NATIONAL GENDER PROFILE OF AGRICULTURE AND RURAL LIVELIHOODS

Somalia
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Somalia’s geopolitical situation and the conflict that the country has experienced for an extended period of time has generated several gaps in information with regard to the development status of the country. This is also reflected in the lack of global development indicators, including Human Development Indicators (HDI), which are not elaborated due to missing information. Therefore, the present study features available information collected using the methodology outlined in the report. The report also outlines the limitations and gaps in information in the selected areas of work, both falling within and outside FAO’s mandate.
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The agriculture sector is particularly relevant to the lives and livelihoods of the Somali community. The overwhelming majority of the population works in the sector and to different extents relies on it for subsistence and job opportunities in both the formal and the informal economy. Investments in the sector have been hampered by protracted crisis and conflicts, resulting in severe food insecurity. Neither has the country been able to invest in basic services nor social safety nets to cushion the impact of the conflict. Nevertheless, agriculture has remained the most important economic sector, with livestock contributing to about 40 percent of the total gross domestic output (GDP) and more than half of Somalia’s limited export earnings. In fact, more than 50 percent of the country’s population still lives in the rural areas.

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), which is a technical agency that spearheads international efforts to defeat hunger, is actively engaged in Somalia. In the country, FAO aims to alleviate poverty, strengthen livelihood strategies and improve food security. It also implements interventions that aim at prevention of and mitigation against the effects of natural disasters and conflict. Interventions are also in place to limit the negative impact and help the country cope with economic losses linked to a major crisis that erupted in 2019 and continues to plague the country at present, namely the desert locust crisis, which affected the whole Horn of Africa. Recently, the country’s problems have been compounded by the COVID-19 pandemic.

FAO Somalia supports agriculture, livestock health and production, sustainable fisheries, and rural livelihoods. Its efforts are directed towards managing natural resources for replenishment and sustainable use, and supporting public–private partnerships and local institutions. FAO recognizes the centrality of gender equality and women’s empowerment for achieving food security and nutrition for all. Across all its programmes, it integrates gender equality and the empowerment of women as a central objective.

The 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda, African Union’s Agenda 2063 and the Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods provide a framework for a renewed commitment to end hunger, malnutrition and poverty and reduce gender inequalities. Their implementation will create opportunities to address gender inequalities in the agricultural and rural sectors, food security and nutrition, and the management of natural resources in the context of climate change. In particular, a core objective of the 2030 Agenda is to “realize the human rights of all and to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls.” Further, the upcoming first five-year review of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provides an opportunity to evaluate the advancements made in the country on this area of work. Similarly, the 2020 Beijing Plus 25 calls for a review and appraisal of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action which is a comprehensive global policy framework for the rights of women.

It is against this background that FAO has prepared a national gender profile of agriculture and rural livelihoods in Somalia to foster inclusive agricultural growth and transformation.

This Country Gender Assessment (CGA) provides information on the status of women and gender equality in Somalia. It identifies the existing gender relations and gaps in the various sub-sectors of agriculture, their possible causes, and impact on food security and nutrition, sustainable agriculture, natural resource management and outlines good practices. It extensively reviews the existing policy and the legal framework, including national agricultural policies.
and investment plans to assess gaps and options for improvement.

The report’s findings highlight the important role played by women in Somalia’s agricultural sector, highlighting how women and men’s roles, responsibilities and tasks are diverse, and not always complementary. The report suggests that greater attention needs to be paid to gender to address the existing inequalities, which negatively affect the performance of the sector and impair women’s human rights.

FAO remains strongly committed to address the findings of the report and advance gender equality and women’s empowerment in Somalia. It will work together with the national authorities and the other UN agencies and partners to achieve this goal.

Etienne Peterschmitt
FAO Country Representative for Somalia
The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) of the United Nations (UN) recognizes the centrality of gender equality to its mandate to achieve food security for all by raising levels of nutrition, improving agricultural productivity and natural resource management, and improving the lives of rural populations. FAO’s Policy on Gender Equality, adopted in 2012, aims at advancing equality of voice and agency, and access to resources and services between women and men in sustainable agricultural production and rural development. This Country Gender Assessment (CGA) of the agricultural and rural sectors in Somalia has been undertaken as part of FAO’s efforts to effectively implement its Policy on Gender Equality.

FAO is indebted to Francesca Distefano, Gender and Policy Expert at the Inclusive Rural Transformation and Gender Equality Division (ESP) in FAO HQ, author of the report, who carried out this CGA for Somalia in 2016 and updated it in 2020. Her dedication to excellence is visible in the quality of the report.

The initial CGA for Somalia was conducted under the leadership of the FAO Country Representative for Somalia, Mr Richard Trenchard, the Head of Programmes, Mr Rudi VanAaken, and the Head of Planning and Coordination, Ms Johanna Erhardt in 2016. The report was then revised and updated in 2020 under the leadership of Mr Etienne Philippe Peterschmitt, FAO Representative, with the support of Ms Nimco Ali Hersi, the FAO Somalia Gender Focal Point. The overall coordination was undertaken by Ms Tacko Ndiaye, FAO Senior Gender and Rural Development Officer.

Within the FAO Somalia office, many individuals made important contributions that greatly aided the collection of information featured in this report. In particular, FAO Somalia field staff, Sector Heads, the FAO Somalia Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU) team, Livestock team, Fisheries team, Agriculture team, Cash-Based Interventions team, and Somalia Water and Land Information Management (SWALIM) team.

This gender assessment report also benefited from the contribution of a wide range of stakeholders from the Government of Somalia, UN organizations, civil society organizations (CSOs), farmers’ groups, project beneficiaries and academia at various stages. Their interest and commitment were a great asset in preparing this report. The FAO commends all those who participated in undertaking this assessment – the information, data and comments they provided enriched the report.

Our special thanks go to the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Women and Family Affairs, Ministry of Livestock, Ministry of Environment, the UN agencies who were part of the UN Country Team (UNCT) Gender Group in Somalia, and civil society organizations (CSOs), including Action for Relief & Development (ARD), Candlelight for Health, Education & Environment (CHEE), Farm Concern International, the NAGAAD Network and the Somalia South Central Non-State Actors (SOSCENSA). Additionally, the team is grateful to Terhi Paikkala, Gender and Rural Development Officer at FAO Sub-Regional Office for East Africa (SFE) and Robert Basil, Gender Adviser at FAO Somalia, who helped with data collection for the assessment and formulation of the report. Appreciation also goes to Asha Bradley, Gender and Resilience Expert, FAO Social Policies and Rural Institutions Division in FAO HQ, who provided valuable suggestions that enriched the final report, and Pious Asante, gender expert at the FAO regional office for Africa, who contributed to the final review of the report.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>ADESO</td>
<td>African Development Solutions</td>
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<tr>
<td>ARD</td>
<td>Action for Relief and Development</td>
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<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<td>CAADP</td>
<td>Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme</td>
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<td>CCS</td>
<td>Committee of Concerned Somalis</td>
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<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<tr>
<td>CGA</td>
<td>country gender assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHEE</td>
<td>Candlelight for Health, Education &amp; Environment</td>
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<td>CFW</td>
<td>cash for work</td>
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<td>CoGWO</td>
<td>Coalition for Grassroots Women Organization</td>
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<td>CPF</td>
<td>country programming framework</td>
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<td>CSO</td>
<td>civil society organizations</td>
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<td>ESSP</td>
<td>Education Sector Strategic Plan</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations</td>
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<td>FGM</td>
<td>female genital mutilation</td>
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<td>FSNAU</td>
<td>Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit</td>
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<td>GAVO</td>
<td>general assistance and volunteer organization</td>
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<td>GBV</td>
<td>gender-based violence</td>
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<tr>
<td>GECPD</td>
<td>Galkayo Education Center for Peace &amp; Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>GEELO</td>
<td>growth, enterprise, employment and livelihoods</td>
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<td>GFP</td>
<td>gender focal point</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>gross domestic product</td>
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<td>GII</td>
<td>gender inequality index</td>
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<td>GNI</td>
<td>gross national income</td>
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<td>GTG</td>
<td>Gender Thematic Group</td>
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<td>HDI</td>
<td>human development index</td>
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<td>IASC</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Standing Committee</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>internally displaced person/people</td>
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<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<td>KIMS</td>
<td>Kaah Islamic MicroFinance Services</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoA</td>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoECHC</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Culture &amp; Higher Education</td>
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<td>MoEWTPL</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoFA</td>
<td>Ministry of Family Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOFMR</td>
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<td>MoL</td>
<td>Ministry of Livestock</td>
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<td>MoLSA</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour</td>
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<td>MoNPD</td>
<td>Ministry of National Planning and Development</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoPIC</td>
<td>Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation</td>
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<td>MPI</td>
<td>Multidimensional Poverty Index</td>
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<td>MWHRD</td>
<td>Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development</td>
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<td>NDP</td>
<td>National Development Plan</td>
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<td>NEPAD</td>
<td>New Partnership for Africa’s Development</td>
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<td>OXFAM</td>
<td>Oxfam International</td>
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<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>purchasing power parity</td>
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<td>PSG</td>
<td>Peacebuilding and State-building Goals</td>
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<td>SDGs</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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<td>SIGI</td>
<td>Social Institutions and Gender Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>SOHA</td>
<td>Somali Observatory for Humanitarian Action</td>
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<td>SWALIM</td>
<td>Somalia Water and Land Information Management</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>UN Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNCT</td>
<td>United Nations Country Team</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNHRC</td>
<td>United National Human Rights Council</td>
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<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>UNSOM</td>
<td>United Nations Somalia</td>
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<td>WAWA</td>
<td>We Are Women Activists</td>
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<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
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Executive summary

Somalia is classified as a low-income country. Due to the recurrent and prolonged conflicts, the country faces severe food insecurity. It has been unable to consistently invest in basic services, agriculture and social safety nets to support livelihoods and reduce vulnerability. Somalia's civil war destroyed its judicial system, leaving an institutional vacuum that was subsequently filled by the Islamic Courts Union. The protracted civil unrest and conflicts in the country have also generated high numbers of internally displaced people (IDP): while, in early 2015, about over a million people were in need of urgent humanitarian assistance, in 2019, 2.6 million people were displaced in Somalia and 5.2 million people were in need of humanitarian assistance. The crisis has been intensified in 2020 by the negative effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and the desert locust crisis in the Horn of Africa.

Characterized by political instability caused by Islamic militancy and chronic food insecurity, Somalia has a long way to go before achieving economic stability. Institutions and policies necessary for meaningful economic progress are largely absent, and much of the population lives in severe poverty. Agriculture is the most important economic sector, with livestock accounting for about 40 percent of the total domestic output and more than half of Somalia’s limited export earnings.

The country’s Human Development Index scores (HDI) are strikingly low at 0.285 (UNDP 2012b), which indicates poor life expectancy at birth, low education levels in terms of both expected years of schooling for school-age children and average years of schooling in the adult population, and low per capita income.

Somalia is currently a federal republic consisting of six federal states: Somaliland, Puntland, Jubbaland, South West State, Galmudug and Hirshabelle. Somalia is further subdivided into 18 administrative regions, which are, in turn, subdivided into districts. This division has not allowed for a functional central government to be established, and the country’s capacity to provide key public goods to its citizens has collapsed. The administrative zone that faces the most challenges is South Central Somalia, where Al Shabaab (the militant organization) has its stronghold. There are pronounced differences when it comes to the political, social and economic environment in these zones, and this applies to women’s rights and gender equality too.

Somali culture is strongly patriarchal and is based on the clan system. Gender inequalities are sharp, making the country the fourth worst country globally when it comes to women’s status. Women and girls continue to be considered legal minors in customary law. Further, they cannot become members of the community or clan institutions, and thus are excluded from political decision-making to a large extent.

The adversities of the recent decades have had a profound impact on gender roles and relations in Somalia. Men have fallen victim to the conflict and have died, or have been wounded or migrated in order to escape political or economic hardships. As a consequence, women have had to take on the burden of managing livelihoods, as well as care for the children, elderly and disabled. Women face an unequal playing field and have to bear the brunt of decades of poverty, protracted conflict, and natural hazards that continue to afflict the country. For example, the 2019 and 2020 desert locust crisis has negatively impacted crop farming, which women are mainly responsible for, disrupting livelihoods and undermining food security.

Women are granted few or no reproductive health rights: abortion is only permitted to save the life of the mother, and caesarean is performed only if the husband and/or the mother-in-law give permission. Sexual and gender-based violence (GBV) is rampant in many areas of Somalia, affecting women and children physically and psychologically and resulting in long-lasting consequences.

Rural areas remain highly populated (54.28 percent of the population) as compared to urban areas. In rural areas, women head 12 percent of the households.
However, this may not reflect the true picture of household headship because of response bias. This bias arises from the patriarchal nature of Somali society, where men, regardless of whether they are away from their homes for years or not contributing meaningfully to the household economy, are still considered the head of the family or household.

In Somalia, over one million people face severe food and nutrition insecurity. Malnutrition rates are very high among children as well as adults in both rural and urban areas. The highest rates of malnutrition are recorded in the South-Central part of the country. Women are more malnourished than men and are less food secure. According to the surveys regularly conducted by the FAO Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU), households dependent on women for food or income to buy food are over-represented in the category of households with poor food consumption, few income sources and limited assets. The 2020 global COVID-19 pandemic also highlighted the need to invest in better medical infrastructure and the healthcare system overall, the lack thereof affecting the entire population, particularly women and children.

Education is a challenge, and literacy rates are dismal, especially among women between 15 and 24 years of age, and particularly in the rural areas. While in Puntland and Somaliland relative peace and security has enabled the establishment of public and private schools, in South Central Somalia, the situation is considerably worse. Here, many of the public schools that existed before the civil war have been destroyed and, as a result, two generations of Somali children have had to miss schooling.

Women’s participation in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector is the highest in Puntland at 40 percent, followed by Somaliland at 36 percent, and 33 percent in South Central Somalia. An overwhelming majority of the women are self-employed and work in agriculture-related activities. Very few women take up economic activity that records high profits through exports and imports. For example, in the livestock and fishing export industries, women are hardly represented.

In 2016, the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) adopted a National Gender Policy to further gender mainstreaming in its peace and state-building processes. However, differences can be observed among the different administrative zones. South Central Somalia does not have a gender policy, while, in Puntland, a gender policy, based on Sharia law, was drafted in 2008 (but has not been approved by parliament). In Somaliland, a comprehensive gender policy was adopted in 2009.

In Somalia, the different administrative zones have their own ministries for the different sectors, including agriculture. The agricultural ministries of South Central Somalia and Puntland have been brought together by FAO to form an Agricultural Ministries Forum, which, in June 2016, also launched the first National Agriculture Strategy. As for addressing gender concerns, a centralized gender machinery does not exist in Somalia, though there have been a few coordinated efforts among the different entities in charge of gender equality issues in the administrative zones. In Puntland, a Ministry of Family Affairs (MoFA) exists, with the mandate to ensure that due consideration is given to gender issues across all sectoral policies. South Central Somalia has a Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development (MWHRD), which is based in Mogadishu. Finally, in Somaliland, a Ministry of Social affairs and Labour (MoLSA) based in Hargeisa, manages gender equality matters. Generally, there is limited collaboration between these various ministries and even less communication with their counterparts within the agricultural ministries, making it more complicated to integrate gender into agriculture-related work.

The CGA study found that a large number of rural women are employed in agriculture. They actively participate in several nodes of the agriculture value chains in Somalia, from production to sale, especially in those value chains that require less land and capital, where the production cycles are short (for example, quickly maturing crops) and the profits are low but recurring. Women are particularly involved in milk value chains across the entire country, fodder and grass selling, and participate in some parts of the meat value chain. Many women are also engaged in fisheries, however mainly at the processing end of the production chain.

