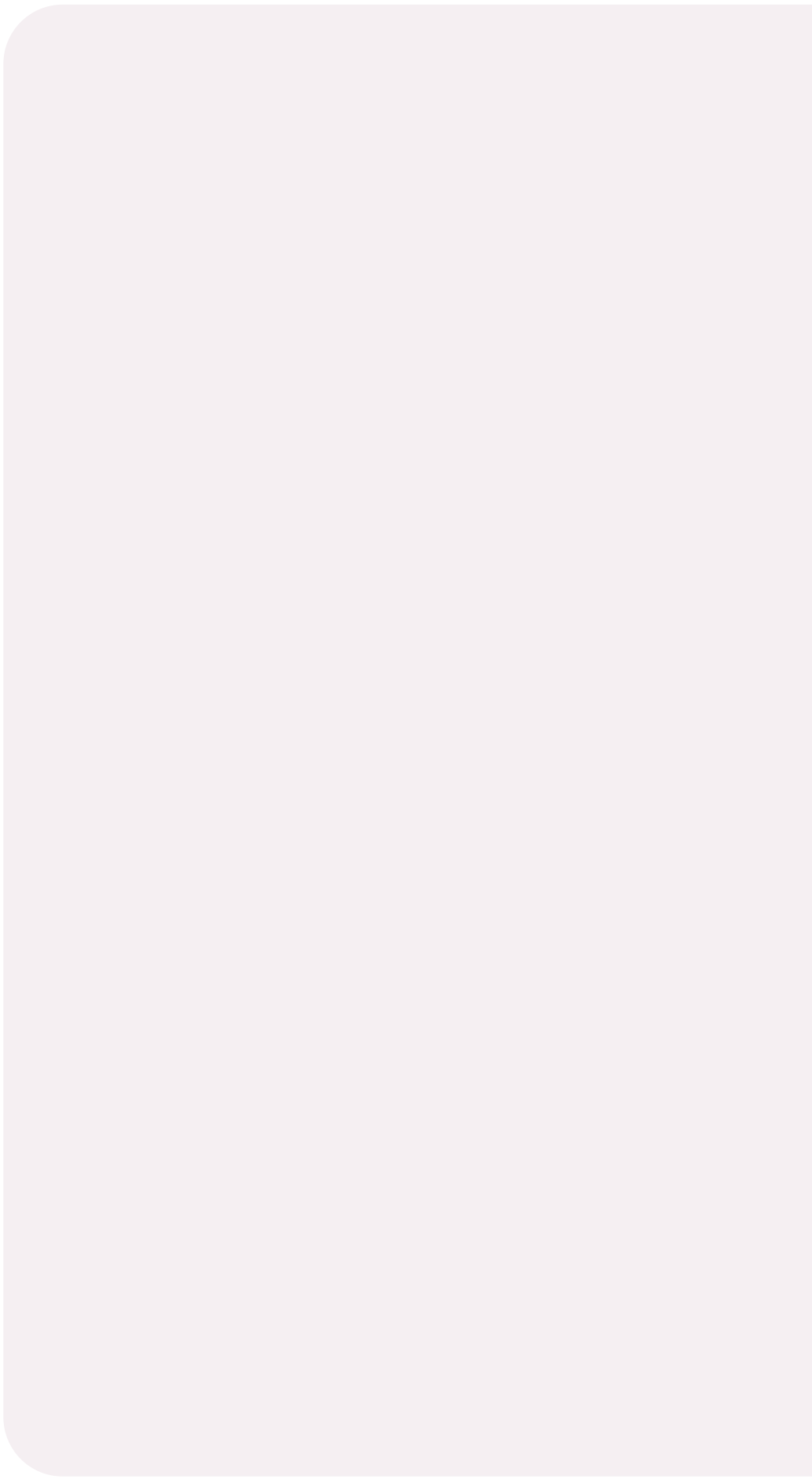


Volume 8

# GENDER EQUITY:

HIT OR MISS IN THE SOMALI POPULATION





Volume 8

# GENDER EQUITY:

## HIT OR MISS IN THE SOMALI POPULATION







## PREFACE

“Gender equality is more than a goal in itself. It is a precondition for meeting the challenge of reducing poverty, promoting sustainable development and building good governance”.

-Kofi Annan.

Gender equality is a vital component of sustainable development, if half the population is left behind, the country will not move forwards. It is essential that problems facing women in Somalia are addressed and tackled in order to provide a glimmer of hope for all the young girls and women who have been left behind and have not had a chance to fulfill their potential, purely because of their gender.

It is important that women are given the same opportunity and equal access to services. It is important to advocate for the political and economic inclusion of women in all aspects of Somali life, and to make primary education an innate right for both the boy and girl child. In the Somali context this requires attitudinal changes not only by the government but also by civil society which has a critical role to play.

Throughout the duration of the Somali conflict women led by example, in the absence of men many of them became the bread winners for households while also single handedly raising children. In the recent years we are experiencing a rise in the number women who are being more and more outspoken of the gender imbalance in the country while also taking leadership and fighting for higher political representation at all levels of government. There is now a consensus that women will also have a bigger role than before in ending the current conflict and taking part in reconciling the disheartened Somali communities who have been at odds with each other.

We look forward and work towards more participation for Somali women in all aspect of society.





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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The protection of women's rights is an obligation and responsibility of each government. Gender equality and the empowerment of women is a goal deeply embedded in the UN System. Establishing gender equality in Somali society is vital for Somali's harmonious and stable development.

Roles and tasks are assigned to Men and Women based on perceived characteristics and attributes, rather than ability and skills. Gender equality means a person's rights, responsibilities and opportunities are not determined their gender orientation.

Given the customs, religion and traditions, Somali society is patriarchal and has strict construed gender roles that do not favor women. This gender report assesses disparities between men and women in the socio-economic context.

Total sex ratio is 102.8, which indicates that there are marginally more males than females in the Somali population. Women tend to marry earlier than men, but the gap in percentage married between them closes in with an increase in age. Divorce rates increase with age and so do the widows and widowers, 'with widows having the highest percent in the 80+ at 22.8 percent compared to males at 6.9 percent'.

Male headship rate is higher than women's headship rate with over a 60 percent point difference for those aged 18 and above. Wide gaps were observed in all types of residences interviewed including rural, urban, IDPs, and across all levels of education, and social class.

Adult literacy for those aged 15 and above is 43.8 percent for males compared to 36.2 percent for females. Adult literacy declines with an increase in age and is consistently lower for females than it is for males. Literacy rates are also lower for the female population across all types of residences.

School enrolment is in near parity at the primary school level, with a gender parity index (GPI) of 0.986. The GPI in school enrolment declines as education level increases, which indicates an increase in inequality in access to higher levels of education. Enrolment however increases as household wealth increases. Education attainment for males is much lower than that of the females by almost a half in the tertiary level and by about 40 percent in the secondary level.

The Age Dependency Ratio (ADR) is 94.2 for males and 87.6 for females, indicating a slightly higher number of total male dependents compared to female dependents. Males are more economically active than the females by about 30 to 40 percentage point difference. The differences in the economic activity status also cut across ages. More males are in employment at 60.3 percent compared to females at 36.3 percent, with more females being employed in the agricultural sector at 67.8 percent compared to males at 60.1 percent.

Male headed households live in better dwelling units than the female headed households with more permanent housing materials used to construct walls and roofs, such as cement and iron sheets. Use of cement as the main flooring material is at 37.7 percent for male headed households and 35.7 percent for female headed households, while use of iron sheets as the main roofing material is at 58.5 percent for male headed households and 54.9 percent for female headed households. Ownership of assets like computers is higher among the male headed households at 2.1 percent and 1.2 percent for female headed households, and is higher amongst the working ages. Land ownership is also higher among male headed households at 44.3 percent compared to 39.5 percent for female headed households. Means of human waste disposal do not vary by sex of the household head.

More male Somalis migrate, with emigrants being at 56.3 percent for males and 43.7 percent for females. Insecurity was a leading cause for migration, with most households regardless of the sex of the household head having no plans for future movement.









# 01

## Introduction

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1 Gender and development

Gender issues are not solely about women and girls but also men and boys depending on the nature of a society, economic situation and social access to services. This means that women/girls and men/boys have equal conditions for realizing their full potential and for contributing to and benefitting from economic, social, cultural and political development. Gender equality doesn't mean women and men should be the same, but they should have the same rights, responsibilities and opportunities, namely women should not only enjoy equal opportunities, procedures, rules and laws, but the equality of results or substance.

Whereas in many communities men tend to have better access to economic and education facilities thus better social and economic outcomes, women however in some societies tend to have better health outcomes for example life expectancy. Men and women usually perform different roles and have different responsibilities in most societies. The different societal roles of males and females lead to different statuses for men and women, with women more than often being delegated to lower positions compared to men. In many communities especially in the developing world, women have less access to resources, social and economic opportunities such as education and employment etc. (USAID, 2012).

According to the World Development Report, gender equality matters not only in its own right, but it is also a form of "smart economics" as it enhances economic efficiency (World Bank, 2011). "The World Economic Forum's 2014 Global Gender Gap Report finds a positive correlation between gender equality and

per capita GDP, the level of competitiveness, and human development indicators", (World Economic Forum, 2014).

Development initiatives can have differential effects on men and women due to gender differences arising from the different gender roles and responsibilities. Information on gender dynamics is critical for sustainable development.

Global economic growth and women's increased access to education and economic opportunities have not led to proportionately equivalent development outcomes for women. Gender inequality is exacerbated by the intersectionality with other axes including poverty, class, stratum, race, ethnicity, religious belief, physical disability, marriage status, age, sexual orientation, social identity and so on. Women with multiple disadvantages are even more marginalized in the development process.

### 1.2 Gender and development in the Somali Context

Somali society is a patriarchal society whose culture is shaped by a fusion of nomadic traditional practices and norms with Islamic teachings. Islam endows on women among other rights the right to life, education, and the right to inherit property. In Somali culture, the clan system defines the identity and affinity of both men and women and serves as the collective memory. It proscribes paths of social and personal development for women quite distinct from men. Both culture and Islam enshrine the rights of women (Matt Bryden, & Martina I Steiner, 1998).

The military regime of the 1970s and 1980s,

## Global economic growth and women's increased access to education and economic opportunities have not led to proportionately equivalent development outcomes for women

improved and increased the opportunities for women. Enrolment for girls increased and women held positions in the military and civilian government institutions. Laws protecting the rights of women were enacted e.g. the family law of 1975 which gave equal rights to women and men in marriage, divorce and inheritance. These reforms were however opposed and lacked good will from opinion leaders, thus were not effective in liberating the women. The civil war eroded the little social, economic and political gains for women from the 1970s and 1980s.

*The women were unperturbed by the lack of recognition in Independent Somali state, with the collapse of the state in 1991 and the ensuing civil war, women continued to play the role of peace makers. The effects of the civil war were devastating on women who lost their husbands and sons. They suffered rape and economic hardships and often found themselves in the centre of opposing clans-their husband's clan and their father's clans. Some Somali women relentlessly supported the war by caring for the men who were fighting, fund raising, participating in public rallies and mass mobilization through Buraanbur (female poetry) while others were involved in the peace and reconciliation efforts (Bryden and Steiner 1998).*

The civil war eroded the government structures and instead entrenched the traditional clan system which excludes women. The clan system which is the basis of sharing government positions at both the national and local levels, has seen women missing out on senior government appointments. They lack access to formal justice mechanisms. According to the UNDP Somalia's Gender Empowerment Strategy 2011-2015, the inequalities suffered by Somali women and girls, who make up slightly more than 50% of the population, are "key factors contributing to Somalia's extremely poor human development index.

