PROGRESS TOWARDS THE 2030 AGENDA IN SOMALIA:
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Introduction

On 5 December 2017, the Federal Government of Somalia and the leadership of the United Nations in the country signed the UN Strategic Framework 2017–2020 (UNSF), thereby kick-starting a new phase of support to Somalia’s peace and development priorities under the National Development Plan 2017–2019 (NDP-8).

With the pending expiry of the NDP-8, Somalia launched its Ninth Somalia National Development Plan (NDP-9) in December 2019 which articulates Somalia’s goals from 2020 to 2024. In response, the UN in Somalia commenced the development of a new UN Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework (UNCF) to guide its collective work in support of the NDP-9 priorities.

As a key part of this process, at the beginning of 2020, the United Nations initiated the process of formulating a Common Country Analysis (CCA), an independent, impartial, and collective assessment of the situation in Somalia to guide and inform the development of the UNCF. The purpose of the CCA is to serve as the evidence-based analytic framework underpinning the formulation of the UN’s interventions over the coming five years.

This was the first time the entire UN system in Somalia had undertaken a comprehensive assessment of the situation in the country through the prism of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on a goal-by-goal basis. This process culminated in the production of a CCA report (link), however, it was not possible to include all the lengthy, rich, and detailed analysis resulting from the process. As such, this document serves as a companion to the CCA to capture the additional information, data, and analysis produced.

It should be noted that comprehensively assessing Somalia’s progress towards the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and achievement of the SDGs is a near impossible task due to the complexity and fragility of the context and the general lack of SDG and related data in the country. While this document, where available, draws on SDG-specific data, it is largely reliant on alternative but related information that contributes to a solid overview of the situation in the country as it pertains to each of the SDGs.
Almost 90 per cent of the Somali population faces deprivation in one or more dimensions of poverty. This dire situation is due to a long-term conflict, a still very weak Government, significant exposure to the impact of climate change, and an isolated economy that has not been able to provide sufficient employment and income. Due to insecurity and climate change impact, a large proportion of the population is migrating to the urban centres, most often ending up in IDP camps with limited access to services and income-generating options.

While the Government over the past few years, with significant and increasing international support, has put in place core policies and strategies to start tackling poverty, eradicating poverty will take the best of the upcoming decade in the most positive scenario. The core of the approach rests on a combination of improving governance arrangements that are fully inclusive, strengthening the economy and providing improved social services, including social safety nets. The well-advancing Highly Indebted Poor Country Initiative (HIPC) process carries the opportunity of access to new types of financing that, if well invested, might provide a significant contribution to improving socio-economic infrastructure, improving access to finance by economic actors and financing of the necessary social safety nets.
1.1 By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than $1.25 a day

Nearly 70 per cent of Somalis live on less than US$ 1.90 per day, the sixth highest poverty rate in the region. While figures have been increasing each year since 2015, gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in 2018 stood at only around US$ 315.1

Almost 90 per cent of Somali households are deprived in at least one dimension: monetary, electricity, education, or water and sanitation, with nearly 70 per cent of households suffering two or more dimensions. Nomadic populations experience the most, while urban dwellers experience the least. Poor households are slightly more deprived than non-poor ones with regard to access to electricity and education.2

While the statistics remain challenging, the overall emerging picture is a worrying one, with very high levels of poverty across all dimensions and widely spread throughout society. However, while poverty is pervasive, often associated with stages of the life cycle, certain groups are commonly acknowledged to be more vulnerable to poverty and impacts of crises.

There is still a relatively high level of paucity and uncertainty in the data. While solid data on the regional distribution of poverty is unavailable, it is expected that conflict and drought/flood-affected areas suffer higher rates of poverty. Urban poverty and its spatial reflection are not yet captured in a systematic way. Also, while trend analysis is not yet possible, the correlation between internal displacement and poverty seems to indicate that, with the increasing internal displacement in recent years, poverty also increased.

While internally displaced persons (IDPs), rural and drought-affected households tend to have a higher incidence of poverty, female-headed households tend to be less poor than male-headed households, and income poverty is widespread throughout society.

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1.2 By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

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1.3 Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable

For the past three decades, social protection systems have been effectively non-existent in Somalia, meaning that those impacted by the multitude of shocks suffered by the country over this time have had no Government-led social support mechanisms to mitigate the worst impacts.

Almost two in every three Somali households reported experiencing at least one type of shock in the 12 months prior to the World Bank Somali High Frequency Survey undertaken in 2019, while 95 per cent of Somali households experienced loss of income or assets because of shocks. Most Somalis relied on self-help or self-insurance mechanisms to cope with the shocks.3

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State capacity remains weak due to institutional capacity constraints, security concerns, limited Government finances and the need to address immediate humanitarian needs. Despite these challenges, some progress has been made in recent years.

The current joint institutional responsibility for the delivery of social protection services in Somalia lies with the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA), with the support of the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management MoHADM and the Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development (MoPIED).

The National Social Protection Policy was finalized in 2019, with the objective of helping the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) ensure fiscal and political space for the social protection agenda, develop a clear and realistic vision for social protection, guide implementation, and link social protection with other policy actions to achieve comprehensive outcomes. The Policy provides a framework for delivering social protection coherently, effectively and efficiently. Social protection will thus be delivered in a way that is holistic and properly targeted, but also realistic and incremental, considering the scale of these challenges.4

MoLSA subsequently developed a five-year Social Protection Implementation Plan for the main priorities identified in the Policy. Both initiatives were conducted through a largely consultative process. These documents will support FGS engagement with Federal Member State (FMS) actors in harmonizing the countrywide social protection services, as well as provide guidance to the states, other partners and donors.

One of the priorities identified by the policy and the implementation framework is the provision of safety nets for the most vulnerable. In 2019, the FGS started the roll-out of the Shock Responsive Safety Net for Human Capital Project, which will target 1.2 million poor people across six states over three years. The Project is funded by the World Bank and includes direct quarterly cash transfers to 200,000 poor families and the development of a unified social registry. It will establish the key building blocks of a national safety net system that can respond to shocks.

In addition, the WFP is supporting the Government to strengthen its capacity at both federal and state level by bringing on board staff to implement and coordinate social protection interventions, including through training and workshops. This human capacity injection will enable the Government to enhance its existing services and expand its services to the most vulnerable populations during periods of shock.

The national safety net system will also constitute a primary social protection floor to enable the Government to respond to any emergencies and shocks.

1.4 By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance

In terms of employment, there were more unemployed youths aged between 15 and 35 years than those aged 36 and above. Female youths, those with tertiary education and youths in rural settlements have the highest unemployment ratios compared to the over-36 age group. Available evidence suggests that young people tend to be disproportionately affected by challenges in the labour market compared to adults.5

To ensure equal access to and ownership of land and other forms of property, land legislation was developed in three FMSs. Agencies are working together to enhance access to justice with regard to land adjudication issues, with a focus on protecting the rights of women and youth. Work is continuing with municipalities across several FMSs to develop robust land administration systems that will support formal access to land and land/property ownership.

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4 [https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/MoLSA-Somalia-FINAL-min.pdf](https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/MoLSA-Somalia-FINAL-min.pdf)

SOMALIA

See the following sections for further information relevant to this target: 3.8 on access to health care; SDG 4 on access to education; Targets 6.1 and 6.2 on access to water and sanitation; Target 9C on access to information and communications technology; and Target 8.10 on access to financial services.

1.5 By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters

The impact of drought on the Somali people is compounded by an interrelated set of factors that include the environment, governance, displacement and poverty. The Somali Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA) was conducted, subsequently resulting in the Recovery and Resilience Framework (RRF), which is a process led by the Government of Somalia in partnership with the World Bank, the UN and the European Union. It aims to reduce the region’s vulnerability to climate shocks, strengthen resilience and significantly reduce the risk of famine.

With damages amounting to US$ 257 million and losses estimated at US$ 617 million, the total effect of the 2017 drought in Somalia was estimated to exceed US$ 874 million. The productive sector (irrigated and rain-fed crops, livestock, and fisheries) accounts for 65 per cent of all the effects, while the physical (water and sanitation, environment, and transport), social (health, nutrition and education) and cross-cutting sectors make up 32.7 per cent, 0.9 per cent and 1.5 per cent respectively. The two most-affected sectors are livestock along with environment and natural resource management, comprising 63.6 per cent and 30.1 per cent respectively of the total effects.6

1.A Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions

The development financing architecture in Somalia is still heavily dependent on official development assistance (ODA) and remittances. Government revenue, albeit increasing, only represents some 5 per cent of GDP and is insufficient to cater for investment requirements, while foreign direct investment remains very small. Local revenue generation in selected districts has gained momentum in recent years, but would need further support to expand its scope for improved service delivery and financing smaller local development projects.

Efforts are ongoing to diversify the sources and types of financing accessible for investment, but in view of the still-isolated financial sector, which is not integrated into the global system, significant improvements in “know your customer” practices and assurances vis-à-vis money laundering and financing terrorism are required to open opportunities for development financing by private parties.

1.B Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication actions

The FGS has developed a series of policy measures that are contributing to an ever-improving enabling environment for development investment to be appropriately targeted and coordinated. For example, the improvements in the public financial management systems (as documented through the Staff-Monitored Programme) are encouraging. The NDP-9 provides a solid poverty analysis (it doubles as an iPRSP) and a sound prioritization of investment. Importantly, the rather holistic conceptualization of the development challenges and opportunities, which integrates the SDGs and the peace–development–humanitarian nexus,

6 World Bank, 2017.

7 The ‘know your customer’ approach is used by financial institutions to verify their customers’ identity in compliance with relevant legal requirements, particularly on issues pertaining to corruption, terrorism financing and money laundering.
opens options for further harmonization and co-ordination in the various investment arenas. The adoption of the Somalia Women’s Charter as a cross-cutting policy document ensures that women are an equal player in the eradication of poverty.

Somalia in the past year has actively sought regional integration and cooperation. The advances in talks with Ethiopia, Eritrea and Djibouti are encouraging, while the outstanding issues – mainly security and oil/gas extraction – with Kenya are being discussed. Regional integration, with a possible future market of some 400 million people, is essential to take advantage of the strategic location of Somalia and to benefit from economic development in the large neighbouring economies of Kenya and Ethiopia.

Dedicated investment propositions focusing on poverty eradication are included in the NDP-9. As indicated above, realizing these investments will rely on the success in diversifying the financing architecture.
In Somalia, a significant portion of the household income is spent on food, while millions face the threat of hunger. Agricultural production does not meet the needs of the population, and the country is dependent on food imports to feed its population, which in turn contributes to skewing the country’s balance of payments. Recurrent climate-related shocks, lack of resources, limited provision of basic services, gender inequalities, social exclusion and insecurity threaten progress towards meeting the commitments towards SDG 2.

To achieve this Goal, the provision of services, sustainable food systems, agriculture sector (including livestock and fisheries) infrastructure rehabilitation, and resilient and climate-smart agricultural practices are crucial. Increased investments, as well as policies and strategies that address systemic inequalities, particularly directed at new climate realities, will address the country’s economic and household-level food security risks.
Food insecurity remains widespread in Somalia. From 2012 to 2019, an average of 3 million Somalis faced moderate food insecurity – Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) 2 – and 1.6 million people faced severe food insecurity (IPC Phase 3 and above). Food security improved after the 2011 drought, but a below-average Deyr season in 2016 caused it to deteriorate. With two consecutive poor seasons associated with climate variability, food insecurity peaked in 2017 and 2019, but did not result in a famine situation as witnessed in 2011. This was only due to improved early warning measures, early action and sustained, concerted large-scale humanitarian response.

Malnutrition likewise remains widespread. Malnutrition specifically is driven by a combination of factors, including food insecurity and socio-political insecurity, but also child illnesses, high morbidity, low immunization and vitamin A supplementation, and poor care practices. The high prevalence of anaemia is linked with poorly diversified food and insufficient intake of micronutrient-rich foods, which in turn are influenced by local food preferences, limited availability of nutritious foods in local markets, and the high relative cost of nutrient-rich diets. The prevalence of anaemia among non-pregnant women (15–49 years) in Somalia remains alarming, at 46.6 per cent. Moreover, almost 15 per cent of women (15–49 years) were underweight (a body mass index of less than 18.5), while about 21.8 per cent were overweight.