Notwithstanding the large number of women in agriculture, their participation is limited when it comes to decision-making and training. Further, they have limited access to agricultural resources, capital and information. In the rural areas, the rural community committees are responsible for decision-making. These clan-based committees or village elders’ committees, mainly comprise men, and women’s participation is limited or virtually non-existent.

In addition to their productive role as farmers, rural women also play a reproductive role, encompassing child-bearing and rearing, household maintenance, food preparation and care for the sick and elderly. This
double role exposes them to long working days and severe time poverty.

Across the administrative zones, there is a clear gender-based division of labour in rural households, although variations can be observed between different crops and livestock species. The division of labour in the livestock sector is heavily weighted towards women, who are generally responsible for small livestock, milking, processing and marketing of dairy products. As for men and boys, they are responsible for the herding, slaughter and sale of larger animals; although, in parts of Somalia, rural women also perform livestock slaughtering.

When it comes to crop production, both women and men play key roles. However, time-consuming and labour-intensive tasks such as sowing, weeding, harvesting, threshing and husking are mainly women’s responsibility, while men are more involved in land preparation and ploughing. Gender roles, however, change across the administrative zones and depend on the crop: for example, in the case of cereals, men perform a number of duties, while women are the ones mostly in charge of growing vegetables. Women also clear small bushes in preparation for planting, while the bigger trees are cut by men. However, in the south, planting, weeding, harvesting, guarding and transporting are joint activities undertaken by both women and men, with a larger share of the responsibility falling on men.

Children also actively participate in agricultural activities and help their parents with many tasks – girls being tasked with household activities and boys with livestock management, particularly grazing.

Men export agricultural products, while women sell the produce in local markets – the local vegetable and cereal markets are especially dominated by women, although men remain the main decision-makers on the use of proceeds. Men are also the main actors in export of agricultural crops. Marketing of produce, at most times, involves brokers who negotiate with both women and men depending on whoever is available. If both are present, the broker will consult the man, who negotiates the selling price. Managing sales, record-keeping, making financial decisions and handling logistics culturally rests with men, who are bestowed with responsibility by the Somali culture. Women only take charge when men are away.

Women and men both face constraints in accessing water due to scarcity of water in the country. Water collection in Somalia is mainly the responsibility of women and girls. Water-fetching takes up between 3 to 5 hours a day as water collection centres are sometimes very remote; although it is quite common for women to make use of donkeys and sometimes camels. Some differences can be observed among the different regions in terms of responsibility allocation with regard to this activity.

Rural women have limited access to agricultural extension services, knowledge, and resources, which has resulted in lower food production. In fact, both women and men have low access to inputs for agriculture. The former’s low literacy and education levels worsens the situation, making it more challenging for women to benefit from input distribution. For example, sometimes men buy the donor-given fertilizers at low prices from women, who do not fully understand their value and use.

Somalia also does not have the requisite infrastructure in terms of financial institutions, particularly in the rural areas. In the absence of formal financial institutions, the informal financial system, dominated by Hawalas (money transfer companies), which specifically facilitate the transfer of remittances from the Somali diaspora to their families, has become stronger. Remittances from the diaspora are also an important source of seed money for women who wish to start their own income-generating businesses. The few institutions that provide financial services have demanding conditions and procedures to access funding, such as strict requirements for collateral securities (for example, land title), which few rural women own as compared to men.

Land in rural Somalia is often communally owned, and land use is decided upon by elders, who make decisions on the type and size of land to be assigned to individuals and households as well as the use of the assigned land, and the time span for which that land can be used. Although women in the country are not prohibited from inheriting and acquiring land under the Agricultural Land Ownership Law of 1999, discriminatory customary laws prevail in practice, thus limiting women’s access to land. This situation is further compounded by the limited knowledge that women have of their tenure rights. The position of women in relation to land and property ownership has been further weakened by conflicts and the ensuing reconstruction process.

In South Central Somalia, land grabbing by male relatives following the death of a husband or a father is common. Female widows rarely inherit land under the customary norms and are often deprived of access to their husband’s land if they have no children. Land is vested in trusteeship with uncles and other male relatives and inherited by male children when they grow up. There are a few cases where
widows with children keep the land, but they could lose ownership in case they remarry outside the family. In Somaliland, the situation is slightly different, with land being co-owned by men and women in most polygamous families, although the control over the land rests with men. Women, particularly divorcees and widows, own land and mostly acquire it through inheritance from their dead husbands or their fathers or their uncles or brothers who have no heirs. However, it is worth noting that father-to-daughter inheritance mostly happens when there is no son in the family. It is, in fact, quite unlikely for women to be landowners if there are male household members, as Somali culture favours men, who are entitled to inheritance of properties, including land.

Ten percent of the land in Somalia is covered by forests, down from 20 percent in the early 1990s – an indication of the high level of deforestation, mainly because charcoal is the most utilized source of energy. Women and girls are the primary collectors of fuelwood, but, in the northwest, men collect fuelwood when long distances are involved and when donkeys are available. Fuelwood collection is not only very time-consuming but also raises significant security risks for women, particularly in the Internally displaced people (IDP) camps.

In the fisheries sector, men and women have distinct roles along the value chain. Fishing boat owners are typically men, although there are also a few female fishing business owners. FAO has registered, in total, 800 boat owners in Somalia, with women representing between 4 and 5 percent of them. Most of the fishermen’s associations are led by men and the membership is largely male-dominated. In the fisheries sector, processing of fish is done mostly by women, although men can be seen at the fish markets cutting fish. Typically, processing involves cleaning and chopping of the fish and selling it fresh or cooked. When women obtain income from fisheries, how it is spent depends on the household type: if it is a married woman’s income, then the man of the household decides how it is to be used, but if the woman is unmarried or a widow or separated, then she can control her own income.

Livestock represents a major opportunity for economic revenue for the Somali people. Pastoral livestock production and marketing contributes to 80 percent of the economy. Although there are differences in livestock management in terms of gender roles, responsibilities and knowledge production across administrative zones, common patterns can also be identified. For example, with regard to ownership, in all the administrative zones, women, in general, own small stock such as goats, sheep and chicken, while men tend to own big animals, particularly camels and cattle. Regardless of the species, formal ownership of all livestock rests with the male head of the family. However, in Somaliland, women and men consult each other when an animal has to be sold or slaughtered. When it comes to day-to-day care of livestock, especially of animals staying around the household premises (permanently or temporarily), women are responsible, while men take care of animals in the bush. In times of drought, when men migrate with their camels and cattle to find water, women and children are expected to stay at home and care for the livestock that is left behind (for example, pregnant, lactating goats and cattle or sick animals).

Marketing and sale of live livestock is usually controlled by men, although some women are also involved in the sale of small ruminants. When men bring small ruminants owned by women to the market for sale, the price is fixed beforehand by the women even if they do not accompany the men to the market. Nevertheless, they do not have any decision-making powers over the income got from such sales. It is only when men are away from their households for long periods of time that women make independent decisions on sale or slaughtering of animals regardless of the type or species and control the profits emerging from the sale. But the expenditure has to be for household needs.

Milking is entirely the responsibility of women. The money derived from the sale of milk comes in the form of cash and belongs to women. They can freely decide how to invest the income earned, which is frequently used to buy food supplies. Although women are the main actors in the milk sector, infrastructure such as chilling and processing plants are managed by men.

As regards animal health and veterinary services, providers vary according to the administrative zones. Women’s restricted mobility negatively impacts their opportunities to fully participate in and benefit from the livestock sector. For example, the vaccinations are typically administered at specific vaccination sites, where men and boys usually take the animals. In female-headed households with limited male members and households where animals are under the care of women, many of the benefits of the government vaccination services do not accrue. However, there are exceptions as can be observed in areas where vaccination teams move across the country to treat animals during vaccination campaigns, and women bring their animals to these clinics for veterinary assistance. Restricted mobility can also affect the opportunities that women have to participate in
technical and vocational training. Further, time poverty also negatively affects their ability to fully benefit from vaccination programmes.

Finally, the political crisis and natural disasters have impacted men and women differently. The war has had a devastating impact on Somali women given the high levels of sexual and gender-based violence (GBV), displacement, and lack of economic opportunities, particularly for female-headed households and in areas under the control of extremist groups. Men, too, have had to pay a heavy price and many have lost their lives. They are also the preferred target for recruitment by Al-Shabaab. The on-going conflict has resulted in many male casualties, increasing the number of women-headed households. Women have had to take on both economic and social responsibilities, and many of them are the primary breadwinners.

In spite of the gender distinctions, women have an important role to play in peacebuilding in Somalia. Their multiple clan affiliations enable them to bridge conflicting clan and sub-clan lines. Conflicts have, in fact, restricted men's movements from one clan to another and, instead, provided an opportunity for women to traverse across clans and even undertake trading as they are considered peacekeepers with no primary role in conflicts. The country’s political crisis has also compelled many people to take shelter in the IDP camps. In the camps, employment opportunities are limited, and men are unable to fulfill the conventional role of providing for their families. This has made many men turn to drug use, and khat addiction is common. IDPs are often left in a legal vacuum, with almost no access to legal remedies because there is no formal justice system in the camps, and the traditional clan systems have broken down. Women and children comprise 70 to 80 percent of the population in the camps – many are widows or heads of households, and 80 percent of them have no access to safe maternal delivery. Rape and sexual violence are common, and recourse to support is limited because of the lack of psychosocial, medical and judicial services.

To conclude, the study has observed that, in Somalia, women experience high levels of food insecurity, lack of safety, limited economic opportunities and are subject to gender stereotyping. Though, in recent times, a number of opportunities to foster gender equality and women's economic empowerment have been identified and implemented.

In particular, there needs to be a stronger collaboration between FAO and the governments across the administrative zones to develop common frameworks for rural development and gender equality. Additionally, the capacity to understand and work on gender in agriculture of national officers needs to be built and more gender-awareness campaigns need to be launched.

Improved food and nutrition security for rural women and female-headed households can be fostered by developing horticulture programmes that encourage growing crops with a shorter life cycle, are easier to cultivate and do not require large amounts of land (onion, tomato, chili, red pepper, maize, sorghum, and watermelon).

Furthermore, the economic empowerment of rural women can be promoted through targeted interventions aimed at creating employment opportunities along the higher nodes of the agricultural value chains, particularly dairy and fruit processing, as well as fodder and beekeeping.

The tomato value chain can also be selected as a priority value chain to empower women. Since women in Somalia are major tomato producers, their involvement in tomato processing should be encouraged. Inputs to facilitate the production should be distributed and vocational and technical trainings should be conducted in the villages on tomato processing, drying and storage techniques as well as marketing skills and food hygiene and safety.

Women’s access to markets should also be facilitated and market outlets need to be established in rural villages. This will benefit women who make a living selling produce as they will gain access to new markets.

Time-saving technologies and women-friendly technologies should also be developed and distributed among women in the rural areas – particularly, technologies that facilitate water collection, fuelwood-saving options, hand weeding and farm produce transportation.

Finally, access to financial services remains a challenge for rural women across the country and could be improved by promoting availability of financial services, including but not limited to micro finance. There is a need to establish rural credit facilities that will collateralize moveable assets rather than land titles.
The boundaries, names and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

A farmer harvests sesame seeds in Xaaxi, Somalia.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations (UN) has recognized the importance of gender equality both as a human right with value in itself, and to achieve its mandate to eradicate hunger and poverty worldwide by raising levels of nutrition, improving agricultural productivity and natural resource management, and bettering the lives of the rural population.

The FAO Policy on Gender Equality identifies gender mainstreaming and women-targeted actions as a twofold strategy for the achievement of gender equality in the agricultural and rural sectors, and sets out a number of minimum standards for gender mainstreaming. These conditions include the requirement to undertake a country gender assessment (CGA).

The objective of this assessment is to analyse Somalia’s agricultural sector from a gender perspective at the macro (policy), the meso (institutional) and the micro (community and household) levels to identify gender inequalities in access to critical productive resources, assets, services and opportunities.

The first phase of the assessment was carried out in July 2016. The report was subsequently revised and updated to include the latest data in 2020.

The CGA is intended to support and inform the formulation of a country programme, articulated as a Country Programme Framework (CPF), established between FAO and the member country government. Furthermore, the FAO Policy on Gender Equality also requires that a gender analysis be carried out at the identification and formulation stages of the technical assistance projects. In particular, the assessment identifies the needs and constraints of both women and men in selected FAO areas of competence; as well as their priorities and the major livelihood options that need to be strengthened. In addition, the assessment provides recommendations and guidance for more gender-responsive programming, as well as for identifying possible partners for gender-related activities.

Overall, this assessment aims to be a tool for FAO Somalia to better mainstream gender in future projects and programmes in the country, especially focusing on rural women, and provide up-to-date background information and baseline data. The information collected through this exercise will also be useful when reviewing Somalia’s Country Programming Framework (CPF).

1.2 Methodology

The CGA methodology is based on the FAO corporate guide to conduct a country gender assessment. The process includes a desk review of literature, key informant interviews with FAO staff as well as with government officials, and focus group discussions with rural male and female farmers.

**Document review:** This step involved compilation and review of available relevant documents, which included the CPF, FAO’s Gender and Land Rights Database, policy frameworks, national programme documents, strategies, statistics, guidelines, relevant academic studies, country reports and journals from the country office, government, academic institutions, other United Nations (UN) agencies and civil society organizations (CSOs).

**Key informant interviews:** Key informant interviews were conducted with FAO officers based in the FAO Nairobi office, FAO field officers based in Somalia, FAO Somalia Gender Focal Point (GFP), UN country team (UNCT) gender working group, and staff from national ministries.

**Focus group discussions:** Focus group discussions were conducted with rural men and women in Gabiley area of Somaliland. The participants were mainly beneficiaries of the FAO Somalia agricultural interventions. These discussions were also conducted with FAO staff in Nairobi and in the field offices.
1.3 FAO in Somalia

FAO, as a specialized technical agency working towards the alleviation of poverty and strengthening of livelihoods and food security in Somalia, implements interventions in partnership with the Government of Somalia, partner governments, national and international NGOs as well as other UN agencies.

In Somalia, FAO has a lead role in the coordination and monitoring of humanitarian interventions in the agricultural sector in addition to collecting, analysing and disseminating high quality, up-to-date information on food security, nutrition and natural resources. The research supports the formulation of both long-term and short-term interventions. In addition, FAO is the designated lead of the Agriculture and Livelihood Cluster of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) and is responsible for ensuring well-coordinated and effective livelihood interventions.

FAO’s emergency interventions in Somalia aim at the prevention and mitigation of the impact of natural disasters and conflict. A part of the focus has also been on helping the country to cope with the devastating effects of the desert locust crisis that severely affected the Horn of Africa in 2019–2020. The organization primarily supports agricultural and livestock production and livelihoods. It adopts various strategies to extend this support, including enabling assets transfer, implementing cash-for-work projects and rehabilitating rural productive infrastructure.

FAO Somalia’s longer-term interventions focus on crops, livestock, fisheries and forestry, and their interaction with the environment. Furthermore, the organization gives guidance in drafting effective legislation and creating national strategies to alleviate hunger.

1.4 Organization of the report

This report presents findings from the CGA conducted in line with the FAO corporate guidelines for such reports, it is divided into five main sections: introduction, country context, gender analysis of the agricultural sector, stakeholder analysis and the main findings and recommendations.

The introductory section presents a background to the study, the methodology adopted and elaborates on FAO presence in Somalia.

Section two presents the country context, which highlights human development trends, gender inequality indexes as well as an analysis of the national legal and policy environment.

Section three focuses on gender analysis, highlighting the trends in gender equality development and gender disparities in the country’s rural sectors.

The stakeholder analysis in section four presents the national institutions working on gender in agriculture that FAO already partners with or could consider engaging with in the future.