The National Gender Policy (2016), recognizes the changing roles and responsibilities for men and women occasioned by the two decades of civil war. Men are emasculated and they are unable to continue discharging their roles and responsibilities as they did before. Women have been forced to take over some of the traditional male roles including providing for the families yet the traditional perception of the different roles and responsibilities of men and women still remains. The goal of National Gender Policy is to promote gender equality and sustainable human development in Somalia by ensuring that equal value is placed on the contributions of women and men as equals in post conflict reconstruction process and national development.



# 02

## Resilience and strength of Somali women

## 2. Resilience and strength of Somali women

### 2.1 Historical perspective

Historically Somalia is a patriarchal society with clan-based social structures which have continuously downplayed the role of women in Somali society. Besides the traditional domestic roles of child-rearing and household chores, culturally Somali women important economic roles in farming, herding, and in business, yet all credit go to the men as the household heads. However, in recent years the civil war, drought, and male migration have dramatically increased the number of female-headed households, which comes with responsibilities that force women to take up jobs that were traditionally perceived as 'male jobs'. There are cultural challenges that Somali women face, such as the society's perception of women- that says women are lesser sex that should depend on men for survival and leadership. Somali women's contribution is unrecognized, undervalued and under-utilized, yet throughout the history of the country they have played significant roles in the social and political spheres.

### 2.2 Voice of Somali women

A woman's ability to participate and make decisions at the household and society level is key to the well-being of any society. In the Somali society however, there is ignorance on the power of the woman's voice and her participation in the social, economic and political arenas.

#### 2.2.1 Social participation

Qualitative findings indicate that women's social participation is increasing but the levels still remain low. Women are getting involved in

decision making at household at community level, they are participating in education and in the labor force and they are forming social groups for the welfare of women and children. Their full potential in the social sphere is yet to be realized as their hindered from participating fully by the following factors:

- Clannism- women are alienated if she marries into a different clan. The clan does not fully accept her as one their own and she is not allowed to speak on behalf of or participate in clan meetings and decision making.
- Lack of a functioning government health care system that inhibits her ability to seek health care for her family and herself.
- Poor judicial and administration system.
- Educated women are perceived as competing with men, something the society shuns.
- Early marriage and early child bearing prevents women from actualizing their potential.

To address the above barriers, Somali society needs to:

- Strengthen the administration and justice system- recognize the equality of men and women and their right to participation.
- Encouraging girls to pursue education and not get into early marriages and early child bearing.
- A functional health system will guarantee the health for all regardless of their gender, clan nor economic status.
- Strengthening women's rights and women organizations to champion for women's involvement.
- Ensure equal access to education and employment opportunities.



## 2.2.2 Political participation

Women issues in Somalia do not have the political muscle they deserve. For instance, there is no strategy in the national security policy to tackle domestic violence, rape and sexual assault. All is not lost however, as the representation of women in the political arena continues to increase though at a much slower rate. According to Wakiil an online database promoting transparency in the electoral process, the current parliament has realized an increment in the seats held by women to 24 percent from around 14 percent in the last parliament. The increase is largely attributable to the 1/3 gender rule. This increment puts Somalia ahead of other African countries like Kenya (where 19 percent of the lower-house members are women and Nigeria which has 5.6 percent of the seats occupied by women.

The opinions of men and women on women's participation in politics differs. The following are opinions presented by FGD participants and key informants both male and female.

**It is not in our culture for women to take part in major decisions, their role in decision making is limited to the household. Due to religious and cultural norms and values, women's involvement in politics, governance and decision making is limited, women can only vote but not vie for elective positions. They can become teachers and nurses, and in consultation with her husband lead the internal affairs of the household.**  
– Male participant Beletwein

**Now they (women) are more, but Allah says the worst community is the community which a woman leads, the role of women is that of mother and sister staying at home. If the women becomes a politician she can't care for her children, as she will become busy with no time for her husband and children. More women are involved in**

**politics but it is the wrong thing  
– Male participant Hargeisa**

**Clan, culture, tradition and elders do not allow women to participate and sit in the decision making table – Female participant Gardo.**

Lack of education causes under representation of women in the public sphere. Early marriage forces girls to abandon their education and take on family roles and responsibilities. Women have been allocated very small percentage in the cabinet and parliamentary level. Clannism remains a barrier to women's political participation- Female participant Gardo

## 2.2.3 Role of Somali women in peace building

The conflict in Somalia has had adverse effects on the lives of women who found themselves in the center of it all. The conflict transformed their social and economic status, they were forced to take up leadership roles at the household level and the role of provider which traditionally were male roles. They have watched their husbands and sons maimed and killed. The gendered nature of politics among the Somali's has locked out women from being actively involved in the peace building process. However, women have contributed to peace and reconciliation during and after the civil war in their own small ways. Their multiple clan affiliation has given them bargaining power to call for dialogue between warring clans. Among the Somalis a married woman moves to live with her husband's clan but does not take on the identity of her husband's clan, she retains the identity of her father's clan and is always identified by her father's name this is unlike other African cultures. Civil society has over the years been used as a vehicle by women to broker peace among the Somali

clans both locally and internationally. These organizations have been used to bring to the World's attention the plight of women and children during the conflict period.

Both male and female participants in the qualitative study are in agreement that women have a role in building sustainable peace among the Somalis. Their role as mothers and natures is seen as the first step in peace building. There is need for more advocacy and awareness on the role of women in peace building, inclusion of women in political leadership and security committees in order to enhance women's role in peace building.

### 2.3 Why is gender inequality persistent?

The collapse of the government in 1991 led to the collapse of systems of governance and justice. Violations of human rights and gender based injustices persisted due to lack of a government to enforce law and order. Though the situation has improved slightly with the end of the civil war, gender inequities still persist. Participants in the qualitative findings indicated that gender inequities still persist because of:

- Enhancing negative cultural norms which tend to favor men at the expense of women,
- High poverty levels,
- Insecurity,
- Lack of commitment among the leadership to end gender inequality and

- Low literacy levels which have contributed to lack of awareness on gender equality.

It is necessary to support women empowerment in order to achieve social and economic equity which will eventually translate to economic growth and stability of the country. From the analysis of the qualitative data, the following issues need to be adhered to in order to empower women.

- Commitment from the leadership. Making laws that seek to address the existing gender challenges is a plus, but it needs to be followed with commitment from the top leadership to enforce the laws.
- A strong judicial system that is not dependent on the clan system.
- Improved security.
- Sustained economic growth that will open up more opportunities for both men and women.
- Empowering community members to appreciate the role of women in society and development. Key to achieving this is ensuring that both boys and girls have access to quality education.

The role of the Somali woman in the reconstruction of the country cannot be down played. Women are key movers in the social, economic and political development of the society given their numbers. Investing in women is an investment in the future of any society.

The gendered nature of politics among the Somali's has locked out women from being actively involved in the peace building process.







# 03

## Age and Sex structure, Gender, Family and Household Dynamics

### 3. Age and Sex structure, Gender, Family and Household Dynamics

#### 3.1 Age Sex Structure

The Population Reference Bureau defines the sex ratio of a population as the total number of males for every 100 females in the population. A sex ratio of 100 means there are equal males and females in the population whereas a ratio of above 100 indicates there are more males than females and one below 100 means more females. In a community where men and women have near equal chances for survival there are bound to be near equal number of males and females. The biological norm is for

about 105 boys to be born for every 100 girls almost the world over. However, the male infant is biologically weaker with regards to congenital defects and the birth process (Prabir, 2012). Sex ratio within a population has a great impact on per-capita birth rate; a population with more females is more likely to have a significantly higher birth rate than a predominately male population.

Table 1 shows there is a female disadvantage in child survival (measured as the excess of female deaths over male deaths by age five).

**Table 1:** Sex ratio by age group and place of residence

PESS 2014					
Age in years	Rural	Urban	IDPs	Nomadic	Overall
0-4	90.4	97.3	90.7	93.5	94.3
5-9	111.2	101.6	99.2	112.8	106.1
10-14	123.1	110.4	106.7	118.5	115.0
15-19	113.2	98.4	91.2	116.2	105.2
20-24	87.6	84.6	77.7	96.9	87.0
25-29	72.1	81.3	65.2	80.4	78.2
30-34	91.3	91.9	80.9	102.3	95.1
35-39	84.6	83.2	73.1	91.2	85.7
40-44	138.3	115.3	127.1	119.4	124.3
45-49	140.4	120.2	105.5	150.6	133.2
50-54	175.7	141.8	176.5	177.8	159.4
55-59	148.5	137.4	178.7	154.7	146.0
60-64	167.3	134.4	159.5	183.3	150.4
65-69	144.5	117.7	96.1	185.6	133.2
70-74	159.8	120.7	109.1	238.2	143.8
75-79	174.8	124.6	139.3	147.4	133.7
80-84	163.4	115.1	98.9	283.3	148.2
85+	132.5	106.9	225.6	244.6	125.0
Total	105.2	99.2	95.1	108.9	102.8

Whereas the sex ratios between 0-4 years is in favor of the girl child, at age 5-10 the ratios tilt in favor of the boy-child. This could be partly attributed to differences in child care practices such as health care seeking behavior in favor of the boy-child. As noted in Prabir 2012, in highly patriarchal societies with limited or no social support system the boy-child is most preferred because he will take care of his parents in old age whereas the girl will get married and become a part of her husband's family.

At between ages 20-34, the sex ratio shifts in favor of the females. Some of the responsible factors could be migration (in search of employment) and effects of the civil war. Young men are more likely to be involved in war compared to their female counterpart's thus risking death. The higher number of females in ages 20-39 could lead to a significant increase in the population of Somali's as this age group encompasses the majority of women in the reproductive age. The sex ratio at the ages 20-39 decreases with increase in age. This means that as age increases the gap between the males and females in the population decreases and after age 39 there is evidently more males than females in the population. The decline in the female population could be attributed to high maternal mortality. According to MICS 2006, the Total Fertility rate among Somali women is 6.3, contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) which is the percentage of women currently married or in union aged 15-49 years that are using (or whose partner is using) a contraceptive method) is 15 and an Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) of 1044 per 100,000 live births. Women of older age risk dying during child birth due to among other things high order births (Emily Sonneveldt et al., 2013).

A similar trend is seen across the different types of residence except for the nomadic communities where males of age 30-34 are more than females. The sex ratio is almost twice as high in favor of males among the elderly in IDP and particularly the nomadic (225 for IDP

and 244 for Nomadic for persons aged 85 and above). Survival rates (as depicted by the sex ratios) for women in the middle-ages and older women is worse in the rural and nomadic as compared to the urban.

