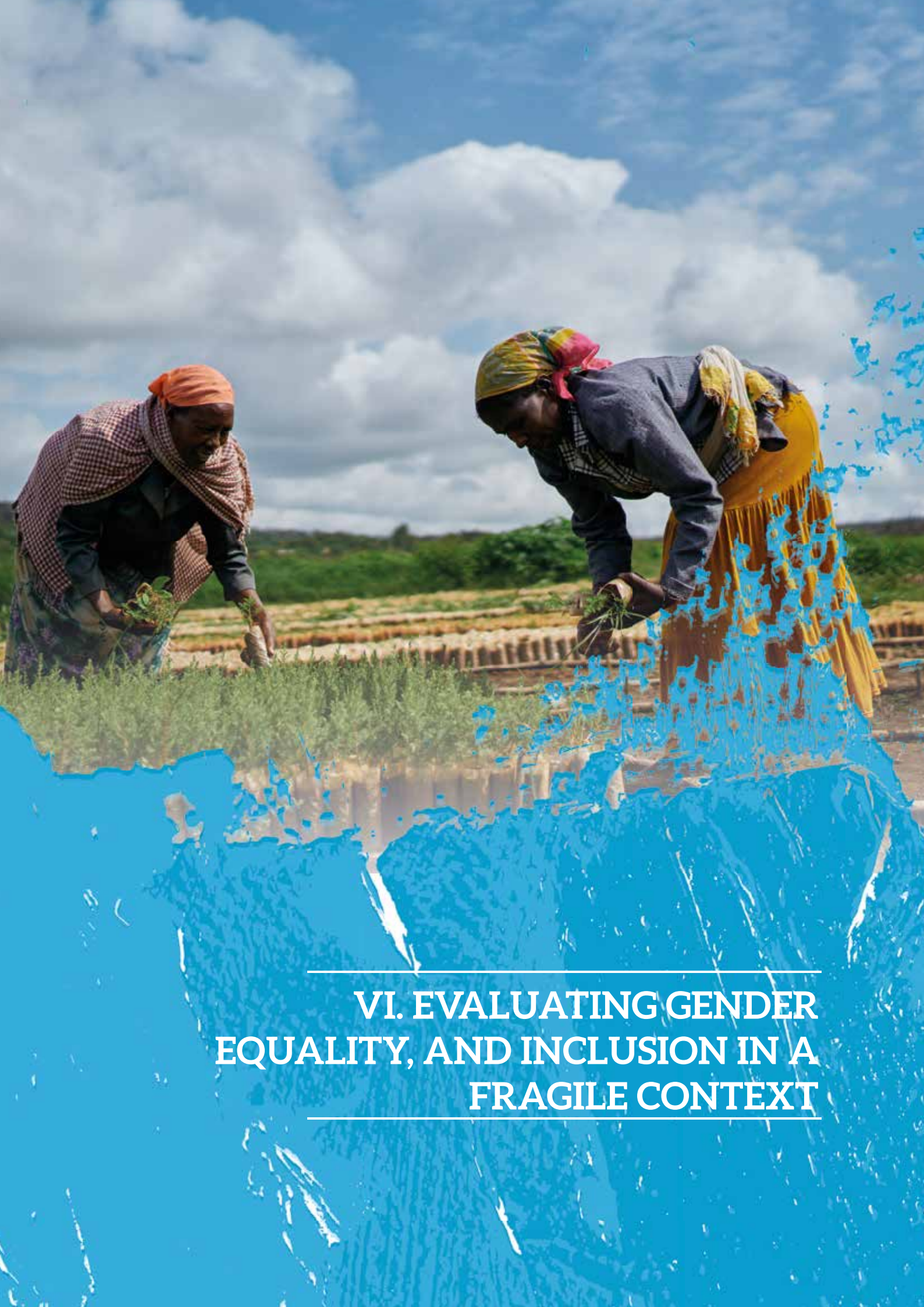
"The persistence of gendered roles that view women as homemakers is preventing women from pursuing equal opportunities with men" (SOSTEC, Mogadishu)

"There are concerted efforts to build knowledge and skills among women entrepreneurs to give them a competitive edge especially in businesses that were for a long time considered male domains. Women can now hold forums and exhibitions to exchange ideas on how to grow their businesses. By extension, this has given women a chance to also actively contribute to government policies ..." (Women's Business Forum, Puntland)

"There is an absence of women in leadership: the women of Somaliland are not included in the leadership of either the private sector or the government...women don't have mentors and role models in the systems and society," (Ministry of Employment, Hargeisa, Somaliland)

Key messages: Change (2012-19) in Gender, Livelihoods and Business

- National trends across the country indicate that half the population is economically active (only a third for women), and only just over a third are employed (just over 25% of women). Gender gaps are observed through all age groups but with age, this increases.
- Rural livelihoods (livestock, agriculture and fisheries) are at risk with climate change, land degradation, population explosion and urbanisation. Women remain at lower levels of the value chain, but opportunities lie in the milk and meat value chain, and the (smaller) coastal/inland fishery sector, although gender value chain research is lacking.
- Women are now active in the informal economy (approximately 70% of sector) but lack access to credit, BDS, and social protection and networks. They are also present in medium to large businesses (with women owning up to 60% of total businesses). Yet remittances play a role and new MFIs for women are now active.
- Men dominate in the public and private sector, with better jobs (and pay) and larger businesses. Women, youth and minorities remain discriminated against in such sectors. Renewable
- energy, ICTs and hospitality represent potential areas for women's inclusion and development.
- In terms of structures, women's social organization in savings/SHGs groups remains notable, particularly in Somaliland. A Women's Business Association has also been established in Puntland.
- The FGS National Employment Policy 2019 (NEP) recognises vulnerable groups but includes no gender targets or indicators. Regional disparities exist with variations in security and access.



**VI. EVALUATING GENDER
EQUALITY, AND INCLUSION IN A
FRAGILE CONTEXT**

This chapter further analyses report findings, and identifies evolving gender norms and power relations that underlie progress towards equality and inclusion. The discussion explores key trends in women's agency that are driven by political participation and rights, social development, and economic participation. It discusses top down approaches and the role of the women's movement in promoting bottom-up change, particularly in a fragile context. Finally, the chapter reflects more broadly on fragility and opportunities for promoting gender equality and inclusion in Somalia.

6.1 TRENDS IN GENDER, NORMS AND CHANGE IN SOMALIA

As indicated in this study, there have been significant efforts at legislation, policy and strategy making in gender equality and development in Somalia over the past decade. This has been in line with national policies and international commitments. However, due to a lack of legal enforcement and implementation, and affirmative government action, tangible change on the ground has been limited and uneven across regions, sectors and population groups.

6.1.1 Scope of changing agency and power

It is useful to reflect on evolving gender norms and agency across political, social and economic domains, with improvements in rights, inclusion and service delivery, and changing cultural dynamics and socioeconomic factors (Box 6.1). Women now have new legal rights and political opportunities, but are constrained by poor access to resources and networks, and limited government action and advocacy. Socially, girls and youth have been empowered with better skills and confidence acquired through their new participation in education, but participation rates remain low, with over 60% of children out of school. Insecurity and natural crises frequently disrupt education and undermine the quality of educational services. Women are now increasingly active in the micro-economy but meaningful economic empowerment is still restricted by a lack of resources and networks. The establishment of savings groups, MFIs (Micro Dahab) and the support of remittances (mostly middle class urban women) have lent support to women entrepreneurs, particularly in Somaliland. As a result of a lack of affirmative action, women are still largely excluded from formal employment.

Box 6.1: Somali women and girls' changing agency in the political, social and economic domains

Trends in women's political empowerment, and rights

- Women's political participation has been enhanced through the enactment of quotas and lobbying, but progress is slow without resources and social networks
- Women's rights, protection and access to justice has been strengthened with the development of key legislation, but there remains limited grassroots impact with a lack of implementation of laws/policies, and advocacy

Trends in women/girls' social empowerment

- Girls' skills development (and confidence) has been enhanced through participation in school, but progress is held back by insecurity and access, and family/household dynamics (and limited adult learning opportunities)
- Maternal health practices remain poor with limited access to, and use of, maternal health services, curtailing women's and girls' quality of life, choice and opportunity

Trends in women's economic empowerment

- Women's economic lives have been enhanced through their increasing participation in the informal economy, but they remain constrained by poor access to networks, resources and services to grow and formalise their business
- Women micro-entrepreneurs (particularly in Somaliland) have been boosted by participation in savings groups and access to finance (MFIs and remittances)
- Women (and youth) remain excluded from formal employment and jobs, particularly in the public sector, with little affirmative action, limiting their economic opportunity and career development

In order to overcome discrimination and a lack of resources faced by women, there is a need to draw on top down as well as bottom up approaches in promoting gender equality and inclusion. Positive change can only be realized if there are concerted efforts 'to take a stance against deeply rooted sexist views' and clan politics. Cultural and religious norms and beliefs remain entrenched, and women and girls have limited 'space' in which to fully participate in society, especially in rural areas. Traditional and religious leaders play a key role in either 'promoting or stifling women's development and participation in politics', and need to be more closely integrated in efforts to promote gender equality at a local, regional and national level. Activists maintain that women themselves must also be encouraged to claim their roles as both 'voters and candidates in order to share their voice through representative leadership in the country'.

Major gaps highlighted in the research have included the lack of national awareness campaigns, and regional advocacy on gender equality and rights (of all groups); and a lack of positive media and narratives related to women in leadership. There remains a disconnect in the current framing of rights between religious beliefs and culture, and modern laws and policies, with many still associating rights as a western (non-Islamic) ideology. Meanwhile, minorities are often sidelined by local (majority clan) leaders, including civil society leaders, claiming to represent their interests (Musse and Gardner, 2013). In particular, minority groups (e.g. Sab (outcast), coastal minorities such as Rer Hamar and the diverse Bantu communities) remain outside of the clan-system and marginalized by the clan-based system of politics. IDP women may be especially disadvantaged in participating in political activities as they face additional challenges related to mobility.

6.1.2 Women's organization and movement

As highlighted in the study, while international community and donors have focused their efforts and attention to promoting gender equality in legislation, the slow transformation and progress of local women organizations is perceived to curtail 'change on the ground'. Gender activists and women's groups have played a key role in bridging the gap between the

community and local leaders through advocacy. However, a 'strong and united women's movement (and voice)' has yet to develop (Musse and Gardner, 2013). From the women's own perspective, donor support for grassroots women's organizations, and civil society development has not extended beyond the traditional elite.

In the last decade, women have 'contributed to giving women a voice' in campaigning for gender equality and change. They have drawn on both traditional and modern methods to secure a place at the table, for example 'digging wells' and garnering the support of elders. The role of civil society is indeed recognised by the government, and the National Gender Policy (FGS) emphasizes the importance of collaborations among all the stakeholders. However, this collaboration is often described as a 'mirage', with a lack of consultations and poor information sharing by the government. There are often conflicts among different groups of women, as many less educated women still support the 'cultural system that limits or denies them equal opportunities'. Further, women suffer a lack of fundraising capabilities to campaign for political office. For example, a woman may be vocal and passionate about gender rights but she may have limited skills or capacity to build support.