Finally, the recommendations to the FAO Somalia Office form the last part of this report.
Women process lobsters for export at a cold storage facility built by FAO

©FAO/Karel Prinsloo
2. Country context

Somalia is located in the Horn of Africa and bordered by Ethiopia to the west, Djibouti to the northwest, the Gulf of Aden to the north, the Indian Ocean to the east, and Kenya to the southwest. It has a total land area of 637,657 square kilometres and has the longest coastline in mainland Africa. Climatically, hot conditions prevail year-round, with periodic monsoon winds and irregular rainfall.

Somalia is currently divided into six administrative zones1, namely Somaliland, Puntland, Jubbaland, South West State, Galmudug and Hirshabelle. Each zone has a different political, social and economic environment.

The official languages of Somalia are Somali and Arabic, and most people in the country are Muslim (99 percent), with the majority being Sunni. Somali culture is patriarchal and organized according to a clan system. Sharia law is largely practised in the country.

Due to the recurrent conflicts, the country faces severe food insecurity and has been unable to consistently invest in agriculture, basic services and social safety nets.

2.1 Human development and gender

Somalia’s latest Human Development Index (HDI) was calculated in 2012 and the value was strikingly low at 0.285, ranking 165 out of 170 countries. The HDI is a composite statistic of life expectancy at birth, education (expected years schooling for school-age children and average years of schooling in the adult population), and income per capita [measured by Gross National Income (GNI) per capita] indicators. Lower HDI ranking reveals that the country has been lagging behind in development.

The Gender Inequality Index (GII) for Somalia is 0.776 (with a maximum of 1 denoting complete inequality), placing Somalia at the fourth highest position globally and indicating a very high level of inequality. The GII reflects women’s disadvantages in three dimensions – reproductive health, empowerment and economic activity.

The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) is a cross-country measure of discrimination against women in social institutions (formal and informal laws, social norms, and practices) across 160 countries. Higher SIGI scores indicate pronounced discrimination against women in social institutions. The SIGI in Somalia for 2014 was 0.4594, categorizing the country as highly discriminatory against women.

The Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) considers three dimensions of non-income poverty, namely health, education and standard of living, combining it with poverty measures, such as intensity of poverty and headcount ratio. According to the 2016 MPI, Somalia’s index value equals to 0.518. Data from 2019 reveals that 67.5 percent of the overall Somali population is currently experiencing severe multidimensional poverty (UNDP, 2019). Furthermore, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) data from 2014 indicates that over 60 percent of the households in urban areas and 95 percent of the rural households suffer from multidimensional poverty (UNDP, 2014).

2.1.1 Demography and population dynamics

Somalia’s current total population is around 15.9 million (UNFPA & UNWomen, 2020). Around 85 percent of the residents are ethnic Somalis who have historically inhabited the northern part of the country (UNDATA report, 2016). Ethnic minorities, comprising mainly the Somali Bantu, are largely concentrated in the southern region.

Forty-four percent of the population lives in the urban areas, while the remaining population inhabits the rural areas (UNICEF & WHO, 2019). In terms of household

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1 When data is available, this assessment will comprehensively cover all the different administrative zones.
headship, 14 percent of the households in the urban areas and 12 percent in the rural areas are headed by women (UNDP, 2012). However, this figure may not reflect the true picture of household headship in both the rural and urban areas. This is mainly because, in Somali society, men, regardless of whether they are away from their homes for years or months or not contributing meaningfully to the household economy, are still considered the head of the family or household.

Due to continuous conflicts as well as high birth rates, the median age in Somalia is 18 years, highlighting a very young population, with an average life expectancy of 52.8 years (UNFPA data dashboard). As of 2019, almost half of the total Somali population (46.4 percent) is below 14 years of age. This has a severe impact on the age dependency ratio in the country – for every 100 people in the working age group (15 to 64 years old), there are 9782 people younger than 15 years of age or older than 64 (dependents) (World Bank Data, 2018).

Protracted civil unrest and conflicts in the country have generated high numbers of internally displaced people (IDP). In early 2015, about 10 25 000 people required urgent humanitarian assistance, as reported by the FAO Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU) unit. Data collected from the European Commission in 2020 highlights an increase in that number to a total of 2.1 million in severe need of humanitarian and emergency food assistance.

2.1.2 Health

In the last 20 years, the malnutrition rate among children below the age of five has been consistently declining. Nevertheless, the numbers are still high and remain alarming. Malnutrition prevalence remains a challenge in Somalia – stunting is declining too slowly, while wasting still impacts the lives of far too many young children. In late 2015, FAO reported that an estimated 42 percent (30 0000) of the children under the age of five were acutely malnourished, with 38 200 being severely malnourished. More recent data highlighted that 21.3 percent of the children under five were stunted, 6.9 percent wasted, and 5.6 percent overweight (UNICEF, WHO & World Bank, 2020). Overall, the highest rates of malnutrition were recorded in the South-Central part of the country, where sedentary communities are located and where Al Shabaab has its stronghold. Communities in the north, who are mainly pastoralist, have better nutrition standards among adults due to the availability and consumption of milk and animal-sourced proteins. As for infant nutrition, different patterns can be identified in the northern and the southern regions: due to the severe time poverty experienced by pastoralist women in the north, full breastfeeding is somewhat uncommon, as it requires the mother to remain with the newborn for some time. The situation is different in the south central region, where women practise full breastfeeding, resulting in the improved nutritional status of infants.

As of 2015, 18.8 percent of the population could not access health services (UNDP, 2015). Somalia’s healthcare infrastructure is weak and ranks 194 out of 195 in the Global Health Security Index. The maternal mortality ratio in the country is particularly high: WHO data sets from 2013 indicates that for every 10 000 births, 850 mothers lose their lives while giving birth due to pregnancy-related causes. In recent times, a slight decrease in the maternal mortality ratio has been registered, with data indicating that for every 10 0000 births, 732 mothers lose their lives (UNDP, 2020; WHO, 2019). Also, only 9 percent of women give birth at a health facility. Infant mortality rate is also high, with 766 deaths per 1000 live births [United Nations Inter-Agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation (2019)].

Ninety-eight percent of women experience female genital mutilation (FGM), typically between the ages of 5 and 9, and more than half undergo the most severe form of FGM, infibulation (UNICEF Dataset, 2020). At the end of 2011, in Puntland, for the first time, an FGM law was passed banning Pharaonic circumcision or infibulations. The law still allows for other types of circumcision and does not adhere to international human rights standards.

Somaliland has one of the world’s highest rates of FGM, with United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) estimating that 98 percent of women aged between 15 and 49 have undergone some form of mutilation. Legislation to ban FGM is being debated after a religious fatwa was passed in February 2018, which partially prohibits FGM. In addition to legislation banning FGM, significant resources are needed to educate the population and strengthen mechanisms to enforce the legislation.

Somaliland’s National Development Plan (NDP) II does include a goal to reduce the harmful practices of female genital mutilation by 10 percent, addressing issues of gender-based violence (GBV). The government intends to implement it by drafting and passing legislation that bans all forms of FGM; devising a new plan to eradicate all new cases of FGM in Somaliland; and passing a national anti-FGM policy that addresses
the shortcomings of the fatwa and details a coherent implementation strategy (Safeworld, 2018).

Child marriage is prevalent, with 45 percent of the women aged between 20 and 24 entering into marriage before the age of 18. In some cases, girls as young as 12 are married off (UNFPA, 2012).

Somali women have limited reproductive rights. Abortion is permitted only to save the life of the mother, and a caesarean is performed only if the husband and/or the mother-in-law give permission. Interviews with the World Health Organization (WHO) staff during this assessment revealed that, often, doctors refuse to do a caesarean section even if the women require it, if their husbands or village elders have not given them permission to undergo the surgery.

Across the country, sexual and GBV is widespread. There are no laws prohibiting domestic violence, spousal rape or sexual harassment. Whilst most incidents of violence against women go unreported, there is a culture of impunity surrounding sexual and domestic violence in Somalia. Customary approaches in dealing with violence against women typically involve making ‘arrangements’ between the clans of the victim and the rapist. According to the United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC), rape or domestic violence is treated as a civil dispute, often resolved through either the payment of money or a forced marriage between the victim and the perpetrator.

In March 2020, the global COVID-19 pandemic reached Somalia, triggering the establishment of a dedicated task force and an emergency fund. The government has faced challenges in securing additional medical equipment. Nevertheless, they have managed to make ventilators and ICU beds available. The Somali Medical Association expressed concerns about the capacity of the country to cope with such a health crisis and warned that the death toll in Somalia could be large, given the current status of the healthcare system. As of May 2020, 601 confirmed cases and 28 deaths were reported in Somalia (The Guardian 2020).

In Somaliland, cases of COVID-19 contagion were first detected in March 2020. To cope with the health emergency, a National Task Force was established, and a public campaign was launched to educate the public on the risks associated with the virus, including prevention measures (UNPO, 2020).

In May 2020, the chief of the United Nations Assistance Mission for Somalia (UNSOM) told the Security Council that 2.6 million IDPs were particularly at risk from exposure to COVID-19.

### 2.1.3 Education and literacy

In South Central Somalia, more than three quarters of the public schools that existed before the civil war have been destroyed or closed. State intervention in the education sector has been limited. Two generations of Somali children have missed out on education.

In Puntland and Somaliland, relative peace and security has enabled the establishment of public and private schools (UNICEF Education). According to the MPI education indicator, 33.7 percent of the overall Somali population has limited or no access to education. Only a quarter of the children of school-going age attend primary school, and the figure is even lower among the pastoralist communities, who find it difficult to send their children to school due to the fees and the nomadic life that they lead. In South Central Somalia and Puntland, parents are expected to pay school fees, while Somaliland has introduced free primary education. Especially in South Central Somalia, more children attend traditional Quranic schools than formal institutions. Yet the formal education gross enrolment rates are growing in South Central Somalia. Less than 8 percent of the children of secondary school-going age attend secondary school (UNICEF, 2016). Complete data on access to education is unfortunately quite outdated. According to the available statistics, 61 percent of the female population has never attended school as compared to 44 percent of males. Rural women are even less likely than those living in the urban areas to ever attend school (79 percent of rural women have never attended school as against 30 percent of urban females). The same also applies to males, who are also more likely to never attend school if living in rural areas (69 percent of rural males have never attended school, while only 14 percent of urban males have stayed away from school). Although wealth is a significant factor in determining school attendance, even among the richest sections of the population, males are more likely than females to attend school, especially secondary school (UNESCO. World Inequality Database on Education).

Participation in education is lower for girls than for boys, with girls representing only 36 percent of the primary school children (UNICEF Go-to-School Initiative 2013/2016). The low availability of sanitation facilities (especially separate toilets for girls), a lack of female teachers (less than 20 percent of the primary school teachers in Somalia are women), safety concerns and social norms that favour education of boys are cited as
factors inhibiting parents from enrolling their daughters in school. Gender disparity rapidly increases in higher grades – domestic work, early marriage, timing of classes and economic constraints force many girls to drop out of school early, leading to higher girl dropout rates (UNICEF, 2016).

In Somaliland, according to the UNICEF 2009 statistics, the number of girls enrolled in primary school was 62,608 compared to 108,322 boys. At the secondary level, these figures were 5,646 and 14,843 respectively. As for university enrolment, on average 1 in every 4 students is a woman.

Girls are poorly represented in school enrolment rates throughout Puntland. According to statistics from the Somalia Ministry of Education, Culture & Higher Education (MoECHE), more boys than girls attend primary school. Only 36.1 percent of the pupils in upper primary education are females, compared to 41.5 percent in lower primary education. Gender disparity in Puntland’s education systems is more marked as one climbs the education ladder. Domestic responsibilities, early marriage, timing of classes and economic constraints force many girls to leave school early, leading to higher dropout rates for girls. In 2010, the ratio of boys to girls fell from 0.59 in primary levels to 0.41 in secondary school (2010). Literacy rates for females have seen a decline from before the pre-war era and stood at 25 percent in 2006 – this number is even lower in the rural areas (10 percent).

Nearly half of the population comprise rural and nomadic communities. These communities often face difficulties in accessing and exercising their right to quality and equitable basic education. Only 22 percent of the pastoralist children aged 6–17 years have enrolled for formal education, with slightly higher enrolments among boys than girls.

The percentage of certified teachers is considerably low (48 and 15) in Somaliland and Puntland, respectively, most of whom are male. In 2012–13, female teachers comprised 13 percent of the total number of certified teachers (UNICEF, 2016).

Proxy data for assessing the retention rate up to Grade 4 shows that less than half of those who enrolled in Grade 1 in 2006 successfully progressed to Grade 5.

According to the 2006 Somalia Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, the adult literacy rate for women is estimated to be 26 percent as compared to 36 percent for men. Women are consistently less educated than men and have less literacy and numeracy skills. In fact, female literacy in Somalia is among the lowest in the world, and despite the low levels of male literacy, significantly more boys than girls access basic literacy, numeracy and education.

Despite improvements in recent years, school enrolment in Somalia remains low. Only 42 percent of school-age children are enrolled in primary school, of which only 36 percent are girls. Less than 8 percent of secondary school-age children attend secondary school. Children who do attend school face many obstacles, including inadequate facilities, a shortage of qualified teachers,

Adult literacy in Somalia is a mere 38 percent – one of the lowest rates in the world. Only 26 percent of the women and 50 percent of the men are literate² (UNESCO, 2016). In Somaliland and Puntland, the lowest literacy rates are found in the rural areas. Low women’s literacy and education levels in the rural areas also affect their ability to benefit from agricultural extension and training. As for young women, the last countrywide survey from 2006 showed that only 25 percent of the women between 15 and 24 years of age were literate (44 percent in Somaliland and 37 percent in Puntland).

Finally, it should be mentioned that between 2017 and 2018, innumerable education plans were developed and approved by the different administrative zones, with the objective to improve education and increase access. More specifically, the Federal Government of Somalia, led by MoEChC, approved the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP), which covers the period from 2018 to 2020 (Federal Government of Somalia, Ministry of Education, Culture and Higher Education). In Puntland, the Ministry of Education and Higher Education approved the 2017–2021 education sector plan, which envisions quality education systems. The plan is guided by six principles: access, equity, quality, relevancy, efficiency, and sustainability (Puntland Government of Somalia, Ministry of Education and Higher Education). Finally, Somaliland’s education sector plan, developed by the Ministry of Education and Higher Studies, and covering the period 2017–2021 seeks to provide quality, affordable and competitive education to its citizens (Republic of Somaliland, Ministry of Education and Higher Studies).

2.1.4 Employment

Recent statistics related to Somalia’s overall labour force participation rate indicates that, as of 2018, 19.1 percent of females and 74.3 percent of males are part of the labour force, recording an increase in female participation in the officially accountable labour force as compared to the previous years (UNDP, 2020). Agriculture remains the major sector of employment: 2019 estimates highlight that 86.2 percent of employed people work in the sector, while 7.6 percent are employed in the industry sector and 6.2 percent in other sectors (UNSTAS, 2019).

Nevertheless, due to the ongoing conflict situation, many women have become the main breadwinners of their families and engage in the shadow economy through informal employment opportunities. Women work as street vendors and own small shops, but generally lack the skills and capacity to scale up their businesses.

Women’s participation in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector is the highest in Puntland at 40 percent followed by Somaliland at 36 percent, and 33 percent in South Central Somalia. According to UNDP 2013 estimates, the labour force participation rate in formal employment in the non-agricultural sectors of people aged 15 and older was 37.2 percent for women and 75.5 percent for men. However, according to 2014 World Bank data, women’s share of employment in the non-agricultural sector was just 22 percent, highlighting a decrease in women’s participation in formal employment. In formal employment, 86.8 percent of the employed people are poor, living below purchasing power parity (PPP) of $2 a day. In Somaliland, unemployment is a major problem, with 80 percent of the population being unemployed.