## 3.2 Marriage

Marriage is very important in the Somali context, as it is seen as a way to establish clan alliances and contribute to the family continuity. Among the Somalis, polygamy is allowed. Religion and culture are strictly followed by Somalis and pre-marital sex is strictly forbidden. Traditionally marriages are commonly arranged. However, the marriages based on love are increasingly permitted and accepted. The mean age at marriage has risen by 2 years since 1975. This means on average, Somalis are getting into marriage 2 years older compared to 1975'

Table 2 indicates that overall more females have ever been married, at 70.0 percent compared to males at 62.5 percent. Despite the differences being minimal, 59.0 percent females are reported to being currently married, while the married males are 56.7 percent. It follows that more Somali females are divorced compared to males by slightly more than twice, at 4.3 and 1.9 percent respectively. This could be accrued to the fact that, culturally men are the ones who divorce their wives and hardly is it the reverse.

**Table 2:** Marital status by sex

Marital status	Male	Female
Never Married	37.5	30.0
Ever Married	62.5	70.0
Currently Married	56.7	59.0
Abandoned	2.4	2.4
Divorced	1.5	4.4
Widowed	1.9	4.3

**Table 3:** Marital status by age and sex

	Never married		Married		Separated		Divorced		Widowed	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
15-19	92.1	82.1	6.3	15.0	0.8	1.1	0.5	1.4	0.2	0.4
20-24	63.9	43.0	30.2	48.3	3.2	2.7	1.8	4.7	1.0	1.2
25-29	32.0	17.5	60.1	71.6	4.1	2.8	2.6	5.9	1.2	2.1
30-34	13.1	7.1	79.6	79.9	3.3	3.3	2.4	6.6	1.6	3.0
35-39	7.6	2.9	86.7	85.9	2.5	3.0	1.7	4.8	1.5	3.4
40-44	3.8	2.0	90.7	84.1	2.2	2.6	1.3	5.3	2.1	6.1
45-49	2.6	1.6	92.9	83.6	1.4	2.7	1.1	4.8	2.1	7.3
50+	2.9	2.4	87.3	68.2	1.7	2.6	1.1	4.0	6.9	22.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>37.6</b>	<b>29.8</b>	<b>56.7</b>	<b>59.1</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>4.2</b>

**Table 4:** Marital status by type of residence

	Never married		Married		Separated		Divorced		Widowed	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	33.2	24.1	59.8	62.7	3.0	3.3	1.7	5.2	2.3	4.7
Urban	42.1	34.6	52.6	54.3	2.0	2.3	1.5	4.3	1.7	4.5
IDP camps	33.2	25.7	60.2	57.4	2.4	4.2	1.9	6.8	2.4	5.9
Nomads	35.0	27.4	59.6	65.0	2.3	1.5	1.2	3.4	1.9	2.8

**Table 5:** Marital status by level of education

	Never married		Married		Separated		Divorced		Widowed	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	28.3	20.2	64.9	67.1	2.6	2.6	1.7	5.0	2.5	5.1
Primary	26.5	20.0	68.1	69.9	2.4	2.5	1.7	4.8	1.4	2.7
Secondary	19.9	18.3	74.2	68.9	2.7	3.0	1.7	5.5	1.5	4.4
Tertiary	19.6	23.6	74.8	63.5	2.7	3.9	1.6	5.2	1.4	3.8

### 3.2.1 Marital status by age

Table 3 shows the marital status by age and sex. Marriage rates for both male and female increase with increase in age, with divorce rates following the same trends. There are twice as many female of age 15-19 who are married compared to their male age mates. At this age, they are expected to be in school yet more females are taking up family roles which reduces their chances of entering the labor market in future and limits their decision-making

abilities. The proportion of widowed women after age 50 is at 22.8 percent compared to 6.9 percent for males of the same age. It is more common for widowers to remarry compared to widows.

### 3.2.2 Marital status by type of residence and sex

From Table 4, there are no big differences in marital status by type of residence except for



the never marrieds who mostly live in the urban areas, 42.1 percent males and 34.6 percent females. However, the gap between males and females is large in each type of residence by about 10 percentage point difference.

Majority of the widows and widowers are found in the IDP camps at 2.4 and 5.9 percent, followed by rural areas at 2.3 and 4.7 percent respectively with urban areas having the least widowers at 4.5 percent. There is a large gap between the male and female divorcees and the widows and widowers which the female rates are more than half that of the males.

### 3.2.3 Marital status by level of education

The never married percentage of the population decreases with an increase in level of education for males, with females having a distinct percentage of never married population at 23.6 percent. The percentage of married females does not vary with education level. However, the percentage of married males with secondary and tertiary education is higher than those with primary education or none. Marriage rate of Somali males increases with increase in level of education attained, possibly due to the ability to provide for the family which makes them more likely to maintain a marriage. Divorce rates are higher among females with higher education.

## 3.3 Household headship

The Somali family is culturally patriarchal though this has been changing over the decades. As a result of the wars, drought, and male migration, many women are now heading households (Kemp & Rasbridge, 2004). Household headship comes with benefits and entitlements like position in society.

### 3.3.1 Household headship by age and sex

Figure 1 shows household headship by age and sex. Except for households headed by those below 18 years, more than 80 percent of household heads aged 18 years and above are males. There is a difference of 7 percentage points between male and female heads below 18 years

Figure 1 Household headship by age and sex

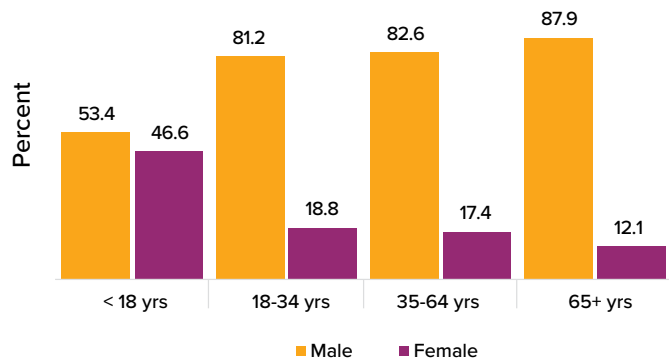


Figure 2 Household headship by type of residence

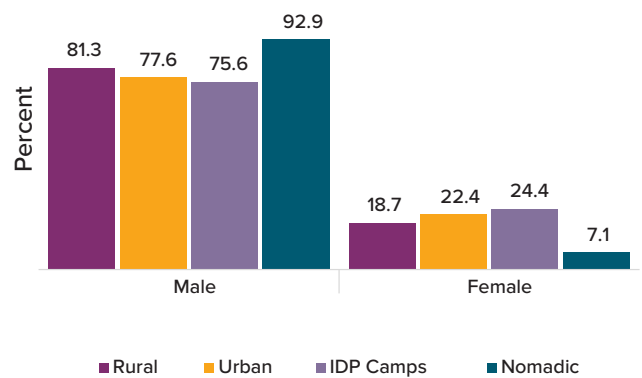
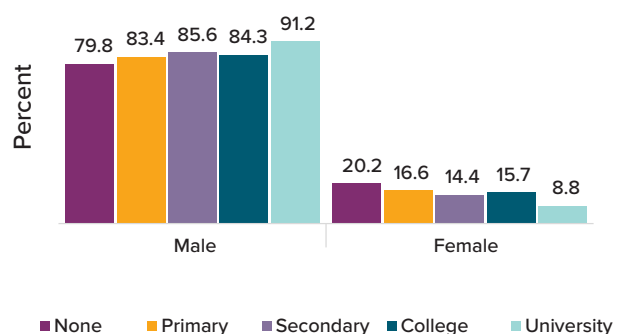


Figure 3 Household headship by level of education attained and sex



### 3.3.2 Household headship type of residence and sex

According to Figure 2, the largest difference in household headship by sex is among nomadic households at 92.9 percent of the households are male-headed. IDPs have the least gender difference in headship where female headed households are 24.4 percent. The household headship patterns presented in this figure depict the cultural and religious roles and responsibilities where household headship is a male domain.

### 3.3.3 Household headship by level of education

Data presented in Figure 3, shows that whereas 20.2 percent of household heads with no level of education attained are females, only 8.8 percent of households headed by those with a university education are female headed.

## 3.4 Household decision making

Household decision making is critical, as it is key in the well-being of children and other household members. Health and education outcomes of children are closely linked to decisions made at household level. In patriarchal societies the man who is the head of the household is responsible for making all

key decisions including how money will be spent, acquisition and disposal of family assets among others. Men dominate decision making at household level as more than 80 percent of the households are male headed. This begs the question of whether the interests of women are taken into consideration. Pregnancy and child care are a woman's domain in the social context of the Somali population. To address child survival and maternal mortality among the Somali, women need to play key role in household decisions. Decisions on finance determine access to reproductive health and child health services.

Urbanization and changing trends among the Somali population is resulting in women being incorporated in household decision making. The qualitative findings show that among Somali households, the major household decisions such as investments, family expenditure, children schooling, number of children to have (family size), and use of health services are made by the men. This according to the participants is based on the cultural practices and religious (Islamic) teachings. The practice has started changing in some areas as stated by a female FGD participant in Hargeisa.

**It depends on the areas, in the western regions of Somaliland there is wisdom. The role of women in the families is beyond the traditional role of caregiving. Women play**

**Urbanization and changing trends among the Somali population is resulting in women being incorporated in household decision making**

a great role in the family and they are thus forced to make major decisions for their families, and they cannot be excluded from decision making. For instance, they are providing for the family. In the eastern part the situation is different. The role of women is to care for the home, children and any other duties assigned by the husband. They have no influence on major decisions of the family.

Both male and female participants feel that decisions at household level should be made by both the husband and wife. According to them this will avoid conflicts and the interests of both will be catered for if decisions are jointly made.

When the issues are family issues, the best way is for the husband and wife to discuss the issues and make collective decisions. This will lay a good foundation for the children. Male FGD participant Beletweyne

Education is key in decision making as it empowers one with the necessary analytical skills to be able to make informed decisions. Low levels of education especially among women hamper their participation in decision making especially when it relates to uptake of health and other social services. This calls for increased access to education for both males and females.

### 3.5 Gender based Violence

The changing gender roles and conflict have contributed to the increase in incidences of Gender Based Violence (GBV). GBV is a violation of the rights of women and girls, men and boys. Unfortunately GBV prevalence is higher among the most vulnerable in society. According to the GBV Information Management System (GBVIMS) data for January to December 2016, 74% of the GBV survivors are IDPs and

99% are female (UNFPA, 2016). According to literature and the qualitative findings women suffer more from GBV as compared to men. The most common forms of violence perpetrated against women and girls includes Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), rape, forced marriage, physical, verbal and emotional violence, abandonment of women by their spouses, among others. The FGM prevalence rate in the Somali society is 98%.

#### 3.5.1 Challenges in the Prevention of GBV

The following challenges exist in prevention of GBV

- Inter clan conflicts and the resultant displacement of people.
- Social norms that do not recognize some forms of GBV such as FGM, marital rape and forced marriage.
- Stigmatization of GBV victims which prevents them from reporting of cases.
- Low levels of education - both secular and religious increase the vulnerability of women as they are not aware of their rights.

#### 3.5.2 What can be done to address GBV?

Already there are efforts by International organizations, NGOS and the government to address GBV. According to the qualitative findings, to eradicate GBV in the Somali society, there has to be justice for the victims by prosecution of those who commit GBV, advocacy and public awareness to address cultural practices that perpetrate GBV, strong government, law and order combined with commitment from the leadership to fight GBV and enactment and enforcement of laws that protect women, girls, boys and men equally. Absence of war in the society is a critical ingredient in the fight against GBV.