Insecurity is particularly limiting the provision of services in south and central Somalia, where exclusive breastfeeding rates were lowest and infant and young child nutrition practices were particularly poor. However, negative maternal and community perceptions and beliefs are additional barriers to exclusive breastfeeding. While 60 per cent of children were breastfed within the first hour of their birth, and 90 per cent have breastfed at some point, only 34 per cent of children under 6 months are exclusively breastfed.

Established links exist between chronic malnutrition and extensive exposure to food insecurity, inadequate dietary and care practices, and diarrhoea outbreaks and associated child illnesses. Evidence also suggests that urban populations generally have better access to diverse diets, clean drinking water and sanitation facilities, while pastoralists tend to have a better asset base and more access to animal products.

By the end of 2019, the national prevalence of Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM) or wasting was at 13.1 per cent, characterizing the nutrition situation in Somalia as ‘Serious’ (10–14.9 per cent), and urgent treatment and nutrition support were needed for approximately 963,000 children below the age of 5 years. The level of Severe Acute Malnutrition stood at 1.8 per cent at the end of 2019. According to the Somalia Health and Demographic

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8 The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) is a tool for improving food security analysis and decision making. It is a standardized scale that integrates food security, nutrition and livelihood information into a statement about the nature and severity of a crisis and implications for strategic response. IPC ratings are: 1) Minimal; 2) Stressed; 3) Crisis; 4) Emergency; and 5) Catastrophe/Famine.
9 WFP ICA, 2020 – to be endorsed by government.
11 Most Somali households face financial constraints to accessing a nutritious diet, and a recent study carried out in Somaliland found that only between 2 per cent to 21 per cent of households in Berbera and Hargeisa could afford a diet fulfilling nutrition requirements, with pastoralist households being worst off (WFP, 2020). The availability of nutritious foods in local markets is also found to be limited, especially in markets that are accessed by only one livelihood system (WFP, 2019).
14 Ibid.
16 Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM) is a measure of acute malnutrition in children aged 6 to 59 months.
Despite an improvement in food security in the second half of 2019, the national prevalence of malnutrition did not improve notably, and seasonal assessments show that the prevalence of wasting remained relatively consistent over the past five years at ‘Serious’, fluctuating between 12 and 15 per cent, with the exception of Gu 2016 (15.2 per cent) and Gu 2017 (17.4 per cent), when a ‘Critical’ prevalence of wasting was recorded.\(^\text{19}\) However, there was a slight but clear decreasing trend in the prevalence of wasting in Somalia from 2001 to 2015.\(^\text{20}\) The prevalence of wasting shows regional disparities, and a trend analysis of survey data collected from 2001 to 2016 finds that the occurrence of wasting is generally in the north-eastern and southern zones of Somalia, as well as among IDPs.\(^\text{21}\) The latest (2019) figures on stunting and anaemia reiterate the worrisome nutrition situation among Somali children: the average stunting rate of Somali children (6–59 months) was estimated at 27.8 per cent,\(^\text{22}\) ranging between 16 and 32 per cent in different areas of the country, and 59.3 per cent of small children (6–59 months) and 38.5 per cent of school-age children (6–11 years) were found to suffer from anaemia.\(^\text{23}\) Children in rural areas were generally more affected by anaemia than children living in urban settings.

A recent Fill the Nutrient Gap and Cost of the Diet study conducted by the Scaling Up Nutrition Movement, the FGS and WFP showed that a nutritious diet (US$ 6.9) is almost four times more expensive than the energy-only diet (US$ 1.9). The study also showed that only two households out of ten can afford a nutritious diet. Calcium, vitamin A, folic acid (adolescents) and iron are identified as the key limiting nutrients in Somalia.\(^\text{24}\)

\[\text{2.3 By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers} \text{\cite{25}}\]

\[^{19}\text{FSNAU data.}\]
\[^{20}\text{Martin-Canavate et al., 2020.}\]
\[^{21}\text{Ibid.}\]
\[^{22}\text{Directorate of National Statistics, Federal Government of Soma-}\]
\[^{23}\text{FSNAU & UCL, 2009.}\]
\[^{24}\text{SUN/FGS and WFP, Fill the Nutrient Gap Analysis summary report, October 2019.}\]
\[^{25}\text{Full title of target: “By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment.”}\]
To end hunger and malnutrition, productive livelihoods as well as availability of and access to food throughout the year are necessary. Agriculture is an important source of livelihoods and employment in Somalia, representing 72 per cent of employment in 2019 (a proportion that has barely changed over nearly 30 years), and plays a key role in meeting the food needs of the Somali people; an estimated 60 per cent of the Somali population depend on agriculture, either directly or indirectly, and agriculture accounts for 80 per cent of rural employment.\textsuperscript{26} Moreover, agriculture accounted for 43.4 per cent of GDP in 2017, and livestock made up 75 per cent of Somalia’s annual exports in 2018.

Reliable multisectoral data on agricultural productivity in Somalia is not currently available, but overall production levels are comparatively well understood, and in many cases circumstantial evidence points to clear productivity trends.

The production of livestock for export – the single largest sub-sector of the Somali economy – has increased significantly since 2000, with periodic setbacks resulting from bans imposed by Saudi Arabia, the main export destination. Livestock-related productivity is likely to have fallen during this period, as the marginal productivity of rangeland has been eroded and its carrying capacity exceeded.

During this same period, production of bananas has contracted, largely as a result of the loss of European markets after 1999. However, significant productivity gains appear to have been achieved, as approximately 41 per cent of pre-war output is now being produced on approximately 24 per cent of the land previously cultivated.

Sesame production for export, mainly to India, Turkey, Jordan and Saudi Arabia, meanwhile has increased, largely in response to the declining banana trade, and is currently surpassing peak pre-war levels. Significant additional improvements in productivity are nevertheless achievable, with some assessments concluding that relatively minor improvements in irrigation systems, seed quality and pest management practices are capable of achieving fourfold increases in yields per hectare.

While there are few studies and limited quantitative information on horticulture, anecdotal sources suggest that production is growing largely in response to increasing domestic demand. Production of watermelon, tomato and onion is high-


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er than in the immediate pre-war period, whereas the production of citrus fruits – lemons and limes – is slightly below its peak pre-war levels. Mangoes and papaya fruits are also increasingly grown for domestic consumption.

In general, it is widely agreed that there are few demand-side constraints to the recovery and growth of the agricultural sector in Somalia. Supported by rapid population growth and remittance inflows, domestic demand is high and is expected to continue to grow. The focus of public and private sector interventions should therefore be on addressing the numerous supply-side constraints.

Access to land continues to be a significant constraint on agricultural investment and development. A complete registry of farms survived the civil war, but regardless of evidence and rulings, landholders who left their farms in southern Somalia at that time are still unable to reclaim their land due to insecurity and the weakness of traditional arbitration mechanisms. By contrast, there are comparatively few land disputes in northern regions, where pre-war landholdings were never disrupted, and ministries of agriculture have issued proper lease certificates for newly allocated farmland.

Water scarcity is another major constraint, particularly in central and northern arid lands, where it is one of the main sources of social conflict. The pressing demand for water by pastoralists during the dry season is in competition with the water demands of the sedentary agricultural communities, since farming development generally occurs in close proximity to the key water sources pastoralists fall back on during drought.

To offset this competition, livestock watering depends on groundwater wells during the harsh dry season throughout the country, but the effects of natural water scarcity are compounded by the poor condition of watering facilities. In the south, water service infrastructure has deteriorated so badly that it is generally inadequate to meet the needs for household consumption, livestock and small-scale irrigation. The result is that livestock survival during severe annual or seasonal droughts depends on costly private water tankers and distributed small-scale storage systems.

The Shabelle and Jubba Rivers experience wide seasonal variation, at times breaking through their embankments and causing major flood damage, at other times drying up completely. There is very high dependency on transboundary water for these rivers, particularly from Ethiopia. Despite numerous piecemeal donor-funded efforts to rehabilitate irrigation canals, most of the south’s pre-war irrigation infrastructure is still not working. The total area under irrigation is currently approximately half the area that was under irrigation before the civil war.

Other major infrastructural constraints include the following: poor and deteriorating roads and feeder roads; the poor quality or lack of facilities at Somalia’s major seaports; the lack of post-harvest storage facilities for crops and cold chain storage for perishable food products, including fish; poor or non-existent food safety systems to reduce the risk of food poisoning and the effects of pests and diseases; and a lack of technical education and training. Some of these are described in more detail in other sections of this report.

Rural credit and financing support is extremely scarce, and most smallholder farmers and cooperatives rely on remittance income from family members and small diaspora-supported investments to support their needs. A joint initiative of the International Fund for Agricultural Development and the non-governmental organization Shuraako, the Somali Agrifood Fund, was established in 2013 to provide matching capital for diaspora investments in agrifood businesses. The fund is now closed, but had some notable successes – in terms of both investee businesses and leveraged capital – and provides a model that could potentially be built upon and scaled up with the advent of large intermediary lending programmes by international financial institutions.

2.4 By 2030, ensure sustainable food production
systems and implement resilient agricultural practices. With rapid population growth and increasing urbanization, food demand in Somalia is increasing. Despite the importance of the agricultural sector, the average Gu season crop production level remains approximately 40 per cent below the pre-war level. Somalia is a net importer of cereal – from 2011 to 2018, local cereal production met between 22 per cent and 50 per cent of the cereal needs of the country. The smallholder-farming subsector accounts for 80 per cent of total crop production and 70 per cent of marketed agricultural produce; most cereal and sesame production is undertaken by small-scale farmers with a landholding of 2–5 hectares, while the production of other crops is mostly by subsistence farmers with an average of 0.2–3 hectares of land.

The dependence on climatic performance highlights the need for sustainable food systems, critical agriculture sector infrastructure rehabilitation, and climate-smart agricultural practices for Somalia to make progress towards meeting SDG 2. Climate-smart agricultural technology is on the agenda of the NDP-9; however, to reap the benefits of this technology enhanced skills are required.

There are other non-climatic barriers to increased food production and agricultural productivity. These include the following: low irrigation capacity; poor soil fertility and pest disease management; lack of research; lack of extension services; limited mechanization; poor road transport infrastructure; limited processing capacity; institutional constraints such as official control of agricultural inputs; inadequate food quality and safety practices; and limited capabilities to develop policies and fully include women.

Linking the different actors along the agricultural value chains, from production to markets, and advocating for business development services to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the value chains, including urban farming, is also needed to address the poor production quality and efficiencies along the value chain. Government-backed extension services should also be enhanced to support the ever-growing demand.

2.5 By 2020, maintain the genetic diversity of seeds, cultivated plants and farmed and domesticated animals and their related wild species

In addition to the unsustainable exploitation of natural resources and environmental degradation highlighted elsewhere in this report, food security in Somalia faces a significant threat from the introduction of foreign plant germplasm, some of which has outcrossed with local landraces, leading to genetic contamination. This in turn has created a lack of good quality locally adapted crop genetic materials, resulting in lower crop production. Continued reliance on imported crop germplasm poses additional phytosanitary risks resulting from the introduction of pests and diseases that are able to thrive in the absence of effective control measures.

Some of these problems were addressed in the early stages of the long-standing Somalia Improvement and Sustainable Use of Plant Genetic Resource Programme (Somaseed) – a joint initiative involving the Ministries of Agriculture of Somalia and “Somaliland”, FAO, the Somalia Agricultural Technical Group, the gene banks of several international agricultural research centres,

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27 Full title of target: “By 2030, ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality.”

28 FAO et al., 1997 and FSNAU data, 2020. Prior to the outbreak of the war (1982–1988), the average Gu season cereal yield was 382,950 metric tons (FAO et al., 1997), compared to an average of 150,862 metric tons in the post-war years from 1995 to 2018 (FSNAU data, 2020).