Despite various challenges, Somali women are gradually becoming more organized through civil society and political forums, and the general women's movement is pushing boundaries. Several new women organizations are being created, accepted and their voices are being heard and encouraged. For example, WAWA now comprises a network of 43 women's organisations across the northern region. At the time of the research, a National Women's Convention had been organised in Mogadishu by the MoWHRD, bringing together emerging women's groups, activists and government representatives. A Women's Charter was drafted to consolidate the vision of the women's movement and renew aspirations towards women's inclusion, with calls for equal or 50% participation in public life; affirmative action towards women's skills development in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM subjects); and zero tolerance towards GBV.

The movement called for the Truth and Reconciliation Commission to be reaffirmed in the new Constitution and to ensure the equal representation and participation of women, men and youth.

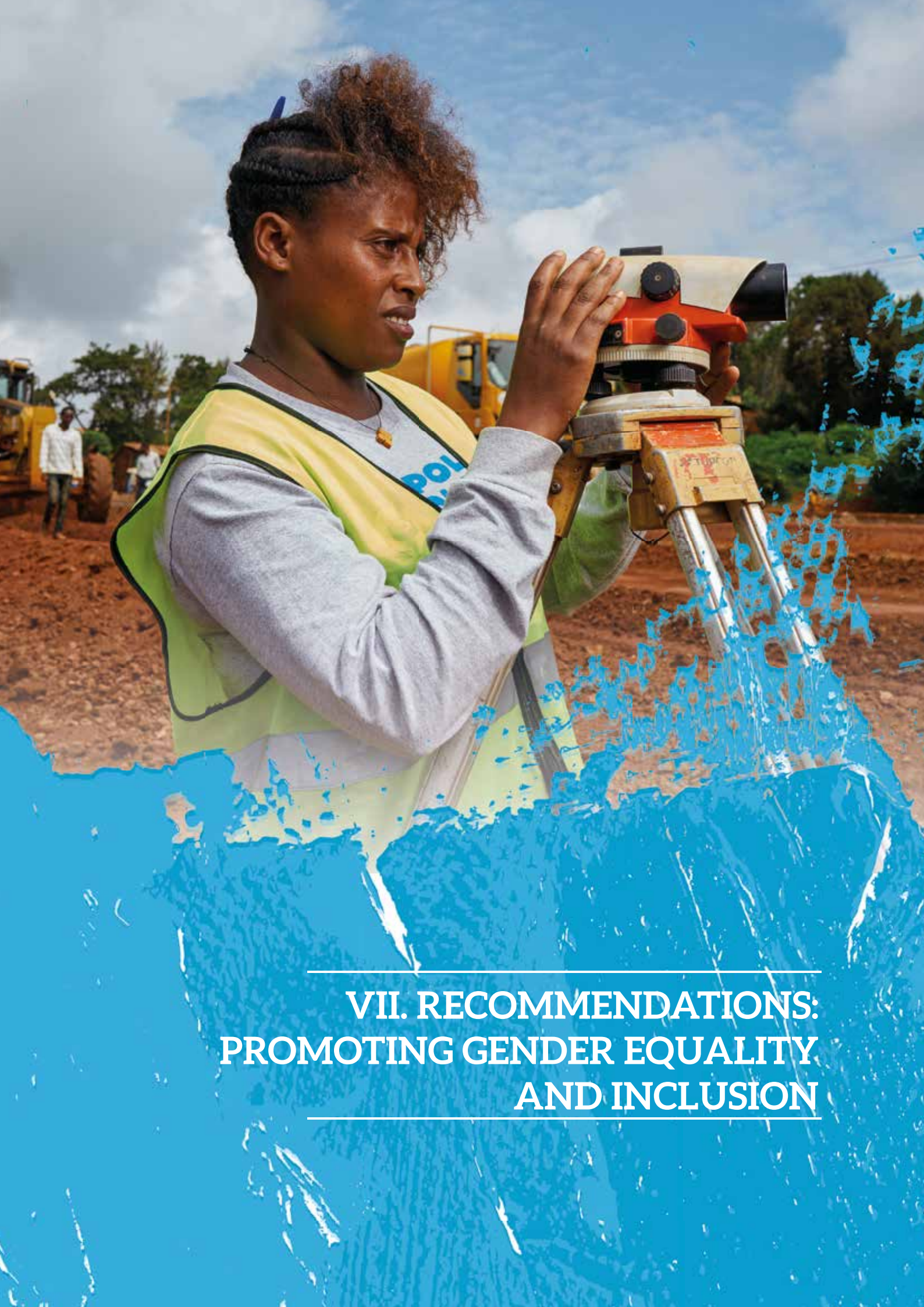
6.2 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The key findings and reflections in this report have provided critical insights into the current status quo in gender and development across Somalia, and highlighted the dominant regional trends, including at institutional and grassroots level. Overall, despite uneven progress, it is clear that tangible shifts in formal attitudes and legislation towards gender and inclusion are now occurring in Somalia, and a new consciousness around the importance of gender equality is emerging; and this provides a crucial platform for more equitable development, peace and stability. There is now a need for strategic 'empowerment initiatives' to push the agenda forward on the ground and to build resilience, including through national-level campaigns and

media, improved service delivery, cross-regional exchanges of lessons learned and capacity building of civil society.

In continued efforts to promote gender equality and development in Somalia, it may be critical to better appreciate the impact of 'fragility' however, and how this shapes women's evolving agency and organisation. Persistent conflict and insecurity influences general movement, service delivery and government outreach, with particular effects on women and poorer groups. Meanwhile from a rural perspective, supporting evolving livelihoods, resilience and gender equality in an increasingly fragile physical environment is critical both in economic terms, as well as from a socio-cultural standpoint. In particular, climate change is 'challenging norms and shifting the traditional barriers to change in gender relations'. Both government and civil society support is now necessary to catalyze new opportunities for 'linking adaptation with improved gender equality' (Joto Africa, 2014).

Appendix 7 includes a SWOT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) summarizing the status quo in gender equality and inclusion (and institutional capacity) in Somalia.



**VII. RECOMMENDATIONS:
PROMOTING GENDER EQUALITY
AND INCLUSION**

In this final chapter, the report identifies **concrete recommendations** for accelerating the advancement of gender equality and building resilience through various sectors, including through formal institutions and political participation, social affairs and justice, education and human capital development, health systems, and the economy (including agribusiness, enterprise, and employment). As a key area of interest for the African Development Bank, it also highlights recommendations related to infrastructure development (with focus on energy, transport, and water and sanitation). As highlighted in the Beijing report (UNECA, 2014), there is still a need for further investment in women's empowerment programmes across all sectors to realize change in democratic rights and inclusion.

I Support to gender equality in institution-building and political participation

Support gender equality in institutional structures and legislation by strengthening the constitution, approving and implementing laws/policies, instituting key gender units, developing gender indicators and budgets, and supporting public awareness raising on gender equality. The promotion of quotas may be an effective tool for enhancing women's political participation. As highlighted by LAW (2014), for women's voices to be both 'heard and listened to' in male dominated institutions, they really require a 'critical mass' of about 30%. In a strongly patriarchal society, such quotas can enable the development of a culture of women in leadership more efficiently.

II Support to gender and social affairs and justice

Support gender equality in social affairs and justice by facilitating dialogue on SGBV, approving and enacting key legislation and developing legislation in gaps (e.g. domestic violence), supporting prevention and response, increasing the recruitment of women in justice and police sectors and strengthening police

gender units. At a community level, recommendations include providing support to community level social dialogue (with elders and youth leaders), the development of case studies, facilitating access to informal legal justice, and media messaging. As highlighted in the EU Gender Profile, the involvement of men and boys in community campaigns, and in the development of policies and legislation on gender rights and equality, is crucial. Regional lessons learnt on men's engagement should be integrated (Wallacher, 2012).

III Support to gender and education and human capital development

Support education and human capital development by developing national strategies to promote education (for example, provision of subsidies, free primary education), school improvement through Child Education Committees, access to informal and vocational training through mobile units, scholarships for tertiary education, ICT training and school case studies. To support quality education, the integration of creative initiatives for promoting 'cultural, sporting or artistic space' can be effective (Musse and Gardner, 2013). Female employment can be improved by integrating language and technical skills into higher education, including digital literacy (UNESCO, 2019).

IV Improve maternal health

Improve maternal health by operationalizing national health policies and supporting health sector reform for strengthening the quality and availability of health services. Priorities include rehabilitating health sector infrastructure, expanding community outreach efforts, training health personnel, and rolling out health communication campaigns, using radio and mass media for generating health awareness.

V Support women's economic empowerment: business, agribusiness, employment

Support women's economic empowerment by increasing national level awareness raising of 'Women in the Economy' and considering the establishment of employment quotas; and facilitating a National Action Plan for women's employment.

Further priorities include developing a nation wide strategy to establish women's Saving Groups such as Self Help Groups (SHGs) ; facilitating access to micro credit for women / women's groups, and higher loan packages (through commercial providers); facilitating access to BDS; and drafting national strategies to support emerging new skills and sectors, and the participation of women. As highlighted by SEEP (2019), the establishment of savings groups such as SHGs can promote financial inclusion. Governments in Sub-Saharan Africa have now incorporated savings groups for women into their public policies and programming. In linking commercial micro finance facilities to individuals, businesses and groups, lending facilities should extend 'gender friendly rates' to encourage entrepreneurship among women (Musse and Gardner, 2013). In addition, BDS can support efforts to build the capacity of women to run competitive businesses.

VI Support to gender in infrastructure development (energy, transport, WASH)

Improve gender equality in infrastructure development by facilitating women's inclusion in road projects (through PPDP), developing legal standards, and supporting professional training in renewable energies. In addition, supporting WASH projects through community and school development

plans (with diaspora funding), and facilitating access to solar energy products through micro finance schemes can have a positive impact. Female owned initiatives and programmes should be supported financially and technically where possible.

VII Support to gender and social organisation

Support social organization by capacity building of women's civil society organizations, and facilitating community level collective action through SHGs and youth groups. LAW (2014) emphasizes that gender-related advances in Africa have been attributable in large part to the 'strength and persuasive power of their women's organisations'. Furthermore, such movements are most effective when there is cooperation between women CSOs (civil society organisations) and the government.

VIII Support to gender and the environment

Support gender in the environment by developing a National Commission for the Environment with inclusion of women. Further priorities include facilitating appropriate technologies to support fuel consumption, local strategy-making and rangeland management to support sustainable land use, and agricultural innovation. As highlighted by the World Bank (2018), youth and women stand to benefit from the combination of improved water access alongside environmental management and agricultural innovation.

See Appendix 8 for detailed recommendations (including priorities and key actors for interventions).