# 04

## Education

## 4. Education

Education is critical in achieving social, economic and gender parity. Behaviors and beliefs formed in schools and educational institutions can have a lasting impact on gender relations in society. Sadly, gender inequity still exists in the education system. This is mainly because the educational institutions are shaped by societal forces that perpetuate gender based discrimination.

Increasing attention is being given towards achieving gender equality in education, most notable attempts at this is the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO's) Education for All (EFA) goals, and the Sustainable Development Goals. To achieve gender equality, education systems need to address more than gender parity. They need to ensure that both boys and girls have equal access to educational opportunities and that they both experience the same levels of quality and outcomes (United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), 2012).

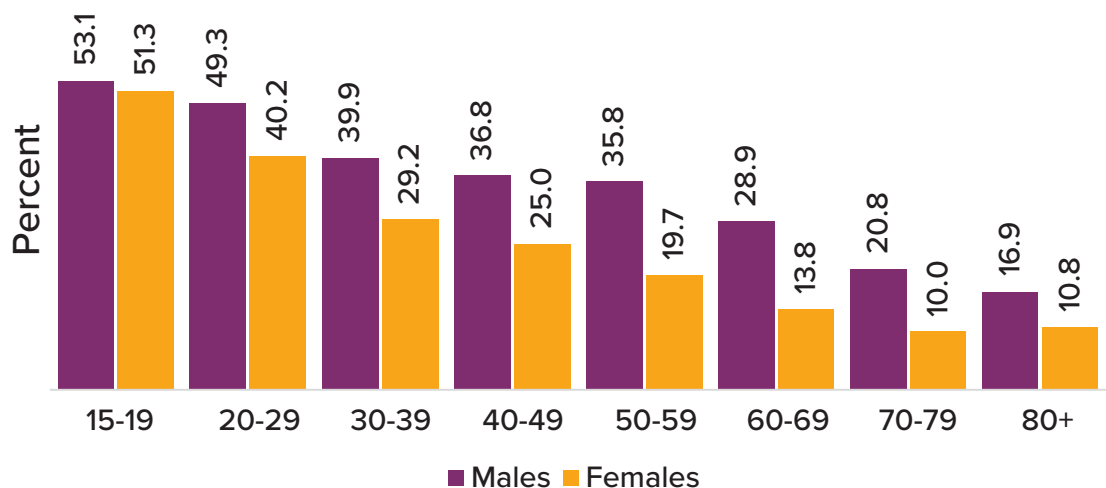
### 4.1 Literacy

According to UNESCO, literacy is the ability to read and write in any language. Anyone who can understand, interpret, create, communicate, compute and use printed written materials associated with varying context is classified by UNESCO as literate. It can be aggregated into adult and youth literacy. Adult literacy rate is the population aged 15 and above who are both able to read and write, with an understanding of a short simple statement in their everyday lives. Youth literacy rate on the other hand is the percentage of youth 15-24 years who are able to both read and write with an understanding of a simple statement (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2013).

#### 4.1.1 Adult literacy

Overall the Somali literacy rate stands at 40%. Out of the total male population aged 15 years and above, 43.8 percent are literate compared to 36.2 percent of the female population. The

**Figure 4** Adult literacy by age and sex



**Table 6:** Adult literacy by age and sex

Age	Male	Female	Gender Parity Ratio
15-19	53.1	51.3	0.966
20-29	49.3	40.2	0.815
30-39	39.9	29.2	0.732
40-49	36.8	25.0	0.679
50-59	35.8	19.7	0.550
60-69	28.9	13.8	0.478
70-79	20.8	10.0	0.481
80+	16.9	10.8	0.639

differences could be attributed to lack of equal opportunities to access education which are in favor of males due to culturally construed norms, roles and responsibilities that favor the boy-child's access to education.

Figure 4 indicates that adult literacy rates decline with an increase in age starting from 15 to 80+, from 53.1 percent to 16.9 percent for males and 51.3 percent to 10.8 percent for females. The literacy for females is consistently lower in each age group. This is one of the evident inequalities in Somali society that needs to be addressed.

According to Table 6, the gender parity ratio (GPR) in adult literacy indicates consistent increase of inequality with age in favor of males. A GPR of 1 indicates parity, while a GPR of less than 1 indicates less women participating in the phenomena being measured and greater than 1, more women. It is worth noting that among the younger age groups (15-19) the GPR is very close to 1.

#### 4.1.2 Adult literacy by type of residence

As shown in Figure 4, although less women are literate across all types of residence in comparison to men, the urban woman is

slightly better than her other counter parts with a GPR of 0.824. Literacy rates among the urban women, are about two times higher than those in the rural and IDP camps. Nomadic women have the lowest literacy rates.

**Table 7:** Adult literacy by type of residence and sex

Type of residence	Male	Female	Gender Parity Ratio
Rural	31.1	23.8	0.765
Urban	70.5	58.1	0.824
IDP Camps	38.6	27.6	0.715
Nomadic	13.6	10.5	0.772

#### 4.1.3 Comparison with selected sub-Saharan countries

The proportions of literate males is higher than for females across all countries shown in Table 8. Somalis have the third lowest female literacy ratios compared to their neighboring countries, the lowest being South Sudan followed by Ethiopia.

**Table 8:** Adult literacy rates for selected Sub-Saharan Countries

Country	Year	Adult literacy rates		
		Male	Female	Total
Djibouti	2009	78.0	58.4	67.9
Eritrea	2011	79.5	59.0	68.9
Ethiopia	2007	49.1	28.9	39.0
Kenya	2010	90.6	84.2	87.4
Rwanda	2010	74.8	67.5	71.1
Somalia*	2014	43.8	36.2	40.0
South Sudan	2009	40.0	16.0	27.0
Sudan	2011	80.7	63.2	71.9
Tanzania	2010	75.5	60.8	67.8
Uganda	2010	82.6	64.6	73.2

## 4.2 Enrolment

Of the total Somali population 36.6 percent are currently enrolled in the formal education system of which, 35.0 percent are females and 38.1 percent are males. Table 9 below shows that, across all age groups the proportion of males enrolled is higher than that of females, the difference is highest among those in the age bracket 18-24 years who are expected to be enrolled in post-secondary institutions.

### 4.2.1 Enrolment by age

From Table 9, enrolment decreases by broad age categories from 59.7 percent for 6-13 years age category to 40.3 percent for 18-24 years age category, which may be an indication of low transition rates from one education level to the other confounded with high dropout rates. The inequality increases with increase in education level, which is represented by the broad age categories, except for those aged 35 and above.

**Table 9:** Enrolment by age and sex

Age	Male	Female	Total
6-13	59.7	58.8	59.2
14-17	55.8	54.6	55.2
18-24	40.3	33.3	36.6
25-34	18.9	15.0	16.8
35+	12.4	11.3	11.9
Total	38.1	35.0	36.6

**Table 10:** Enrolment by type of residence

Type of residence	Male	Female
Rural	35.5	32.7
Urban	55.3	50.2
IDP Camps	26.5	22.1
Nomadic	16.5	14.8

### 4.2.2 Overage enrolment in primary and secondary education

Overage enrolment represents either late entry into the education system or level and or grade repetition. The extent to which children start a given level at the stipulated age (6 years for primary and 14 years for secondary) of the education system and proceed to complete within the required period indicates progress in the education system. Grade repetition is generally discouraged as it indicates wastage in the educational system.

From Table 11, overage enrolment increases with an increase in age for primary grade for both males and females the same goes for secondary school for males, with female rates declining with an increase in age, which could be justified by high drop-out rates for females with an increase in educational level.

**Table 11:** Overage enrolment

Enrolment age	Primary		Secondary	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
6-13	52.62	47.38	58.34	41.66
14-17	53.29	46.71	53.56	46.44
18-24	52.19	47.81	55.53	44.47
25+	51.73	48.27	55.87	44.13
Total	52.80	47.20	54.84	45.16

### 4.2.3 Gender Parity Index

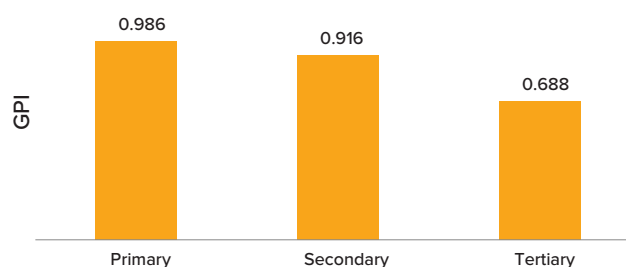
Gender Parity Index (GPI) is the ratio of the number of male students enrolled at a particular level of education to the number of female students in the same level. A GPI of 1 indicates parity or equal access to that particular level of education between sexes. A GPI that varies between 0 and 1 means a disparity in favor of males, whereas a GPI greater than 1 indicates that more females are enrolled at a specific level of education



#### 4.2.4 Gender parity index by level of education

Figure 5 shows the GPIs at the different education levels. Enrollment at primary level is almost equal (0.986) but decreases slightly at secondary level (0.916). The parity gap widens significantly at tertiary level. The trend is due to the different roles that girls and boys take up as their age increases, including marriage and child bearing and societal expectations which determine the education investments by families for males and females in a society where resources are very limited.

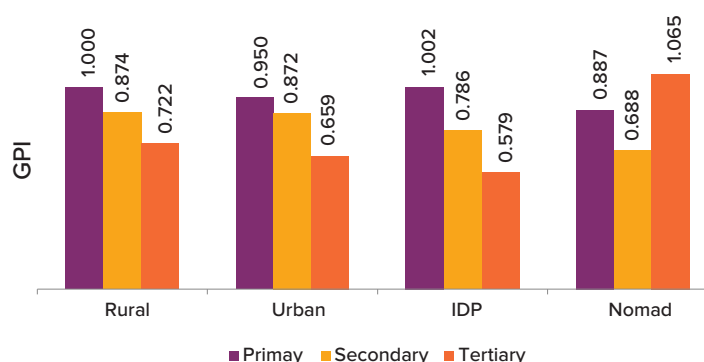
Figure 5 Gender parity index by level of education



#### a) Gender parity by type of residence

There is equal access to primary education for boys and girls residing in rural and IDP camps (GPI of 1.00 and 1.002 respectively) with near parity in urban (0.95). Disparities at this level exist among the nomads where more boys than girls are enrolled. This could probably be as a result of value attached to the boy and girl child. At the secondary level, disparities across all types of residences, the highest disparities are noted among the nomads and at secondary level.. At this level boys have more access to education than girls. One of the reasons could be marriage, secondary school age coincides with the culturally appropriate age for girls to marry. Interestingly among the Nomadic residents, there are more girls than boys enrolled in tertiary institutions. A nomad girl-child who makes it to secondary education is more likely to enroll in tertiary level education than her male counterpart. This could be partly explained by the labour needs of the nomadic type of residence. The males are responsible for herding and culturally the family wealth which is mostly in the form of livestock and land is inherited by the male child. (Figure 6).