29 NDP-9.


31 NDP-9.

32 Full title of target: “By 2020, maintain the genetic diversity of seeds, cultivated plants and farmed and domesticated animals and their related wild species, including through soundly managed and diversified seed and plant banks at the national, regional and international levels, and promote access to and fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and associated traditional knowledge, as internationally agreed.”
Somali universities, farmers associations and private sector seed businesses. More recently, work has been undertaken with the aim of improving the quality of the genetic material of key crops such as maize, sorghum, cowpeas and rice. New varieties have been tested in various agro-ecological conditions and made available to small-scale farmers.

In order to fully meet Target 2.5, however, further research will be required to strengthen and evaluate local germplasm, to receive and screen disease-free germplasm collected before the civil war and stored outside the country, to establish medium- or long-term conservation facilities for protecting plant genetic resources, and to develop integrated formal and informal seed systems that can be used to create and disseminate improved seed varieties at scale.

Somalia’s livestock population – by contrast – has stabilized genetically. Animals are generally well adapted to the harsh climate, recurrent droughts, poor feed quality and endemic diseases, but their weight and milk yields are low. This is largely attributable to the move towards commercial production systems, in which animals that attract the highest prices – those with larger frames and therefore heavier body weight – are selected for sale for slaughter or live export. Traditionally, the best animals were selected for breeding.

As a result, Somalia now faces a significant genetic improvement challenge – i.e. how to increase the productivity traits of animals while maintaining their adaptive traits. This will require a strong focus on selective breeding within existing animal stocks to take advantage of their capacity for adaptation resistance and rebound, while limiting the introduction of new breeds to special cases (for example, certain needs for peri-urban dairying).

2.A Increase investment, including through enhanced international cooperation, in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services, technology development, and plant and livestock gene banks in order to enhance agricultural productive capacity in developing countries, in particular least-developed countries

The Agriculture Orientation Index (AOI) is essentially a measure of the extent to which government expenditure on agriculture reflects the contribution of agriculture to a national economy (in terms of aggregate GDP). Somalia does not currently calculate an AOI, but levels of government investment are so low at the current time as to make the exercise somewhat redundant. Globally AOIs fell between 2008 and 2010 and 2013 and 2015. The average AOI for sub-Saharan Africa is 0.17 – Somalia’s AOI is likely to be considerably lower than 0.1.

The overwhelming majority of public sector assistance to agriculture takes the form of official development assistance. Data produced by MoPIED indicates that of the approximately US$ 941 million in ODA received by Somalia during 2019, US$ 13.7 million was allocated to agriculture – or approximately 1.5 per cent of the total. This represents a significant increase in the equivalent percentage for 2018, but a significant decrease in the equivalent figure for 2017 – most probably reflecting the “lumpiness” of donor-supported programmes in the agricultural sector. The largest bilateral donor programmes during this period were the USAID-supported Growth, Enterprise, Employment and Livelihoods programme and the UK DfID-supported Promoting Inclusive Markets programme. These figures exclude allocations for “resilience” programmes during the same period, many of which contained significant components of support for agricultural inputs, small-scale farmers and agriculture-related infrastructure. During 2019, resilience programmes accounted for approximately one-third of total ODA receipts (31 per cent).

Through the DINA and RRF, a series of priorities for investment in rural infrastructure, agricultural research, and extension and technology development (e.g. in energy) was proposed. The NDP-9 further builds upon these priorities and links them closely to the poverty analysis. An important element in this is that rural poverty and vulnerability

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are to a significant extent linked to the loss of productive capacity in the rural areas, lack of access to (international) markets, and lack of access to appropriate technology and services.

Somalia has a number of products for which it has a proven comparative advantage, and an export-oriented industry can be built upon this. Somalia imports a significant proportion of its food, while at the same time it has the capacity to produce enough to meet domestic needs (and export surplus), should the physical infrastructure be restored. However, more progress is required, especially in the field of developing solid rural infrastructure and strengthening urban–rural linkages through territorial planning and improving ports for export. In addition, changes are needed in the vital banking sector, which is not yet integrated into the global system. Currently, international transfers are exceedingly complicated.

2.B Correct and prevent trade restrictions and distortions in world agricultural markets, including through the parallel elimination of all forms of agricultural export subsidies and all export measures with equivalent effect, in accordance with the mandate of the Doha Development Round

Somalia does not currently provide agricultural export subsidies or equivalent measures and has become a de facto duty-free zone that is a critical part of a trade network from Dubai (the base for most Somali-owned conglomerates and a supply and finance centre for many Somali business people) to Ethiopia, Kenya and neighbouring countries. Although no quantitative evidence is available on informal cross-border trade, anecdotal sources strongly suggest that Somalia has become a major informal supplier of cattle and charcoal to large parts of the Horn of Africa, and a major re-exporter of other items – such as sugar, pasta and electronics – that are subject to high tariffs in neighbouring countries.

Formalizing trade relations and alignment with the principles underlying the World Trade Organization’s (WTO) Doha Development Round is a work in progress. Somalia has held observer status in the WTO since December 2016, and in March 2020 announced the imminent submission of its Memorandum on the Foreign Trade Regime. This is a comprehensive report on Somalia’s legal framework and economic policies. Once submitted, Somalia will enter into negotiations with interested WTO member states, resulting in possible changes to the legal framework and the implementation periods for binding WTO rules and tariffs. On average, the accession process takes approximately 12 years from start to finish, but Somalia has committed to a much more ambitious timetable.

WTO accession will likely confer a number of significant benefits on Somalia, allowing access to the multilateral trading system and market access for agricultural and other products to WTO’s 164 member countries on more favourable terms. Somalia would benefit from “most-favoured nation status”, meaning it would enjoy the best available trading terms with partners – the lowest tariffs, fewest trade barriers and highest import quotas. Most of the evidence available suggests that least-developed countries (LDCs) such as Somalia enjoy a significant boost in trade as a result of WTO accession – not just quantitatively, but also qualitatively, as acceding countries generally experience an increased trade in services. In addition, the opportunities opened up by WTO accession would create a strong incentive to build competitiveness through strengthened food quality standards and controls.

Finally, the NDP-9 suggests that improving political relations in the Horn of Africa and Red Sea region have the potential to open up more trade opportunities for Somalia, naming Ethiopia as a partner of potential to attempt rebalancing the trade balance. However, Somalia finds itself in a challenging situation concerning the export of agricultural produce, as the health and sanitation requirements often cannot be met because the institutional infrastructure is absent. This means that many markets are not accessible to Somalia; in addition, the sector is vulnerable to discrete decision making by countries importing Somali products.
2.C Adopt measures to ensure the proper functioning of food commodity markets and their derivatives and facilitate timely access to market information, including on food reserves, in order to help limit extreme food price volatility

Somalia is a food deficit country and relies to a large extent on food imports to feed its population. As such, food prices in Somalia are affected by global food price trends and local seasonal production levels. The food minimum expenditure basket (MEB) is the estimated minimum monthly cost for a household to cover its needed daily caloric intake. There are large disparities in the food MEB across regions; the costs are notably higher for the northern regions of Somalia vis-à-vis the southern regions. These differences are attributed to regional differences in local production, consumption patterns and livelihoods. Food price fluctuations in agro-pastoral livelihood zones tend to be more affected by local production levels, while food price fluctuations in pastoralist livelihood zones tend to be more affected by global food prices. Livestock prices are likewise correlated with seasonal performance, as well as demand from major export countries such as Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Yemen and Oman. Generally, prices of locally produced foods tend to be lower immediately after the harvest and peak around the middle of the year (WFP Market Assessment South). The prices of imported foods tend to be lowest in the first quarter of the year and display less seasonal variation (WFP Market Assessment South, Central).

Across Somalia, the prices of imported food commodities are very similar among almost all markets, which points to relatively well-integrated main markets that act as sources of the produce. Despite the relatively good market integration, there are still some concerns about the physical infrastructure, especially roads linking markets to their supply sources and the distances between the major markets. As such, poor road infrastructure and insurgents occupying key trade roads, particularly in south and central Somalia, affect food security through reduced access to markets and increased food prices.

FAO’s Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU) currently provides quarterly updates on selected export and import volumes and prices, as well as weekly “market updates” using survey data from 74 market locations throughout Somalia. The market updates highlight inter alia prices for local produced cereals (white maize, red sorghum and white sorghum), imported food (rice, sugar, vegetable oil and wheat flour) and livestock, as well as average wage levels for unskilled agricultural daily labour and the terms of trade between daily wage labour and staple cereal prices. These show that over the 12 months from February 2019 to February 2020, key food prices remained fairly stable, mostly exhibiting mild monthly changes. To date no attempt has been made to calculate an indicator of food price anomalies for Somalia.

34 The current food MEB consists of the cheaper of the main two cereals in a district plus wheat flour, sugar, vegetable oil and cowpeas.

Good health is the foundation of sustainable development. Diseases and high rates of mortality and morbidity hold back well-being and productivity. The causes of most health problems are linked to weak health systems; poor governance; conflict; poverty; poor nutrition; illiteracy and a lack of education and awareness, particularly among women and caregivers; unhealthy lifestyles; gender inequality; and lack of access to clean water and sanitation. In Somalia, a quarter of women and 24 per cent of men who have reached the age of 15 are likely to die before the age of 50.

Somalia is at the initial stages of epidemiological transition. The burden of the reproductive, maternal, neonatal and child health and communicable disease group, which was more than 72 per cent (59,416 DALYs lost per 100,000 population) of the total burden of diseases in the year 2000, gradually reduced to 62.3 per cent in 2017.


Disability-adjusted life year (DALY): One DALY can be thought of as one lost year of “healthy” life. The sum of these DALYs across the population, or the burden of disease, can be thought of as a measurement of the gap between current health status and an ideal health situation where the entire population lives to an advanced age, free of disease and disability.

36,358 DALYs lost per 100,000 population.
The burden of the non-communicable disease group, which was 21.5 per cent of the total burden in the year 2000, has increased to 26.1 per cent in 2017. The share of burden of injuries increased from 6.3 per cent to 11.5 per cent over the same period. A major factor for the increase in the burden of injuries is not only continued conflict, but also the increasing burden of road traffic injuries.

There appears to be some improvement in the health status (rate of DALYs lost) of the Somali people. However, when total population is taken into account, the total burden of disease for Somalia, which was 9.99 million DALYs lost in the year 2000, has only reached a level of 9.85 million DALYs lost in the year 2017. Thus there is no significant change in the total burden of disease.

In 2019, the crude death rate was estimated to be 11 deaths per 1,000 people (approximately 145,000 deaths); 56.2 per cent of all deaths were in the reproductive, maternal, neonatal and child health and communicable disease group, while non-communicable diseases contributed 31.9 per cent of total deaths and the share of injuries was 11.9 per cent. Life expectancy at birth for both sexes is still very low, but improved gradually to a level of 55.7 years (54.4 years for males and 57 years for females) in December 2018.

3.1 By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births

The maternal mortality ratio (MMR) for Somalia was estimated to be 692 (399–832) maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 2019. A lifetime risk of maternal death was equivalent to 1 in 20. The decline in MMR indicates that the figure may reach less than 450 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births by 2030, conditional to sustained and enhanced efforts. However, achieving the SDG Target 3.1 figure of 70 will be extremely challenging.