¹Also known as Village Savings and Lending Associations (VSLAs)

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APPENDIX 1: TERMS OF REFERENCE

The African Development Bank and UN Women are hiring a senior gender expert to prepare Country Gender Profile for Somalia. The Country Gender Profiles are intended to inform development assistance policies and strategies for intensifying impact on gender equality and poverty reduction. The Country Gender Profiles will identify key gender inequalities that constrain inclusive growth, identifying key gaps and challenges in current policies and programs, provide an overview of best practices and recommend strategic actions for addressing gender inequalities. The consultant will undertake the following tasks to prepare the Country Gender Profile:

1. Conduct an in-depth analysis of the political, economic, social and cultural context that affect gender equality framed against national policies and international commitments;
2. Identify key issues affecting the status of women and those hindering their access to resources, opportunities and full participation in social, economic and political spheres;
3. Examine the impact of fragility on gender equality and propose measures for promoting women's rights and voice in conflict resolution and peace building;
4. Assess the institutional capacity of sectorial ministries and other stakeholders to promote gender equality;
5. Evaluate sectoral policies and strategies from a gender perspective and identify gaps and best practices that can be scaled up;
6. Consolidate data on key gender indicators available from existing sources for various sectors;
7. Provide concrete recommendations for accelerating the advancement of gender equality through various sectors including infrastructure development (with focus on energy, transport, and water and sanitation), agribusiness, employment, and human capital development.

Methodology

The methodology will include conducting a desk review, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions with key informants in the countries including representatives from the state, academia and non-governmental organizations. The consultant will undertake a field mission to the country to collect data and hold consultations with the key informants. The consultant will be assisted by one local consultant.

Deliverables

Country Gender Profile paper for Somalia

Note from UN Women, Jan 2019: National reconciliation framework process has started (supported by Finnish Embassy and Finn Church Aid, and useful to consult them)

APPENDIX 2: RESEARCH RESPONDENTS/ RELEVANT GROUPS MET (JAN-MARCH 2019)

	NAME /GROUP	DATE	LOCATION	ORGANISATION /POSITION
1	Sadia Mohamoud Nuur Director of Gender Department	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development (MoWHRD)
2	Minister Abdi Hosh and Kafiya Naleye, Gender Advisor to the Minister	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	Ministry of Constitutional Affairs
3	Yurub Waberi Head of Gender Unit,	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education
6	Nadifa Sheikh Omar Director of Gender and Human rights, Office of the President,	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	Office of the President
7	Noel Kututwa (Women Protection Officer - specialist on women's rights and protection issues in Somalia)	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	UNSOM
8	Analee Pepper (Gender Advisor)	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	UNICEF
9	Hibo Yassin Jirde Executive Director	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	IIDA - Women's Development Organisation
10	Executive Director	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	Somali Gender Equity Movement (SGEM)
11	Zahra Mohamed Ahmed	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	Somali Women Development Organization (SWDC)
12	Asli Duale	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	Women Education & Voicing Entrepreneurship (WEAVE)
13	Zahra Abdikarim Female entrepreneur / tech and gender CEO/Managing Director Bilan Codes	Jan 2019	Mogadishu	SOSTEC & BilanCodes
14	Khadra Mohamed Director of Gender Department	Feb 2019	Hargeisa	The Ministry of Employment, Social Affairs and Family (ME-SAF)
15	Ayan H. Yousuf Abdulahi	Feb 2019	Hargeisa	Ministry of Education, Culture and Science
16	Nafisa Yusuf Mohamed	Feb 2019	Hargeisa	NAGAAD Network
17	Hassan Abdillahi Farah Regional Representative	Feb 2019	Hargeisa	Candle Light NGO
18	Abdulahi Hassan	Feb 2019	Hargeisa	Horn of Africa Vol. (Havoyaco)
19	Luul Jama Director of Gender, Director of Gender Department	Feb 2019	Garowe	Ministry of Women Development & Family Affairs (MOW-DAFA)

	NAME /GROUP	DATE	LOCATION	ORGANISATION/POSITION
20	Halima Abdi Jama Regional Gender Coordinator	Feb 2019	Garowe	Ministry of Education & Higher Education (MOE&HE)
21	Salim Said, Director of Gender Unit/Legal Advisor	Feb 2019	Garowe	Ministry of Justice and Religious Affairs (MoJRAR)
22	Sudi Mahamoud Jama Head of Gender Unit	Feb 2019	Garowe	Ministry of Interior Local Government and Rural Development (MOI)
23	Zainab Ayn, Bari Coordinator/Gender Advisor/Trainer	Feb 2019	Garowe	We are Women Activists (WAWA)
24	Mohamed Dahir Warsame Chairperson	Feb 2019	Garowe	Media Association of Puntland (MAP)
25	Jessica Pellrud Gender Focal Point for Somalia	March 2019	Nairobi	Swedish Embassy
26	Verena Phipps Regional Gender Focal Point	March 2019	Online	World Bank
27	Judith Gardner Somali Gender Specialist	March 2019	Nairobi	Independent Consultant
28	Robert Kluiver Somali Specialist	March 2019	Mogadishu	Academic
29	Abdul Ali	March 2019	Mogadishu	ILO
30	Sam Haj	March 2019	Mogadishu	NetBeins (Be In the Net) (online private media platform)
31	Hodan Ali Hassan CEO	March 2019	Online	MicroDahab
32	Jeremy Wyatt Private investor in solar	March 2019	Nairobi	IFTIIN
33	Focus Group Donor / Aid representatives (8-12)	March 2019	Mogadishu	/
34	Focus Group Donor / Aid representatives (8-12)	March 2019	Mogadishu	/
35	Focus Group Government representatives (8-12)	March 2019	Mogadishu	/
36	Focus Group Women's Business representatives (8-12)	March 2019	Mogadishu	/

APPENDIX 3: SOMALIA: COUNTRY / REGIONAL LEVEL INDICATORS

After years of war and instability, Somalia has some of the world's lowest human development indicators, particularly related to gender, with high levels of poverty and maternal mortality, and low literacy rates. Yet there are regional disparities, with more stable Somaliland and Puntland demonstrating lower levels of poverty, and possible new trends in gender indicators, including higher literacy rates amongst young women. The humanitarian situation has improved since the crisis in 2017 but remains dire (OCHA, 2018), influencing the scope and speed of development, with higher levels of populations in need observed in southern and central areas of Somalia.

As a background to this report, this Appendix provides a brief overview of key country and regional-level indicators, where available. It highlights selected human development indicators at a national and regional level, and then looks more closely at further gender-specific indicators.

A3.1 Key human development indicators and gender

Towards understanding gender and development, it is necessary to appreciate key human development

markers in Somalia. As highlighted in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) 2018 Report, Somalia has extremely low human development indicators, with high poverty rates, poor maternal and child health, low educational participation, social exclusion, and low access to basic services, as highlighted in Figure A3.1.¹⁵² This is attributed to the combination of poor governance, protracted internal conflict, underdevelopment, poverty, social and gender inequality, and environmental degradation. Yet the situation varies across the country, with more positive indicators in particular in the northern regions of Somaliland and Puntland.

In 2012, Somalia's Human Development Index (HDI) value was estimated to be exceedingly low, at 0.285, ranking among the lowest in the world, at 165 out of the 170 countries if included in the 2010 global Human Development Report (UNDP, 2012). The Multi-dimensional Poverty Index for Somalia was 0.47, putting Somalia 94 out of 104 countries in the 2010 global Human Development Report. It was lowest in urban areas (0.30), indicating a rural concentration of poverty (particularly in nomadic areas). Regionally, it was highest in South Central region in Somalia (0.54) compared to Puntland (0.41) and Somaliland (0.38).

Figure A3.1: Selected SDG Indicators in Somalia

Sustainable Development Goals / Selected Indicators (where available)	NATIONAL UN SDG 2018	SOMALI-LAND MICS 2011	PUNT-LAND MICS 2011
SDG1 – END POVERTY			
POVERTY	52.6%	50%** 'North West'	27%** 'North East'
SDG3 – GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING			
HEALTHY LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH (YEARS)	55.4%	/	/
MORTALITY RATE, UNDER-5 (PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS)	132.5	91	/
SDG4 – QUALITY EDUCATION			
NET PRIMARY ENROLMENT RATE (%)	17.3%*	20.6%	16.5%
SDG5 – GENDER EQUALITY			
UNMET DEMAND FOR CONTRACEPTION, ESTIMATED (% WOMEN MARRIED OR IN UNION, AGES 15-49)	50.3%	20.2%	11.4%
SDG6 – CLEAN WATER AND SANITATION			
POPULATION USING AT LEAST BASIC DRINKING WATER SERVICES (%)	40.0%	41.9%	51.9%

National data: SDG Country Report Edition 2018

* UNFPA (2016), ** World Bank (2017)

The current SDG Report 2018 indicates that the national poverty rate is 52.6%, with lower levels of poverty than countries such as Malawi and Mozambique. Recent regional data (World Bank, 2017) indicates that poverty is marginally lower in Somaliland (50%), and lowest in Puntland (27%). In Somaliland, inequality is notably high and poor households are shown to 'face deprivations on many dimensions', particularly in rural areas and are 'vulnerable to economic risks—high food prices and lack of employment' (World Bank, 2015). But there is reported to be a higher level of security in Somaliland compared to central and south Somalia, with 'very few households' indicating that they been affected by conflict in the last 12 months (ibid).

Rapidly growing, the recent UNFPA (2016a) population survey indicates that Somalia has an overall population of 12.3 million (slightly more males (6.2 million) than females (6.1 million)), and has one of the highest fertility rates in the world (6.7 children per woman). Over 75% of Somalia's population is younger than 30 years of age (ibid). According to the UNFPA survey (2016a), a total of 42.4% of the Somali population live in urban centres, followed by those in nomadic settlements (25.9%) and rural settlements (22.8%). An estimated 9% of the total population lives in IDP camps. National life expectancy remains low at 55.4 years (53.7 males and 57.3 females) (WHO 2018).

A3.2 Further gender-specific indicators

In the most recent Human Development Report, gender inequality in Somalia was described as 'alarmingly high' at 0.776 (UNDP, 2012). This put Somalia at the fourth lowest position globally on the Gender Inequality Index (GII). The UNDP report emphasized that women suffered severe exclusion and inequality in 'all dimensions of the index—health, employment and labour market participation', with the persistence of traditional norms and customs.

Figure A3.2 captures basic socio-economic indicators related to gender in Somalia, with existing data.

Current national estimates of maternal mortality indicate that there are approximately 732 deaths per 100,000 live births (UNICEF, 2015). Fertility rates are high nationally, (6.7 children per woman); although figures are indicated to be lower in regions such as Somaliland (5.4 children per woman). Literacy rates remain low, particularly amongst females (36.2%) although higher in Somaliland and Puntland. Harmful traditional practices persist such as (under 15) child marriage (8%) and FGM/C (98%). Labour market participation for women remains low (37%).

Figure A3.2: Key Gender-related Indicators in Somalia

SELECTED GENDER INDICATOR	NATIONAL	SOMALIL- AND (MICS 2011)	PUNTLAND (MICS 2011)
GENDER INEQUALITY (OUT OF 1)	0.776	/	/
MATERNAL MORTALITY RATE (PER 100,000 LIVE BIRTHS)	732.0	/	/
FERTILITY RATE (PER WOMAN)	6.7	5.4	/
ADULT LITERACY RATE (MALE)	43.8%*	/	/
ADULT LITERACY RATE (FEMALE)	36.2%*	44.1% (Of those aged 15-24 yrs)	36.1% (Of those aged 15-24 yrs)
CHILD MARRIAGE RATE (UNDER 15 YEARS)	8%* (Of females aged 20-24 yrs)*	8.7% (Of females aged 15-24 yrs)	12.1% (Of females aged 15-24 yrs)
FGM/C RATE (AGED 15-49 YRS)	98%	99.1%	98%
LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION	37% (F)* 64% (M)*	/	/
FEMALE HEADED HOUSEHOLDS	18.7%	30.6%	31.3%

National sources: UNDP 2012, SDG 2018

* UNFPA (2016)

Gender is indicated to be a 'critical determinant of poverty and access to services' in regions such as Somaliland (World Bank, 2015), with female-headed households common in urban areas, and indicated to be poorer than male-headed households, possibly due to a lack of access to work and services. Nationally however, on average, female-headed households in Somalia are indicated to be less poor (World Bank, 2017).