Figure 6 Gender parity by type of residence



to steer economic growth. Education serves as the central pillar for Somalia's long-term stability, poverty alleviation and economic development. Educational attainment determines one's economic participation, for instance persons with tertiary level of education are more likely to be economically active. Studies have established that women's educational attainment is positively correlated with female economic participation (Chad Steinberg & Masato Nakane, 2012). The also youth form a critical part of the current and future labour force. It is thus necessary that they are equipped with proper education and skills necessary to position the country in the global economy. This section presents

### 4.3 Educational attainment

Education and training builds skills needed

educational attainment for the population aged 25 and above.

Third, housework and family care also contribute to decline of women's labor force participation. Fourth, the women's labor force participation rate is largely influenced by women's educational attainment. A gender gap in wage payment may result from either competence differences or discrimination. One important indicator of competency is educational attainment.

#### 4.3.1 Educational attainment by type of residence

Table 12 shows that educational attainment by type of residence is higher for males than females at all levels, apart from in urban areas where there is parity (GPR is 1.077). Educational attainment for males at tertiary level in all types of residences is over double that of females.

### 4.4 Challenges and opportunities

The right of girls and women starts in school. Disparities exist in literacy, enrolment and attainment in favor of the male population. According to the qualitative findings, access to education is determined by the value the family places on education and the different gender construed roles. Early marriage and domestic chores prevent the girl-child from accessing education. The male-child is given preference

when it comes to education, he is more likely than the female-child to get a government scholarship particularly if it is an overseas scholarship.

**There are families who are fair and give equal access to education for both boys and girls, but the first choice is given to the boy. Usually men get the scholarships to go abroad. The government usually prefers to give scholarship to men than women. If parents are unable to educate both male and female, and have to choose between boys and girls, they choose boys.**

**-Female FGD participant from Beletweine**

**There is injustice regarding management of scholarships in general and for women in particular. Males are more likely to be given a scholarship. Cultural bias such as preference for the male-child over the girl-child dictates who is prioritized regardless of their education abilities.**

**-Male FGD participant Beletweine.**

However not all is gloom, some strides have been achieved in bridging the gender gap in education. There is evidence that efforts have been put in to promote girl-child education. Trends in literacy rates not only show positive growth as age reduces, but also the gap between the males and female exhibits a decline as age increases.

Type of residence influences access to

**Table 12:** Educational attainment by level and type of residence

Type of Residence	Primary			Secondary			Tertiary		
	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	Ratio	Male	Female	GPR
Rural	9.8	7.5	0.765	5.9	3.5	0.593	2.4	1.1	0.458
Urban	14.2	15.3	1.077	19.8	13.6	0.687	16.9	7.7	0.456
IDP Camps	12.4	11.1	0.895	5.6	3.5	0.625	3.2	1.1	0.344
Nomadic	3.5	2.8	0.800	0.5	0.4	0.800	0.4	0.2	0.500

education. Generally the rural and nomadic types of residence have limited access to education facilities, access for the girl-child is further limited by cultural roles, responsibilities and values attached to the boy and girl-child. The urban areas have better access to education facilities and less demand for domestic labor. They thus provide an opportunity for the girl-child to access education. Increasing access to education in the rural and nomadic residences will be beneficial both for the boy and girl child. In addition awareness creation on the values of educating a child will go a long way in bridging the gender gap.

Opportunities to invest in education exist in the Somali population which still has low literacy, enrolment and attainment levels especially at the higher levels. There is an even bigger opportunity that exists in investing in the

education of girls and women. According to studies conducted in other countries, investment in women education yields better outcomes in terms of family health and the general wellbeing of society. Education enhances women's wellbeing and gives them a greater voice in household decisions, greater autonomy to determine the conditions of their lives and improved opportunities to participate in community affairs and the labor market. Women's fertility and the use of reproductive health care services has also been linked to women's education





# 05

## Economic characteristics



## 5. Economic characteristics

Despite significant progress in recent decades, labor markets across the world remain divided along gender lines. Female labor force participation has remained lower than male participation, gender wage gaps are high, and women are overrepresented in the informal sector and among the poor. In many countries, legal restrictions persist which constrain women from developing their full economic potential.

While equality between men and women is in itself an important development goal, women's economic participation is also a part of the growth and stability equation. In rapidly aging economies, higher female labor force participation can boost growth by mitigating the impact of a shrinking workforce. Better opportunities for women can also contribute to broader economic development in developing economies.

Economic empowerment of women and participation in the labour force are important in creating an equitable society and strengthening their rights (DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET), 2011). Gender roles and responsibilities are in a position to affect broad based economy that is sustainable (ACDI/VOCA, 2012)

### 5.1 Age dependency ratio

The Total Age Dependency Ratio shows the ratio of the population age 0-14 and age 65+ to the population of working age (15-64).

The Total ADR is calculated as:

$$ADR (Total) = \frac{Population (0-14) + Population (65+)}{Population (15-64)} \times 100$$

The Age Dependency Ratio can be broken down in two components of the child and old age dependency ratios as follows:

$$ADR (Young) = \frac{Population (0-14)}{Population (15-64)} \times 100$$

$$ADR (Old) = \frac{Population (65+)}{Population (15-64)} \times 100$$

### Age dependency ratio by sex

The age dependency ratios for Somalia have consistently declined over the past decades but still remain high; 99 in 1975, 92.5 in 2002 and 90.7 in 2014. The total ADR for the total Somali population is currently at 90.7, while the ADR for the children and elderly is 87.4 and 4.1 respectively. This means that there are less than four older persons per 100 Somalis of working age. The total Age Dependency Ratio is almost entirely the result of the high number of children in the Somali population, caused by a high fertility rates over a long period of time. A high child ADR is a demographic burden on the working age population in terms of increased pressure on families, education and health services as well as employment opportunities particularly for women. It also means that there will be a continued increase of young adults entering the labor market. This poses many challenges but can also provide a demographic window of opportunity (known as a demographic dividend) that should be tapped into for national development. If the

**Table 13:** Age dependency ratio by sex

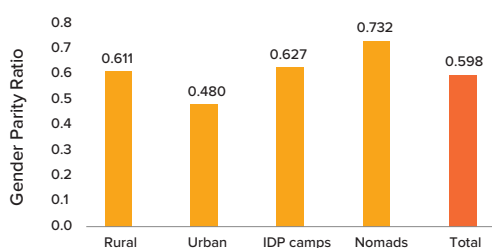
Sex	Young	Old	Overall
Male	90.1	4.1	94.2
Female	84.8	2.8	87.6
Total	87.4	3.5	90.9

rapid burgeoning of the adolescent and youth population is equipped with education and training that matches the market needs, it can accelerate economic growth and human development.

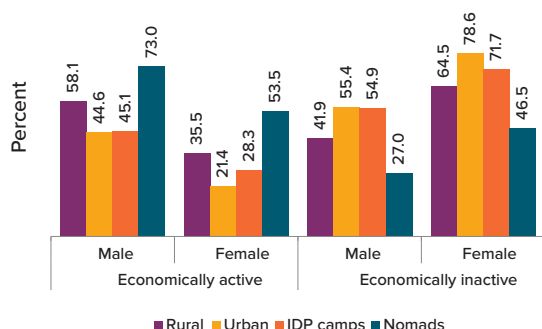
## 5.2 Economic activity status

Economic activity of the population is usually broken down into two broad categories i.e. economically active and economically inactive. In the context of this report, the economically active population are persons who during the last 12 months period preceding the PESS

**Figure 7** Gender Parity Ratio of the economically active by type of residence



**Figure 8** Economic activity status by type of residence



2014 were either employed or unemployed (but actively looking for work), whereas the economically inactive persons included woman without any economic activity, disabled persons, students, retired persons etc.

Analysis by gender in Figure 7 depicts a

gender disparity in favour of males. The high percentage of the economically inactive female population is indicative of socially constructed roles and responsibilities of females that limit women's labor participation and active contribution to the socio-economic development of the country. Somali culture is male-centered, and the cultural gender norm indicates that men should work outside the home while women remain at home as primary care givers to children and other members of the family.

Economically inactive females are more among the urban residents (78.6 percent) than any other type of residence and lowest among the nomadic community at 46.5 percent. This could be explained by the fact that Somali population is largely supported by livestock and its by-products.

Figure 8, shows that males who are economically active are more than females, mainly due to child bearing and rearing roles. It follows that more females are economically inactive and are not looking for work.

### 5.2.1 Economic activity by level of education and sex

From Table 14, the percent of the economically active increases with increase in the level of education from primary to tertiary and conversely the percent of economically inactive declines with increase in education levels attained. However, the females with no education have the highest percentage of the population being economically active, which is due to the fact that there may be high population of women without education and those who do not acquire any formal education get involved in earning a livelihood for their families or become care givers.

**Table 14:** Economic activity by level of education and sex

	Economically active			GPR	Economically inactive		
	Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total
None	72.6	41.8	56.4	0.575	27.4	58.2	43.6
Primary	76.3	34.9	54.8	0.457	23.7	65.1	45.2
Secondary	81.6	37.6	62.7	0.461	18.4	62.4	37.3
Tertiary	88.2	57.1	78.2	0.647	11.8	42.9	21.8
Total	55.3	33.1	44.4	0.598	44.7	66.9	55.6

**Table 15:** Table Economic activity by age and sex

	Economically active			GPR	Economically inactive		
	Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total
10-19	25.3	21.1	23.3	0.833	74.7	78.9	76.7
20-29	62.7	37.3	48.8	0.594	37.3	62.7	51.2
30-39	84.6	43.5	63.0	0.514	15.4	56.5	37.0
40-49	86.3	45.9	68.5	0.532	13.7	54.1	31.5
50-59	79.0	40.8	64.3	0.517	21.0	59.2	35.7
60-69	63.0	26.8	48.7	0.426	37.0	73.2	51.3
70-79	41.9	16.8	32.1	0.401	58.1	83.2	67.9
80+	29.3	13.5	23.2	0.461	70.7	86.5	76.8
Total	55.3	33.1	44.4	0.598	44.7	66.9	55.6

### 5.3 Labour force participation

The labor force participation rate (LFPR) is the number of economically active persons (employed and unemployed) per 100 of the total population. The labor force participation rate for the Somali population is 50.2 percent of which 63.6 percent are males and 36.6 percent are females.

As illustrated in Table 16, more male Somalis are in the labour force than females, which is a form of economic inequality. The inequality in the labour force participation is consistent in all ages and is more for the age bracket of 35-64 for both males and females.

Labour force participation rates by type of residence show that the nomadic population have the highest proportion of population in employment for both males and females.

Labour force participation rates also increase with increased levels of education and are highest among the most educated in the population. Females in the poorest households are the most in economic employment, compared to females in the other wealth quintiles. However, the differences are minimal by type of residence.