The fertility rate is very high in Somalia, which leads to high-risk pregnancies. On average, a woman has 6.9 children during her lifetime – a direct result of only 1 per cent of the couples using modern contraception and very low demand for limiting children (12 per cent in total, with 7.8 per cent of women wanting no more children after already having two). Fertility rates also depend on where a woman lives, with urban women aver-
aging 6.4 children, compared to 7.1 in rural communities and 7.3 in nomadic households. 48

The issue of adolescent fertility is important for both health and social reasons. According to the SHDS 2020, 14 per cent of Somali girls aged 15–19 are mothers or pregnant with their first child, with 12 percent having already given birth and 2 per cent being pregnant. The proportion of teenagers who have begun childbearing rises rapidly with age. Two percent of women aged 15 have started childbearing. By the age of 19, 39 percent of women have had a child or were pregnant with their first child. 49

The chance of survival for pregnant women in Somalia drops considerably due to the limited use of antenatal care with at least four visits (ANC+4). Only 24.4 per cent of women had ANC+4 in 2019.50 SHDS 2020 results indicated that only 17.2 per cent of women received two doses of tetanus toxoid during their last pregnancy – and only 27.2 per cent of women were protected against tetanus.51 These figures represent the lowest vaccination coverage rates in the world. However, Health Management Information System data over the last decade indicates a gradual improvement in the tetanus toxoid coverage.

3.2 By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age

Ranked 192nd out of 195 countries, the under-5 mortality rate for Somalia was estimated to be 122 children deaths per 100,000 live births in 2018, which was lower than the rates in 2000 and 2005 (174 deaths). There was an annual reduction of 1.1 per cent, indicating that about 61,000 children were dying every year.53 The high under-5 mortality rate is mainly because of neonatal conditions (mainly preterm births, birth asphyxia and sepsis/infections), lower respiratory infections, diarrhoea, vaccine-preventable infections and undernutrition. According to the SHDS 2020, 9 per cent of births in the five years preceding the survey had a low birth weight (less than 2.5 kg).

One of the major factors for slow decline in the under-5 mortality rate in Somalia is exceptionally high infant and neonatal mortality rates, estimated by the UN Interagency Group to be 77 and 38 per 1,000 live births respectively in 2015.

There has been a good progress in immunization coverage over the last decade as per HMIS data—Penta 3 coverage reportedly increasing from 45 per cent (2015) to 74 per cent (2019). Globally, immunization coverage (Penta III) in Somalia was estimated to be around 69 per cent while measles coverage was 46 per cent in 2017.54 Measles-2 vaccine is being introduced in Somalia after repeated rounds of Measles campaigns to control the epidemic. In 2017, 23,039 measles cases were reported in Somalia, which were the highest annual recorded cases over the last decade.55

The Somali Health and Demographic Survey 2020 shows very low immunization rates with BCG coverage of 36.7 per cent, Penta 3 coverage of 12 per cent, measles coverage of 22.7 per cent. The overall immunization coverage was 10.7 per cent.

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48 Ibid.
49 Ibid.
50 Ibid.
51 Ibid.
52 Full title of target: “By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births.”
53 UN Interagency Group, 2015, Levels and Trends in Child Mortality.
54 WHO-UNICEF.
Low immunization coverage is leading to high burden of vaccine preventable infections particularly Measles with 5.42 per cent of total DALYs, Whooping cough with 4.75 per cent, Meningitis with 2.42 per cent, Tetanus with 1.62 per cent and Diphtheria with 0.32 per cent of total DALYs. Polio eradication activities were initiated in Somalia in 1997. The last polio outbreak started in April 2013 after importation, with 194 cases reported in 2013. The epidemic was effectively controlled, and since 2015 no new case has been reported. Despite achieving polio-free status, Somalia has had sustained circulation of vaccine-derived polioviruses since 2009 due to low routine immunization coverage rates and lack of supplementary immunization activities in insecure areas.

3.3 By 2030, end the epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases and combat hepatitis, water-borne diseases and other communicable diseases

HIV and AIDS

With an estimated human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) prevalence rate of less than 0.1 per cent, an incidence of 0.4 per 1,000 people (adults 15–49), and annual deaths of around 1,000 adults and children, Somalia continues to have an HIV epidemic among the general population (classified as a low-level concentrated epidemic for the last three years). The country has an estimated 11,000 (10,000–12,000) people living with HIV, out of which 48 per cent are women, 38 per cent are men, and 14 per cent are children less than 14 years of age. Co-management of tuberculosis (TB) and HIV treatment has reached 22 per cent, while 69 per cent of people living with HIV started TB preventive therapy.57 In 2017, Integrated Bio-Behavioural Surveillance studies in Mogadishu, Bosaso and Hargeisa found mean HIV prevalence rates of 3.4 per cent among female sex workers and vulnerable women, 0.5 per cent among uniformed services, 0.6 per cent among truck drivers, and 0.7 per cent among port workers (Bosaso and Mogadishu).58 There is limited access to quality HIV treatment facilities, with only 16 sites available in the country in 2018, leading to low coverage of both pre-antiretroviral therapy and antiretroviral therapy.

Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis (TB) in Somalia is the third major cause of death and fifth highest burden of disease. Furthermore, Somalia has increasing cases of drug-resistant TB. The estimated drug-susceptible tuberculosis incidence in Somalia was 268 per 100,000 people in 2017, amounting to 45,000 new cases of TB and 10,000 TB-related deaths in 2017. In addition, estimates of new multidrug-resistant TB cases were 3,222, with a very high mortality rate. There are 66 TB centres in the country, but case detection and treatment success rates are very low and unable to control the TB epidemic in Somalia. TB incidence is also very high compared to other countries.59 Since 75 per cent of TB patients (the majority of whom are males and part of the workforce) are between 19 and 50 years of age, TB has far-reaching economic and social consequences for the patients, their families and communities. People who are infected with HIV are 20 to 30 times more likely to develop active TB. The WHO’s End TB Strategy60 and the SDGs share a common aim: to end the global TB epidemic.

Hepatitis

Somalia has a high prevalence of hepatitis B (18.9 per cent), while the prevalence of hepatitis C was estimated as 4.84 per cent.61 Currently, Somalia does not have a hepatitis surveillance system. Possible risk factors for transmission of hepatitis B and C are blood transfusions, therapeutic injections, syringe reuse, surgeries and sexual transmission. Hepatitis screening, free treatment services and health education interventions are

57 http://www.who.int/ebensofari/countries/somalia
58 Integrated Bio-Behavioural Surveillance of Female Sex Workers,
59 WHO, 2016; World Health Statistics, 2016, Monitoring Health for SDGs.
critical to controlling the epidemic. Vaccination against hepatitis B has already been initiated with the introduction of the Pentavalent vaccine in the routine Expanded Programme on Immunization schedule, with support of the Global Alliance for Vaccine and Immunization.

The blood transfusion services in Somalia are fragmented – there are limited blood establishments, with reliance on “family/replacement donors”. The role of the private sector in blood transfusion is increasing in urban areas. It is necessary to ensure quality blood services and capacity building of staff in the public sector. A well-functioning regulatory authority is also required for ensuring the provision of quality services through blood banks.

**Malaria**

Epidemiologically, the central and southern regions of Somalia are classified as moderate malaria endemic areas, with higher prevalence in the riverine areas (along the Juba and Shabelle Rivers). Malaria transmission in Somalia varies from hypo-endemic to meso-endemic; the areas have year-round transmission, with cases peaking during the two wet seasons: April to June and October to November. In 2017, the incidence of malaria in Somalia was estimated to be 3,828 new cases per 100,000 people. The second Malaria Indicator Survey in 2017/2018 concluded that malaria prevalence remained very low nationally, at about 1.9 per cent, and has declined from 2.8 per cent in 2014. Households with at least one mosquito bed net rose from 19 per cent in 2014 to 27 per cent in 2017. Nationally, 15 per cent of the households sampled had one long-lasting insecticidal net for every two people in 2017, compared with 8 per cent in 2014.

Antimicrobial resistance is emerging as a major health challenge in Somalia. Already multi-drug-resistant TB has become a major issue in the country. Problems identified for antimicrobial resistance include weak regulation of medical products; advertisements being “unjustified or misleading” and not meeting WHO criteria; self-medication and the presence of a huge number of unqualified practitioners in Somalia; and a non-existent health-care regulatory authority. The number of drugs prescribed per patient and, more importantly, antibiotic prescriptions should be assessed and managed. Availability of over-the-counter medication – especially antibiotics without prescription – is common.

**COVID-19**

Somalia confirmed its first case of the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) in Mogadishu on 16 March 2020. Somalia’s capacity to prevent, detect and respond to any global health security threat scores 6 out of 100, as measured by the Health Emergency Preparedness Index in 2016. There are 2 health-care workers per 100,000 people, compared to the global standard of 25 per 100,000. Disease outbreaks such as cholera – with a current outbreak ongoing since December 2017 – strain the country’s health systems.

**3.4 By 2030, reduce by one-third premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment and promote mental health and well-being**

The burden of non-communicable diseases is comparatively low in Somalia, mainly because of low life expectancy and lifestyle. A large proportion of the population dies at any early age and does not reach the age when these diseases usually occur. In the coming decades, the burden of non-communicable diseases in Somalia may rise significantly with an increase in life expectancy – a result of improved maternal and child health status and changes in lifestyle. The probability of dying from cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease between the age of 30 and 70 was estimated to be 20.2 per cent in 2015.

In the non-communicable disease group, cardiovascular diseases constitute the largest burden, with 5.25 per cent of the total disease burden and 12.4 per cent of total deaths in Somalia in 2017. Key risks for the diseases are mainly behavioural and include dietary pattern, tobacco use, and metabolic factors (cholesterol level, blood glucose level, blood pressure, body-mass index and kidney function).
The third largest non-communicable disease grouping is mental disorders, with a share of 2.26 per cent of total DALYs in Somalia in 2017. Prolonged conflict and instability have significantly impacted the mental and psychological well-being of the country’s people. It is estimated that one in three Somalis has been affected by some kind of mental problem. In 2016, the suicide mortality rate per 100,000 people in Somalia was reported to be 4.7, with the rate for males (6.3) being higher than that for females (3.1).62

Mentally challenged people are stigmatized, discriminated against and socially isolated. Degrading and dangerous cultural practices such as restraining persons with chains are not only widespread, but also socially and medically accepted. Traditional healers play an important role; however, they are not medically involved in any real rehabilitation of the patients. Women and ex-combatants are exposed to a higher risk of developing severe forms of distress.63

3.5 Strengthen the prevention and treatment of substance abuse, including narcotic drug abuse and harmful use of alcohol

As a very religious Islamic society, the burden of disease due to substance abuse, including harmful use of alcohol, is not high in Somalia. Substance use disorders have 0.47 per cent of the share of total DALYs and 0.14 per cent of total deaths. Total alcohol per capita (persons over 15 years of age) consumption is very low, at 0.5 litres of pure alcohol.

3.6 By 2020, halve the number of global deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents

Injury-related DALYs lost per 100,000 people and the percentage share rose from 5,196 (6.3 per cent) in the year 2000 to 6,713 (11.5 per cent) in 2017, mainly because of conflict and road injuries. The road traffic mortality rate was 25.4 per 100,000 people in 2017.

There is a need to address this serious issue through multisectoral interventions at local, state and federal levels, as well as establishing trauma care services.

3.7 By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services 64

In 2015, Somalia became a Family Planning 2020 commitment-making country, and in 2017 the FGS revised its commitment to increase access to quality reproductive health services, including family planning, in emergency and crisis settings from 50 per cent of facilities offering family planning services in 2017 to 80 per cent by 2020. With the September 2018 announcement of the World Bank’s direct investment of about US$ 80 million in the country’s health sector, the prospects for expanding health-care service delivery are promising. Nevertheless, to reach universal access to sexual and reproductive health services by 2030, sustained investments and capacity building will be needed.

Reproductive health has been progressively integrated into national strategies and programmes. Most notably, the Reproductive, Maternal, Neonatal, Child and Adolescent Health Strategy 2019–2023 was finalized and validated in 2019. Somalia has one of the worst reproductive health indicators in the world. The country has a low contraceptive prevalence (less than 6.9 per cent), with only 1 per cent of married women using modern methods of family planning and 36.6 per cent of women having unmet needs for birth spacing.65 Therefore, to reach the commitment Somalia made within Family Planning 2020, UNFPA Somalia has increased the availability and use of integrated sexual and reproductive health services (including family planning, maternal health and HIV) that are gender responsive and meet human rights standards for quality of care and equity in access. Furthermore, several sexual and

64 Full title of target: “By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes.”
reproductive health projects are being implemented that target family planning both generally and for refugees and IDPs in particular. They include maternity homes, integrated reproductive health outreach campaigns, and support to the maternity departments of local hospitals that serve these communities. All of these interventions have family planning as an integral component, both in terms of availability of commodities as well as training of providers.