In Somalia, a majority of the women are self-employed and are engaged in agricultural activities. Very few women participate in the areas of the economy which record high profits through exports and imports: for example, in livestock export and in the fishing industry, women are hardly represented.

With respect to rights at work, women in Somalia are entitled to maternity protection under the Labour Code and the Transitional Federal Charter. This covers women workers in the private sector, public service and public institutions. The law provides for 14 weeks paid maternity leave, paid at 50 percent of the wages by the employer. However, it is unclear how many women benefit from such policies.

Women and youth are disproportionately affected by the low level of formal economic activity in Somalia and face unique additional constraints when it comes to greater economic participation. Women have fewer opportunities than men when seeking formal employment and higher barriers to starting and operating their own businesses.

The youth have had to bear the weight of the collapse of education during the country’s long civil war and suffer an even higher rate of unemployment than the 75 percent average for Somalis overall. It is estimated that unemployment among youth (aged 14 to 29) stands at 67 percent, one of the highest in the world. Social exclusion, inadequate education, weak political
participation and financial marginalization make young people more vulnerable to recruitment by Al Shabaab, particularly in South Central Somalia.

The country is affected by high levels of child labour. About half of Somali children aged between 5 and 14 engage in child labour. The rate is higher for rural than for urban children, and somewhat higher for girls than for boys (UNICEF, 2016). Boys and girls seem to perform many agricultural tasks related to livestock rearing and grazing, crop production, and household maintenance.

In Somalia, the unemployment rate is 42.8 percent in rural areas. The main sectors of employment in agriculture include fishing, forestry and mining (65 percent).

In Puntland, 60 percent of the economy is based on agriculture and pastoralism. Women constitute 56.6 percent of the labour force in Somaliland and Puntland, and they tend to work mostly in the agricultural sector. Women in Puntland engage in subsistence farming and cropping, since men are more interested in pastoralism. While women are involved in farming activities, most of the labour is outsourced from the Ethiopian Oromo community, who have migrated to Puntland in search of employment.

2.1.5 Women’s voices, political representation and access to justice

Somali women occupy a tiny percentage of government and legislative positions across the administrative zones and are not afforded the same opportunities as men to engage in politics and deliberate on key issues. The participation and representation of women in leadership and decision-making, including in the clan-based political structure, remains low and further perpetuates gender inequalities. Since 1991, the re-emergence of customary law, the extended use of Sharia, and the resort to clan-based political representation has contributed to keep women excluded from most political and judicial structures.

In South Central Somalia, despite advocacy for a quota of 30 percent women’s representation in all political institutions, this demand was not included in the Provisional Federal Constitution adopted in August 2012.

In 2014, a new cabinet was appointed by the Federal Government of Somalia, which resulted in an increase in the number of female ministers. Nevertheless, the new government saw women occupying only 14 percent of the parliament seats. The government is still in the process of reviewing the 2012 constitution, and the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour is currently drafting a new gender policy stipulating that 30 percent of the parliamentary seats need to be occupied by women or left empty.

As regards the national framework for gender equality, in 2016, the government adopted the National Gender Policy with the aim to further gender mainstreaming in its peace and state-building processes. However, the administrative zones vary in their adoption of gender representation. South Central Somalia does not have a gender policy, while in Puntland a gender policy based on Sharia law was drafted in 2008, but even after 12 years, it has not been approved by the parliament.

In Somaliland, a comprehensive gender policy was adopted in 2009. Political representation of women in South Central Somalia has improved as compared to the overall Transitional Federal Government, which featured only 12 percent women, despite efforts to ensure 25 percent female representation. However, during the Transitional Federal Government, only 3.7 percent of the positions were occupied by women, while in the cabinet of the current Federal Government of Somalia, 20 percent of the positions are held by women (UNDP, 2015). This change signals an overall improvement in the political representation of women in Somalia.

In South Central Somalia, women are also underrepresented in the judiciary. Their better representation is hampered by the fact that the constitution of the Federal Government of Somalia forbids women from occupying judiciary positions. Lack of participation in public life is also due to the growing presence of Al-Shabaab in South Central Somalia. The insurgents restrict women’s access to public spaces and regulate their dress code. Women are required to cover their faces, which is in contradiction with the normal custom and practice of Somali culture.

In Puntland, although the 2009 constitution formally recognized equality between women and men in political participation (any citizen of 18 years of age can vote and be elected), only 4.7 percent of the parliamentary seats are held by women, with only

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2 Child labour is defined as work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity and that is harmful to physical and mental development. According to the UNICEF definition, a child is considered to be engaged in child labour under the following classification: (a) children 5 to 11 years of age who perform weekly at least one hour of economic activity or at least 28 hours of domestic work, and (b) children 12 to 14 years of age who perform at least 14 hours of economic activity or at least 42 hours of economic activity and domestic work combined.
two women out of the 66 parliamentary seats. Of the 
26 professional positions across the zone’s different 
ministries, only one is held by a woman. A 2007 
presidential decree mandated that all institutions 
must adhere to 30 percent representation of women. 
However, this has not been implemented, mainly due 
to the country’s instability, the low literacy levels among 
women, and the strong influence that Sharia law exerts 
on the society.

In Somaliland, only 2.4 percent of the parliamentary 
seats are held by women, and of the total 46 ministerial 
positions, only four are held by women. The municipal 
elections held in late 2012 listed nearly 2,400 
candidates for 350 council seats, of which 134 were 
women candidates; finally, only 10 were elected as local 
councillors (UNDP, 2014).

In Somaliland, there is currently only one female 
member of parliament among the 82 members of 
the House of Representatives (lower house), and no 
female representation among the 82 members of 
the Guurti (upper house). Only 3 out of 32 cabinet 
members are female. In the NDPII, the government 
has committed to increasing the proportion of seats 
held by women in the national parliamentary to 20 
percent by 2021. Although elections have provided 
the opportunity for the government to deliver on 
this objective, it is unlikely to happen unless specific 
legislation is drafted to introduce a quota for women’s 
representation. Somaliland civil society has been 
consistently working to advance this issue and has led 
the way, pushing for an election quota for women’s 
representation.

The objective of introduction of quota for women’s 
representation is in line with the highlighted NDPII, 
which includes an outcome on it – increase and 
promote the number of female workers in leadership 
positions in the public sector to 20 per cent by 2021. 
In order to implement this, the government foresees: 
(i) the inclusion of a specific provision in the new House 
of Representatives Election Law mandating that 20 
percent of the seats in the lower house (16 out of 82) 
to be occupied by women; (ii) passing new legislation 
ensuring women’s representation in managerial 
positions in public institutions reaches 30 percent by 
2021.

Civil society’s role in achieving this objective is to 
empower and encourage women to participate in 
political activities through training and develop a 
campaign targeting voters to raise public awareness 
on the importance of women’s participation in the 
decision-making processes. International partners are also encouraged to 
develop new flexible funding mechanisms to support 
Somaliland civil society groups, aiding achievement of 
sustainable development goals (SDG) 5.5. (Safeworld, 
2018).

Aggregated data from 2018 suggest, however, that in 
Somalia, the overall share of parliamentary seats held by 
women is 24.3 percent, registering an overall increase 
as compared to earlier data (UNDP, 2020).

In terms of access to justice, data was identified only 
for Somaliland, where the situation is improving in the 
urban areas, but remains challenging in the harder-to- 
reach rural areas. The introduction of mobile courts 
that travel to each region and district has expanded 
access to formal justice and made the process of 
trying cases more efficient. However, there remain 
serious challenges in aligning formal justice systems 
with Sharia and customary law, creating a situation 
of legal pluralism, which makes it more challenging 
for women and men to exercise their human rights. 
The establishment of the Law Reform Commission 
in August 2009 initiated the process of improving 
outdated laws, but progress has been slow. There 
have been positive developments in strengthening the 
diversity of the judiciary system. While in 2000, there 
was only one female lawyer in Somaliland, concerted 
efforts to train and hire women in the legal sector have 
ensured that half of all national prosecutors are women.

The NDPII also includes an outcome on improving 
access to justice. The aim is to increase the 
effectiveness and efficiency of the rule of law at the 
national level and ensure that at least 70 percent of the 
population has equal access to justice by 2021.

To achieve this ambitious objective, the government 
has prioritized a number of actions, including: (i) 
parliamentarian approval of a Legal Aid Bill; (ii) approval 
of the Rape Bill by Guurti and allocation of resources 
to support victims’ legal costs; (iii) improvement 
of monitoring mechanisms for the Human Rights 
Commission, High Judiciary Commission, and 
Ministry of Justice; (iv) strengthening systems of and 
working relations between the Ministry of Justice 
and the Judiciary; and (v) improved coordination and 
supervision of all public institutions in the judiciary 
(SafeWorld, 2018).

2.1.6 Basic infrastructure

Access to services is inadequate and 47.5 percent 
of Somalia’s population has poor living standards, 
including limited access to cooking fuel, water and 
electricity. Data from 2019 indicates that 83 percent
National gender profile of agriculture and rural livelihoods | SOMALIA

of the urban population in Somalia has access to basic water services, compared with just 28 percent of the rural population. A comparison between 2000 and 2017 data on water usage, availability and access shows, however, improvements in the quantity of water available to both urban and rural populations in Somalia (UNICEF & WHO, 2019). As for electricity, the 2017 data indicates that, in the rural areas, only 9 percent of the population has access.

The 2015 MPI indicates that 50 percent of the population has access to communication via mobile phone, while only 1.6 percent of the entire country’s population has access to internet.

2.2 Political, legislative and institutional context

2.2.1 Political situation

Somalia gained independence in 1960. Between 1969 and 1991, the country was known as the Somali Democratic Republic. Following the collapse of the Siad Barre government in January 1991, Somalia experienced internal conflict, which fragmented the country, undermined legitimate institutions, and created widespread vulnerability. The protracted civil war has resulted in the division of the country into the current administrative and geopolitical zones.

Since 2000–2012, various transitional governments have come into power. In 2012, a new federal government emerged in Mogadishu within the framework established by the provisional constitution – the Federal Government of Somalia. The Federal Government has been questioned and contested against by various groups, such as the Islamic Courts Union (which governed large parts of southern Somalia) and later Al Shabaab. Conflicts have also prompted interventions by regional organizations and neighbouring countries.

In 2012, a successful political transition was matched by parallel progress on the security front. With the help of the African Union (AU) Mission to Somalia, Somali forces and aligned clan militia, parts of southern Somalia were liberated, including the strategic urban centres, from Al Shabaab. Though weakened, Al Shabaab still retains a significant presence in the south.

Somaliland and Puntland have remained relatively peaceful, although there is still-growing Al Shabaab infiltration into Puntland’s mountainous areas. Following the political transition, the international community agreed to the Somali Compact with the Federal Government of Somalia, based on the principles of the New Deal.4 The Compact, which was agreed to at the Brussels Conference in September 2013, provides an organizing framework (2014–2016) for the delivery of assistance to Somalia in line with national priorities and increasingly delivered by Somali institutions. Since the transition, Somalia has emerged from being defined by the UN as a failed state to a “least developed country”, signifying that it is in recovery and is stabilizing.

2.2.2 Economic situation

Characterized by political instability, continued insecurity (caused mainly by Al Shabaab) and chronic food insecurity, Somalia has a long way to go before reaching economic stability. Institutions and policies necessary for meaningful economic growth are largely absent, and much of the population lives in severe poverty. Agriculture is the most important sector, with livestock accounting for about 40 percent of the total domestic output and more than half of Somalia’s limited export earnings.

Somalia’s gross domestic product (GDP) was estimated to be about $4.7 billion in 2018 (World Bank Somalia country profile). The country is currently in stage 1 of the Rostow’s model,5 characterized in Somalia by subsistence agriculture, limited technology, and a traditional society that lacks individual economic mobility.

Somalia’s vibrant private sector has helped maintain economic activity by supporting money transfer, transport, telecommunications services and basic infrastructure services (such as electricity and water). Business owners who provided these essential services during the civil war are, however, now forming monopolies and cartels, fixing prices and asserting control over new industries.

The national economy is highly dependent on imports, which account for more than two-thirds of the GDP, creating a large trade deficit, mainly financed by remittances and international aid. Remittances from the

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4 The New Deal for Engagement in Fragile States is a landmark global policy agreement. It is a key agreement between fragile and conflict-affected states, development partners, and civil society to improve the development policy and practice in these states. Through it, development partners are committed to supporting nationally owned and led development plans and greater aid effectiveness in fragile situations (the TRUST principles), and 5+7 governments are committed to inclusive planning processes, grounded in context (the FOCUS principles). Both parties are committed to pursuing the five Peacebuilding and State-building Goals (PSGs): legitimate politics, justice, security, revenue and services and economic foundations.

5 Rostow’s Stages of Economic Growth Model is one of the major historical models of economic growth. The Model postulates that economic growth occurs in five basic stages of varying length.
Somali diaspora not only provide a buffer to the economy but also are a lifeline to large segments of the population, cushioning household economies and creating a buffer against shocks (drought, trade bans and inter-clan clashes). As regards remittances, it should be noted that, in May 2020, the chief of the United Nations Assistance Mission for Somalia highlighted that COVID-19 has had a severe economic impact, with remittances from the Somali diaspora dwindling and the federal government projecting an 11 percent drop in nominal GDP in 2020 (UN News, 21 May 2020).

In early 2020, the country’s economy was challenged by the desert locust crisis, which affected much of the Horn of Africa, with particularly negative effects in Somalia, Kenya and Ethiopia. It was considered one of the worst such crises in over 25 years. The crisis represents an unprecedented threat to food security and livelihoods in the region and could very easily lead to further economic constraints, displacement, food insecurity and potential conflict in Somalia (FAO Emergency Division, Crisis, desert locust crisis, April 2020).

### 2.2.3 Legal Framework

#### International commitments

Somalia has ratified three of the four covenants and optional protocols that, along with the Universal Declaration, make up the International Bill of Human Rights. The conventions ratified by Somalia include 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. Somalia signed and ratified the African (Banjul) Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights in 1985, and has signed, but not ratified, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the Maputo Protocol) in 2006.

Somalia has not signed the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) nor its optional protocol. However, efforts have been ongoing for a few years to encourage the country to sign and ratify the Convention. The process has been facilitated by the UN Gender Thematic Group (GTG) within the Somalia UN Country Team. Somalia has so far discussed reservations that pertain to articles 9 (nationality) and 16 (marriage and family life) of the CEDAW Convention. Nevertheless, negotiations are still on-going, and Somalia remains one of the very few countries in the world to not have signed the Convention, together with Iran, Sudan, and Tonga.

In Somaliland, the Constitution (2001) recognizes international human rights instruments, including the Beijing Platform for Action, the former Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the CEDAW.

In Puntland, the constitution does not recognize any international human rights frameworks.

#### Regional Commitments

As part of the African Union (AU), Somalia has participated in the formulation and endorsement of a number of regional declarations, decisions and protocols at regional level. For example, the Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods, adopted by the AU Summit in June 2014, calls for deliberate and targeted public support for women to participate and directly benefit from growth and transformation opportunities to improve their lives and livelihoods. It includes a gender provision on the preferential entry and participation by women and youth in gainful and attractive agribusiness. In the 2017 progress report submitted to the AU assembly on the implementation of the Malabo Declaration, out of the 47 member states that reported progress in following the guidelines, only twenty were on track for achieving the commitments by 2025. In Eastern Africa, only eight countries submitted a progress report, with Somalia not being one of them. Data is currently unavailable on how the Malabo Declaration has affected the country and if there were positive outcomes from its adoption.