Women are placed in a disadvantaged position in the market economy because of traditional social division of labor and their dual burden of work and family. Significant global progress around gender equality has been made in areas such as education, reproductive rates, average life expectancy, labor force participation rates, and enlargement of legal rights and so on. Yet, in other areas progress comes at a much slower pace, such as disproportionate mortality of women/girls, gender polarization of economic activities, income gaps, division



**Table 16:** Labor force participation rate

Background variable	Male	Female	Ratio
<b>Age</b>			
10-14	18.3	16.0	0.874
15-24	42.3	30.3	0.716
25-34	77.9	41.8	0.537
35-44	86.3	44.8	0.519
45-54	83.6	43.1	0.516
55-64	70.4	32.5	0.462
65+	41.6	17.4	0.418
<b>Type of residence</b>			
Rural	58.1	35.5	0.611
Urban	44.6	21.4	0.480
IDP Camps	45.1	28.3	0.627
Nomadic	73.0	53.5	0.733
<b>Formal level of education completed</b>			
None	72.6	41.8	0.576
Primary	76.3	34.9	0.457
Secondary	81.6	37.6	0.461
Tertiary	88.2	57.1	0.647
<b>Wealth index</b>			
Poorest	52.2	31.5	0.603
Second	50.3	27.5	0.547
Third	48.7	24.2	0.497
Fourth	47.9	24.2	0.505
Richest	45.7	25.1	0.549
Total	60.3	36.6	0.607

of household labor and family care, property rights, women's voices and initiatives in both public and private sectors (World Bank, 2012). Global economic growth and women's increased access to education and economic opportunities have not led to proportionately equivalent development outcomes for women. Gender inequality is exacerbated by the intersectionality with other axes including poverty, class, stratum, race, ethnicity, religious belief, physical disability, marital status, age, sexual orientation, social identity and so on. Women with multiple disadvantages are even more marginalized in the development process. Therefore, this research focuses on gender equality and development when discussing the "Post-2015 Development Agenda."

Qualitative findings indicate that low female participation in labor force is due to:

- Traditional roles and responsibilities of women that keep them away from the labor force market. Women's roles are centered on child bearing, nurturing and caring for children and the family.
- Culture and religion dictate the kind of jobs women can take on in the labor market.
- Discrimination against women in the work place.
- Low levels of education among women.

**The role of women is in managing the household affairs. There are less women participating in the labor force compared to men, because women employment can lead to conflict in the family. There are cultural limitations for jobs that women can take up, plus our religion does not allow women to go to workplaces as it discourages the free mixing or interaction between males and females who are not related.**  
- Male respondent Beletweyne

## 5.4 Employment

The employment rate (EMPR) is defined as the number of employed persons per 100 persons in the labour force (employed and unemployed). The unemployment rate (UNER) is defined as the number of unemployed persons per 100 persons in the labour force. The high unemployment rate in Somalia is the main expression of poverty. The need for job creation initiatives is a common request by young people.

From Table 17, the employment rates are highest among the nomadic male population, followed by the rural male population with the least employment rates being from the IDP male population. Consistently, the female employment rates are lower than those of the males by approximately 30 to 60 percent

Table 17: Employment and unemployment rates

Background Characteristics	Employed			Unemployed		
	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR
<b>Type of residence</b>						
Rural	51.5	29.0	0.563	17.3	11.5	0.665
Urban	36.2	14.6	0.403	16.4	10.0	0.610
IDP Camps	35.8	22.4	0.626	19.4	10.2	0.526
Nomadic	70.1	49.7	0.709	8.8	5.9	0.670
<b>Age</b>						
15-19	21.9	17.5	0.799	11.7	9.0	0.769
20-24	37.2	23.5	0.632	17.1	11.1	0.649
25-29	54.0	29.5	0.546	19.0	10.8	0.568
30-34	65.9	34.4	0.522	17.4	9.6	0.552
35-39	71.4	34.6	0.485	15.0	8.3	0.553
40-44	71.0	38.7	0.545	15.2	8.5	0.559
45-49	72.7	36.7	0.505	13.8	6.8	0.493
50-54	66.8	35.1	0.525	13.6	7.3	0.537
55-59	63.3	30.0	0.474	12.2	7.1	0.582
60-64	53.8	21.4	0.398	12.6	7.5	0.595
<b>Education</b>						
None	57.8	33.4	0.578	16.5	9.3	0.564
Primary	55.2	23.3	0.422	22.4	11.8	0.527
Secondary	61.1	23.4	0.383	21.1	14.3	0.678
Tertiary	70.5	37.4	0.530	18.5	20.2	1.092
<b>Wealth Index</b>						
Poorest	43.5	24.4	0.561	18.7	12.0	0.642
Second	42.1	20.5	0.487	18.0	10.9	0.606
Third	40.9	17.6	0.430	16.9	10.1	0.598
Fourth	40.7	18.0	0.442	16.0	9.6	0.600
Richest	38.0	18.7	0.492	15.5	10.0	0.645
Total	57.8	33.4	0.578	16.5	9.3	0.564

depending on types of residence.

Employment rates keep rising with age, from age 15 to age 54 for males after which it declines slightly to age 64. For the females, there is an earlier decline. The GPR illustrates an increasing general trend in inequality mostly because women are not empowered and seem to take up the care-takers roles.

Considering educational level, inequalities reduce with increased educational levels attained and so do the employment rates. It is odd that the employment rates reduce with an increase in the wealth status of the family from which one comes from, which could be attributed to the ability of the household heads to provide for the females and as such there is no need for them to take up any employment.

The inequality between males and females follows the same trend..

## 5.5 Occupation

From Table 18, males were mainly employed as Elementary occupations (unskilled), Agricultural, livestock, forestry and fishery workers and as service and sales workers with a GPR above 1, while very few women were employed as Stationary and mobile plant and machine operators and assemblers and as Managers.

## 5.6 Economic inequities

At the work place, women are usually sidelined when it comes to promotions and training opportunities. The qualitative findings show

**Table 18:** Major occupation groups by sex

Major occupation groups by sex (Percent)	Males	Females	GPR	Total (n)
1. Managers	3.0	1.0	0.333	54,672
2. Professionals, associate professionals and technicians in health, education and other sectors	7.6	5.6	0.737	162,814
3. Clerical support workers	0.4	0.2	0.5	7,559
4. Service and sales workers	13.8	14.7	1.065	334,727
5. Agricultural, livestock, forestry and fishery workers	60.1	67.8	1.128	1,489,596
6. Craft and related trade workers	5.4	3.5	0.648	112,679
7. Stationary and mobile plant and machine operators and assemblers	6.7	1.0	0.149	112,036
8. Elementary occupations (unskilled)	3.0	6.3	2.1	98,006

that men are still perceived as the stronger, smarter ones and better suited for white collar jobs. Participants also noted that the situation is however changing though the change is too slow. The 30 percent gender rule has helped to elevate women but the good will to implement it fully is lacking among the leadership.

International organizations and local organizations have come up with micro finance programs to bridge the gaps in economic equity. Investment in capacity building of women and financial inclusion has seen many women enter the labor force market. Whereas men are associated with business as they mostly run the big businesses, women are slowly coming up. There are quite a number of women who run small businesses such as selling khat, tea shops, retailing fresh milk and running small retail shops. Women have been encouraged to join business by the availability of micro-credit from local and international NGOs which seek to empower women.

Despite little progress made, economic inequities are still persistent among the Somalis. The qualitative findings indicate that the inequities persist because of:

- Cultural practice which value the boy (girls are expected to get married and join their husband's family and clan)-investment is thus skewed in favor of boys and men.
- From the cultural and religious perspective, it is the responsibility of the boys and men to take care of the families.
- The clan-based leadership system is a barrier to economic equity. The clan leaders are usually consulted when it comes to allocation of jobs and other economic resources. Because they are all men, they tend to favor their own.
- Low education levels and awareness on the rights and responsibilities of men and women in the changing world.
- Low education levels among women limit them from accessing opportunities.
- The available economic opportunities are

very limited.

- Weak implementation of government laws as a result of lack of goodwill from the leadership.

**There is a thinking of that the girl may marry another man and thus family will prefer to invest in the boys rather than the girls.**  
- Male respondent Beletwyne.

**In the last 25 years there has been a change in the economic status of women. International organizations focusing on micro-finance have supported women by giving them credit and business training to start small businesses. Women are now running small shops, khat business, tea shops, fresh milk retailing and all these kinds of small businesses.**  
- Female participant Hargeisa

**Security is getting better and women can now move around more freely. Thanks to NGOs women now have access to education, trainings and vocational schools, economic support programs to boost agriculture, business and art.**  
Male participant Hargeisa

The above challenges present opportunities for the government, NGOs both local and international, the private sector and the citizens to create an environment that is conducive for men and women to explore and access equal opportunities. Investment in especially female education is likely to open up the space for new opportunities. Awareness on the importance of economic equity to national development is critical.





# 06

## Housing & household asset ownership



## 6. Housing and household asset ownership

### 6.1 Dwelling units

Types of dwelling units may be gender biased due to culturally construed norms such as restrictions on who should construct a house, land ownership and who makes the decisions. This section assesses the construction materials of dwelling units based on the sex of the household head.

#### 6.1.1 Main flooring materials

As shown in Table 19, the main flooring material used were earth and cement with about 52 percent and 37 percent on average. There are no large variations by sex of household heads, but significant differences exist depending on type of residence, with urban having a high percentage of households using cement as the main flooring material, and most rural households using earth as the main flooring material.

#### a) Main flooring materials by level of education

Table 20 shows the flooring materials used in houses by level of education. The use of more permanent flooring material such as cement and floor tiles increase with increase in the level of education, but do not vary substantially by sex for household heads with tertiary education.

#### b) Main flooring materials by age of household head

Table 21 shows the flooring materials used in houses by age of the household head. The main type of flooring material used does not vary by age of the household heads, but there are small variations between male and female household heads in use of cement as the main flooring material and earth, for heads below age 30.

**Table 19:** Main flooring material by type of residence

	Cement		Floor tiles		Wood		Earth		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	11.6	10.6	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.1	84.4	86.0	0.6	0.8
Urban	58.6	55.0	14.3	13.5	1.6	1.6	25.2	29.3	0.3	0.5
IDP camps	11.0	11.7	2.4	2.7	1.5	2.1	82.0	77.5	3.2	6.0
Total	37.7	35.7	8.8	8.5	1.6	1.6	51.1	52.8	0.7	1.4

**Table 20:** Main flooring materials by level of education

	Cement		Floor tiles		Wood		Earth		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	26.7	28.7	5.4	6.7	1.6	1.3	65.4	61.4	0.9	1.8
Primary	46.3	49.0	7.1	9.7	1.5	1.8	44.5	39.1	0.6	0.5
Secondary	58.5	50.9	12.6	12.3	1.4	1.4	27.0	35.1	0.4	0.3
Tertiary	59.2	58.7	23.6	19.7	1.2	2.2	15.7	19.0	0.3	0.4



**Table 21:** Main flooring materials by age

	Cement		Floor tiles		Wood		Earth		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-19	31.6	25.7	7.7	7.5	1.1	0.7	59.0	62.3	0.7	3.7
20-29	37.9	31.9	8.4	7.8	1.5	1.6	51.5	56.5	0.7	2.2
30-39	36.7	35.8	7.9	7.4	1.8	1.6	52.9	54.1	0.7	1.2
40-49	37.4	37.4	8.3	8.7	1.4	1.5	52.2	51.4	0.7	1.1
50-59	39.9	40.4	11.3	10.5	1.7	1.5	46.4	46.5	0.6	1.2
60-69	39.3	36.7	10.8	10.1	1.7	2.2	47.3	49.6	0.8	1.4
70-79	38.6	37.9	11.3	10.8	1.6	1.2	47.8	49.3	0.6	0.8
80+	39.3	36.0	10.8	10.8	2.5	1.2	46.5	51.0	1.0	1.0

## 6.1.2 Main roofing materials

As shown by Table 22, the main roofing material used widely is iron sheets. This is most common in urban households and is followed by palm leaf/sod. There is a variation between male-headed and female-headed households in the use of iron sheets as the main material for roofing in the rural areas, with male-headed households using more of iron sheets and female-headed more of palm leaf/ sod.