In Somalia, family planning continues to be a highly sensitive topic. This has made it difficult in many circumstances to openly discuss and promote the use of modern contraceptives and to advocate for maternal health and women’s rights.

Therefore, interventions are needed that aim to ensure the provision of high-quality family planning services by building the capacity of service providers to ensure that they acquire the needed knowledge, skills, attitude and proficiency to offer quality family planning services. For example, in 2019 public health service providers nationwide were trained on modern contraceptive methods, including the introduction in Somalia of a new method of injectable contraceptive.66

3.8 Achieve universal health coverage, including financial risk protection, access to quality essential health-care services and access to safe, effective, quality and affordable essential medicines and vaccines for all

Universal health coverage, with a focus on expanding the essential package of health and nutrition services (reproductive, maternal, neonatal, child and adolescent health plus nutrition) at the community level, is important. Community engagement is the key to improving health services and disease prevention, especially among women and girls. There is a need to integrate activities that build long-term resilience and that scale up the capacities needed to address public health challenges, including disease outbreaks. To address such issues on a long-term basis, Somalia must continue to improve preparedness, response and recovery capacity in relation to all types of emergencies with health consequences.

The outcome of the health-related SDGs is to achieve universal health coverage (UHC). The approach of UHC requires coverage with key interventions that address the most important causes of disease and mortality, including preventive, promotive, curative and rehabilitative services. The main objective of UHC is to ensure the availability of a quality essential package of health services. The UHC package needs to be evidence based, comprehensive and accessible by all (especially women, children and the elderly). The approach includes financial risk protection mechanisms that pool funds, spread the financial risks of illness across the population, and facilitate cross-subsidy from rich to poor and from healthy to ill.

UHC service coverage is measured through the UHC index, which is a single indicator that is computed based on tracer indicators to monitor coverage of essential health services. The UHC index for Somalia is only 25 per cent, the lowest in the world, indicating poor coverage of essential health services. Somalia aims to successfully implement the Agenda for Sustainable Development and make progress on achieving the UHC through the development of national- and state-level plans that are integrated with the Somali Health Policy 2015 and health sector strategic plans.

Aligned to the localization of health-related SDGs, the Federal Ministry of Health has also developed the first Road Map towards Universal Health Coverage for the period 2019–2023, representing an aspirational direction towards progress on achieving the health-related SDGs in Somalia.

3.9 By 2030, substantially reduce the number of deaths and illnesses from hazardous chemicals and air, water and soil pollution and contamination

Currently there is no strategy in Somalia to address the morbidity and mortality due to hazard-
ous chemicals and air, water and soil pollution. However, some municipalities in “Somaliland” and Puntland have started to address the negative impacts of uncontrolled dumpsites and unmanaged bio-medical waste. There is a need for a countrywide assessment and to develop and implement a strategy to address these issues.

3.A Strengthen the implementation of the World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control in all countries, as appropriate

Somalia has not yet signed and ratified the World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control. Four per cent of Somali household members smoke cigarettes or use tobacco products; this is rare among women (0.8 per cent), whereas 8 per cent of men smoke or use other tobacco products. The use of tobacco generally increases with age.67 Specific national policies or objectives regarding tobacco control do not exist in Somalia, including smoke-free laws for specific locations, warning labels on tobacco packages, and limitations on advertising or promoting tobacco use. While import duty is imposed on tobacco products arriving in the country (4.5 per cent on cigarettes and 3.5 per cent on tobacco products other than cigarettes), there is no excise duty imposed.68

3.B Support the research and development of vaccines and medicines for the communicable and non-communicable diseases that primarily affect developing countries, provide access to affordable essential medicines and vaccines ... and, in particular, provide access to medicines for all69

Improving access to essential medicines is a critical area of health service delivery. WHO is working closely with the health authorities to establish a Somali Medicines Regulatory Authority. A National Medicines Policy was developed and disseminated. In addition, the Somali Essential Medicines List was finalized in 2018, and the National Supply Chain Master Plan was developed. Capacity building is a key component of the support in this area; so far, more than 1,000 national health staff have been trained on different medicine policy components. Standard treatment guidelines for hospitals, health centres and health units were developed and distributed to health facilities, and more than 200 health-care providers were trained on use of the guidelines.

3.C Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing States

Somalia has one of the lowest densities of health workers in the region and globally for essential/skilled health professionals (physicians, including specialists, and nurses and midwives), with a density of 0.34 per 1,000 people in 2014, which is much below the indicative minimum threshold of 4.45 physicians, nurses and midwives per 1,000 people necessary to achieve universal health coverage by 2030. For sustainable development, not only are adequate numbers needed, but also a well-distributed workforce with the appropriate skills mix to provide quality services.

In 2014, the number of doctors in Somalia was 638, and there were 2 dentists, 2,737 nurses and 747 midwives. The annual production capacity was 1,065 for doctors, 30 for dentists, 50 for pharmacists, 1,765 for nurses and 297 for midwives in the same year. Since 2014, more investment has been made to train more doctors, nurses, midwives and other health workforce members. Considering SDG Target 3C, Somalia would need more than 97,700 doctors, nurses and midwives (specifically, more than 24,350 doctors and 73,350 nurses/midwives) by 2030.

A comprehensive health workforce policy and

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68 https://www.who.int/tobacco/surveillance/policy/country_profile/som.pdf.
69 Full title of target: “Support the research and development of vaccines and medicines for the communicable and non-communicable diseases that primarily affect developing countries, provide access to affordable essential medicines and vaccines ... and, in particular, provide access to medicines for all.”
plan is in place for Somalia based on situational and need assessments. The Ministry of Health is supporting the plan with assistance from development partners.

3.D Strengthen the capacity of all countries, in particular developing countries, for early warning, risk reduction and management of national and global health risks

Somalia must continue to improve preparedness, response and recovery in relation to all types of emergencies with health consequences. A joint external evaluation of the country’s International Health Regulations capacities was carried out in 2016. A review of 19 technical areas to fulfil the regulations’ requirements to prevent, detect and mount a comprehensive public health response to health threats indicated that the preparedness level in Somalia was only at 6 per cent (for 13 capacities), indicating no practical preparedness and significant dependence on humanitarian and United Nations agencies.

Somalia has very limited capacity in most of the 19 technical areas of the International Health Regulations. Continuous commitment to develop such capacity and willingness to conduct an annual self-evaluation using the joint external evaluation tool, together with an actual joint external evaluation every three to five years, could facilitate implementation of the regulations. This will strengthen the country’s capacity to prevent, detect and rapidly respond to public health threats, whether occurring naturally or due to deliberate or accidental events.
Education is a basic human right and a force for sustainable development and peace. High quality education is associated with human empowerment, higher income, better health and improved food security, and it significantly contributes to improved social and economic conditions for all, but particularly those from marginalized groups. Every goal in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development requires education to empower people with the knowledge, skills and values to live in dignity and build their lives.

Somalia is heavily affected by attacks on education and the military use of educational infrastructure. According to a report by the Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack entitled Education Under Attack 2018, between 2015 and 2017 combined actions by non-state armed groups and local clan conflicts led to more than 600 attacks on education, mostly in central and southern Somalia.
These included attacks on schools, targeted killings, abductions, abuse of students and educators, and the military use of schools. At least 15 incidents affected higher education, mostly targeted killings of students and professors, and bombing of universities. In 2018, 64 schools were attacked and 21 were forced to close. Grave violations affected 4,880 children (4,100 boys and 780 girls), as evaluated in the Secretary-General’s draft annual report for 2018.

As a result of the above and other challenges related to the provision of education in the country, almost half of Somali children and adults have never had the opportunity to receive formal education. Among boys and men, 45 per cent have never joined formal schooling, while among girls and women the figure is 48 per cent. In rural communities, the figure is slightly higher, with 50 per cent of boys and men and 49 per cent of girls and women never having attended school. Among nomadic populations, the figures are as high as 78 per cent among boys and men and 84 per cent among girls and women. Even among those who have had an opportunity to attend school, few were successful in completing primary school: only 4 per cent of boys and men and 5 per cent of girls and women. The figures are again lower among rural and nomadic populations, with less than 1 per cent of the latter group having completed primary school.

4.1 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes

Approximately 3 million out of 5 million children aged 6–18 years are out of school in Somalia. The country has one of the world’s lowest overall enrolment rates for primary school-aged children. Only 30 per cent of children at the primary education level (for children aged 6–13 years) and 26 per cent at the secondary education level (for children aged 14–17 years) are enrolled in school. Only 20 per cent of children in rural households attend school. Low school enrolment rates are apparent throughout the country, and girls’ enrolment rates are significantly lower. Nationally in 2015, the primary school net attendance ratio was estimated at 21 per cent for girls and 30 per cent for boys. This is a critical issue for intergenerational transmission of poverty, given that incidence of poverty is significantly higher among households whose heads have no education, but also for exclusion from social and political life and from access to livelihood opportunities.

Inequity of access to education remains a major issue, thus fuelling the vulnerability of children, adolescents and young people, which contributes to social exclusion, social and political risks, a propensity for negative coping behaviours, and exploitation of children and adolescents. Certain categories of children and youth face heightened challenges in accessing education. These include unaccompanied children, victims of harmful traditional practices, and displaced and returnee children.

There are multiple reasons for this situation, including poverty, food insecurity, lack of ade-

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71 Somalia Annual Report 2018, UNICEF.
73 2020 Humanitarian Needs Overview.
74 Barakat et al., Beyond Fragility: A conflict and education analysis of the Somalia context, University of York, Post-war Reconstruction Unit, UNICEF Somalia, 2014.
quate teaching and learning facilities, shortage of female teachers, lack of inclusive facilities at schools such as separate latrines for girls and boys, lack of clean water, discrimination against those with disabilities, cultural norms which devalue education for girls, and long distances to schools for many children. These challenges have been exacerbated by the protracted emergency situation, climate change and natural disasters, resulting in the displacement of populations. Hunger, illness and high rates of malnutrition hinder regular attendance and learning even after a child is enrolled in a school.

Education attainment is limited among youth (15–19 years) who are expected to be in school, as only half of them are currently enrolled. Enrolment is lower for girls, at 47.2 per cent compared to 52.8 per cent for boys.\(^*\)

\(^*\) See also the section on “IDPs, Refugees and Refugee Returnees” in CCA Chapter 6: “Leave No One Behind”.

4.2 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education

School preparedness and entry into formal primary education at the appropriate age are critical for children’s success in primary education and have a major impact on primary education survival rates. Despite this, few children attend school at the right age for their respective levels: among primary education students, only 19 per cent of children attend school at the right age, while in secondary school the rate is even lower, at 9 per cent.\(^76\) Boys attend school slightly more often at the right age compared to girls (20 versus 17 per cent respectively in primary school, and 11 versus 8 per cent respectively in secondary school).\(^77\) As with other indicators, rural students have lower rates of children attending school at the right age, with nomadic populations being significantly lower.

Early childhood education and pre-school learning are neglected sectors across the education systems in Somalia, though in places such as “Somaliland” privately run foundations in urban areas have introduced pre-school learning that is outside government regulation. While many young children attend Koranic schools, many of which are under the authority of the Ministry of Religion and Education, learning in these institutions typically focuses on religious teaching. As a result, limited attention is given to areas of holistic child development, numeracy and literacy, and the social-emotional competencies required for effective learning in the early grades of formal education. Small children are thus often ill-equipped to learn in formal school settings.

Similarly, little attention has been given to redressing the situation by strengthening the quality of early grade learning and improving transitions into primary school and accelerated learning at early grade levels through the use of appropriate learning materials and teaching methodologies to compensate for the lack of early childhood education and pre-school learning facilities.\(^79\) These weaknesses, together with limited community understanding regarding the importance of early learning and school preparedness, have a direct impact on learning outcomes at the primary school level, which are further compounded by late enrolment in education.