In the AU context, the Declaration on 2015 Year of Women’s Empowerment and Development towards Africa’s Agenda 2063 is also important. The Declaration was adopted in 2015 and sets an ambitious agenda to enhance women’s contribution to and benefit from formal agricultural and agribusiness value chains. Building on previous AU commitments on gender equality, such as the the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (better known as the Maputo Protocol), the 2015 Declaration calls upon member states to fulfil several ambitious goals. These include increased mechanization and technological innovation; intensifying women’s financial inclusion in agribusiness and empowering them with knowledge and skills to use modern technologies; enforcing women’s rights to productive assets, including land, and their access to public procurement processes in agribusiness. It also calls upon financial institutions to allocate a minimum quota of 50 percent to finance women’s enterprises to grow from micro to macro businesses.
In addition, the 2017–2027 AU Gender Strategy was adopted by the Specialized Technical Committee on Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment. It succeeds the AU Gender Policy 2009 and takes cognizance of the various advancements related to gender commitments, including the SDGs adopted in 2015. Rural women are a priority target and the strategy stresses the need to enhance women’s economic empowerment, with specific attention to education, financial inclusion, labour-saving technologies and digital revolution. In addition, it emphasizes the need to mainstream gender in all key AU flagship initiatives.

Finally, the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) is Africa’s policy framework for agricultural transformation, wealth creation, food security and nutrition, economic growth and prosperity for all. In Maputo, Mozambique, in 2003, the AU Summit made the first declaration on CAADP as an integral part of the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD). The CAADP Results Framework’s Outcome 1.2 on “Sustained inclusive agriculture growth” recognizes the potential contribution of women; and Outcome 2 proposes “Systemic capacity for expanding women and youth opportunities in inclusive agricultural growth and for meeting the Zero Hunger Challenge”.

National legislation

The national legislative system consists of state law, customary law and religious law (Sharia law). Although the country has a formal judicial and legal system, due to years of conflict and collapse of the state and its institutions, customary law (also referred to as Xeer) is widely applied and sometimes overrules the formal law system and its provisions. Customary law and Sharia law are particularly applied in relation to family matters. The group of elders responsible for taking decisions is literally called “Male Traditional Elders” (Aqalka Odayaasha in Somali), and women are not even allowed to be at the venue where elders make decisions. They are, instead, represented by their male relatives if a grievance concerns them. For example, cases of GBV are rarely taken to a formal legal system. The families in question deal with these cases through customary law with the mediation of the male village elders. Clan groups usually pay if any compensation is needed.

The 2001 constitution in Somaliland recognizes the equality of women and men, save for matters specifically ordained in Islamic Sharia. Women’s rights and equality between women and men is explicitly included in the text of the constitution in relation to work and social security, property rights, political, social and economic life, right of association, and access to justice, education and health.

The law does not lay down a minimum age for marriage, and early marriages are common (see section 2.1.2 on health). Women have equal rights to divorce; however, it is uncommon for women to leave their husbands for, usually, men move out of the house and de-facto separate from or divorce their wives. Polygamous marriage is also quite common and widely practised, particularly in the rural areas.

According to customary law, men are designated as the heads of families and the wives are obliged to follow their husbands. With respect to parental authority, both parents have duties. If a couple divorces or separates, the mother is typically granted custody of boys up to the age of 10 years and girls up to the age of 15 years.

Despite having limited legal rights in the family, since the civil war, women in Somalia have had greater economic involvement and decision-making power within the household. However, outside the household, men remain in control. The same holds true for political participation, with women having little or no role to play.

In South Central Somalia, the inheritance rights are based on the principles of Sharia law. As a result, daughters inherit only half of what is the share of sons.

Gender policies

As regards the national framework for gender equality, the Federal Government of Somalia, in 2016, adopted the National Gender Policy to advance gender mainstreaming in its peace and state-building processes. However, there are differences in the way it is implemented in the different administrative zones.
South Central Somalia does not have a national gender policy. However, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, supported by the UN GTG within the UN Country Team, is engaged in the process of formulating a document on gender mainstreaming. The draft foresees the collection of gender data in both urban and rural areas across different sectors as well as the identification of the economic needs of rural women with a view to create job opportunities in rural areas.

In Puntland, a gender policy was drafted in 2008, but it has not been passed despite several attempts to submit it to the cabinet and parliament for ratification and adoption as state policy. The policy was developed based on Sharia law, the cultural values and norms that promote Islamic values, the political history of Puntland and the Puntland constitution and MDG 3. The draft policy has four proposed priority action areas: livelihoods, human rights, governance and economics.

In Somaliland, the national gender policy was approved in 2009. Its implementation has been a challenge as coordination is lacking and there is no action plan.

### 2.2.4 Institutional framework

Somalia’s different administrative zones have their own ministries. In the agriculture sector, the agricultural ministries from South Central Somalia and Puntland were successfully brought together by FAO in the context of an agricultural ministries forum, which in June 2016 also launched the first national agricultural strategic plan.

When it comes to the ministries responsible for gender, a centralized machinery does not exist and there is little coordination among the different entities in charge of gender equality in the different administrative zones. A centralized gender machinery could very well facilitate coordination, communication, collaboration, the establishment and achievement of common goals, and the guarantee of the same rights to all women living in Somalia. Listed below are the government ministries responsible for promoting gender equality:

- In Puntland, in 2005, the government upgraded the department of Women’s Affairs to a full Ministry of Family Affairs (MoFA) with the mandate to ensure that due consideration was given to gender issues across all sectoral policies. The personnel have received training from UNDP.
- In South Central Somalia, the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development (MWHRD), based in Mogadishu, is responsible for gender equality.
- In Somaliland, the Ministry of Social affairs and Labour (MoLSA), based in Hargeisa, is in charge of gender equality matters.
- South Central Somalia also has inter-ministerial GFPs, for example in the Ministry of Agriculture (MoA). However, their establishment is relatively new, and they have not yet been trained and therefore lack the capacity to work in gender equality promotion.
Women package lobsters for export at a cold storage facility built by FAO.
©FAO/Karel Prinsloo
3. Gender analysis of the agriculture and rural sectors

Agriculture is the most important sector in Somalia. Seventy-five percent of the population depends on it along with livestock for their livelihood. Livestock is the main agricultural value chain in Somalia, followed by crops and fisheries. Severe gender inequalities as well as a fairly rigid division of labour exist in the sector, with variations across the administrative zones.

In Somalia, gender inequalities continue to prevail, and women and girls are considered legal minors according to the unwritten customary law. At present, women are not included in the clan institutions and are largely excluded from political decision-making, particularly in the rural areas. Widespread gender inequalities have largely normalized disparities in treatment between women and men, and boys and girls. This explains why a majority of the women themselves continue to perpetuate gender inequality and pass on discriminatory ideas and practices to their children.

The adversities of the recent decades have had a profound impact on the gender roles and relations in Somalia. Men have died due to the on-going conflict or have been wounded or have migrated in order to escape the political and economic hardships. Women have been left behind to earn and run the households, and care for the young, elderly, and the disabled. Women in Somalia have had to bear the brunt of decades of poverty, protracted conflict, and the natural disasters that continue to afflict the country. Sexual violence is still rampant in many areas, affecting women and children physically and psychologically, with long-lasting consequences.6

Nevertheless, for some women, the impact of the war has resulted in some new economic opportunities. Across the Somali livelihood zones, an increasing number of women are active in the formal and non-formal sectors and are finding new ways to diversify their livelihoods. This has led to an increase in the number of daily working hours and more arduous working days.

3.1 Gender in national development and agricultural policies, plans and institutions

In September 2019, the cabinet of ministers of the Federal Government of Somalia adopted the ninth NDP — the Somalia NDP 2020–2024 — submitted to the council by the Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development. The Plan’s overall objective is to lead the country to economic growth during the five years of its roll out. Its aim is to reduce poverty and inequality through inclusive economic growth, job creation, security improvements, strengthening law and order and ensuring political stability in the country (Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development, Somalia National Development Plan 2020 to 2024).

In Somaliland, the first ever 5-year NDP was adopted by the Ministry of National Planning and Development (MoNPD) for 2012–2016. The Plan includes the need to eliminate gender inequalities in employment and GBV, as well as mainstream women’s empowerment in all sectors of development; promote equal access to participation and decision-making in social, economic and political life; increase the number/proportion

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6 Findings from interviews with the UN staff in Somalia as well as women beneficiaries of FAO projects in 2016.
of seats held by women in the national parliament; increase their participation in the judicial and legal system through promoting education and facilitating their entry into the profession; and also ensuring equal access to justice. The NDP II, covering the period 2017–2021 (Republic of Somaliland, The National Development Plan II 2017-2021), includes among its objectives the improvement of access to primary and secondary school as well as university-level education and vocational and professional training. There is a prerequisite that undergraduate students complete a course on civics, human rights and gender rights before starting their degrees, facilitating sensitisation to gender equality. The plan also seeks to critically reduce the vulnerability of women and girls to HIV.


The NDP stipulates Somalia’s short to medium-term strategic direction, development priorities and proposed implementation mechanisms, including the use of development aid. The theme of the NDP is to accelerate socio-economic transformation in order to achieve the stated objectives for poverty alleviation, economic revival and societal transformation in a socially just and gender equitable manner.

The Plan has a strong focus on tackling poverty and commits the South Central Somalia Government to work towards the achievement of the SDGs, albeit the SDGs have been adjusted to recognise Somalian realities and Sharia law. A brief reference is made to gender equality in the NDP, highlighting that the government will prioritize gender equality in education and focus on adolescent girls.

Puntland also has a Revised NDP for the period 2017–2019 (Puntland Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation), led by the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (MoPIC). This is the second document of its kind in Puntland and follows the development plan for the period 2007–2011. The key strategic interventions include good governance, maintaining security and stability, liberalizing the market, gender equality, improving health and education, upgrading critical infrastructure, strengthening decentralization and ensuring reliable statistical information across sectors.

The main goals of social development in Puntland according to the new NDP 2015–2018 include the promotion of gender equity and women’s development and strengthening of access to justice and legal education with emphasis on women and gender equality. Furthermore, gender equality is identified in the document as a cross-cutting issue, which needs to be included in all Sector Strategic Plans.

The new Five-Year Puntland Development Plan 2020–2024, to be completed and rolled out in the course of 2020, should focus on four priority sectors: Rule of Law Security and Justice, Social Development, Economic Development, and Political Decentralization and Democratization. The Plan will reflect the harmonization of the Puntland District Development Framework, the Somalia NDP 2020–2024 and the SDGs.

Currently, Somalia does not have a comprehensive plan for agricultural development that cuts across the administrative zones. Further, the administrative zones are not currently implementing the agricultural policies, strategies or plans. However, in 2016, FAO facilitated the first national agricultural strategy planning between Puntland and South Central Somalia. It was led by the MoA of the Federal Republic of Somalia and covers 2016–2020 (Federal Republic of Somalia, Ministry of Agriculture Strategic Plan 2016-2020). The strategy includes provisions for a national system for gender equality and also for gender structure within the respective MoA as well as in the supporting UN system.

In South Central Somalia, the MWHRD has seconded that the GFPs be attached to each ministry, including in the MoA. In Somaliland, the MoA has a gender focal point.

These individuals support their ministries to mainstream gender within their programmes. There is no policy or guiding framework or strategy on gender in agriculture and livestock to guide the integration of gender into programmes. There are also no tools to support such integration. Further, the ministry teams in Mogadishu and Hargeisa have had no training on gender in agriculture.

An active and strong GTG exists within the UNCT. Its mandate is to foster collaboration and delivery among the different UN agencies working in Somalia. The group exchanges information and coordinates the efforts of the different agencies on gender in the country. It is currently in the process of developing a comprehensive strategy that will guide its work. The group acts as a think tank and provides technical guidance on gender and women’s empowerment.
to the UNCT by collecting and disseminating data, information and tools. It also strongly supports and contributes to the Peace Building Compact. The GTG also provides technical support to local governments in the administrative zone as well as to local NGOs.

3.2 Gender roles and dynamics

Rural Somali women play diverse roles within and outside the household, including productive and reproductive ones. They spend four hours more than men every day on household and agricultural work, and there is little indication that men would take over some of their tasks either in the fields or in the domestic sphere. As a result, women in Somalia are exposed to long working days and experience severe time poverty.

Notwithstanding the substantial role that women play in agriculture, their limited participation in decision-making and training, and their limited access to agricultural resources and information affect their productivity and food security. Though women are active in the agriculture value chains, they are often not represented in agricultural decision-making forums and have no access to training.

The gender division of labour in agriculture is highly skewed. Further, there are variations between the different regions and the different crops and animals.

The nomadic division of labour is heavily weighted towards women, who are generally responsible for small stock, milking, and processing and marketing dairy products. They are also responsible for dismantling and reconstructing homes. Men and boys are responsible for the nomadic herding of larger animals. In Puntland, the livestock value chain involves both women and men. Women are responsible for the slaughtering of small ruminants, while men slaughter the large ruminants. Selling of small ruminants is a shared responsibility between women and men, while the selling of large ruminants and the export of live animals is purely controlled by men. Women collect milk from the countryside and sell it in the urban and peri-urban markets.

In crop production, women are mostly in charge of sowing, weeding, harvesting, threshing and husking. Men are responsible for preparing the land and ploughing. However, the division of tasks also depends on the crop: if the crop is cereals, men carry out additional work such as harvesting, while if vegetables are planted, then women are mostly in charge. Women clear small bushes in preparation for planting, while men cut the bigger trees. However, in the south, planting, weeding, harvesting, guarding and transportation are joint activities undertaken by both women and men. In the northwest, men also thresh. Across Somalia, women exclusively winnow and mill (unless the produce is taken to a commercial mill). Men usually purchase and apply chemical inputs, such as fertilizers and pesticides. Women are also responsible for the upkeep of farming implements, particularly the hoe and ploughs.

Children also participate in agricultural activities and help their parents with many tasks – girls help within the household while boys participate in livestock management, particularly grazing.

Men sell agricultural products for export, while women sell them for local consumption: the local vegetable and cereal markets are especially dominated by women. Yet when it comes to the use of the proceeds, men take the decisions. Also, commercial transport agents and interlocutors are mainly men. In the export business, women are extremely underrepresented. Men are the main actors in the export of agricultural crops.

Marketing of produce, at most times, involves brokers who negotiate with both women and men, depending on whoever is available. If both are present, the broker will consult the man, who negotiates for the price. Managing sales, record-keeping, making financial decisions and planning logistics rests with men, who are bestowed with responsibility by the Somali culture. Women only take charge when men are away. Also, in polygamous marriages, the wives may have some form of control over the sales and finances. This also varies based on the product sold, and the payment method: when mobile money is used (for example, in sale of livestock) it typically goes to the mobile phone of the male head of household, while women can retain some control over the cash they receive from selling smaller produce (for example, milk).

Water collection in Somalia is solely the responsibility of women. Although it is quite common for women to make use of donkeys and sometimes camels, water-fetching takes up between three to five hours a day as the collection centres are sometimes very remote.

Since women are actively engaged in agriculture – they comprise 50 percent of the Somalian agricultural labour force – their continued marginalization in access to agricultural extension services, knowledge, resources and credit results in less food production. Again, due to the protracted crisis in Somalia, which has claimed the lives of many men, the number of widow-headed households is high. A number of houses are headed by women who, because of their lack of access to agriculture extension services and knowledge, have
limited knowhow and are unable to transform the household land into a productive resource. This could definitely contribute to the country’s continued heightened food insecurity.

### 3.3 Gender and food security and nutrition

According to FAO data, in Somalia today, over one million people face severe food insecurity, while an estimated 30 7800 children under the age of five are acutely malnourished. In 2018, UNICEF and its partners treated more than 3.4 million children with severe malnutrition. The greatest numbers were treated in 10 countries, Somalia being one of them (UNICEF, 2019).

In June 2019, FAO FSNAU unit released alerts detailing the poor start of the April–June 2019 Gu rainfall season and expected deterioration in food security conditions across the region. Crisis (IPC Phase 3) and Emergency (IPC Phase 4) outcomes were anticipated in June–September 2019. Although heavy rains from mid-May to early June significantly improved pasture and water availability and restored livestock body conditions, previously projected outcomes ensued because of significantly low food production and income, resulting in large food consumption gaps and widespread acute malnutrition (FSNAU. Food Security Outlook – June 2019 to January 2020 data collection).