### a) Main roofing materials by level of education

From Table 23, the main roofing material is iron sheets which indicates a consistent high percentage of iron roofed houses among the male-headed households compared to the

female-headed households across all levels of education level attained by the household head. Palm leaf/Sod as the main roofing material does not have a consistent general trend between males and females, with female heads with primary education or none having lower use, while those with secondary education or more having a higher use than their male counterparts.

### b) Main roofing materials by age

Table 24 displays the usage of palm leaf/ sod, which is higher amongst female-headed households in most ages except 80+. Use of concrete and iron sheets are consistently lower for female headed households compared to male headed households across all ages except for iron sheets at age 80+.

**Table 22:** Main roofing material by type of residence

Type of residence	Concrete		Roof tiles		Iron sheet		Wood		Palm leaf/sod		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	2.6	2.3	1.7	1.5	46.4	38.2	3.8	3.9	44.5	53.1	1.0	1.0
Urban	12.5	11.1	6.7	7.1	71.9	70.3	3.1	3.2	5.3	7.3	0.6	1.0
IDP camps	1.8	1.6	2.8	2.8	24.5	29.3	4.6	4.5	40.6	35.7	25.7	26.1
Total	8.0	7.1	4.6	4.8	58.5	54.9	3.5	3.6	22.2	24.6	3.2	4.9

**Table 23:** Main roofing materials by level of education

Education level	Concrete		Roof tiles		Iron sheet		Wood		Palm leaf/sod		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	5.1	5.1	3.3	3.9	49.9	50.1	4.1	3.7	32.7	30.7	4.8	6.4
Primary	7.5	9.0	4.8	6.9	66.8	65.1	3.8	4.0	14.5	11.4	2.5	3.5
Secondary	11.3	10.7	5.7	6.6	72.3	65.5	2.5	1.9	7.0	13.5	1.2	1.7
Tertiary	17.6	18.1	8.0	9.0	69.7	66.2	1.4	2.5	2.3	3.2	1.0	1.0

**Table 24:** Main roofing materials by age

	Concrete		Roof tiles		Iron sheet		Wood		Palm leaf/sod		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-19	8.3	6.5	4.7	4.6	55.4	42.0	2.8	4.4	26.0	37.5	2.8	5.0
20-29	8.4	7.0	4.4	4.8	57.4	50.2	3.3	3.5	24.0	29.2	2.6	5.3
30-39	6.9	6.8	4.2	4.7	58.7	55.7	3.5	3.5	23.5	24.3	3.2	5.0
40-49	8.2	7.5	4.6	4.7	59.5	57.1	3.1	3.2	21.7	23.2	2.9	4.2
50-59	9.0	7.8	5.4	5.3	58.9	57.1	3.8	4.1	19.1	20.6	3.8	5.1
60-69	9.3	7.9	5.0	5.4	58.3	55.7	4.2	3.4	18.9	22.7	4.2	4.9
70-79	10.2	6.5	6.1	4.5	53.7	57.0	4.7	4.4	20.0	20.3	5.4	7.3
80+	7.8	3.9	6.3	5.6	57.3	62.0	5.6	6.6	20.0	17.7	3.0	4.2
Total	8.0	7.1	4.6	4.8	58.5	54.9	3.5	3.6	22.2	24.6	3.2	4.9

## 6.2 Main sources of energy for cooking and lighting

### 6.2.1 Main sources of energy for lighting

Table 25 displays the main source of energy for lighting in the urban residences is electricity, with male-headed households having a higher percentage than the female-headed households. In rural areas torches have been reported to be the highest main source of energy for lighting, with female-headed households reporting a higher usage than male-headed household by almost 9 percentage point.

#### a) Main sources of energy for lighting by level of education

Table 26 gives the distribution sources of

energy for lighting households. The percentage of households that use electricity as the main source of lighting increases with an increase in the level of education of the household head. Use of solar energy for lighting is low and does not vary by level of education of the household head. Use of torch as the main source of energy for lighting is used most by female household heads that have no education. Generally, there's not much gender variation in the sources of energy for lighting.

#### b) Main sources of energy for lighting by age

From Table 27, female-headed households have a lower percentage of electricity usage as the main source of energy for lighting across all ages compared to male-headed households. This could indicate more empowerment of male headed households in relation to the female headed households.

## 6.2.2 Main sources of energy for cooking

The main source of energy for cooking for rural and IDPs households is firewood, while urban households mainly rely on charcoal. Female headed households have a higher rate of usage than male headed households in all types of residences by 5.1, 2.6 and 8.4 percent respectively (Table 28).

### a) Main sources of energy for cooking by level of education

Table 29 shows that there is a slight increase in the percentage of households using electricity

as the main source of energy for cooking as the level of education advances for male-headed households. For female headed households, it is more or less the same by level of education and is consistently far lower. The use of charcoal as the main source of energy for cooking increases with an increase in educational level of male heads, but not for female heads and is consistently far lower than that of the male-headed households. The observed trends in the use of electricity are recurring in the use of kerosene as the main source of energy for cooking.

**Table 25:** Main sources of energy for lighting by type of residence

	Electricity		Solar Energy		Kerosene		Firewood		Torch		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	13.1	10.0	1.0	0.9	11.8	9.1	12.6	14.4	58.6	63.3	3.0	2.3
Urban	76.7	71.6	1.6	2.0	6.3	7.3	2.1	2.5	12.7	16.1	0.6	0.6
IDP camps	7.7	4.7	2.1	0.9	4.7	3.2	6.9	4.9	75.2	84.0	3.4	2.3
Total	48.0	43.7	1.4	1.5	8.0	7.1	6.2	6.2	34.6	40.1	1.7	1.4

**Table 26:** Main sources of energy for lighting by level of education

	Electricity		Solar Energy		Kerosene		Firewood		Torch		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	33.6	34.5	1.4	1.4	9.5	8.2	8.1	6.8	45.5	47.6	2.0	1.4
Primary	53.8	57.3	1.5	1.8	8.4	6.2	3.6	3.2	31.1	30.7	1.6	0.8
Secondary	76.1	71.1	1.2	1.2	5.5	3.7	3.3	8.2	13.2	15.1	0.7	0.6
Tertiary	88.6	84.7	0.9	1.3	2.7	2.7	1.3	1.6	6.4	9.1	0.2	0.6

**Table 27:** Main sources of energy for lighting by age

	Electricity		Solar Energy		Kerosene		Firewood		Torch		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-19	44.2	29.9	1.7	1.7	10.7	4.7	11.3	3.0	31.1	59.4	1.1	1.4
20-29	48.3	40.3	1.3	1.4	8.2	6.7	6.8	6.4	33.7	43.4	1.7	1.8
30-39	46.0	43.1	1.3	1.6	7.7	6.5	6.6	6.9	36.5	40.6	1.9	1.3
40-49	46.9	45.9	1.4	1.3	7.7	7.2	6.1	6.3	36.3	38.3	1.6	1.0
50-59	52.9	48.6	1.5	1.9	8.8	8.2	4.8	5.1	30.8	35.0	1.3	1.3
60-69	52.1	46.1	1.7	1.9	8.3	9.0	5.2	4.3	30.9	37.4	1.8	1.4
70-79	49.3	44.0	2.3	1.3	9.1	7.8	5.1	5.7	32.0	39.6	2.2	1.6
80+	48.3	42.5	2.0	1.2	9.3	11.7	5.7	8.3	33.4	35.4	1.3	0.9

**Table 28:** Main sources of energy for cooking by type of residence

	Electricity		LPG		Kerosene		Charcoal		Firewood		Agricultural crop residue		Livestock dung		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.8	26.3	21.3	71.8	76.9	0.2	0.3	0	0	0	0
Urban	3.7	3.9	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.4	83.1	80.3	10.1	12.7	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.2	0.1
IDP camps	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.1	1.1	1.4	20.9	13.1	76.6	85.1	0.2	0.1	-	-	0.1	-
Total	2.3	2.4	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	57.4	53.1	37.9	42.2	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1

**Table 29:** Main sources of energy for cooking by level of education

	Electricity		LPG		Kerosene		Charcoal		Firewood		Agricultural crop residue		Livestock dung		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	1.6	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.9	0.5	47.1	17.5	49.5	19.3	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Primary	2.1	0.7	1.0	0.4	1.0	0.2	64.4	16.3	31.4	6.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	-	0.1	-
Secondary	2.5	0.7	1.0	0.2	1.1	0.2	80.6	12.0	14.5	3.8	0.1	0.0	0.0	-	0.1	0.0
Tertiary	3.9	0.4	2.2	0.4	2.3	0.2	85.7	9.6	5.8	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	0.1	0.0
Total	2.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	1.1	0.4	56.6	16.0	39.3	14.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0

**Table 30:** Main sources of energy for cooking by age

	Electricity		LPG		Kerosene		Charcoal		Firewood		Agricultural crop residue		Livestock dung		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-19	3.0	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.8	1.7	55.2	26.6	40.1	39.8	-	-	-	-	0.6	-
20-29	2.2	0.7	0.9	0.3	1.3	0.4	58.1	16.6	37.1	16.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	0.2	0.0
30-39	2.0	0.7	0.9	0.2	1.1	0.4	55.8	15.8	39.9	13.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
40-49	2.3	0.7	0.7	0.3	1.1	0.3	56.7	15.1	38.9	10.7	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
50-59	2.5	0.6	1.1	0.3	0.9	0.3	60.5	15.1	34.7	9.7	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
60-69	2.6	0.9	1.1	0.4	0.9	0.3	60.4	19.2	34.7	12.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	-	0.1	0.0
70-79	3.7	0.8	1.3	0.3	0.9	0.4	58.8	19.2	34.9	13.1	0.1	-	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0
80+	3.2	1.1	0.7	0.2	2.3	0.7	59.9	28.2	33.2	16.9	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1
Total	2.3	0.7	0.9	0.3	1.1	0.4	57.4	16.2	37.9	12.8	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0

## b) Main sources of energy for cooking by age

Table 30 indicates that the main sources of energy for cooking are charcoal and firewood, with female-headed households aged 20 and above usage being half as much as it is in male-headed households. Use of electricity as the main source of energy for cooking is consistently higher in male headed households than female headed households across all ages by almost a 2 percent difference.

## 6.3 Human waste disposal

### 6.3.1 Main modes of human waste disposal

Table 31, indicates the main modes of waste disposal in the urban areas are pit latrines followed by the flush toilets. In rural areas pit latrines are used by most households as the main mode of human waste disposal, with the bush having a relatively high percentage of usage by households. There are no variations between male and female headed households.

### a) Main modes of human waste disposal by level of education

Table 32 indicates the main mode of human waste disposal varies by level of education attained by the household head as well as within the educational levels, between male and female headed households. More female headed households are using flush toilets at all educational levels.