4.3 By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university

Despite an increasing number of students going to school in the last ten years, the continued limited ability of the education system to absorb additional children, particularly in the context of population growth and ongoing insecurity in dif-

75 PESS, 2014.
77 Ibid.
78 Ibid.
different parts of Somalia (especially the central and southern regions), means that only a fraction of youth ever attend university, estimated at 8 per cent among men and 4 per cent among women. Females represent only about a third of all higher education students (34 per cent). The low rate of enrolment in technical and vocational education and training, the poor labour market relevance, and the lack of harmonization of training curricula are not favourable for the development of youth employment to facilitate their integration into the labour market.

4.4 By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship

Across Somalia there is a large youth bulge (4.6 million or 38 per cent of the population is aged between 15 and 35 years). The educational and training needs of the youth (in order to gain legitimate employment) are often not being met due to weak external efficiencies and non-alignment of skill development with local and traditional job markets and livelihood opportunities. Unemployment levels in Somalia are therefore high, particularly for the youth. Only 45 per cent of the youth can read and write (49 per cent male, 41 per cent female), while 69 per cent of young people are not currently enrolled in school. This is exacerbated by nomadic populations migrating to urban centres. Overall, nearly 46 per cent of the youth reside in urban areas. Recent reports suggest that young people who are socially excluded may turn to alternative income-generating activities, including petty theft, organized crime or joining extremist groups.

Avenues for youth to obtain education and gainful employment are limited, particularly for girls and young women. Capacities of academic and technical and vocational education and training institutions are limited, and access to business development services, job counselling, modern technologies, innovation and microfinance for young people are very limited or non-existent.

While the finalization of the National Youth Policy and National Employment Policy are steps in the right direction, these need to be localized effectively and adequately resourced to have a meaningful impact. In addition to formal and informal education (numeracy, literacy and civic education), market-based vocational and entrepreneurship skills curricula and job-search assistance initiatives need to be introduced in secondary and tertiary education, while internship, scholarship, apprenticeship and volunteerism schemes should be promoted to enable a smooth transition to a work environment. The introduction of innovative approaches and new technologies to extend skills training and job creation needs to be examined, especially for the youth in remote areas. In urban areas, so-called “one-stop youth centres”, as established in Mogadishu and Kismayo, already can play a great role in providing not only educational opportunities, but also safe spaces for coming together and allowing poor youth to access relevant services, including the Internet.

Supporting the social and economic inclusion of young people through conflict-sensitive alternative education and vocational training programmes is thus important for consolidating state-building efforts to support sustainable peace and development. Much support is required to support the Government to develop, finance and deliver systematic equity-based certified vocational skill development and training opportunities in a manner that is cost-effective and relevant to local livelihood needs and employment opportunities – particularly in relation to pastoral economies.

In addition, the cultural sector offers various opportunities for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship in Somalia. Through newly rehabilitated cultural infrastructure in Mogadishu (e.g. the National Museum, National Theatre and National Library) and Berbera (the New Municipal Library), combined with existing cultural infrastructure and following the ratification of key UNESCO conven-

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tions in the field of culture for the protection of tangible and intangible cultural heritage, Somalia will have the opportunity to train youth and adults in management, programming and other related activities in the field of culture.

* See Section 8.5 for further information on youth employment.

4.5 By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

Gender inequities in education are high, with girls’ participation consistently lower than boys’. According to the latest figures, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) for all children attending primary school is .88, while for secondary it is .70. Education statistical yearbooks show modest rates of improvement from 2 per cent to 14 per cent over the past few years. Current levels remain relatively low (primary school GPI: Puntland .83, Somaliland .84 and South Central .82; secondary school GPI: Puntland .73, Somaliland .73 and South Central .69). 

In rural areas and among pastoral communities, gender inequities are greater, although less so among displaced communities where humanitarian actors have made concerted efforts to increase access to education for girls. Gender inequities are most pronounced among teachers: between 9 and 14 per cent of primary school teachers are female, and between 2 and 4 per cent of secondary teachers are female.

4.6 By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

The overall adult literacy rate, which according to the 1975 population census was 54 per cent for both sexes, has dropped to 40 per cent. Literacy is higher in urban areas (64.2 per cent), and across the country there are lower levels among women (32.2 per cent). The literacy rate in nomadic communities is 12.1 per cent. Wealthier households have a higher literacy rate than poorer households. A recent study found that the percentage of women aged 15 to 24 who are literate has increased significantly, from only 25 per cent in 2006 to 44.4 per cent today. Younger girls and women are on average more literate than their older peers.

4.7 By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development

Conflict-sensitive approaches to providing vocational and skills training have proven effective at addressing the risks related to the alienation and exclusion of adolescents and youth. Promoting inclusive and peaceful conflict resolution strategies among teachers and caregivers, as well as children in schools, is critical for promoting improved learning outcomes and contributing to fewer children dropping out of school. It is also crucial for contributing to key targets in the NDPs related to education quality and access.

Somalia’s cultural infrastructure (museums, libraries, etc.)

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85 Ibid.

86 Ibid.

87 Full title of target: “By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture’s contribution to sustainable development.”
ies, theatres, cultural centres, etc.) offer opportunities for education and outreach activities linked with sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship, and appreciation of cultural diversity. Moreover, the guidance of the UNESCO 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage, the 1972 Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, and the 1954 Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, all of which were ratified by Somalia in February 2020, provide tools and resources for the promotion and protection of Somalia’s tangible and intangible cultural heritage.

4.A Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all

As Somalia has been in the midst of a destructive civil conflict for a long time, educational infrastructure has not developed at a pace that can cater for early childhood education or the expansion of primary and secondary education. Even those structures that were in use have suffered massive destruction because of disuse and attacks on schools by armed groups. Some schools have also been occupied by the warring factions, and this has exacerbated the problem. According to the Global Partnership for Education, “Post-war educational reconstruction has been slow in south and central Somalia, and opportunities for public education are limited, as most primary and secondary schools are managed by non-state providers.”

It is therefore imperative that the country rebuilds the dilapidated educational infrastructure. Schools and other education facilities must be built or rehabilitated to provide a safe and protective learning environment that enables the educational process. These schools should be environmentally sensitive and should also be child, gender and disability responsive. They should take into account the needs of female students, particularly by having sex-separate latrines with locks and adequate privacy for girls and boys, and by making water available for improved (menstrual) hygiene management, including disposal facilities for sanitary products. Schools should also provide a healthy environment for learning by planting trees and establishing school gardens, play areas and sportsgrounds. Planning for new schools should be linked to integrated area and settlement planning to make schools a central point of vibrant neighbourhoods.

With only 18 per cent of rural children attending school, Somalia has a long way to go in building the schools and other facilities needed to cater for all school-aged children.

4.B By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries

The decades-long conflict in Somalia has affected its relationship with the outside world, thereby depriving it of the benefits it would have accrued from international relations in educational exchanges and scholarships. The challenges of education in most African countries in general, and Somalia in particular, are such that they require the support of development partners and bilateral organizations. The global SDGs cannot be realized through the sole effort of individual countries. In this regard, the reconstruction process that has started in Somalia will have to be assisted by offers of scholarships abroad to young Somalis, who will contribute to the national reconstruction effort upon returning. In addition to the material and financial support international partners provide to Somalia, development partners should also offer scholarships in fields of specialization that may not be available in the country – for ex-
ample, engineering, science and other professions.

Somalia may in particular benefit from study abroad programmes in areas such as information technology, marine engineering, agricultural mechanization and arid land agriculture. These areas have the potential to bring about dramatic change in the development of the country. As one of the enablers of SDG 4 targets, the provision of scholarship opportunities to Somalia will go a long way towards meeting the education targets by 2030.

Regional integration efforts will also be a useful mechanism to expand inter-regional higher education exchanges. The Regional Qualifications Framework being developed for the countries of IGAD (which includes Somalia) is one avenue to explore and utilize. The eventual ratification of the Addis Ababa Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and Other Academic Qualifications on Higher Education in African States is another instrument through which Somalia can benefit.

4.C By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States

It is repeatedly said that a county’s education system is as good as its teachers. This is true in Somalia as anywhere. In this regard, the country needs to produce properly qualified and trained teachers to staff its schools. However, the levels of training and qualification are low. Due to the breakdown of state structures and peace in the country over many years, the teacher training institutions in the country are not providing teachers the training they need. Yet despite lacking the requisite qualifications, many are currently teaching.

Somalia must accelerate the training and deployment of teachers. As many female teachers as possible must be recruited – female teachers have a big impact on the enrolment of girls and as role models.

Somalia needs to be supported through international cooperation agreements to train teachers. For this to happen, existing teacher training institutions should be strengthened in terms of capacity and facilities. Their management and administration should also be streamlined to enable them to be more responsive to the demands of the country.
Gender equality is not only a fundamental human right, but a prerequisite for a peaceful, prosperous and sustainable Somalia. However, as a traditionally patriarchal Islamic society, Somali culture is considered socially conservative, with women’s lives historically restricted to the “private domain”, leading to their constrained role in decision making and limited access to assets and resources. Gender-based violence (GBV) remains prevalent and female genital mutilation (FGM) is almost universal.

Providing women and girls with equal access to education, health care, decent work, and representation in political and economic decision-making processes will help fuel a sustainable economy and benefit Somali society more broadly. As a cross-cutting issue, strengthening gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls in line with SDG 5 remains critical for Somalia progressing on all SDGs.
5.1 End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

Over the past decade, and particularly over the last five years, both attitudes and narratives regarding gender equality and participation are improving in Somalia, with the FGS developing several key frameworks, including the Provisional Constitution (2012), the National Gender Policy, the Somalia Women’s Charter and NDP-9. The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol) has been signed, but not yet ratified, while the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) has neither been signed nor ratified.

There have also been significant strides in legislative and policy action under the leadership of the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development. These include the drafting of key bills (Female Genital Mutilation and Sexual Offences). Across the three regions, major gender-related bills that have recently been passed or are under development in each region include the Human Rights Commission Bill, the Sexual Offences Bill and the FGM Bill. Other policies passed or in development include the Disability Act (FGS), the draft Child Protection Policy (Somaliland and FGS), and the draft Family Act (Somaliland and FGS). While there has been progress in legislation, without affirmative action, women and girls with disabilities are likely to experience “double discrimination” – vulnerability to both social discrimination and gender marginalization.

5.2 Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation

Despite the above-mentioned efforts, the incidence of violence and rape across Somalia has increased, with women suffering from sexual harassment, assault and exploitation. In 2015, there were 7,439 reported cases of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) in Mogadishu alone, and 5,600 SGBV cases in Puntland (between mid-2014 and mid-2015).

From January to December 2019, gender-based violence (GBV) services (post-rape treatment as well as GBV trauma care) under the Somalia Protection Cluster reached 46,070 individuals (96 per cent women and girls).89

A 2017 UNFPA/John Hopkins study looked closer at the situation of physical and sexual violence among urban adults across the three regions. Over a third of urban female respondents had experienced some type of intimate partner violence, with 25 per cent experiencing sexual violence by their partners. Non-partner violence is also a problem, with 17 per cent of females reporting experiencing non-partner violence (physical or sexual violence).

Almost half of the women respondents indicated that they had suffered injuries from violence, and up to 70 per cent had not received basic health care for their injuries, with barriers including a lack of permission from husbands, inaccessibility of clinics (and lack of transport), lack of childcare, shame, and the costs of the clinic. Only 11 per cent of the women had reported the violence to an authority (local leader or police). Meanwhile, almost a third of urban male respondents had experienced non-partner violence. Violence is indicated to begin during childhood, with 11 per cent of females and 18 per cent of males reporting suffering from physical or sexual violence as children. The 2019 GBV Information Management System report also indicates a sustained increase in the level of physical violence. Intimate partner violence is reported at 63 per cent, with rape and sexual assault at 15 per cent and 13 per cent respectively.