APPENDIX 4: GENDER AND THE THREE JUDICIAL SYSTEMS IN SOMALIA

	Customary Law 'Xeer'	Sharia law	Secular law
Participation of men and women in its administration	<p>Only elders (men) can administer the Xeer.</p> <p>Women are forbidden from applying 'Xeer' and have a negligible role in developing it. [Note: most pastoralists (men and women) are not familiar with Sharia law & not aware that many customary law provisions are contrary to it]</p>	<p>Requires specialist knowledge.</p> <p>Qadis (judges) are always male and almost always older men.</p> <p>Women are forbidden to participate in courts as Qadis.</p>	<p>Open to men and women to practice. However, just one female judge (Puntland) and few female attorneys practice in Somalia today.</p> <p>Those women who are in legal practice report experiencing institutional discrimination from the male, older generation judges and cultural discrimination by the public many of whom seek male rather than female lawyers.</p> <p>Both young female and male lawyers are discriminated against in a system that favours older male, majority clan actors.</p>
Consideration of men and women	<p>De jure a woman is under the control of men for her entire life. She is not considered an independent legal person and is always under the jurisdiction of a male relative. Her rights are restricted e.g., spouse decides if she may keep her inheritance of property.</p>	<p>Guarantees the basic rights of women: e.g., free to: choose spouse, inherit and own property, share decision-making on household matters. Not barred from participation in social economic and political activities.</p>	<p>Somali Secular Law (1960, 1979 Constitutions, and the current Provincial Constitution) recognizes the equality of all citizens in all aspects of life including politics, salary payments & labour, and education.</p>
Main provisions	<p>Collective, payment & receipt of diya (compensation) for injury, theft, rape, etc. Cultural & moral matters e.g., treatment of peace emissaries socially respected groups domestic violence. Family matters: dowry, widow inheritance, elopement, etc. Socio-economic issues: use & access to resources, e.g., support to married sister or helping the needy.</p>	<p>A comprehensive legal system but as practiced in Somalia its use has been mainly limited to family law. Xeer / customary law is used to punish criminal cases so as to avoid compromising clan reputations.</p>	<p>A comprehensive legal system based on Constitutions founded on the principles of UN Declaration of Human Rights. Women deprived of part of their formerly recognized rights are required to receive 50% of the family income & marriage expenses as part of equality of the sexes. Sets an upper ceiling for bride price.</p>

Source: Adapted from Musse and Gardner (2013)

APPENDIX 5: A SPECIAL LOOK AT GENDER AND SECTOR TRENDS (INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICES)

A5.1 Gender in the infrastructure, construction and transport sectors

Infrastructure and construction are traditional male dominated sectors, but have also been described as 'growth employment' areas (Musse and Gardner, 2013). Women do participate in these sectors but often as 'unskilled' labourers (receiving less pay than their male counterparts). As indicated earlier, there are women in specialist and professional fields such as engineering and architecture, in project management and as directors of firms but these women are in minority to men. In 2016, even at the mid management / operator level for example in mobile plants, machinery, and assemblage, women are greatly in the minority, with just 1% of women employed in these occupations, versus 6.7% of men (UNFPA 2016c).

A fundamental 'enabling' sector for Somalia is the transport sector (roads only available), supporting regional trade and socio-economic activities. After years of war, roads are in poor condition. They suffer poor accessibility due to security constraints. Road access is particularly crucial for IDPs to access livelihood opportunities and additional municipal services (DINA, 2018). In road projects, key factors for consideration include social protection, displacement and the environment (DINA, 2018). Notably, in recovery efforts, labour-intensive methods of road rehabilitation are given consideration to boost local people's involvement, while ensuring good quality works through proper supervision and monitoring' (DINA, 2018), although such informal labour work is usually done by men. In road projects, petty trading tends to proliferate along the route leading to increased livelihood opportunities, often for women. Yet there remain risks of sexual assault for women traders, without local protection measures and a structured environment.

Internationally supported programmes on infrastructure promote the development of Public-Private Partnerships (PPP) in Somalia, with initiatives on-going in Somaliland and Puntland. As Musse and

Gardner (2013) importantly point out, while these remain 'relevant', they are often remain 'obscure' to women entrepreneurs with the lack of women in public agencies and large businesses, further contributing to their exclusion in development and reconstruction programmes. An example was given of interventions in the meat export industry, with a PPP approach. In the region, women tend to play a strong role at lower levels of the livestock value chain as producers and local traders, but are excluded in higher levels with gender analysis lacking in such project approaches.

A5.2 Service sector

The service sector is reported to be the most 'dynamic' part of the economy (UNDP, 2012), and includes various sub sectors from micro-services such as skilled/domestic technicians in urban centres to major business services including telecommunications and mobile banking, and the energy sector. In urban centres, skilled handicraft work (e.g. carpentry, masonry, and metalwork), and technical domestic work (e.g. plumbing, painting and electrical work) remain almost exclusively dominated by men, often from minority clans; but with a dearth of work options, technical work such as leatherworking, hairdressing and butcheries has now been adopted by majority clans too (Musse and Gardner, 2013). The commercial service sector also remains a key provider of health and education services, often by women. Further the hospitality service industry is growing and there is increasing interest by female entrepreneurs, with this subsector highlighted as a strong potential area for the inclusion of women, if (female) training institutes can be established and linked to employment.

Telecommunications, mobile banking and ICTs

A dominant service sector in Somalia is the telecommunications industry, including mobile banking. A major related growth area includes Information Communication Technologies (ICTs), particularly for skilled youth and university graduates. Such digital skills are useful across public

and private domains with particular uptake in urban areas. For example, the company SOSTEC & BilanCodes is building the capacity of young women in computing skills and necessary for tools for innovation and social entrepreneurship. Such initiatives are described to help tackle gender biases when it comes to IT and STEM subjects. The company connects the trainees to public and private recruiters in Somalia. With growing potential opportunities around digital services and learning, ICTs are considered a key facilitator of development (Box 6.3).

Energy sector

As highlighted by a Bank project appraisal report (2018), the energy sector remains informal, and not yet organized or regulated. With limited access to electricity, the majority of Somalis depend on charcoal as a major source of energy. With the high cost of electricity, household electrification is low (16% of households (AfDB, 2015). Traditionally, the energy sector is male-dominated. A few diaspora and educated women are now in export trading, and non-elite women are reported to be slowly entering the sector, but they tend to 'concentrate on the less lucrative [parts of the value chain], such as the retail of petroleum products and this is at a micro level' (the Bank, 2018). To aid in the formalisation of the sector, the Bank is providing technical assistance for the establishment of the Somali Electrical Institute, with gendered dimensions including legislation to support women's participation in the sector and support for women's professional training through educational institutions. At a local level, they aim to engage with women's SHGs/VSLAs to better understand women's community energy businesses (AfDB, 2018).

There is increasing interest in renewable energy technologies, in particular solar Photovoltaic (PV), as an alternative to diesel generation (ILO, 2016),

although the sector still remains 'aspirational'.

According to recent research, Somalia still lacks relevant technical skills, particularly related to planning and design and installation, as well as operations and maintenance (ILO, 2016). There is also a lack of regulatory frameworks for health and safety to certify electricians (ibid). Further the business environment itself warrants attention. While the private sector in Somalia has been shown to be resilient, its growth has been held back by a 'non-conducive business environment and limited engagement between the business sector and the government' (AfDB, 2018). The renewable energies sector is still nascent and thus gender dynamics are not yet entrenched, providing an opportunity to minimise potential gender disparities 'from the outset' (ILO, 2016), although physical requirements (e.g. in installation) are argued to create gender barriers .

In Somalia, both wind and solar energy are of interest. There is increasing donor interest in exploring the development of the renewable energy sector through public private partnerships, with a development emphasis , with the rise of grid-scale renewable energy projects as well as off-grid and micro-grid installations such as solar PV and Solar Home Systems in neighbouring markets (ILO, 2018). With an interest in gender empowerment, there is also an emphasis on prioritising the potential role of women in the renewable energy sector through relevant skills development (ILO, 2018). Independent enterprises are starting to be established, including by female entrepreneurs. Set up by a young female Somali-American entrepreneur in 2016 , Samawat energy aims to provide access to energy in Somalia through innovative off-grid solar home systems, using micro-leasing to 'rent-to-own' home facilities. The company has been commended for its concept but still remains in its infancy (with less than 10 employees).

APPENDIX 6: EMPLOYMENT-RELATED PROGRAMMES IN SOMALIA BY DEVELOPMENT PARTNERS (NEP 2019)

PROGRAMME TITLE, YEAR(S)	IMPLEMENTING AGENCY(S)	TARGET GROUPS	GEOGRAPHICAL AREA(S)	FUNDING SOURCE(S)	SECTORS COVERED
YOUTH EMPLOYMENT SOMALIA (YES) 2015-2018	FAO HABITAT ILO UNDP UNIDO	Vulnerable youth & women, larger population of the regions	Banadir, Jubaland, Puntland, Somaliland.	-SIDA -DANIDA -Italian Agency for Development Cooperation - Swiss Agency for Development Cooperation - UN Peacebuilding Fund	Fisheries, Renewables, Construction and capacity building
AGROTECH	UNIDO	MSMEs	South and Centre Somalia	- AICS	Agro-industries
PROMOTING INCLUSIVE MARKETS IN SOMALIA (PIMS)	DAI Europe Limited	Men, Women and Youth	South-central Somalia, Puntland, Somaliland In particular: Banadir, Galmudug, Hiirshabelle, Jubaland, Puntland, South West, Somaliland	DFID	Livestock Production (including dairy), Fisheries, Poultry and Crop Production (including sesame)
YES/DALDHIS	UNDP	Youth and Women and larger population	South West and Jubaland (Kismaayo and Baidoa)	UN Peacebuilding Fund	Targeting of vulnerable groups (youth, women, IDPs), Public Works and Infrastructure
SOCIAL PROTECTION	UNICEF WFP MoLSA	Most Vulnerable Women and Youth	Banadir Hirshebbelle Galmudug Jubaland Puntland	Italian Agency for Development Cooperation	
CAPACITY BUILDING AND JOB CREATION PROJECT	UN-HABITAT MPWRH	Youth Skill and employment	Garowe, Kismayo and Mogadishu	African Development Bank.	Somali youth
GEL PROJECT	GEIMOAI	Farmers & Industries	National	GEI	Value chain development
SOMALIA ELECTRIFICATION INSTITUTE	Ministry of Energy and Water Resources Ministry of Finance	Women, youth and the private sector	National	African Development Bank	Development of Capacity Building Framework Skills Training and Energy Data- base Management Empowerment of Women in the Electricity Sector
REHABILITATION OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN SOMALIA (2018-22)	Ministries of Labour and Education (FGS), Ministry of Education (Somaliland)	Youth, Training institutions	Somali Federal Government, Puntland, Jubaland, Somaliland	German Federal Ministry for Economic Co-operation and Development (BMZ), European Union (EU)	Overall TVET system
PROMOTION OF RESILIENCE THROUGH IMPROVED LIVESTOCK FARMING AND AGRICULTURE SOMALILAND (2016-20)	Ministries of Livestock and Agriculture (Somaliland)	Communities in the Saaxil region	Saaxil, Somaliland	German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)	Livestock and dairy value chain improvement, crop production.
IMPROVED FOOD SECURITY THROUGH ACCESS TO FISH PRODUCTS IN KISMAYO (2017-21)	Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development	Ministry of Fisheries, Returning refugees, IDPs, host communities	Kismayo	German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)	Fisheries, Health, Information, Communication and Technology