### b) Main modes of human waste disposal by age

The main modes of human waste disposal vary by age and within age groups disaggregated

gender of the household-head (Table 33). More female headed households use the bush as the main mode of human waste disposal in the ages 10-29, compared to male headed households from age 30 and above where more male headed households use the bush.

## 6.4 Access to information, communication and technology

Household ownership of radio, television and computer is usually used as a proxy for access to information and a household asset in the construction of a wealth index.

**Table 31:** Main modes of human waste disposal by type of residence

	Flush toilet		Pit latrine		Bush		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	5.5	3.8	40.0	36.8	53.2	57.8	1.3	1.6
Urban	34.9	34.8	61.1	61.0	3.5	3.6	0.6	0.6
IDP camps	14.2	13.2	68.6	67.5	15.6	14.6	1.6	4.7
Total	22.7	22.7	54.5	55.2	21.8	20.6	0.9	1.5

**Table 32:** Main modes of human waste disposal by level of education

	Flush toilet		Pit latrine		Bush		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	15.4	17.5	53.6	55.9	30.0	25.2	1.0	1.4
Primary	23.2	29.9	65.2	59.7	10.7	8.7	0.9	1.7
Secondary	31.7	32.1	63.1	54.9	4.8	12.5	0.5	0.5
Tertiary	43.9	45.2	53.6	51.0	2.1	3.7	0.4	0.2
Total	20.8	20.3	56.0	56.0	22.3	22.3	0.9	1.3

**Table 33:** Main modes of human waste disposal by age

	Flush toilet		Pit latrine		Bush		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-19	17.1	18.3	58.8	46.0	23.7	33.6	0.3	2.1
20-29	21.7	21.7	56.6	50.6	20.9	25.8	0.8	1.9
30-39	21.7	21.7	54.6	56.2	22.8	20.7	0.9	1.4
40-49	22.6	23.7	51.5	53.9	24.7	20.6	1.1	1.8
50-59	25.1	26.0	56.0	59.8	17.9	13.2	0.9	0.9
60-69	25.9	22.6	55.8	61.4	17.4	15.0	0.9	1.0
70-79	25.4	22.6	57.8	61.6	16.4	14.2	0.5	1.6
80+	25.6	20.9	59.1	63.0	14.5	14.7	0.8	1.3
Total	22.7	22.6	54.5	55.2	21.8	20.6	0.9	1.5

### 6.4.1 Ownership of radio, television and computer

The ownership of radios does not vary by type of residence, GPR is 1.0 and that of IDPs households is 0.9. Ownership of TV's is higher in male headed households than female headed households, except in the urban areas (Table 34).

### 6.4.2 Ownership of radio, television and computer by level of education

From Table 35, ownership of radio between males and females does not vary by level of education, but that of TV sets varies by level of education and within levels of education, with

male-headed households owning more TV sets than female headed households.

### 6.4.3 Ownership of radio, television and computer by age

From Table 36, ownership of computers between male and female headed households varies by age, with a higher percentage of ownership among male-headed households. The GPR indicates low disparity in the ownership of computers in the age range 20 and 59 years.

**Table 34:** Ownership of radio, television and computer by type of residence

	Radio			TV			Computer		
	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR
Rural	87.6	89.5	1.0	9.2	7.5	0.8	2.1	1.2	0.6
Urban	88.8	86.6	1.0	67.4	64.9	1.0	19.1	16.5	0.9
IDP camps	95.6	89.8	0.9	11.4	6.1	0.5	2.2	1.5	0.7
Total	87.6	89.5	1.0	9.2	7.5	0.8	2.1	1.2	0.6

**Table 35:** Ownership of radio, television and computer by level of education

	Radio			TV			Computer		
	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR
None	91.0	88.2	1.0	29.3	32.0	1.1	5.9	6.2	1.1
Primary	90.8	88.9	1.0	44.0	53.0	1.2	8.0	12.8	1.6
Secondary	89.1	89.6	1.0	67.8	66.6	1.0	17.4	17.1	1.0
Tertiary	88.7	87.7	1.0	80.0	78.3	1.0	34.9	31.3	0.9

**Table 36:** Ownership of radio, television and computer by age

	Radio			TV			Computer		
	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR
10-19	91.0	88.9	1.0	37.4	28.4	0.8	9.4	6.9	0.7
20-29	90.5	88.5	1.0	41.8	36.8	0.9	12.1	9.3	0.8
30-39	88.8	87.7	1.0	42.0	40.9	1.0	10.3	8.9	0.9
40-49	87.5	87.1	1.0	43.3	45.0	1.0	11.4	11.7	1.0
50-59	87.8	87.1	1.0	50.3	49.4	1.0	16.0	14.0	0.9
60-69	89.4	88.9	1.0	50.2	46.7	0.9	16.7	11.8	0.7
70-79	91.1	88.1	1.0	46.4	44.7	1.0	16.1	11.4	0.7
80+	90.4	88.7	1.0	46.0	44.2	1.0	14.4	13.4	0.9









# 07

## Mobility

## 7. Mobility

### 7.1 Immigrants

Immigration involves movement of people into the country crossing international boundaries. In the context of this analysis it is taken to mean any movement into Somalia, for those who had moved to the diaspora as well as children of the Somali migrants born in the diaspora.

#### 7.1.1 Distribution of immigrants by type of residence settled

From Table 37 among those who immigrated to the country, the male more than the female immigrants across all types of residents.

#### 7.1.2 Distribution of population coming into the country by level of education

From Table 38 at all levels of education attainment, there are more male Somali's who

in than females except among the immigrants who had only attained primary education where the females are more.

### 7.2 Emigrants

Those who are more educated and are in the working ages are the ones likely to emigrate in search of better opportunities to better their lives. The imbalance between males and females is high, with percent males who were reported to have gone abroad after December 2012 being higher across all types of residences except among the IDPs who had more females moving out (Table 39). Below age 80, males are more likely to migrate to other countries than females. At all levels of education attainment, there are more males moving out of the country than females. This presents a potential problem in terms of labor supply as education is skewed in favor of males.

**Table 37:** Distribution of immigrants by type of residence

Type of residence	Male	Female	Percent within Category	Percent of Total population	Total (n)
Rural	57.4	42.6	17	0.4	2,683,550
Urban	53.3	46.7	60	0.7	4,880,942
IDP Camps	56.3	43.7	2.2	0.1	1,066,966
Nomadic	59.8	40.2	20.8	0.4	3,033,850

**Table 38:** Distribution of immigrants by level of education

Education level Completed	Male	Female	Percent within Category	Percent of Total population	Total (n)
None	54.8	45.2	68.3	0.5	3,537,140
Primary	44.2	55.8	9.2	0.7	352,772
Secondary	73.5	26.5	10.8	1.0	274,821
Tertiary	73.3	26.7	11.7	1.9	158,560

**Table 39:** Persons who went abroad after December 2012

	Male	Female	GPR
<b>Residence type</b>			
Rural	60.5	39.5	0.7
Urban	58.6	41.4	0.7
IDP camps	42.0	58.0	1.4
Nomads	62.8	37.2	0.6
<b>Age</b>			
10-19	50.9	49.1	1.0
20-29	51.2	48.8	1.0
30-39	57.3	42.7	0.7
40-49	58.6	41.4	0.7
50-59	58.9	41.1	0.7
60-69	57.8	42.2	0.7
70-79	58.3	41.7	0.7
80+	40.9	59.1	1.4
<b>Education level completed</b>			
None	55.2	44.8	0.8
Primary	62.9	37.1	0.6
Secondary	56.9	43.1	0.8
Tertiary	58.2	41.8	0.7
Total	56.3	43.7	0.8

## 7.3 Internal movement of households

Internal movement is movement of persons from one place to another within the set national boundaries for example from one town to another.

### 7.3.1 Households by previous type of residence

Internal movement is mainly to and within the urban for both male and female headed households (Table 40). There is slight variation in the movement patterns of female and male headed households.

### 7.3.2 Reasons for moving

From Table 41, the major reason for moving was insecurity, with high percentages in the rural areas citing it as a reason for moving (40.6 for males and 39.3 for females). Fifty two percent of the IDPS also cited insecurity as a reason for moving.

**Table 40:** Proportion of households moved by type of residence

Current residence	Previous residence									
	Rural		Urban		IDP		Nomadic		Refugee camp	
	Male headed	Female headed	Male headed	Female headed	Male headed	Female headed	Male headed	Female headed	Male headed	Female headed
Rural	27.0	23.0	54.2	53.3	0.4	0.6	11.2	12.6	7.2	10.4
Urban	18.0	15.9	73.2	70.7	1.3	1.2	4.2	6.8	3.3	5.4
IDP camps	31.7	29.6	50.2	58.5	3.4	4.9	6.5	5.3	8.2	1.7
Total	25.6	24.3	60.2	62.6	2.3	3.3	5.9	6.3	6.1	3.5

**Table 41:** Reasons for leaving

	Stay here in this current location		Return to place of origin		Temporarily return to place of origin		Relocate to another place permanently		Have no plan	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	75.7	80.0	12.5	10.2	4.7	3.7	2.0	2.1	5.1	4.0
Urban	79.0	82.2	11.1	9.0	1.7	1.8	1.9	0.9	6.2	6.1
IDP camps	70.4	71.1	18.2	17.0	1.5	3.2	0.6	0.2	9.2	8.5
Total	74.0	75.2	15.2	14.0	1.8	2.8	1.2	0.5	7.8	7.5

### 7.3.3 Plans for future movement

In regards to plans for future movement, most rural residents opted to stay where they are, with high percent of the female population having the plans of not moving out of the current place of residence (Table 46). A large part of the sample studied did not have any plans to relocate

**Table 42:** Plans for future movement

	Insecurity		Drought		Floods		Total loss of livelihood (destitution)		Better economic opportunities elsewhere		Lack of access to services		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural	40.6	39.3	22.7	14.5	2.3	2.9	5.1	5.7	18.1	29.8	4.0	2.3	7.0	5.7
Urban	34.2	35.4	13.4	13.0	2.2	1.2	4.0	5.6	28.0	24.0	6.4	6.5	11.6	14.3
IDP camps	35.4	52.0	51.3	36.2	2.4	2.0	5.1	3.4	3.7	4.4	1.3	1.1	0.8	1.0
Total	35.3	45.4	33.3	26.8	2.3	1.8	4.6	4.3	15.0	12.8	3.6	3.1	5.8	5.9

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## Glossary

**Culture:** Social practices, discourses, and material expressions, which, over time, express the continuities and discontinuities of social meaning of a life held in common.

**Household head:** The most respected household member whom other members of the household report to and who makes the household's decisions.

**Household headship rate:** Percent of people in the population who are heads of households.

**Gender:** Socially constructed roles between men and women, they are dynamic and change with time.

**Gender equality:** Social status between women and men. Gender equity is a means to achieving gender equality.

**Gender equity:** Gender equity is an approach that puts measures in place to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from operating on a level playing field. The terms gender equity and gender equality are often used interchangeably, but there is a slight difference.

**Gender Parity Ratio (GPR):** The ration of percent female population to percent male population in a given socio-economic aspect in the population. They are sub-indices used for calculating the Gender Gap Index.



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