In the north-central pastoral areas, where most households are still recovering from the extended impact of the 2016–2017 severe drought, food security outcomes are driven by stagnated or declining herd sizes. In agropastoral areas, national maize and sorghum Gu production deficits in late 2019 were anticipated to be approximately 50 percent of the normal output. Crop failure was also anticipated in the Togdheer Agropastoral livelihood zone and in the localized areas of Bay and Hiiraan. In Hiiraan, severely reduced access to irrigation water prevented timely cultivation, and harvests were delayed, resulting in food shortages (FSNAU. Food Security Outlook – June 2019 to January 2020 data collection).

Nutrition as well as food security disparities exist between women and men in Somalia. Women are systematically more malnourished than men and also less food secure. In FAO FSNAU surveys, households dependent on women for food or income to buy food are over-represented in the category of households with poor food consumption, few income sources and assets. These households eat less than four food crops and are forced to use extreme coping strategies such as skipping meals for an entire day or sending children away to eat elsewhere.

In Somali households, men and older sons typically eat first, and are given the best portions of the food. Women and children eat thereafter separately. A wife who gives the best part of the food to her husband is applauded.

However, when it comes to the younger age groups, particularly when comparing boys and girls, across all indicators, boys appear to be more malnourished than girls. The FSNAU data from 2015 shows that a higher prevalence of acute malnutrition was observed among boys (6–23 months and 24–59 months) as compared to girls in all rural livelihoods (pastoral, agro-pastoral, riverine and IDPs) (FSNAU, 2015).

The difference in the nutritional status of boys and girls might be explained by the difference in the tasks assigned to them within the household. Boys are tasked, at a very young age (from 3 to 4 years of age), to herd small livestock, gradually graduating to bigger animals as they become adolescents. The task requires that they walk long distances every day, burning a large number of calories. Girls tend, instead, to be tasked with household chores, which are less calorie-burning. However, boys and girls are fed the same meals, thus not compensating for the former’s more intense consumption of calories, resulting in their lower nutritional status.

Another reason for the differences in nutritional levels is because boys (over 2 years) tend to spend most of their time with their fathers in the grazing fields or the market, making them miss several meals. On the other hand, girls spend most of their time with their mothers at home and in the kitchen, making them benefit from more regular meals.

When it comes to breastfeeding infants, nutrition data suggest that lack of child spacing through family planning is a hindrance to sound breastfeeding practices. Breast feeding is indeed reduced during pregnancy, and family planning may significantly contribute to longer periods of breastfeeding (FSNAU, UNICEF & MOH, 2013).

In terms of interventions by various agencies, it has been noted that those targeting women with income and livelihood promotion are more effective in increasing household food security, as women are more likely to use their income for child and family nutrition as compared to men.7

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7 Findings from interviews with UN staff in Somalia, 2016.
There are two main feeding practices within the household: households in South Central Somalia will tend to share the meal at the same table; however, it is men who take the best part of the food. However, in Somaliland and Puntland, where a majority of the pastoralist communities live, men consume their meal first, while women and children eat later on a separate table. In this case, too, men tend to eat the best food portions.8

When it comes to making decisions about what foods should be consumed in the household, the responsibility rests on women. In polygamous marriages, the kind of meal prepared often influences the time spent by the husband in the household. As a matter of fact, women who tend to be able to produce good meals tend to have more children because of the husband’s more frequent visits to and longer presence in the house.9

3.4 Gender and representation in rural organizations

In rural areas, there are community committees, which are responsible for decision-making on a broad range of matters, including settlement of family, inheritance and farming disputes. These clan-based community committees, or village elders’ committees, mainly consist of men, and women’s participation is limited or virtually non-existent.

Through the interventions of the UN and other agencies, many rural groups have been set up. For example, FAO has been supporting farmer-field schools and agro-pastoralist field schools. Among these field schools, there are some females-only groups and some mixed groups comprising both men and women. Donors have varying perspectives as to whether the mixed or women-only groups are more effective and sustainable.

Another type of rural organization is agricultural cooperatives. Men usually dominate these, but there are also some with female leadership. Of the FAO-supported cooperatives, approximately 20 percent are female-led. This also includes some women’s cooperatives. While donor-driven interventions are more likely to involve women, their true decision-making power in the rural organizations is limited and remains an area of concern.

Women have formed their own community-based organizations in some locations, although, generally, this is still quite rare. Sometimes women’s groups have some male members, especially for account keeping and document recording, as literacy rates among women are low. In mixed groups, women are often perceived as more trustworthy to be treasurers. Group farming activities have the added benefit for women in that the selling of produce does not require the permission of the head of the household, which is beneficial for women’s participation.

3.5 Gender and rural finance

Somalia has poor financial infrastructure, particularly in the rural areas. In the absence of formal financial institutions, the informal financial system has grown phenomenally. This system is dominated by hawalas (money transfer companies), which specifically facilitate the transfer of remittances from the Somali diaspora to their families. These transfer systems provide a platform that is used for a number of cash-based interventions. Remittances from the diaspora are also an important source of seed money for women who wish to start their own income-generating businesses.

The few institutions that provide financial services have demanding conditions and procedures to access funding, such as strict requirements for collateral securities (for example, land title), which few women own compared to men. There are a few NGOs that provide small loans, for example, General Assistance and Volunteer Organization (GAVO) supports female fish processors in Berbera in Somaliland. Also, some of the local rural institutions, such as cooperatives and agro-pastoralist field schools, do offer and foster saving plans for their members. However, this is more common among rural organizations with a majority of male members, mainly because it is usually men who have money at their disposal. The discriminatory practices that continue to exist also restrict Somali women’s access to formal bank loans. Women have limited control over the family resources, particularly land, and therefore limited access to collateral for investment and larger business enterprises. According to data from the World Bank, 0.8 percent of women, compared to 2.3 percent of men, had received loans from formal financial institutions in 2011.

Access to finance is a major constraint to growth for small and medium-size enterprises in Somalia. Although the number of women who lead businesses is slowly increasing, social attitudes reinforced by clan traditions are a major impediment to women being at the helm.

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8 Findings from interviews with UN staff and FSNAU FAO staff, 2016.
9 Ibid.
Women who do manage to have access to financial services, do so through mobile money accounts, which are much more common than accounts with financial institutions. The share of adults, both women and men, with a mobile money account in Somalia is about 39 percent. The 2017 data indicates that around 33.7 percent of women have an account with a financial institution or a mobile money-service provider (UNDP, 2020).

No rural financial services are available in Puntland. However, the Director General in Puntland has encouraged development partners to work with the Somali government in establishing rural financial institutions that provide soft loans to women farmers and pastoralists.

3.6 Gender and agricultural value chains and markets

The main crop value chains in Somaliland are maize, sorghum, vegetables (tomatoes, lettuce, onion, and watermelon), sweet oranges and cowpeas, while in Mogadishu and South Central Somalia they include maize, banana, mangos, citrus fruits, sesame, cassava, sorghum, onions, peppers and rice.

Women actively participate and engage in a number of agricultural value chains from production to sale and end-use of the produce. They are especially involved in value chains, which require less land, skills and capital, where production cycles are short (for example, quickly maturing crops) and profits low but recurring, while the more capital or land-intensive value chains mostly involve men. Women are particularly involved in milk value chains across the entire country. They also participate in some nodes of the meat value chain. Fishing industries tend to employ many women at the processing end of the production chain. Other important value chains that contribute to the economic empowerment of women include cowpeas and assorted vegetables.

Horticulture traditionally employs a large number of women (in areas where water is available) in farm production, post-harvest processing, and as vendors at the retail end of the supply chain. The horticultural value chains that have great potential to empower women in Somaliland are watermelon, tomatoes and onions. This is because women participate almost throughout the entire value chain, they are less labour-intensive, they require less land and the crops have a short life span, resulting in frequent and consistent returns. In South Central Somalia, onion, vegetables and pepper have the potential to benefit women as these are cash crops with a large demand, and hence are an outright source of income for Somali women.

Although women make decisions on the sale of their farm produce, men are the main decision-makers on the use of proceeds and retain part of the income to purchase khat to chew, while women’s spending needs are lumped with the overall households needs.

The main constraints women face in fully benefitting from and engaging in agribusiness and agricultural value chains include limited access to training and low income base or capital to expand farming business. Furthermore, their time poverty prevents them from fully engaging in the higher nodes of the agricultural value chains, which are more geared towards commercial production, as these engagements would compete with their many family responsibilities.

Wearing the mantle of a businesswoman has helped the Somali woman. In some cases, it has elevated her position in the household and community. Many business women have some informal decision-making power in their households.

3.7 Gender and agricultural extension and rural advisory services

In rural areas across the country, and mainly in Somaliland, several extension services are provided with different goals. Extension services link farmers with ministries, provide them with advisory services on how to plant crops and control pests, and provide them with training on farming practices such as crop rotation. However, services that provide technical skills and vocational training seem to mostly target and benefit men.

Women are often left out of agricultural meetings, training and discussions due to their demanding reproductive and community roles. Somali women often face discrimination when accessing agriculture extension services, as culture dictates that women should stay at home, and cook and care for their children. This lack of access to information and extension services negatively affects female farmers’ production levels.

Extension agents are typically men, and, in many parts of Somalia, men are unwilling to take instructions from women. Thus female extension agents are rarely appointed since they would face resistance. Nevertheless, female extension agents have proven to be very effective in engaging women farmers, and they are often in a better position to help female smallholder farmers adopt innovations.
3.8 Gender and agricultural technologies

Interviews with farmers in Somaliland revealed that both women and men are unaware of the many modern farming technologies. The only farming method mentioned in the field study was crop rotation, for which men and women received training from UN agencies and development partners. As for farming tools, men mostly own ploughs, while women own hoes. The few who use tractors are mainly men. Community members do support each other and help those who are unable to farm due to lack of tools.

Across Somalia, women use a number of labour- and time-saving technologies. These include milling machines, drip irrigation, and grading machines. However, most of the labour-saving technologies are currently being used by men, for example, mechanization or animal draught power for land preparation. This might save some time for women who, prior to mechanization, were involved in the manual preparation of their family’s farmland. There are currently no labour-saving technologies (such as herbicides) in use to address the labour-consuming weeding phase. In rural areas, herbicides are expensive and not safe for use without proper training, but natural alternative methods are available. These include crop rotation, tillage systems, seed-bed preparation, and management of drainage, irrigation systems and of crop residues. Other traditional methods that can be applied are crop-sowing time and spatial arrangement, cover crops (when used as living mulches), intercropping, and crop fertilization.

Some potential labour-saving technologies for women include energy-saving stoves to reduce the time spent and security risks involved in fuel wood collection. Women also spend a lot of time in collecting water, so different water-harvesting technologies would benefit them.

3.9 Gender and social protection

The government of Somalia largely relies on the UN and other international agencies for social protection. For example, UNICEF, World Food Programme (WFP) and Save the Children are agencies with large social protection programmes. FAO is also involved in social protection for rural populations through cash-for-work programmes and various input distribution schemes. FAO’s cash-for-work programmes target the most vulnerable among the rural population: other vulnerable groups such as IDPs are typically cared for by other agencies. Some social protection interventions have faced problems with clan favouritism in the local beneficiary selection processes, but the interviewees for this study indicated they had not faced sex-based discrimination in the selection process. The government counterparts of the FAO cash-for-work programmes are the MoA in South Central Somalia, the Ministry of Livestock (MoL) in Somaliland and the Ministry of Environment Wildlife and Tourism (MoEWTP) in Puntland. In South Central Somalia, the government counterpart is the MoLSA, although due to limited government control of the area many agencies do their work directly.

In addition to the formal and donor-based social protection systems, Somali society has informal social protection systems, for example in the form of clan support. Their religion also encourages extending support to the poorer people within their communities. Individuals directly support each other, or a richer household supports a poorer one or mosques support the poor.

3.10 Gender and land and water

Rural land in Somalia is often communally owned, and land use is decided upon by elders, who make decisions on the type and extent of land to be assigned to individuals or households. They also decide on how to use the assigned land, and the time that the individual or household can use the assigned land.

Although women in the country are not prohibited from inheriting and acquiring land under the Agricultural Land Ownership Law of 1999, discriminatory customary and Sharia laws prevail in practice, thus limiting women’s access to land. Under customary law or Xeer, women are not independent, legal people, and thus are largely excluded from owning land. Furthermore, most women do not hold the title to their own land, but have access rights to the land of their husbands or brothers. The situation is made worse by the limited knowledge that women have of their rights, which contributes to the low rates of land ownership by women. The position of women with regards to land and property ownership has been further weakened by conflicts and the ensuing reconstruction process.

In South Central Somalia, land grabbing by male relatives following the death of a husband or father is a problem, and widows rarely inherit land under the customary laws. They are often deprived of access to their husband’s land if they have no children – land is vested in trusteeship with uncles and other male relatives and inherited by children when they come of age. In other cases, widows with children can keep the land, unless they get married again.
In Somaliland, land is normally co-owned by a man and a woman for most of the polygamous families, although the control over the land rests with men, while women have access to the family land. Women, particularly divorcees and widowed women, own land and mostly acquire it through inheritance from their dead husbands or their fathers. However, it is worth noting that father-to-daughter inheritance mostly happens when there is no son in the family. It is, in fact, quite unlikely for women to be landowners if there are male household members, as in Somali culture, men usually hold land titles and enjoy property rights over land.

The main challenge that both women and men face when accessing land is also related to insecurity emanating from clan-based conflict and extremism, which deny them rights to traverse from one clan zone to another.

Prior to the eruption of the civil war, during the socialist government reign, land was primarily communal, shared by clan members for livestock grazing. Small plots of land (1 to 2 acres) could be privately owned for farming purposes. Concessions were also granted for land to be used for agriculture, with a limitation of 30 acres for rain-fed agriculture and 60 for irrigated agriculture. However, after the civil war, the land ownership system collapsed, and, particularly in South Central and Puntland, this resulted in clan members arbitrarily acquiring part of the communal land, restricting or even preventing access to neighbouring clan co-members who were livestock owners. This contributed to extreme tension and internecine conflicts within and between communities. Former government officials also took control of land that was once part of a national reserve, requiring a fee from livestock owners who wished to graze their livestock there.

Women and men both face constraints in accessing water due to scarcity of water in the country. Across Somalia, unpredictable rainfall patterns, ongoing conflict, and lack of maintenance of water sources and supply systems has resulted in only 45 per cent of the population having access to safe water sources and only a quarter of the population enjoying safe sanitation facilities within 10 metres. Safe water is still one of the most difficult resources to come by in Somalia. The scarcity of this essential resource continues to challenge the health of all Somalis. Women and children are hit particularly hard, especially in areas experiencing continued food insecurity and conflict.

As mentioned previously, women, together with girls, are responsible for water collection. Almost half the households spend more than 30 minutes a day to collect water, which determines the quantity of collected water at a time. During the rainy season (Deyr – November and December), water is collected in cisterns placed around the house, making water collection much easier. However, during the dry season (Gu – May, June, July) women have to walk long distances to water collection points. Water scarcity forces pastoralist communities to move in the dry season to get closer to water sources, which are frequently boreholes. Boreholes can be either publicly or privately owned, although the public ones are less reliable. Therefore, access to water sources comes at a cost. Nevertheless, owners are quite flexible if water is needed for human consumption, but when it comes to livestock watering, access might be restricted.

Water-borne diseases, such as diarrhoea, are the cause of nearly one in five deaths of children under five and is strongly correlated with child malnutrition, leading to both wasting and stunting.