APPENDIX 7: GENDER EQUALITY AND INCLUSION IN SOMALIA – A SWOT ANALYSIS

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<p>General</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New consciousness around importance of gender equality, and increasing energy around women's movement, including Women's Charter (April 2019) • National Gender Policies drafted in all regions • Government gender champions – MoWHRD (FGS), and MoWDAFA (PUNTLAND) with Gender Management System (GMS) and gender mainstreaming tool • New key rights bills / acts: Sexual Offences Bill, FGM Bill • New Human Rights Commission Law (FGS) • (FGS) Tangible progress in legislation (but still awaiting approval). • (PUNTLAND) General all-round sense of progress if slow – different to other regions. Increasing openness to gender issues, including with elders and religious leaders. Men being included and more receptive to campaigns and advocacy • (PUNTLAND and SOMALILAND) Accessibility and potential for outreach into rural and remote areas • (SOMALILAND) Increasing investor and donor interest • New information / surveys such as World Bank/UN (2017); UNFPA (2016) surveys on population, education, economy; and Somaliland Gender Gap (2019). • Diaspora remittances, particularly middle class (women) • Interest by diaspora in supporting local community level development (e.g. in Somaliland, with NGO links) <p>Gender and political power</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 30% quota enacted in FGS and Puntland, 25% in Somaliland Gender and justice • GBV Working Group, Rape Hotline • Gender Units at selected police stations • (PUNTLAND) New forensic facility <p>Gender and education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional Educational Strategy (ESSP) • (PUNTLAND) Ministry of Education has engaged in affirmative action in promoting girls in school • (SOMALILAND) Free primary education • Increasing participation in primary school by girls, and increasing sensitivity to girls needs (especially PUNTLAND) <p>Maternal health (and WASH)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Somali Health Policy (all regions) <p>Gender and work</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Economic Empowerment Strategy and NEP (2019) • Women in informal economy (70%), and in medium/large enterprises – perhaps 60% owners in business sector • Women in public sectors such as the police force • (PUNTLAND) Women Business Association • (PUNTLAND) Public debate and campaigns including for education, Women's day, 16 days of activism <p>Gender and networks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (PUNTLAND/SOMALILAND) Increasing women's movement, including networks such as WAWA, and journalist and media • Advocacy organizations such as NAGAAD (SOMALILAND) • Women's religious groups (Suhul Kheir) 	<p>General</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of implementation / political will to push agenda forward • (PUNTLAND and SOMALILAND) National Gender Policies (2010-11) remain aspirational with little follow up - lack of Gender Units, gender measurement frameworks and indicators and budgeting. • Lack of campaigns and public dissemination of gender policies • Lack of technical and financial resources • Lack of comprehensive updated nation-wide data, with disaggregation by region, gender, social group • General lack of awareness raising / campaigning on importance of gender equality within government and in public domain – low strategic use of media • Lack of affirmative action to support IDPs and excluded groups including disabled, minority clans <p>Gender and political power</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of government support for realising quotas and for women's inclusion, with access to resources and lack of social networks a major barrier for women • (SOMALILAND) Slow change in approval of legislation – 'no tangible difference since 2014' <p>Gender and justice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of functional/adequate Gender Units in police stations • Lack of legal knowledge at community level, and (informal) legal support <p>Gender and education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mixed capacities of ministries • Lack of rigorous education campaign across the regions, and lack of incentives / subsidies for vulnerable groups • Lack of civic education and rights Maternal health (and WASH) • Low capacity of ministry, with limited resources, and poor data • Lack of investment in facilities and lack of national campaigning for use • Lack of awareness on importance of maternal health, and communications <p>Gender and work</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General lack of awareness raising campaigning on importance of gender equality in economy <p>Gender and networks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of united women's movement

OPPORTUNITIES

General

- A Nation-wide awareness raising campaigning on importance of gender equality for state building and peace, and dissemination of NGP
- Recording of best practices, role models and story-telling in gender equality for use in all of Somalia
- Internal government capacity building on gender equality and inclusion
- Raising funds from diaspora to support government technical and financial resources
- Support for long term support gender and development and shift away from short term funding cycles and low impact
- Introduction of new technologies e.g. renewable energies Gender and political power
- Develop affirmative action strategies to support realisation of women's quota, with support of diaspora (finances)

Gender and justice

- Support training of female lawyers, and judges
- Support training of female religious judges in Islamic courts
- Support civic education – at community and school level
- Establishment of functional Gender Units in key police stations
- Training of community members as paralegals

Gender and education

- Free primary education in all regions, compulsory participation with involvement of community leaders if children are caught out of school (lessons from Kenya)
- Nation-wide 'Education for All' campaign
- Develop lesson learning and sharing for improving educational delivery (PUNTLAND lead)
- Support subsidies / incentives for pastoralists and IDPs – perhaps link with diaspora through community committees

Maternal health (and WASH)

- Support major investment in services for women and children through health posts, and link with major nation-wide campaign
- Conduct nation-wide survey for updated data
- With UNICEF, develop radio and community level material for maternal health promotion, and promote service participation.

Gender and work

- Nation-wide 'Women in Work' campaign
- Support vocational training centres
- Support further development of commercial finances for women's business, and BDS
- Support linkage between recruitment agencies and employers
- Affirmative action for public sector hiring of women, youth
- Support women's skills development in ICTs, renewable energies and hospitality sectors
- Support establishment of PPDPs with women's businesses

Gender and networks

- Support development of women's organisations in civil society, and women's union
- Support development of women's business associations, and representation in Chamber of Commerce

WEAKNESSES

General

- Patriarchal system where power, control and resource distribution is determined by men
- Corruption and lack of transparency
- Lack of government outreach and control - insecurity and conflict (South Central) and Al Shabaab threats to women working - especially with foreigners
- High levels of household poverty, with lack of social protection for poorest
- Environmental degradation and climate change – increasing frequency of drought with major rural displacement, threats of famine, lack of access to water/fuel – impact on women/girls

Gender and political power

- Dominance by (male) elders – exclusion of women, youth
- Persistence of differing legal systems - customary law (Xeer), religious law (Sharia) and secular laws – with traditional governance structure overriding state laws and policies

Gender and justice

- Traditional clan mediation system for GBV protecting and shielding men
- Intimidation of victim/victim's family

Gender and education

- Poor access to services due to insecurity / displacement
- Low value for girls' education
- Generational clashes (mother and daughters) / low education of mother
- Lack of resources inhibiting participation IDPs, minority groups

Maternal health (and WASH)

- Low appreciation for maternal health services
- Poor access to services due to insecurity / displacement
- Social norms related to maternal health (decision-making with husbands)

Gender and work

- Government system dominated by men with women preferring to work in private sector or CSOs
- Insecurity influencing conservatism (e.g. Mogadishu) and women's participation in work

General and networks

- Distrust and fighting between women
- Lack of access to resources

APPENDIX 8 : RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROMOTING GENDER EQUALITY AND INCLUSION IN SOMALIA

I Support to gender equality in institution-building and political participation

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT GENDER EQUALITY IN FORMAL INSTITUTIONS AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS (FGS)
<p>1.1 Gender related amendments to Provisional Constitution (FGS)</p> <p>As recommended by LAW (2014), in the drafting of the revised Provisional Constitution, amendments should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Articulation of gender quotas, <input type="checkbox"/> An insertion of rights that address specific gender issues, <input type="checkbox"/> Provisions on the interpretation of rights, <input type="checkbox"/> The responsibility of the State to provide certain rights, <input type="checkbox"/> Provisions on the relationship of the constitution with customary law, Sharia law, and international law, <input type="checkbox"/> Establishment of a Gender Commission and the implementation of gender equality within the Truth and Reconciliation process (also highlighted by the 2019 <i>Women's Charter</i>). 	HIGH	GOVT
<p>30% minimum quota for women's political participation</p> <p>Through affirmative action, support the participation of women, and strategies to garner support/resources.</p>	HIGH	GOVT
<p>1.3 Gender rights training in government structures</p> <p>Support internal capacity building on gender, rights and development as fundamental pillars to state building and peace (building on existing initiatives)</p>	HIGH	GOVT
<p>1.4 Human Rights Commission</p> <p>Support the implementation of the <i>Human Rights Commission</i>, and the development of task forces. Support the government accountability to its citizens through both awareness of human rights, and the annual <i>National Human Rights</i> report (UNECA, 2014)</p>	HIGH	MoWHRD
<p>1.5 National Gender Policy</p> <p>Facilitate the development of <i>Action Plans</i> to support the implementation of the (updated) NGPs in each region. Develop strategic affirmative government action with relevant line ministries, and include target groups such as women, and minority groups (including the disabled).</p>	MEDIUM	MoWHRD
<p>1.6 Gender mainstreaming in government structures</p> <p>Facilitate the establishment of Gender Units, and/or technical focal points in key line ministries</p>	HIGH	GOVT
<p>1.7 Gender Budgeting, and indicators</p> <p>Facilitate gender budgeting in different line ministries through the development of guidelines, and support the drafting of gender-specific indicators. Ministry budgets should be externally assessed for their responsiveness to gender issues.¹</p>	HIGH	MoWHRD
<p>1.8 National awareness raising on gender equality and rights</p> <p>Support national, and regional level awareness raising related to gender equality in the Constitution and National Gender Policies with NGO and CSO partners</p>	MEDIUM	GOVT NGOS / CSOS