Data from the SHDS 2020 indicates that 11.9 per cent of ever-married women and girls aged 15 years or older were subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence in the 12 months preceding the survey; the figure is 4.2 per cent for those suffering psychological violence alone.90

90 SDG indicator 5.2.1 (a) and (c).
Over half of women surveyed believe that husbands commit the most violent acts against women in the community. Of ever-married women who had experienced physical violence, 62 per cent reported the most common perpetrator being their husbands. Twelve per cent of ever-married women reported physical violence perpetrated against them by a spouse. Women from urban areas reported greater incidence of spousal violence (20 per cent) than women in rural areas (14 per cent) and nomadic areas (11 per cent).

Among never-married women, 34 per cent were victims of physical violence perpetrated by a relative who is not an immediate family member, while 29 per cent reported that the perpetrators were their mothers/stepmothers. Nineteen per cent indicated they were hit, kicked, slapped, etc. by their fathers/stepfathers. Teachers were reported as perpetrators of violence by 12 per cent. Six per cent of the ever-married women aged 15–49 who had been pregnant reported experiencing physical violence during their pregnancies, with women in urban areas experiencing a higher level (9 per cent) compared to rural (5 per cent) and nomadic (4 per cent) women. Thirty-five per cent of ever-married women (15–49) who have experienced violent spousal abuse reported resultant injuries. Only 17 per cent of ever-married women who had experienced emotional, physical or sexual violence had sought help.

Thirty-six per cent of ever-married women believe that a husband is justified in beating his wife for at least one of six specified reasons. However, the proportion of women who justify wife beating decreases with increasing education and wealth levels.

5.3 Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is still highly prevalent in Somalia, with an estimated 99.2 per cent of women (aged 15–49 years) having undergone the procedure in Somalia, of whom 64 per cent have undergone the infibulation/pharaonic type of female circumcision, the most severe form, involving the removal of the entire clitoris and flesh. Over 70 per cent of women aged 15–49 were circumcised when they were aged 5–9; less than 1 per cent were circumcised when they were under 5 years, while 1 per cent underwent FGM when they were over 15 years of age. In a 2014 UNFPA report on the joint UNICEF/UNFPA programme on the abandonment of FGM, it is estimated that about 2.2 million girls will undergo FGM by 2030.

Prevailing attitudes, including among women, mean that elimination of FGM will remain a significant challenge in Somalia. According to the SHDS 2020, 72 per cent of women aged 15–49 believe that female circumcision is a religious obligation, while 76 per cent want female circumcision to continue. However, the opinion on whether FGM should be continued decreased as the wealth status of the household increased, with 81 per cent of women from the poorest households supporting a continuation compared to 64 per cent from wealthier households. A similar trend is observed

92 She neglects household duties; she argues with him; she goes out without telling him; she wastes resources; she neglects the children; and she refuses to have sex with him.
93 SDG indicator 5.3.2.
based on the level of educational attainment, with support declining with advancing levels of education.

**Early marriage (below 18 years) is common, with girls often married below the age of 15, and even as low as 12 or 13. In some pastoralist communities, marriage typically follows the start of menstruation. Data from SHDS 2020 indicates that 16.8 per cent of women aged 20–24 were married by the time they turned 15, while 35.5 per cent were first married by the age of 18.** In comparison, just 6 per cent of men aged 20–24 had entered their first marriage by the time they turned 18.

Traditional attitudes persist, with almost half of urban men and over a third of urban women supporting child marriage (under 15 years) or believing it is socially acceptable.

In terms of marriage arrangements, nearly 19 per cent of urban adult women (15 years and above) indicated that they had been forced to marry. But it appears that arranged and forced marriage is beginning to fall out of favour in the new generation in regions such as (rural) “Somaliland”, with increasing choice-driven adolescent marriages. Girls’ marriage tends to lead to dropping out of school, with impacts on girls’ development of skills and future livelihood options.

*Source: SHDS 2020*

5.4 Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate

The formal wage sector remains male dominated, with women (and youth) discriminated against in accessing formal employment, particularly in the public sector (they are typically relegated to lower positions, although salaries are the same for similar work). Over 18 per cent of ever-married women aged 15–49 employed in the 12 months prior to being surveyed for the SHDS were not paid for their work, with this number increasing to 42.8 per cent for those undertaking agricultural work.

The level of vulnerable employment among women is particularly high, standing at 88 per cent in 2019; this contrasts with 75 per cent for men. This is due to the fact that women are more likely to work in a business operated by someone in their household rather than being employed themselves.

Recently a new National Employment Policy was drafted, with the inclusion of women, youth, IDPs and minorities as vulnerable groups. This is complemented by other strategy documents on women’s economic empowerment formulated by the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development and ILO.

*see the following sections for further information relevant to this target: 1.3 on social protection; 3.8 on access to health care; SDG 4 on access to education; Targets 6.1 and 6.2 on access to water and sanitation; Targets 8.5 and 8.8 on women’s employment and labour rights; and Target 9.1 on infrastructure.*

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95 SDG indicator 5.3.1 (a) and (b).
98 Ibid.
5.5 Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life

Consequent on the institutional collapse and dysfunctionality of the Somali state following the outbreak of the civil war in 1991, women in Somalia generally encountered serious difficulties securing a place in decision-making processes, let alone equal opportunities in various facets of political, economic and public life. Women’s situation was further compounded by cultural norms and traditional practices that restricted their overt participation in public affairs, including in democracy-building and governance-reform processes.

However, the last two electoral cycles of 2012 and 2016 witnessed a discernible positive sea change in the role of women, as the women themselves initiated targeted public campaigns to advocate for special seats for women candidates.

Although regional disparities are observed, Somalia has shown significant improvement regarding women’s political participation, with more women appointed to decision-making positions than ever before in the history of Somalia.

While women’s representation did fall below the 30 per cent quota in the 2016 electoral process, the proportion of women elected was a 47 per cent increase from 2012,102 with 80 women MPs out of 329 MPs (24.5 per cent), this in line with the global average of 25 per cent.

While there have been significant gains in parliamentary representation at the national level, this has not been mirrored at the state level. In Puntland and “Somaliland”, there is only one female parliamentarian in each legislature out of 66 and 82 MPs respectively. Jubaland has 8 female MPs out of 74 MPs, Hirshabelle has 6 female MPs out of 99 MPs, and in recently concluded elections in Galmudug, the total female MPs are 6 out of 89 MPs. South-West State has 15 female MPs out of 95 MPs.

In addition, three state parliaments, Hirshabelle, South-West and Galmudug, have deputy women speakers of parliament. In Puntland, 29 women were elected to the local councils in 5 districts out of 116 seats, representing an increase in district representation from 14 per cent to 25 per cent in the 2019 elections.

Furthermore, the Human Resource Audit103 of the FGS civil service indicated that around 25 per cent of the civil service are women; women’s proportional representation is highest in the lower salary

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102 Parliamentary elections were held in Somalia in October and November 2016, resulting in 66 women being elected to the House of the People out of 275, and 13 women being elected out of 54 seats in the Upper House (EARF, Somali Women’s Political Participation, June 2017).

scales and lowest in the highest, and women also have lower educational attainment levels.

While new laws and policies have been welcomed by gender activists as key documents to lobby for action on gender equality and to hold the Government to account, actual change on the ground in all three regions is slow, with continued poor indicators of development – particularly regarding maternal mortality, rape, FGM and violence against women. Without a legal framework or guidance for rights infringements and a broader constitutional review to mainstream the participation of women as equal beneficiaries and actors in the mainstream development of Somalia, the achievement of gender equality and women’s empowerment in Somalia will continue to be a challenge.

There are also significant gendered disparities in the labour market participation of women in Somalia. According to the 2019 Somalia Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment conducted by World Bank, 58 per cent of men participate in the labour market compared to 37 per cent of women. In Somalia, the proportion of female employment in Government stands at 24 per cent, whereas the proportion of female employment in Grade A stands at 15 per cent.

Nevertheless, women in urban areas may sell wares in the streets or marketplaces, hold jobs in shops or offices, or run their own business. Moreover, as mentioned above, women are also custodians of intangible cultural heritage. This encompasses the performing arts, culinary and medicinal knowledge, and the know-how for the creation of material culture. The latter includes, but is not limited to, handicrafts, weaving, textiles, habitat production and the making of tools for a wide range of subsistence activities in areas such as horticulture, agriculture and fishery.

5.6 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights

According to the Reproductive, Maternal, Neonatal, Child and Adolescent Health Strategy 2019–2023, antenatal care is essential for imparting preventive care services as well as the detection and treatment of any emerging health problems during pregnancy. The Service Availability and Readiness Assessment illustrated that 66 per cent of Somali health facilities provided ANC services, although not comprehensively, with 43 per cent of facilities providing less than half of the service components. The mean availability of basic emergency obstetric and neonatal care services as reported by the Service Availability and Readiness Assessment was 45 per cent among urban facilities, compared to 20 per cent in rural areas, while essential newborn care was offered in 29 per cent of urban and 12 per cent of rural facilities. The 2019 reported rate of skilled birth attendants at delivery was 31.9 per cent, with a target set at 55 per cent for 2021. The establishment of essential newborn care is, therefore, a core priority, necessitating urgent attention to avert newborn deaths through simple, evidence-based, cost-effective and low-cost technology interventions.

The maternal mortality ratio fell from 1,300 deaths per 100,000 live births in 1990 to 692 deaths in 2019. With the current pace of effort, the ratio is not likely to reach the SDG target of 70 per 100,000 live births by 2030 unless an innovative strategic plan is scaled up through universal access to basic and comprehensive emergency obstetric and neonatal care (BEmONC and CEmONC) services in all urban and rural areas. CEmONC services are offered in 6 per cent of urban facilities and only 1 per cent of rural facilities. Only 26 CEmONC centres were operational, while several more were in different stages of implementa-

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105 Ibid.

106 Full title of target: “Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences.”

107 SDG indicator 3.1.2 (SHDS 2020).

tion. Access to BEmONC facilities was also constrained by the physical distances involved.

The low level of domestic public sector health financing fuels high levels of out-of-pocket spending on health, leading to catastrophic expenditures for vulnerable population groups. Moreover, most of the health service delivery is predominantly funded by development partners, with limited public sector investment, a major weakness that needs to be gradually rectified. The aid mapping for the health sector was estimated in 2017, 2018 and 2019 at US$ 116.8 million, 108.6 million and 137 million respectively.

5.A Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws

Somalia has enshrined sharia compliance in the existent constitutions, and while sharia law does provide rights to women, they are not equal to men. This, combined with more cultural aspects related to gender differential treatment and arrangements, leads to a situation where women face different challenges than men in accessing economic opportunities and services such as credit, insurance, finance, land ownership, etc. This includes challenges related to freedom of movement, freedom of networking, access to finance, access to production inputs and technology for agriculture, ownership of productive means, as well as contractual engagement. For instance, only 4 per cent of women aged 15–49 have a bank account; 64 per cent of women with mobile phones use them for financial transactions. The likelihood of a woman having a bank account or mobile phone increases with higher educational attainment.109

At the domestic level, while 90 per cent of women decide how their cash earnings will be spent by themselves or with their husbands, just 67 per cent of women jointly or individually make decisions on the use of their husband’s earnings.

While many of the recent policy, legal and regulatory arrangements promote gender equality, practical application remains a challenge. However, work towards women’s access to land is being addressed under peacebuilding and rule of law programmes across the FMSs. Alternative dispute resolution centres are being developed that will promote women as decision makers and provide safe spaces for them to advocate for and protect their land rights.

5.B Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women

Statistics show that overall 74.4 per cent of households have a mobile phone, with 75.3 per cent of Somali women owning one.110 The proportion of Somali women (15 years and older) with a mobile money account stands at 63.9 per cent.111 However, according to the SHDS 2020, just 17 per cent of women had used the Internet at least once, with 15.1 having used the Internet in the 12 months prior to being questioned. The use of the Internet among women generally declines with age, but increases based on greater educational attainment and wealth.112

Furthermore, only 3.7 per cent of employed women worked in industry in 2019. As the high-tech sector in Somalia accounts for a very small proportion of total employment in industry, it is reasonable to assume that the proportion of employed women working in the technology sector is extremely low, thereby limiting the economic empowerment of youth women.