### 3.11 Gender and crop production

Women and men both play key roles in crop production in Somalia. Table 1 illustrates some of the roles:

- Land preparation and weeding constitute a large part of the work that women undertake in agricultural communities. Often, hired labour is also used.

In Somaliland, interviews highlighted that women and men are both involved in farming and they grow watermelon, sorghum, maize, onion, tomatoes and cowpeas.

On an average, men cultivate between 9 to 10 acres. There is no significant difference between the land size that women and female-headed households cultivate compared to men and male-headed households. Large tracts of land come under cereal cultivation compared to vegetables for both women-headed and men-headed farms.

Farming is practised all over the country, with the largest concentration of crops being found in the southern parts of Somalia (see FSNAU map below), where sharecropping and out grower schemes are common. Many IDPs are involved in sharecropping here. Local sale of cereals is the domain of women, while export of crops is the responsibility of men.

Access to inputs for agricultural production is low among both men and women. Women’s low literacy and education levels also mean that they are sometimes not fully able to benefit from input...
### Table 1: Role sharing between men and women in crop production

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cutting of trees in preparation of planting</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clearing of small bushes in preparation of planting</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land preparation (manual)</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land preparation (using animal draught power or mechanization)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sowing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water systems and irrigation</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weeding</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pest management</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvesting</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grading (communal work)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshing</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husking</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packing</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transporting of the farm produce</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>(only if men are absent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing (local sale) – depends on the product</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing (large scale or sale outside the locality)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making on crops</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control of income from crops</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Map of crop zones of Somalia, UN Food Security Assessment Unit (FSAU), 2010
distribution, for example, sometimes, men buy the donor-given fertilizers at low prices from women who do not fully understand their value and use. Generally, only few men and women farmers use fertilizer. Seeds are usually accessed through local traders (borrow-payback system) or sometimes from development agencies. Among the agribusinesses, those selling the inputs are mostly men, as women typically do not have the financial resources to become traders. In some cases, women function as ‘puppet traders’ to run the shops, and the real owner is a man who owns several shops. This happens sometimes to circumnavigate donor rules of distributing inputs through various local sellers, including women.

3.12 Gender and forestry

Ten percent of the land in Somalia is covered by forests, down from 20 percent in the early 1990s, exposing a high level of deforestation in the country.

Rural women mainly depend on forest resources (fuelwood) for household energy. Fuelwood is primarily collected by women and girls, but, in the northwest, men collect fuelwood when long distances are involved, and when donkeys are available. Women are the key foragers for the wood that they will use in construction, as well as for domestic use and sale. However, fuelwood collection raises significant security risks for women, particularly in IDP camps.

Charcoal is the most utilized source of energy and its production is the main cause of deforestation in the country. Men primarily burn wood for charcoal and sell sacks of charcoal in urban areas. They also export and transport charcoal to markets. Women sell charcoal only on a very small scale at the local level (petty traders).

The dry season is characterized by extensive exploitation of natural resources, such as wood, fodder, charcoal and sisal by poor women and men.

3.13 Gender and fisheries

Men and women have quite distinct roles in the fisheries value chain. Fishing boat owners are typically men, although there are also some female fishing business owners (more influential women with international links). FAO has registered, in total, 800 boat owners in Somalia, and 30 to 40 of them (4–5 percent) are women. In fact, one of the influential female boat owners is the chair of a fishermen association in Somaliland’s Berbera port, although she spends most of her time out of the country. But, generally, most of the fishermen associations are led and peopled by men.

A gender analysis, in 2014, in Berbera port, found that this female boat owner was the only female member of fishermen associations.

Men are responsible for taking fuel and ice to the boats in preparation for fishing trips. In Berbera port, fisher folk receive ice directly to their boats at a subsidized price from the Somaliland Fair Fishing Association.

Mending of the fishing nets and other fishing gear is a shared responsibility of both women and men. Sea fishing is done exclusively by men. Again, in the riverine, fishing is done mostly by men with some exceptions.

When the fish arrives at the port, men sell the high quality or high value fish to traders for further export or to hotels. The remaining fish is typically sold to women, who process the fish, cook it and sell in the local markets. Processing of fish is done mostly by women, although men can be seen at the fish markets cutting fish. Typically, processing is simple, involving mainly cleaning and chopping of the fish and selling it fresh or cooked. When women obtain income from selling fish, how that income is spent depends on the household type: if it is a married woman, the men decide on how the income is spent; if the woman is unmarried or a widow or separated, then she controls her own income.

Female fish sellers face a number of problems: often they do not have adequate cold storage facilities nor capital. Lack of capital means that they buy the fish from fishermen on credit or ask for small loans from relatives or NGOs. While there is no definite data available, some professionals working with the fisheries industry suspect that these credit arrangements also increase the likelihood of sexual abuse: for example, in situations where female sellers are tied to certain suppliers. Women fish traders are afraid of going to the poorly lighted fishing ports at night or early in the morning for fear of theft or rape, although they need to visit the port at that time is to get the fish.

The main challenges faced by fishermen relate to the lack of knowledge and techniques, or lack, or poor quality, of fishing gear and equipment.

The access of major fisheries-related input and services favours men, who are overrepresented in receiving training and beneficiaries of distributed fishing gear. Training and input distribution related to fish processing, for example solar refrigerators, typically target men. In some recent FAO interventions, women have been involved in boat construction with the help of a women’s organization.
Viability of the fisheries sector has implications beyond people’s immediate livelihoods: for example, young men can find piracy more attractive if they do not find viable livelihood options. Generally, the fishing communities are among the more marginalized communities in the Somali hierarchy, and women in these communities are thus doubly marginalized – because of their community and their sex.

Fisheries work is coordinated by the Ministry of Fisheries in South Central Somalia, the Ministry of Fisheries in Somaliland and the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MoFMR) in Puntland. Most of the staff in these ministries are men. Again, the sea fishing cooperatives are led by men, but in the inland fisheries, like the one near Dolo, a few women also serve as fisheries cooperative chairs. The total number of women members in the fisheries cooperatives is below 10 percent.

### 3.14 Gender and livestock

The livestock sector in Somalia represents a major opportunity for economic revenue for Somali people. Pastoral livestock production and marketing in greater Somalia contributes to 80 percent of the economy.

The sector is regulated by the Ministries of Livestock (MoL) located in the administrative zones of the country. NGOs and UN agencies also play a key role in providing veterinary and extension services. Preference in terms of species is given to small ruminants (specifically sheep), cattle and camels. Poultry production is limited due to low demand as chicken is not part of the traditional diet of Somali people.

Although differences in livestock management in relation to gender roles, responsibilities and knowledge production can be identified across administrative zones, common patterns can also be outlined.

As for ownership, in all the administrative zones, women, in general, own small stock such as goats, sheep and chicken, while men tend to own big animals, particularly camels and also cattle.

When it comes to day-to-day care of livestock, although, generally, both women and men take care of the animals that they own, women take care of animals around the household, while men typically manage larger animals (such as cows) that are kept outside the household. In the latter situation (e.g., if there is a milking cow at the homestead), women end up taking care of them as well, while if the animals are kept in the bush, far away from the house, men and young boys are the only ones responsible for their full care. Women also usually take care of the livestock that is kept near the house that require particular attention such as pregnant cows, newly born calves, injured and sick animals, regardless of the species. In times of drought, when men migrate with their camels and cattle to find water, women and children are expected to stay at home and care for the other livestock.

When it comes to marketing of livestock, sale of live cattle is mainly in the hands of men (typically brokers), although a few women are also involved in the sale of small ruminants. Nevertheless, even if men bring the small ruminants owned by women to the market, the ones who fix the prices are women.

Somalis often use mobile money for payments on live animals instead of cash, which often means that the payment for even small ruminants is, in fact, transferred to the mobile account of the head of household (usually a man). Export of live animals is the responsibility of men, while sale of meat is primarily taken care of by women (around 98 percent in Somaliland), and women can usually keep part of the money from the meat sale.

Slaughtering responsibilities vary according to the administrative zone. In South Central Somalia, where the animals are slaughtered outside in the open market, men are primarily responsible. In Puntland and Somaliland, where the slaughtering takes place within slaughtering houses, women mainly have this responsibility. In the case of large ruminants, both men and women participate in the slaughtering. Women also typically skin the animals, while men process the hides and skins.

Ownership of livestock rests with the head of the family, although, in Somaliland, women and men consult on what animal to sell or slaughter. It is only when men are away from their households for long periods that women make independent decisions on sale or slaughtering of animals, regardless of the type or species, to meet family needs.

Control of profits from farming and sale of livestock and products is done by both women and men, who allocate the money based on family expenditure. However, men, enjoy a certain part of the proceeds (approximately 33 percent) for their leisure-related indulgences such as to buy and chew qhat, while the rest of the income is used to meet family needs.

Milking is entirely the responsibility of women. The money from the sale of milk comes in the form of cash (as compared to the mobile money from the sale of livestock) and belongs to women. They can freely decide how to invest the income earned, which is
Findings from interviews with FAO Somalia livestock team.

Vaccinations are frequently taken only a part of their herd to be vaccinated. If there are no boys in the house that can bring the larger livestock, then those animals will not be vaccinated.10

The restricted mobility also affects women’s opportunity to participate in technical and vocational training. Further, young women do not take up jobs as community animal health workers because it is considered socially unacceptable for them to move around unsupervised and alone. This makes it difficult for them to participate in training and do field work. For example, in South Central Somalia, all the field animal health workers are men, while a few women are employed in the veterinary laboratories. The government has a training centre for animal health workers in the capital, but families often resist sending their daughters that far away. Problems of limited mobility also apply to women who would like to attend technical training on animal husbandry, as these programmes are often conducted away from the village and can last up to 40 days.

In Dolo and Somaliland, women are instead encouraged to attend training aimed at enhancing their skills in animal production and husbandry practices. However, when it comes to technical training, few women attend due to their low education and literacy levels, which restricts their ability to take full advantage of training opportunities.

Large animals such as camels represent a family’s wealth and prestige, and also provide insurance against drought. Camels are not owned by individuals, but by the clan, and the clan’s permission is needed to sell female camels. Small stock, on the other hand, belong to women, and they have the freedom to buy and sell these animals whenever the family needs extra cash or additional milk. Women also manage the use and sale of camel milk. While men milk the camels (thereby deciding how much milk goes to the calves), women decide how the milk is to be used: given to the children, or used to nourish an elderly or an ill family member, or sold.

Time poverty also affects the benefits that have accrued to women from the sale of livestock products, particularly milk. Milk is widely consumed in Somalia, and the supply needs to meet the daily demand. Women are primarily responsible for milking animals as well as selling the milk (sold fresh) in the market. However, women can only carry a limited quantity of milk to the market and once that is sold, although there could be more demand, they have to return to their household to attend to their many other responsibilities.

Women are also usually responsible for selling fodder in the markets. As this is usually done on a small scale, fodder is sold fresh and the price varies greatly by season (higher price during the dry season and lower during the rainy season). Since women usually operate on a small scale they are unable to store fodder until the dry season, when it will fetch attractive prices, like export companies do. Again, local fodder buyers are unused to dried fodder and prefer it fresh.

As for animal health and veterinary services, providers vary according to the administrative zones. In South Central Somalia, FAO together with other UN agencies and a local NGO, has established the Livestock Professional Association. The primary aim of the Association is to supervise and coordinate veterinary services in the area. Therefore, community health workers, trained by FAO, operate under the supervision of the Association. In Somaliland, the government has mobile clinics, which provide extensive veterinary support in urban and remote areas. In Puntland, community health workers operating under the supervision of the Minister of Livestock and Animal Husbandry, are trained jointly by FAO and the government.

Women’s restricted mobility negatively impacts their opportunities to fully participate in and benefit from the livestock sector. For example, vaccinations are typically given at specific sites, and men and boys take the animals to these sites. If the household is female-headed, with limited male members, then it might not benefit fully from the vaccination services provided. Sometimes there are mobile vaccination clinics that visit villages, but this is more time-consuming and proves costly. Further, women’s time poverty due to their dual role (productive and reproductive) also affects participation in vaccination programmes. When bringing animals to the vaccination points, they frequently take only a part of their herd to be vaccinated. If there are no boys in the house that can

10 Findings from interviews with FAO Somalia livestock team.
Men who sell milk, on the other hand, have the means and the time to return home and restock so that they can continue to sell.

Finally, reference should be made to beekeeping in Somalia, which began to be implemented around 2010 and has shown potential to reap real rewards. It is emerging as a successful agricultural activity for local people in rural Somalia and has been found to play a major role in environmental conservation. Yet a majority of the beekeepers continue to use traditional systems of beekeeping. Nevertheless, projects on beekeeping, including FAO projects, have shown that beekeeping can be a reliable way of reducing poverty and empowering women (FAO success story, January 2015).

3.15 Gender, emergency and disaster risk reduction and management

The political crisis in Somalia has impacted men and women differently. Somali women have borne the brunt of the war given the high levels of sexual and gender-based violence, displacement, and the lack of economic opportunities for female-headed households, especially in areas under the control of extremist groups. Men have also been heavily affected by the emergency situation in the country: the majority of the deaths due to war are registered among them. They are also the preferred target for recruitment by Al-Shabaab.

On-going conflict has caused a general loss of mobility in Somalia. The threat of different forms of violence, particularly sexual violence, continues to limit women’s freedom of movement, while men are met with a general threat of violence, as well as forced participation in militia activities.

Nonetheless, women have been playing an important role in building peace in Somalia. Their multiple clan affiliations enable them to bridge conflicting clan and sub-clan lines. While clan conflicts, on the one hand, have limited men’s movements from one clan to another, on the other hand, they have provided an opportunity for women to traverse across clans and even to undertake trading as they are considered peacekeepers with no primary role in the conflicts. Though women’s multiple clan affiliations give them the potential to reduce conflict by bridging clan and sub-clan lines, their lack of economic power reduces the authority with which they can perform this function.

The on-going conflict has caused many male casualties and has also resulted in an increase in the number of women-headed households. Women have had to take on the role of the primary breadwinner, adding to their responsibilities. Emergencies have claimed livestock assets of both women and men, resulting in escalated poverty. Women have been compelled to engage in income-generating activities to sustain their families and this is evident in the increasing involvement of women in petty trade. The political crisis has also destroyed farms and road infrastructure, and this has had a negative impact on both women and men, as post-harvest losses are huge due to poor road networks. The emergencies have also compelled many people to live in IDP camps. In the camps, employment opportunities are limited and many men turn to drug use, such as khat.

IDPs are often left in a legal vacuum, with almost no access to legal remedies because there is no formal justice system in these camps, and the traditional clan systems have broken down. Women and children make up 70 to 80 percent of the camps – many are widows or heads of households; 600000 of them are women of reproductive age, and 80 percent have no access to safe maternal delivery. Rape and sexual violence are common, and there is limited recourse to psychosocial, medical and legal support.

The 2020 desert locust crisis has also challenged the Somali people. It has had a big impact on food security, triggering further displacement and putting more pressure on the ongoing conflict situation in the country. The locusts could potentially cause large-scale crop damage and plunge the country into greater distress, pushing up malnutrition rates. Although it has yet to be documented whether the desert locust crisis will have a greater impact on women or men, given the key role played by women in subsistence farming in Somalia, it is most likely that it will impact women’s livelihoods greatly, and lead to further disruption of household food security and nutrition levels.
Woman farmer receives seeds from FAO.

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The UN Country Team (UNCT) Gender Thematic Group and its subgroup on GBV partner with FAO to improve the gender balance in Somalia. Their main work areas are: 1) coordination of gender work, 2) provision of strategic guidance and 3) strengthening UN capacities for gender work.

Possible collaboration areas among the UNCT Gender Thematic Group members are presented in Table 2:

The following sections presents other possible gender stakeholders by sector:

AGRICULTURE: GEELO, Shaldo and Geudo are some of the local women’s organizations working in the agricultural sector, across many technical areas of work.