II Support to gender and social Affairs and justice

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT GENDER EQUALITY IN SOCIAL AFFAIRS AND JUSTICE	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS (FGS)
2.1 National level		
2.1.1 National multi level dialogue on GBV (SGBV) Facilitate urgent national level dialogue on GBV (initially SGBV as priority action area), with regional and sub-regional parallel campaigns – with community level and school outreach, and action.	VERY HIGH	GOVT
2.1.2 GBV legislation, and action Support the approval and enactment of <i>FGM Bill</i> , and <i>Sexual Offences Bill</i> in Somalia, and implementation of <i>NAP</i>	HIGH	GOVT
Support the development of <i>Family Law</i> in all regions, with the inclusion of a minimum age of marriage (18), and clear joint consent in all regions	HIGH	MoWHRD
Support the development of legislation on domestic violence in all regions	HIGH	MoWHRD
2.1.3 GBV prevention and response - mobile forensic centres Support strategies in prevention and response, in particular through the further development of basic forensic centres (or <i>mobile units</i>), linked to the main Puntland forensic facility	HIGH-ME-DIUM	MoWHRD
2.1.4 Recruitment of women in justice, and police sector Support the recruitment of female lawyers and judges, and police officers – with possibilities for internships and mentorship programmes	MEDIUM	GOVT
2.1.5 Gender equality in Sharia law To strengthen women's justice in Islamic courts and the streamlining of an interpretation of Sharia rules with principles of gender equality, support the appointment of females as judges (LAW, 2014)	MEDIUM	Gov
2.1.6 Establishment and training of Gender Units at police stations Support the training of police Gender Units and cross-unit exchange and best practices, with model police stations highlighted. Consider national award scheme.	MEDIUM	GOVT
2.1.7 'Safe use of khat' National Health Campaign With Ministry of Health, develop guidelines on safe use of <i>khat</i> , and formulate local campaigns that spread awareness of the effects of <i>khat</i> on men's health, their families and their community. Consider incorporating religious teaching on addictive substances (Koran).	MEDIUM	GOVT / MOH
2.2 Community level		
2.2.1 Local social dialogue and advocacy with youth GBV leaders Encourage NGOs to work local charismatic leaders (men, women and YOUTH leaders), and religious clerics that can slowly champion and promote new community attitudes and beliefs regarding GBV and harmful traditional practices and the importance of a safe community environment through social dialogue (e.g. CARE NGO), drawing on notions of shame and/or verses from the Koran, and a more holistic perspective of family well-being (Gardner and El-Bushra, 2016).	HIGH	NGOS
2.2.2 Community case studies for national promotion Where communities have indicated progressive change, document process and use video and radio material nationally for learning, debate and dialogue.	MEDIUM	Gov NGOS
2.2.3 Access to informal legal justice points at community level Encourage NGOs to support the development of paralegals at community level through training of strong women (on legal processes related to family, inheritance, rights)	MEDIUM	NGOs
2.2.4 National/regional radio messaging and dramas Identify local radio stations, and support FGM/C, health and rights messaging. Consider the development of radio shows that integrate key social messages into a pastoralist-oriented drama (drawing on lessons from CARE Ethiopia). Promote the show through local community mobilization.	MEDIUM	NGOS GOVT

III Support to education and human capital development

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT EDUCATION AND HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS
<p>3.1 Participation in primary and secondary education</p> <p>Develop major NATIONAL-LEVEL campaign to promote ‘education for all’, with encouragement of children’s early enrolment. Work towards free primary school in Puntland and in south central through FGS, through government grants if needed to private actors. Consider subsidies for pastoralist and IDP girls (school books and sanitary pads), and family incentives (e.g. food items) for very poor families (e.g. through donors UNICEF). Consider scholarships for secondary level. Lobby for urban boarding facilities for secondary.</p>	HIGH	MOE NGOS
<p>3.2 Quality primary and secondary education</p> <p>Develop civic education in schools to support learning on gender rights, and protection. Support school improvement plans through community-led school assessment for example through <i>Child Education Committees</i> (CECs) such as those facilitated by the NGO CARE, and the development of girl friendly and creative spaces. Consider government grants for school improvement projects, or drawing on diaspora links.</p>	HIGH	MOE
<p>3.3 Women’s/ minority group access to informal and vocational education</p> <p>Support local access to and participation in informal and vocational training for women, possibly through mobile units. For (early) dropout girls facilitate access to basic literacy/numeracy courses, alongside vocational training.</p>	MEDIUM	MOE NGOS
<p>3.4 Women’s / minority group access to tertiary education</p> <p>Support local access to and participation in tertiary education for women through scholarship schemes, particularly in legal training or STEM subjects.¹ Support links to employers in internship and exchange programmes, and facilitate complementary language/ICT training.</p>	MEDIUM	MOE NGOS
<p>3.5 Women’s / minority group training in ICTs and coding</p> <p>Support women’s skills in coding and ICTs through dedicated urban facilities with support to ENGLISH language, and links to employers.</p>	MEDIUM	MOE
<p>3.6 Develop school case studies for national promotion</p> <p>Where schools or regions have indicated progressive change in education (such as Puntland), document process and use video and radio material nationally for cross regional learning, debate and dialogue</p>	MEDIUM	MOE

IV Support to maternal health

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT MATERNAL HEALTH	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS
<p>4.1 Development national strategic action plans for promoting maternal health</p> <p>In coordination with key donors (e.g. UNICEF), develop <i>Strategic Action Plans</i> to support the development and promotion of maternal health (linked to the <i>Somali Health Policy</i>).</p>	HIGH	MOH
<p>4.2 Rehabilitating and improving health sector infrastructure</p> <p>Invest in local clinics to ensure that they meet the ‘special needs of women and girls’, with diaspora support.</p>	HIGH	MOH DONORS
<p>4.3 Access to, and use of health services and information (maternal health and family planning)</p> <p>Support women’s awareness of maternal health through national campaigns. As highlighted by UNICEF (2018), the use of maternal and child services can be particularly boosted by community-based communication approaches, coupled with radio and mass media campaigns have been successful in influencing behaviour.</p>	HIGH	MOH NGOS

V Support to gender in the economy: business, agribusiness, employment

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT GENDER IN THE ECONOMY	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS
<p>5.1 National level awareness raising 'Women in the economy', and quotas</p> <p>Support national, regional level awareness raising related to women in the economy, and explore the potential of employment quotas for women in public offices</p>	HIGH	MOLSA
<p>5.2 Gender Action Plan linked to National Employment Policy (NEP) and Gender Economic Empowerment Policy (GEEP)</p> <p>Support the development of an <i>Action Plan</i> to promote women's employment and business engagement, linked to the NEP and GEEP</p>	MEDIUM	MOLSA MOWHRD
<p>5.3 Women's SHGs in rural areas</p> <p>Support a government nation-wide strategy for the development of SHGs as innovative micro savings and lending bodies and platforms for enterprise at the community/location level. Draw on lessons learnt from CARE and in the region (SEEP, 2018)</p>	HIGH	MOLSA MOWHRD
<p>5.4 Women's cooperatives and agricultural skills development in agro-pastoralist areas</p> <p>Through SHGs, support the development of agricultural cooperatives with access to key extension services. Through cooperatives, support the joint ownership of agricultural assets, facilitate access to input purchases, and encourage the joint marketing of premium produce. To strengthen the cooperative, agencies should facilitate training on organizational management, and the development of systems for joint input supply and marketing. Draw on lessons learnt in Sub Saharan Africa (SEEP, 2018)</p>	MEDIUM	MOLSA MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE
<p>5.5 Access to credit for women / women groups, and BDS</p> <p>Support women's access to commercial micro credit (e.g. Micro Dahab), and higher level loans through bank schemes, and group loan packages through SHGs. Support clear policy and regulatory mechanism for micro-finance institutions to 'enable and promote women's access to and benefit from microfinance' (UNECA, 2014). Support complementary BDS to strengthen women's businesses.</p>	HIGH	MINISTRY OF FINANCE
<p>5.6 Strategies in emerging new skills and sectors</p> <p>Support the development of national strategies in renewable energies, ICTs and hospitality industry, through dedicated institutes and outreach mobile training units – with clear gender targets</p>	MEDIUM	MOLSA

VI Support to gender in infrastructure development (energy, transport, WASH)

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT GENDER IN INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS
<p>6.1 National</p>		
<p>6.1.1 Road projects</p> <p>Support PPDP for road projects, with inclusion of daily labour for women through SHGs (where available), establishment of roadside women's markets, and prioritise contracts with female owned companies with technical support</p>	HIGH	Gov
<p>6.1.2 Legal risk standards development</p> <p>Support the development of standards for road projects, with protection and inclusion of female labourers</p>	MEDIUM	GOV WORLD BANK AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK
<p>6.1.3 Professional training in renewable energies for women</p> <p>Support professional training in solar technology, with priority for women</p>	MEDIUM	GOV AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK
<p>6.2 Community</p>		
<p>6.2.1 Access to WASH in communities and schools</p> <p>Support the development of community and school water storage tanks and rainwater harvesting with solar technology, through community and school plan schemes, with links to diaspora finance / remittances</p>	HIGH	NGOS
<p>6.2.2 Use of renewable energies</p> <p>Drawing on Kenyan scheme (m-kopa¹), support access to solar energy products through SHGs and links to micro finance groups (Micro Dahab)</p>	MEDIUM	GOV NGOS MFIS

VII Support to gender and social organisation

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT GENDER AND SOCIAL ORGANISATION	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS
7.1 National		
7.1.1 Women's civil society organisations, rights and peace and dialogue Support the capacity building of women's organisations and civil society - including for peace, human rights violations and development - with diaspora funding, and donor support, and facilitate national dialogue with the government. Facilitate regional research on women's organisations and civil society to better understand achievements and constraints.	HIGH	GOV NGOS
7.2 Community		
7.2.1 Women's peace building and community action through SHGs Support the further development of SHGs as crucial women's empowerment and community development bodies. In addition to savings/lending training, facilitate leadership and peace training, foster ties between groups for higher-level collective action, and facilitate links to external services (legal and financial).	MEDIUM	GOV NGOS
7.2.2 Insecurity in the environment To minimize insecurity and the impact on women's mobility, support communal initiatives such as civil involvement in peace and conflict resolution (Musse and Gardner 2013)	MEDIUM	NGOS
7.2.3 Youth groups - community level savings and collective action Support the development of youth savings groups (under 20 years) as young men and women's empowerment bodies that can start saving, and engage in social dialogue and action, affiliated to schools. They can also initiate productive, voluntary and self-help tasks.	MEDIUM	NGOS

VIII Support to gender and the environment

RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUPPORT GENDER AND THE ENVIRONMENT	PRIORITY	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS
8.1 National		
8.1.1 National Commission for the Environment Support the development of a <i>National Commission for the Protection of the Environment</i> , with inclusion of women/women's groups, and possible access to land loans (UNECA, 2014)	HIGH	GOV
8.2 Community		
8.2.1 Introduction to appropriate technologies to support fuel consumption Consider the promotion of improved cook stoves that reduce fuel needs. Formulate a strategy for their production and distribution using market mechanisms (i.e. working with local town craftsmen).	MEDIUM	GOV NGOS
8.2.2 Local strategy-making and rangeland management At a local level, strengthen pastoralist rangeland management bodies, and the development of viable migration strategies with local men and women involving the local government where relevant (draw on regional lessons learnt e.g. pastoralists in Kenya/Isiolo).	MEDIUM	GOV NGOS
8.2.3 Innovations in agriculture, including irrigation, and mechanisation At a local level, facilitate the introduction of agricultural technologies, including irrigation schemes, access to mechanisation and storage (draw on regional lessons from Ethiopia and Kenya).	MEDIUM	GOV NGOS

ENDNOTES

1. Child marriage, or early marriage, is any marriage where at least one of the parties is under 18 years of age. Forced marriages are marriages in which one and/or both parties have not personally expressed their full and free consent to the union. A child marriage is considered to be a form of forced marriage, given that one and/or both parties have not expressed full, free and informed consent. (<https://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Women/WRGS/Pages/ChildMarriage.aspx>)
2. The head of the household is one of the members of the household recognised as the head of the unit by the other members of the household unit or by himself (or herself) if living alone (<https://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=1210>)
3. Somalia remains at the bottom of the list of the world's fragile states, ranking just above South Sudan in 2018 (<https://fundforpeace.org/fsi/wp-content/uploads/2018/04/951181805-Fragile-States-Index-Annual-Report-2018.pdf>).
4. Within the South Central region, further administrations have also recently been established. This includes the South West State (2014), Jubbaland (2015), as well as other sub-government structures including the Galmudug Interim Administration (2015), and HirShabelle (2016) (UNSOM 2018).
5. While the two regions are generally more stable, boundary disputes persist between them, and in 2018 indicated further serious risks of escalation (<https://www.crisisgroup.org/africa/horn-africa/somaliland/141-averting-war-northern-somalia>). Notably, unlike its neighbour Somaliland, Puntland does not seek recognition as an independent entity, but instead envisages eventually being part of a federal united Somalia (OCHA, 2012).
6. <https://www.unhcr.org/somalia.html>
7. In particular, the EU report (2013) explored gender issues using the framework of the five pillars of the New Deal approach, and was instrumental in unpacking dynamics related to conflict, and clan, religion and culture.
8. This includes Ritchie (2017), and a series of country/regional surveys under the think tank SIDRA (2016-2017).
9. <http://riftvalley.net/publication/continuity-and-change-somalia#.XDb84S17EWo>
10. In particular in south central, security is a major issue with community level fieldwork inhibited by access.
11. HIV AIDS prevalence is estimated to be fairly low in Somalia, at 0.1% of adults aged 15-49 years, (WHO 2017), Accessed at <http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.22500?lang=en>
12. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
13. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
14. For example, in the formulation of the National Employment policy, 'very few people had heard of the National Gender Policy and even fewer had actually read it' (NEP 2019).
15. This was highlighted in earlier NAGAAD publications such as NAGAAD (2010).
16. Somalia Transitional Federal Government and African Union Mission in Somalia, Draft Somali National Gender Policy 2013, <http://amisom-au.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/EASY-TO-READ-GUIDE-GENDER-POLICY.pdf>.
17. Ideally this should also query the proportion of those in decision making levels (comments by UN Women, May 2019).
18. Although more difficult to track, a better indicator would have been the number of people reached through sensitization campaigns (comments by UN Women, May 2019).
19. Comments by UN Women, May 2019.
20. Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA, Jan 2019
21. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
22. It is reported to have been drafted by AMISOM, with little government consultation and ownership.
23. United States State Department (USSD) 'Country Report on Human Rights Practices for 2016', published on 3 March 2017 in UK Home Office (2018)
24. The Somali Religious Council released a press statement warning the government against advocating for women in politics, calling the 30% quota for women's seats in parliament 'dangerous' and against Islamic religious tenets and predicting the policy would lead to disintegration of the family (USSD, 2016).

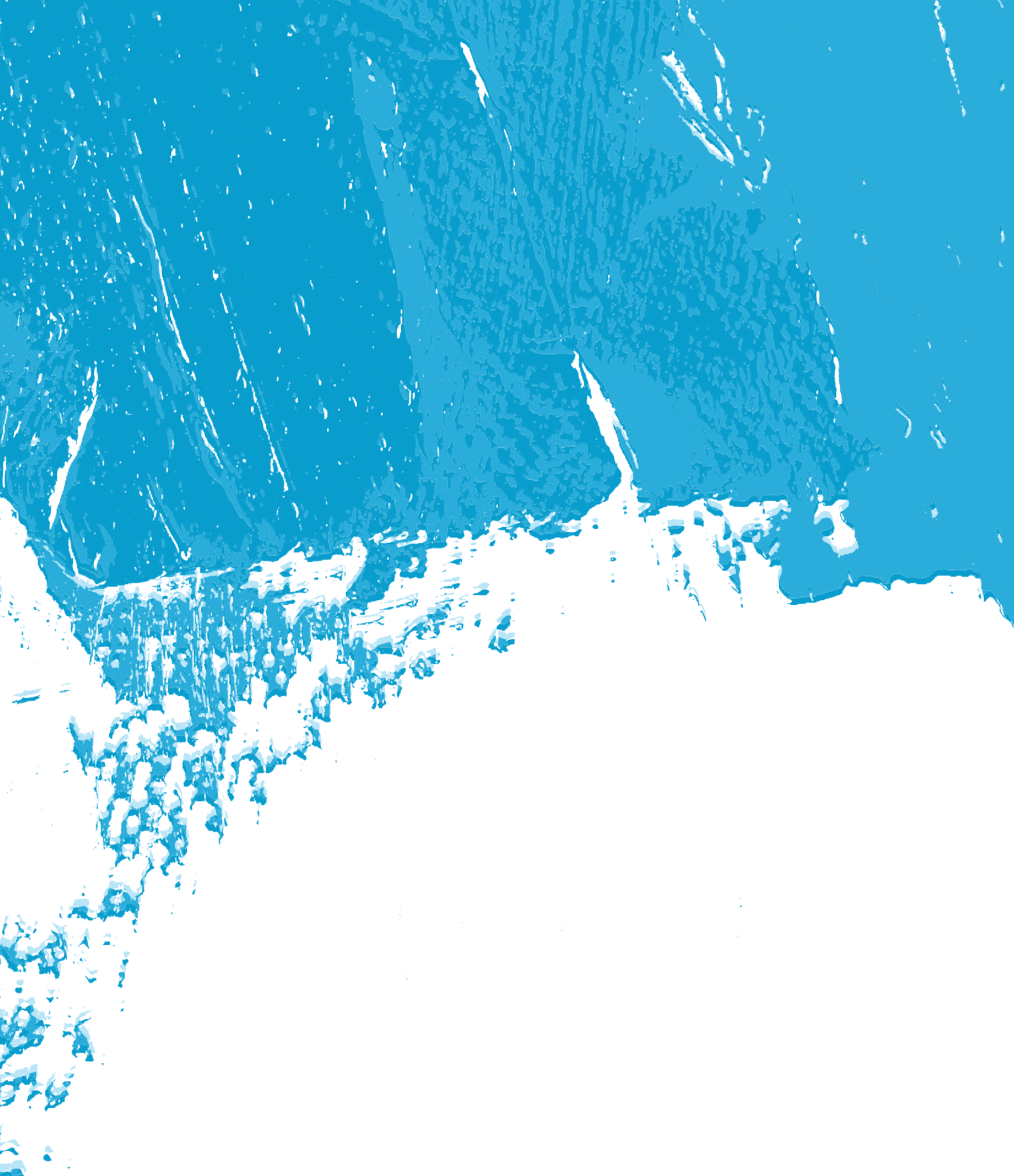
25. Key informant interview with Ministry of Constitutional Affairs, FGS Jan 2019
26. <https://ijrcenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/Somalia.pdf>
27. The Beijing Declaration and the Platform for Action, adopted unanimously by 189 countries, sets an agenda for women's empowerment and is considered a key global policy document on gender equality (<https://www.unfpa.org/events/fourth-world-conference-women>)
28. <http://africa.unwomen.org/en/about-us/about-un-women>
29. As discussed by UNDP. https://jobs.undp.org/cj_view_job.cfm?cur_job_id=70163
30. As discussed by UNDP. https://jobs.undp.org/cj_view_job.cfm?cur_job_id=70163
31. Key informant interview with SWDC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019
32. Doctoral research is ongoing, and is exploring nuances around women's political participation in Somalia, Koshin (2018).
33. <http://www.so.undp.org/content/somalia/en/home/presscenter/articles/somalia-increases-peacebuilding-efforts-with-launch-of-2019-un-p.html>
34. Minister of Women and Human Rights development, and Minister of Public Works and Reconstruction)
35. This had initially been brought into law in 2007, with a presidential decree that required all public institutions to ensure a 30% representation of women. This was later incorporated into the Garowe II agreement in 2012 (UNECA, 2014).
36. Within FGS, various quotas have now been established for example in South West state and Jubaland.
37. <https://issafrica.org/iss-today/women-claim-their-place-in-somalias-politics>
38. This was the first time that a woman had run for the presidency in Somalia (Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA).
39. Key informant interview with Gender Unit, Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education, Jan 2019
40. <https://www.garoweonline.com/en/news/puntland/somalia-new-puntland-president-appoints-leaner-cabinet>
41. <https://blogs.ucl.ac.uk/dpublog/2017/02/20/womens-political-participation-somaliland/>
42. Key informant interview with HAVOYAVO, Hargeisa, Feb 2019
43. Key informant interview with Founder, SGEM, Jan 2019
44. Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA, Jan 2019.
45. Key informant interview with Candlelight, Hargeisa, Feb 2019
46. Key informant interview with Gender Advisor, Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs, Hargeisa, Feb 2019
47. Key informant interview with MoWHRD, Jan 2019
48. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
49. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
50. Some believe that 'gender' means to 'overthrow men' (Key informant interview with SWDC, as well as WEAVE Mogadishu, Jan 2019)
51. Key informant interview with SWDC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019
52. 'Women In Politics 2019 Map' UN Women. <http://www.unwomen.org/-/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/library/publications/2019/women-in-politics-2019-map-en.pdf?la=en&vs=3303>
53. In revising electoral models and related work-plans, the FGS and international partners such as UNSOM, IIDA suggests that women civil society organization should be consulted and included to work towards gender equity (Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA, Jan 2019)
54. Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA, Jan 2019.
55. Key informant interview with WEAVE, Jan 2019
56. Organisations such as WEAVE have been able to engage elders and seek their blessings and support for

- political participation of women.
57. Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA, Jan 2019.
 58. Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA, Jan 2019.
 59. Key informant interview with WAWA, Garowe, Feb 2019
 60. Key informant interview with MoWDAFA, Feb 2019
 61. Key informant interview with Ministry of Education, Feb 2019
 62. Key informant interview with MoWHRD, Jan 2019
 63. Key informant interview with WEAVE, Jan 2019
 64. This sentiment was emphasised in Hargeisa by Candlelight, Feb 2019
 65. Key informant interview with SODEN, Jan 2019
 66. This section draws on consultant (qualitative) research and insights in a report on gender, norms and pastoralism in Somaliland (Ritchie 2017).
 67. https://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/country_profiles/Somalia/FGMC_SOM.pdf
 68. Early marriage puts girls at risk of domestic violence, forced sexual relations, reduced levels of sexual and reproductive health, and lower levels of education (Save the Children 2004). Children born to teenage mothers are more likely to be premature, have a low birth weight and are 50% more likely to die in the first year as compared to children born to women in their twenties
 69. <http://www.legalactionworldwide.org/somalia-2/> More recent figures were not available on various websites.
 70. https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/mid_year_report_jan_june_2018.pdf
 71. Key informant interview with Founder, SGEM, Jan 2019
 72. See also Johns Hopkins (2018)
 73. With respect to IDPs and minority groups, the Ministry of Interior and Federalism leads in this thematic area, while the Ministry of National Security, Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development, and Ministry of Justice and Office of the Prime Minister are described to have supportive roles (MoWHRD Action Plan 2015-16).
 74. The Penal Code classifies sexual violence as an “offence against modesty and sexual honor” rather than as a violation of bodily integrity (<https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2019/country-chapters/somalia#d30335>)
 75. LOGICA (2013: 9) in SIGI (2019)
 76. The Puntland Legal Aid Centre is supported by UNDP support under the UN Joint Rule of Law Programme. <http://www.so.undp.org/content/somalia/en/home/ourwork/crisispreventionandrecovery/successstories/puntland-legal-aid-centre-provides-legal-support-to-women-in-idp.html>
 77. <https://somalia.unfpa.org/en/news/new-forensic-centre-gives-hope-justice-against-sexual-offenses>
 78. <http://www.so.undp.org/content/somalia/en/home/ourwork/democraticgovernance/successstories/Puntland.html>
 79. The GBV working group draws on the definition in the IASC Guidelines for GBV Interventions in Humanitarian settings which defines GBV as: ‘an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person’s will and that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between males and females’ (GBV Working Group for Somalia Terms of Reference -2012)
 80. This was supported by UNICEF in partnership with UN Women, UNFPA and UNSOM (UNICEF Somalia Strategy Note (2018-2020)), accessed online: <http://files.unicef.org/transparency/documents/Somalia%205.%20Child%20Protection.pdf>
 81. <https://www.un.org/africarenewal/news/un-supported-toll-free-hotline-aims-help-tackle-gender-based-violence-somalia>
 82. Key informant interview with WAWA, Garowe, Feb 2019
 83. This includes the rigorous cross-selection of beneficiaries that are prepared to engage in community activism and change (Key informant interview with SWDC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019)
 84. Key informant interview with SWDC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019