LIVESTOCK: Action Aid and the Somali Observatory for Humanitarian Action (SOHA) distribute livestock (sheep and cattle) specifically to women and have specific programmes addressing gender equality and women’s economic empowerment. UNDP also has many programmes fostering women’s economic empowerment and gender equality in the livestock sector. Finally, the local NGOs that promote restocking and training targeting women, fostering actions aimed at Somali women’s economic empowerment are: Committee of Concerned Somalis (CCS); Somali Women’s Association; Somali Meet Development Association (which focuses on women’s participation in processing and value addition); and NAFAKO.

NUTRITION: UNICEF and UNFPA are the UN agencies that are actively engaged in working on nutrition and women’s empowerment. The local NGOs that work in this area who could be good partners for FAO are the Somali NGO Consortium and Relief International.

LAND and WATER: Partners who focus on water and land and gender issues, fostering gender equality and women’s access to natural resources include WASH, which fosters women’s access to safe water, sanitation and hygiene, and UNICEF, which also has a strong focus on water and gender issues. As regards land, two local NGOs were signalled as having the potential to be local partners for FAO to engage with in the area of land and gender equality and women’s empowerment, namely GEELO, which works on girl-child education, empowerment and leadership in relation to land-related matters, and WALKER, a local organization focusing on women’s empowerment.

EMERGENCY: Relief International was mentioned as a potential partner for FAO to work with in the area of gender equality and women’s empowerment in an emergency context.

FINANCIAL SERVICES: Dahabshil is one of the few NGOs providing some limited financial support to women groups, particularly in Somaliland through the Dar-es-salaam bank and TELESOM.

Kabaa has been the only surviving dedicated micro-lending organization. It is relatively small and focuses on lending to women. Kaah Islamic Financial Services (KIMS) offers two Sharia-compliant loan products targeting the poor, unemployed youth and women across Somalia who wish to start or expand enterprises. Salaam Somali Bank has just launched Kaalkaal — Somali for “help” — a microfinance product aimed at small businesses, primarily those owned or run by women and youth.

FISHERIES: Some of the potential cooperation partners include ADESO, OXFAM and YME. For example, YME, a Norwegian non-governmental organization, is currently supporting the fisheries sector in Somalia and involves women’s groups in income-generating activities in the fisheries value chain.

VALUE CHAIN and MARKET ACCESS: Farm Concern is an international market and enterprise development NGO focusing on value chain and market analysis. They work in Somaliland, Puntland, and through partners in South Central Somalia on small holder commercialization and related areas. They have worked with FAO to organize farmer field schools. Farm Concern has also established trader associations in South Central Somalia and Somaliland.
### Table 2: Possible collaboration areas among the UNCT gender group members

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<tr>
<th>AGENCY</th>
<th>FOCUS/WORKS ON (gender aspects)</th>
<th>AREAS/TOPICS FOR STRENGTHENED COLLABORATION BETWEEN FAO AND THE AGENCY</th>
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| ILO    | Leading in awareness raising about women’s economic and property rights. Involved in capacity strengthening of women and their organizations to demand their rights. Spearheading advocacy to eliminate discriminatory practices, particularly cultural practices, through policy development and dialogue. Lobbying national institutions to increase employment and other economic opportunities for women. | » Elimination of barriers that limit women’s access to productive resources, information and technologies;  
» Strengthening Somali institutions to initiate income-generating activities for women. |
| International Organization for Migration (IOM) | Holds community sessions on GBV. Also has cash-for-work (CFW) programmes targeting female-headed households. | » GBV prevention;  
» Distribution of labour-saving and efficient technologies for reduced work burden and access to services (efficient stoves and solar lanterns)  
» Vocational training and job creation for youth (for example, adaptation of cash for work). |
| UNDP   | Adopts a holistic approach, including value chain analysis, women’s political participation, economic empowerment and encouraging women’s participation in the private sector, GBV, policy frameworks, and CEDAW. UNDP has been supporting the establishment of the inter-ministerial GFP system. | » Formulation of the Somalia Gender Policy to tackle problems faced by rural women in Somalia;  
» Women’s economic empowerment and job creation;  
» Participation of women in the private sector;  
» Gender and value chain analysis;  
» GBV and harmful practices (UNDP has community facilitators who talk about gender and GBV; there could be synergies with FAO field programmes);  
» Strengthening the GFP system in MoA and other line ministries;  
» Media campaigns on gender and agriculture with gender trained media personnel. |
| United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) | Their GBV response includes legislative, service provision, community mobilization, including FGM prevention. Supports the ratification process of CEDAW in Somalia. | » GBV prevention: FAO support needed in the livelihood components of GBV work. UNFPA could help FAO to include GBV components in the Organization’s work, as it is known that decision-making quarrels over agricultural income/produce sometimes trigger GBV;  
» Support the ratification of the CEDAW Convention by Somalia and provide technical advice to the government on the domestication of and reporting on CEDAW Article 14 on rural women;  
» FAO nutrition data can contribute to work with pregnant women carried out by UNFPA. |
| UNWOMEN | Facilitates women’s political participation, peace and security. Coordination of gender work. UN Women also has a presence in Somalia. | » Collaboration on analytic work (UN Women is about to establish a research unit). Gender information from FSNAU has the potential to contribute to the research unit’s work, and UN Women can also support in deeper gender analysis of the data collected by FSNAU. |
| World Health Organization (WHO) | Promotes maternity health and education of women to become health workers. | Nutrition education (SUN movement an entry point). Since FAO is strong in data and WHO is doing community nutrition work, there are potential areas of collaboration. |
TRAINING and BUSINESS SKILLS: There are some organizations such as Somali Women’s Entrepreneurship Association (South Central), NAGAAD Network and Candlelight (Somaliland) which support women farmers by giving them business training. NAGAAD is advocating for inclusion of women in the Somaliland chambers of commerce, whilst Candlelight is advocating for gender equality within territorial boundaries.

RESEARCH INSTITUTIONS: Local research institutions include Bandadir University in Mogadishu, CEDRA institute in Garowe and Heritage Institute for Policy Studies.

OTHER potential partners include:

- Galkayo Education Center for Peace and Development (GECPD) in Galkayo
- USP Network (in all administrative zones) – they reach young women. They work with groups of young people, school clubs, and collaborate with local universities to disseminate information on GBV and training on life skills
- NAGAAD – works on gender and livelihoods
- We Are Women Activists (WAWA)
- Coalition for Grassroots Women Organization COGWO, association of women in South Central Somalia

Also, local media can be a potential partner in gender equality work through different radio programmes and SMS campaigns. UNDP and UNFPA also have a group of media persons trained in gender.
A man presents his registration document in order to receive seeds from FAO Somalia.

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5. Recommendations

POLICY LEVEL and PARTNERSHIP:

» The MoA and its line ministries need to receive further and consistent support to: (a) build gender capacity, and (b) provide tools for gender mainstreaming in national policies and programmes.

» A comprehensive policy and strategy on gender equality in the agriculture sector across the administrative zones of Somalia should be formulated. To formulate such a policy, a dedicated partnership led by FAO should be established among the UNCT gender group agencies to initiate a dialogue with the existing MoAs.

COMMUNICATION and OUTREACH:

» To improve general awareness and understanding on existing gender inequalities in the country, gender awareness campaigns should be launched through local media stations and pastoral field schools, reaching out to men, and particularly targeting community leaders and elderly in rural communities.

RURAL EMPLOYMENT:

» Future activities to promote economic growth in Somalia need to target employment generation for rural women and youth and facilitate their access to job opportunities in the rural areas.

HORTICULTURE:

To foster the economic empowerment of women in rural areas, quick crops with a shorter life cycle, which are easier to cultivate and do not require large amounts of land (onion, tomato, chili, red pepper, maize, sorghum, and watermelon) should be prioritized. At the same time, they should be encouraged to explore longer life-cycle fruit production – mangoes, guavas, avocados, oranges, lime and bananas.

VALUE CHAIN DEVELOPMENT:

» Women’s involvement along more lucrative value-adding nodes of selected value chains should be prioritized through vocational training. This includes dairy production, drying and storage techniques, marketing skills, and fruit juices production. The tomato value chain could very well represent a viable activity to foster women’s economic empowerment. As a priority, women should be given training on how to process tomatoes (canned tomato) and a standalone project should be designed targeting this sector.

» Agribusiness initiatives should include women among the staff who interface with farmers and out growers. This will foster their participation in FAO’s projects. Projects that provide space for women participants – for example, field days with special sessions for women only – can also be expected to achieve better results.

EXTENSION SERVICES:

» Greater employment of female extension agents should be encouraged in financial institutions, business services, investment services and agricultural extension services to better handle outreach to women clients. Furthermore, the government as well as the private finance sector should develop products that address women’s needs.

» Distribution of agricultural inputs should be carried out targeting and benefitting both women and men. This should include refrigerators and delivery trucks, as well as farm implements.

» Training in agriculture-related skills, technologies, food hygiene and safety, and value addition, should target women, and when provided to both women and men, should specifically
include 50 percent women. To facilitate women’s participation, the venue should be located in the village itself or nearby; the sessions should be timed to facilitate women’s participation; and the organizers should provide child care facilities, enabling women to attend notwithstanding their child-caring responsibilities. As for training content, it should factor in that women’s literacy levels are low and employ illustrations and other methods to teach.

**AGRICULTURAL TECHNOLOGIES:**

» Time-saving technologies and women-friendly technologies should be developed and distributed to women in the rural areas by UN agencies as well as the government and NGOs operating in Somalia. Particularly, technologies that facilitate water collection, fuelwood saving options, hand weeding and farm produce transportation (harvesting crates to load fruits and/or wheelbarrows to ease transportation of farm produce) should be prioritized.

**WATER:**

» Water scarcity remains a challenge in Somalia. Women are particularly affected by the issue as they must walk very long distances, sometimes through unsafe territories, to reach water sources. FAO, UN agencies, the government and NGOs operating in Somalia should invest in the construction of water collection facilities and dissemination of water conservation strategies. They must also focus on ground water management, specifically targeting women.

**MARKET ACCESS:**

» Access to markets can be quite challenging for rural women. Strategies for gender mainstreaming should address the problem of time poverty that affects many female vendors at the retail end of the horticulture supply chain. Based on consumer demand, these issues could be addressed by establishing small markets in the villages. This will substantially benefit women who make a living by selling produce.

**FINANCIAL SERVICES:**

» FAO and its partners, including UN agencies and NGOs operating in Somalia, should promote availability of rural micro finance and make it easily accessible to women pastoralists. They must establish rural credit facilities targeting both women and men. This could be achieved by strengthening public and private partnership to facilitate provision of financial services that are accessible to both women and men. Since women do not have access to land, collateralizing moveable assets would be the best option.

**NUTRITION**

» Nutrition education, including food preparation and diet diversification, should target men as well as women. This will foster sharing of responsibilities related to food preparation and promote equal food intake. The nutrition programmes should also educate Somali women and men on what is the right diet for adults and children.

**EMERGENCIES and IDPs:**

» In most IDP camps, women are burdened with all the work. These camps need to be organized to provide employment to men as well. Men and young boys should be targeted for job generation and employment to prevent them from being easy targets for Al Shabaab recruitment. Productive engagement will also ensure avoidance of excessive consumption of drugs.

**FISHERIES:**

» Fishing industries tend to employ a large number of women at the processing end of the production chain. Projects that target fish processing would open up employment opportunities for women. Both women and men should be targeted in training, and in the provision of fishing technologies. Gender-sensitization training should also be delivered to fishermen and women. Existing fisheries projects in the country that include processing facilities should address the needs of women in the workplace and provide amenities such as transportation, separate prayer rooms and bathrooms and, possibly, day care support for children.
6. References


7. Annexes

List of people interviewed

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FAO Somalia Nairobi staff</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johanna Erhardt</td>
<td>Head of Planning Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amin Malik</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Purvis</td>
<td>Fisheries Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ricardo Torrescull</td>
<td>Fisheries Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Dion</td>
<td>Chief Technical Advisor, SWALIM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elizabeth Karugo</td>
<td>Agriculture Input Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rono Simon</td>
<td>Agriculture Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Erastus Mbugua</td>
<td>Fodder Production Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sophycate Njue</td>
<td>Epidemiologist</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asmelash Berhane</td>
<td>Nutrition Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saeed Khalid</td>
<td>Livestock Coordinator</td>
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<tr>
<td>Robert Basil</td>
<td>Gender Advisor and Analyst</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mohamed Saeed</td>
<td>Water Resources Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fatima Hussein</td>
<td>National Animal Health Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yasin Salah Samatar</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osman Abdullahi</td>
<td>Liaison Office Manager, SWALIM</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abdikarim Hussein Duale</td>
<td>Nutrition Analyst, FSNAU</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abdi Saeed Ahmed</td>
<td>Supervisor, Fisheries Section</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohamed Asser</td>
<td>Field Analyst</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mohamed Yusuf</td>
<td>Compliance Monitoring Assistant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ali Omar Saidi</td>
<td>Field Analyst</td>
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<tr>
<td>Omar Abdirizak Sheikh</td>
<td>Administrator (finance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohamud Olaal</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdullahi Farah Ahmed</td>
<td>Agriculture Officer</td>
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<td>Hargeisa field staff</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ali Ismail</td>
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<td>Abdiwahab Ahmed</td>
<td>Agriculture Field Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr Abdi Osman</td>
<td>Consultant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Robert Bowen</td>
<td>Agriculture Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Government representatives Mogadishu</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nadib Mohamed Yusuf</td>
<td>Director of Research, Ministry of Fisheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohamed Omar Nur</td>
<td>Director General, Ministry of Agriculture &amp; Livestock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Somaliland government representatives</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Abdullahi Ismail</td>
<td>Director General, Ministry of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adan Ibrahim Jama</td>
<td>Technical Officer, Ministry of Range and Forestry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdi Ahmed Noor</td>
<td>Director General, Ministry of Livestock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Puntland government representatives</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr Ibrahim Hareed Ali</td>
<td>Director General, Ministry of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahad Olad Mohamed</td>
<td>Director of Admin and Finance, Ministry of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdikadir Ali Samatar</td>
<td>Director of Plant Protection, Ministry of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohamed Salah Ismail</td>
<td>Research Production Unit, Ministry of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdirizak Noor Mohamed</td>
<td>Director General, Ministry of Women and Family Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahmed Ali Shire</td>
<td>Director General, Ministry of Livestock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mustafa Dahir</td>
<td>Director, Planning, Ministry of Livestock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adan Abdi Samatar</td>
<td>Director, Animal Husbandry, Ministry of Livestock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muna Dahir Dalmar</td>
<td>Director General, Ministry of Environment</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>NGOs in Mogadishu</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siyad Hassan Guled</td>
<td>Acting Director, Action for Relief and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohamed Bule Dahir</td>
<td>Project Officer, Action for Relief and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NGOs/CSO in Hargeisa</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nagis Yusuf</td>
<td>Executive Director, Nagaad Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mustafe Ahmed Hassan</td>
<td>Programme Manager, Nagaad Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mohamed Mustafa</td>
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<td>Programme Manager, Candlelight</td>
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<td>Qadija Omar</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maryama Adan</td>
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National gender profile of agriculture and rural livelihoods

Gaps between policy and implementation, and limited availability of sex disaggregated data and gender-sensitive indicators to inform sound policies and budgets have kept women marginalized in many sectors. No baselines mean no measurement of progress in effectively implementing the array of commitments towards gender equality and women’s empowerment in agriculture, food security and nutrition, rural development and management of natural resources. This report reveals gender disparities in access to critical agriculture and rural resources, knowledge, opportunities, services and markets. It explores the existing gender relations and gaps in the various sub sectors of agriculture, and their possible causes and impact on food and nutrition security, and makes policy recommendations to address them.