85. This relates to some religious leaders that are still in support of the 'lighter' sunna type of FGM/C, while others advocate for the total abandonment of FGM/C in all its forms.
86. Narcotic leaf that is chewed, and common in Somali culture.
87. DINA (2018) survey indicates that IDPs were vulnerable to both GBV as well as access to relevant health support: IDPs are 1.6 times more likely than local community residents to report not having access to gender-based violence health services.
88. This was highlighted and discussed in FGDs in Mogadishu. A still less understood and still under researched phenomenon, this was attributed to increasing access to media such as YOU TUBE, and even pornography (often through mobile phones), alongside young men's boredom and socially controlled gender relations, with little perceived penalties.
89. The conditions in most of the camps expose IDP women and children to various violations, and a fear of attacks by Al Shabaab prevents NGOs and development partners from reaching some areas (Key informant interview with WEAVE, Jan 2019)
90. Key informant interview with Executive Director, IIDA, Jan 2019. This was also mentioned by other key informants.
91. Key informant interview with Founder, SGEM, Jan 2019
92. In Puntland, the Ministry of Women actively organised forums during key important events such as International Women's Day, 16 Days of Activism Against Violence Against Women and Day of the Girl Child among others. As a highly sensitive issue, until now, there has been a lack of (government supported) campaigning or social dialogue on sexual assault and rape. With increasing public frustration, in April 2019, women's groups organized national level talks in Garowe.
93. Key informant interview with NAGAAD, Hargeisa, Feb 2019
94. Key informant interview with MoWHRD, Jan 2019
95. The NER refers to the total enrolled persons in specific education levels within certain age groups, given as a percentage of those enrolled within an eligible official school age population (UNFPA 2016)
96. Education Statistics Yearbook 2016/17 (Government of Puntland)
97. Updated regional disaggregated data remains unavailable (outside of the respective ministries).
98. Girls aged 15-19 are twice as likely to die from childbirth as women in their twenties; those below the age of 15 are five times as likely http://web.worldbank.org/archive/website01213/WEB/0__CO-53.HTM
99. Girls aged 15-19 are twice as likely to die from childbirth as women in their twenties; those below the age of 15 are five times as likely http://web.worldbank.org/archive/website01213/WEB/0__CO-53.HTM
100. Girls aged 15-19 are twice as likely to die from childbirth as women in their twenties; those below the age of 15 are five times as likely http://web.worldbank.org/archive/website01213/WEB/0__CO-53.HTM
101. http://web.worldbank.org/archive/website01213/WEB/0__CO-53.HTM
102. World Bank (2017) in OCHA (2018)
103. <http://www.emro.who.int/som/programmes/reproductive-health.html>
104. <https://www.who.int/gho/countries/som.pdf>
105. https://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/somalia_statistics.html?p=printme#0
106. In addition, solar energy is used to supply village business centres with lighting at night, and to charge mobiles during the day for free.
107. <https://www.globalpartnership.org/country/somalia>
108. <https://www.globalpartnership.org/country/somalia>
109. The ESSP seeks to address this gap through the introduction of early grade assessments and low-stakes assessments for monitoring learning outcomes. It also aims to strengthen and unify the examination system across Somalia (<https://www.globalpartnership.org/country/somalia>)
110. <https://www.globalpartnership.org/country/somalia>
111. <https://www.globalpartnership.org/country/somalia>
112. Report of the Secretary-General on Children and Armed Conflict 2018 in OCHA (2018)

113. <https://www.globalpartnership.org/country/somalia>
114. <http://files.unicef.org/transparency/documents/Somalia%203.%20WASH.pdf>
115. <https://somalia.unfpa.org/en/news/development-somali-midwifery-strategy-initiated>
116. Service availability and readiness assessment (SARA) (WHO, 2016) in OCHA (2018)
117. Comprehensive national data sets are still not available and there remains conflicting information. This section draws mainly from the recent UNFPA (2016) survey set 'Economic Characteristics of the Somali People' Volume 4' in addition to UNDP (2012) for regional level data in Somaliland and Puntland. It also includes useful data cited in MOLSA/NEP 2019 (from the 2014 Labour Force survey and the MOLSA Employment Diagnostic). The World Bank Somali Poverty Profile 2016 suggests caution in the interpretation of their labour force and employment figures (World Bank 2017) although it offers useful insights into gender dynamics and labour force barriers.
118. Notably in contrast to the UNFPA survey, MOLSA indicates low inactivity rates in the 2014 Labour Force Survey, and thus this is cited as an area for attention in forthcoming surveys (NEP, 2019).
119. This relates to those persons of either sex who during the previous 12 months to the survey were either employed or unemployed, but seeking work (UNFPA 2016c). Note regional disaggregation in the UNFPA survey is available by sub-region only.
120. Refer to Table A4.16: Employment Status of Sample Population Aged 15-64 Years (%), UNDP (2012: 201)
121. There appears to be inconsistencies in the text. Data is derived from Table D1, page 33 (UNFPA 2016c).
122. Federal Government of Somalia 2014: National Development Plan (2017 – 2019).
123. For example in Mogadishu, it is reported that almost all fuel is sold by women (Musse and Gardner 2018).
124. UNDP (2013) The Role of Somali Women in the Private Sector <http://www.so.undp.org/content/dam/somalia/01790%20Role%20of%20Somali%20Women%20in%20Private%20Sect-New.pdf>
125. This is not necessarily the case in wealthier households, where men would prefer for their wives not to work.
126. Discussions with co-author, Sara Ahmed Koshin, Mogadishu, March 2019. An agreement was also reached to set up a women's section at the Chamber of Commerce in Hargeisa, but the funding that was allocated was reported to have vanished.
127. Focus Group Discussion, Mogadishu business women, March 13 2019
128. Focus Group Discussion, Mogadishu business women, March 13 2019
129. The SHG approach is reported to have mobilised over 35,000 women and created more than 18,000 small businesses since 2014 in Somaliland (<https://nafisnetwork.net/2019/03/08/press-statement-commemoration-of-international-womens-day-8th-march-2019/>)
130. An hugely successful micro-finance approach that was conceived in India, SHGs and VSLAs are community-based savings and credit groups that typically organise 20-25 women per group, and engage in individual savings and group lending.
131. Under Islamic law, women receive a proportion of her husband's assets (usually half that to male relatives), and this is usually calculated and guided by local sheiks. Unmarried and married women may also inherit from her parents.
132. <https://www.fmreview.org/europe/kindiki>
133. <https://www.trtworld.com/africa/why-somali-migrants-are-fleeing-the-horn-of-africa-24950>
134. Estimated at US\$500–900 million per year, remittances are reported to represent 35–70% of GDP (World Bank, 2017).
135. <https://www.pri.org/stories/2018-10-17/mobile-money-transfers-have-taken-somalia-its-risky-business>
136. Key informant interview with Verena Philips, World Bank, March 2019
137. This was highlighted in a report in Afghanistan. <https://www.rvo.nl/sites/default/files/2016/12/Gender-and-SMEs-Afghanistan.pdf>
138. Key informant interview with SOSTEC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019
139. Key informant interview with SWDC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019

140. <https://centreforfeministforeignpolicy.org/journal/the-somali-election-womens-participation-in-politics-is-crucial>
141. Key informant interview with Founder, SGEM, Jan 2019
142. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
143. <https://centreforfeministforeignpolicy.org/journal/the-somali-election-womens-participation-in-politics-is-crucial>
144. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
145. Key informant interview with Gender Unit, Ministry of Education, Jan 2019
146. Key informant interview with Gender and Human Rights Advisor, Office of the President, FGS Jan 2019
147. Key informant interview with Founder, SGEM, Jan 2019
148. Key informant interview with SWDC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019
149. Key informant interview with Gender Advisor, Ministry of Education, Garowe, Feb 2019
150. <https://en.unesco.org/themes/literacy>
151. National comprehensive data sets are still difficult to find (UNDP 2014) and statistics vary between sources. In some domains, regional data may be more available, particularly in Somali and Puntland (MICS 2011). In this report, where available recent and updated national data is used e.g. UNFPA (2016). Otherwise the report uses data from UNDP (2012) Human Development Report.
152. Sachs, J., Schmidt-Traub, G., Kroll, C., Lafortune, G., Fuller, G. (2018)
153. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/so.html>
154. MPI captures both the incidence of poverty and the average intensity of deprivation
155. Sachs, J., Schmidt-Traub, G., Kroll, C., Lafortune, G., Fuller, G. (2018)
156. WHO (2018) www.worldlifeexpectancy.com
157. The GII measures women's status and life situation in three dimensions—reproductive health, empowerment and economic activity. Reproductive health is measured by maternal mortality and adolescent fertility rates; empowerment by the share of parliamentary seats and attainment of secondary and higher education; and economic activity by the labour market participation rate (UNDP 2012).
158. Official data was not available and these indicators are drawn from UNDP (2012), UNFPA (2016) and SDG data (Sachs et al., 2018)
159. The DINA report (2018) lists major rehabilitation schemes that are needed in support of rural reconstruction and development, including the short-term rehabilitation, reconstruction and maintenance of 1099km of roads.
160. Focus Group Discussion, Mogadishu business women, March 13 2019
161. Key informant interview with potential private investor, Nairobi, March 2019
162. Respondent ILO study (2016).
163. In a PPDP, the public and private sectors make a joint investment in a project implemented by a third party. A PPDP as envisaged by SIDA would be designed to support the gradual development of regulatory framework and certification by engaging with the government through the provision of technical skills training, and collaboration (ILO, 2016).
164. For example, DFID's Africa Clean Energy (ACE) Programme.
165. Initially the firm was established in Morocco, but the company moved to Mogadishu in 2018. <https://www.garoweonline.com/en/news/somalia/meet-young-female-entrepreneur-revolutionizing-renewable-energy-in-somalia>
166. Key informant interview with SOSTEC, Mogadishu, Jan 2019. This was also reiterated in the draft Women's Charter (April 2019 version)



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