According to locally reported information from 2017, only 9 per cent of the 1,233 information and communications technology (ICT) graduates from 23 universities across Puntland, Galmudug, South-West, Banadir, Jubaland and Hirshabelle States were female.113


110 SDG indicator 5.b.1 (SHDS 2020).

111 SDG indicator 8.10.2 (b) (SHDS 2020).

112 SDG indicator 17.8.1 (SHDS 2020).

This gender imbalance in the ICT sector has been recognized by the FGS, who in 2018 launched an initiative to create gender parity in Somalia’s ICT industry at an event commemorating International Girls in ICT Day. However, there is no further information on the progress of this initiative. The Somalia Women’s Charter is advocating for compulsory secondary education to ensure that girls and young women attain higher levels of education and benefit from and contribute to the ICT field.

The Somalia ICT Policy and Strategy (2019–2024) outlines a number of key priorities in relation to women, including: to provide women universal Internet access; to provide new learning and ICT access opportunities for women; to provide assistance for disadvantaged persons, including women, to acquire information technology skills; and to ensure that cyber security policy objectives do not undermine the fundamental human rights of any citizen, particularly those most likely to be subject to online abuse and harassment, such as women. The Policy further commits to undertaking an equity gap audit to provide a baseline assessment of the state of access to and use of the Internet by disadvantaged groups, especially women and girls, in Somalia.114

5.C Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels

Three key country frameworks have been drafted that are strong platforms for promoting gender equality and development, with support from international partners. The Provisional Constitution (2012) has included important new gender provisions and an “ambitious” articulation and protection of citizen rights. Notably, in 2013 a Draft Constitution Technical Review Committee was established with two lawyers, including one woman. Meanwhile, the international community’s Somali Compact under the New Deal Framework (2013) and the New Partnership for Somalia have mainstreamed and prioritized gender, with attention given to addressing gender disparities across sectors. Finally, building on this, the NDP-9 is considered a critical national framework for country development, with a notable alignment to the SDGs promoting gender equality, in particular SDG 5.

As key national reference and guidance platforms for the promotion of gender equality and inclusion, national gender policies have been formulated in each of the three regions, most recently at FGS level. These have been much welcomed by civil society and women’s groups. However, beyond gender activists, their public impact seems to be limited, with little knowledge or awareness of their existence among other groups. The policies have not yet been publicly debated or disseminated beyond Government circles.

The development of national gender policies was initiated in “Somaliland” and Puntland in 2010–2011. In “Somaliland”, a National Gender Policy was drafted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and approved in 2011. Yet this was perceived as largely “externally developed” and “driven by donor language”.115 Meanwhile, Puntland drafted a National Gender Policy in 2010, but this was not approved.

After facilitating broad internal and external consultation, the FGS finally developed their own draft National Gender Policy in 2013. The goal of the 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 equal partners in development. The Somalia Women’s Charter provides a platform for women across Somalia to advocate for equal representation in all decision-making positions, zero tolerance towards SGBV, inclusive economic empowerment, full participation in peacemaking, securing transitional justice, enhancing resilience, and embracing innovation and equal opportunities in the field of ICT.


115 NAGAAD, 2019.
The sustenance of freshwater resources in Somalia is threatened by multiple biophysical and anthropogenic pressures, including climate change, deforestation and land degradation. Prolonged situations of political instability and insecurity have also taken a huge toll on the country’s quest to put in place robust institutions for water management and related infrastructure.

Consequently, a significant proportion of Somalis have limited or no access to a basic water supply or sanitation facilities. Without access to clean water, toilets and good hygiene practices, there is a high risk of contracting easily preventable diseases such as diarrhoea, acute watery diarrhoea, cholera and respiratory infections. In the past three years, more than 900 people in Somalia, the majority of them children under the age of 5 years, have died from cholera. When women are forced to give birth in these poor conditions, the lives of mothers and babies are also at stake.
Collecting water is often the responsibility of girls and women, and it can be very dangerous. Many women and girls face the risk of physical or sexual assault at water points. Spending time collecting water also limits their time and their ability to go to school and work. This also has an impact on their communities and the economy at large.

In conflict-affected areas and camps for displaced people, access to safe water is often further compromised: infrastructure is damaged, pipelines are in poor condition, and water collection is dangerous. People often live in overcrowded camps, and without access to safe water, diseases and malnutrition spread even faster.\textsuperscript{116}

As such, ensuring access to safe water and sanitation under Goal 6 is key to strengthening the rights, safety and health of Somalis. It is an issue that touches on many other SDGs.

6.1 By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all

Access to and use of safe water is low in Somalia, with 65.2\% of Somali households having access to improved water sources.\textsuperscript{117} According to the 2017 WHO-UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme report, in the rural areas of Somalia only 28\% of the population have access to basic water services; about half of this population has limited access, which means less quantity is available. About 23\% are drinking unimproved/unprotected water, and 5\% are drinking purely surface water.\textsuperscript{118} This makes the country’s rural populations feature among the world’s water-poor people.

In urban areas, basic water services are available to about 83\% of the people, with 15\% having access to a very limited quantity.\textsuperscript{119} About 30\% of the population covered are using unimproved/unprotected water, and 8\% are using surface water. Overall, 6.3 million people out of total of 12 million rely on non-piped water for drinking in domestic settings.

For this SDG target, the challenge is to bring the excluded population into the access network. Field reports suggest that 40\% of existing water sources are non-functional. The main reasons for the malfunctioning systems are weak water supply and management models, high operation and maintenance costs, a non-existent supply chain for spare parts, and the technical limitations of service providers. Groundwater provides 80\% of the domestic supply, but the groundwater table is deep (100 to 300 metres). High salinity in most parts of the country makes the water quality poor, especially in coastal cities such as Mogadishu, Kismayo and Bosaso.

Continued droughts in Somalia over the last two decades have devastated the water sector. Quantities are reduced and unpredictable, the quality has deteriorated, and pricing has become unregulated to an exploitative level. Major water sources such as open water wells and tube wells drilled to deeper aquifers have become extremely unreliable.

The institutional set-up of the water sector largely remains under-resourced in terms of human, financial and logistical resources. There are serious capacity gaps in the available human resource, management and accountability systems. Roles are not clear and often overlapping among different government institutions. There are no harmonized and coordinated legal, regulatory and policy frameworks. The policies and acts that are in

\textsuperscript{116} \url{https://www.unicef.org/somalia/water-sanitation-and-hygiene}
\textsuperscript{118} \url{https://washdata.org/data/household#!/dashboard/new}
\textsuperscript{119} \url{https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.H2O.BASW.ZS?locations=SO}
place remain in draft form for a long period in all institutions; they are inconsistent, with no implementation and monitoring and evaluation frameworks.

Changes in demography, climate and economic activity are the root causes of the current water stress in many secondary cities in Somalia and “Somaliland”. In these areas, demand for water has doubled in recent years, leaving many of the existing wells and springs overexploited and at risk of running dry. Piped household connections are fast increasing, with at least one of every two homes connected to the network. However, water utilities are either non-existent or are unable to meet the basic demand for drinking water due to the general state of disrepair of these networks and the limited availability of raw water sources. As a result, water trucking has become common in the small towns of Somalia, but also in secondary centres such as Kismayo and Garowe.

Water trucking, which brings water from wells and wadis outside towns, is expensive and often of questionable quality. It can also lead to conflicts with or within the local communities from which the water is harvested and trucked. Analytical work done by the World Bank summarized volumes of master plans in “Somaliland” and Puntland to produce Secondary Cities Water Summary Investment Plans for Berbera, Boroma, Burao and Erigavo in “Somaliland”, and Garowe, Bosaso and Galkayo in Puntland. In these efforts, there is a need to have better links with integrated urban development planning to prevent overlaps and to synchronize large-scale infrastructure projects in rapidly growing urban centres.

6.2 By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations

Major challenges exist in Somalia’s quest to achieve adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for its people. Countrywide, only 38 per cent of the population have access to basic sanitation, and 28 per cent practise open defecation.

Urban areas do not have functional sewerage and drainage systems, but use of household latrines is also weak. In urban Somalia, 61 per cent of people use basic sanitation facilities, 25 per cent use shared latrines, 13 per cent use unimproved sanitation facilities, and only 1 per cent defecate in the open.120

In the rural areas of Somalia in 2017, 20 percent of people used basic sanitation facilities, 7 per cent used shared latrines, 24 per cent used unimproved latrines, and 49 per cent defecated in the open.

Overall, according to the 2017 estimates, only 5.6 million people in Somalia are using basic or improved latrines, out of which only 1.6 million are connected to the sewerage systems. With the population estimated at 12 million in 2017, more than half the population of Somalia does not use appropriate facilities for defecation.

With regard to hygiene (handwashing with soap, menstrual hygiene management and food hygiene), the major challenge is avoiding regular outbreaks of acute watery diarrhoea and cholera. About 56 per cent of the population in Somalia in 2017 did not have appropriate hygiene behaviours or facilities in the three hygiene areas mentioned above. About 34 per cent have limited facilities supported by behaviour, and 10 per cent were using regular but basic services.

6.3 By 2030, improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimizing release of hazardous chemicals and materials, halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and substantially increasing recycling and safe re-use globally.

Major towns across the country lack a proper system for collecting, managing and disposing of solid waste, with urban centres in “Somaliland” and Puntland and the large city of Mogadishu in a slightly better situation. 121 The contamination of water bodies leads to the spread of waterborne diseases. Health hazards from uncollected and decaying garbage, pollution, contamination, garbage-choked drains and gutters, plastic waste, and the irresponsible disposal of refuse, including burning, are major challenges for these larger cities and towns. Contributing factors include the unavailability of controlled and properly engineered disposal sites and waste treatment plants, along with limited expertise and appropriate technical know-how. The increasing waste correlates to a rapidly growing urban population, which includes burgeoning numbers of IDPs escaping economic difficulties, violence or recurring droughts in rural areas. The lack of waste management infrastructure results in increasing anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions, increased pollution, degraded ecosystems, habitat destruction, loss of biodiversity and threatened species. Life in urban communities thus becomes more precarious, a situation that is exacerbated by climate change.

The main issue to be urgently addressed is establishing proper integrated waste management and wastewater treatment systems and management structures. In Somalia, as in other parts of Africa, the implementation of integrated waste management practices is generally still new. Indeed, high-tech waste treatment facilities (such as properly managed incinerators, industrial waste-recycling facilities or sanitary landfills) do not exist. There are no sound reuse/recycling practices, and waste is usually dumped in open dumpsites or burned. The potential economic and industrial value of this waste (processed using environment-friendly techniques) is generally ignored. However, there are Mogadishu-based entrepreneurs who recycle plastic materials for construction.

Lack of policy is a barrier to sustainable waste management. While local government legislation addresses solid waste management and public hygiene as a district function, there is no legislation on environmental standards or sustainable approaches in the waste management sector. The NDP-9 did incorporate the concept of sustainable development in its waste management strategy document. Financing is also an issue; the taxation related to municipal solid waste management is almost nil, and there is no system of direct local taxes dedicated to financing local services.

There is no capacity for the proper management of waste at its origin, or for developing the financial resources and market-based mechanisms for waste management. The proper segregation of waste can even generate income, at least partially relieving poverty. Without effective and locally driven integrated waste management, there will be very serious consequences for cities and national economies. Informal settlements have driven the urban expansion in major cities, resulting in the worst type of urban sprawl. A proper plan is required for integrated solid waste and wastewater management with a clear division of labour among federal, state and local governments and assisting donor agencies.

6.4 By 2030, substantially increase water-use efficiency across all sectors and ensure sustainable withdrawals and supply of freshwater to address water scarcity and substantially reduce the number of people suffering from water scarcity.

Water resources in Somalia are dominated by surface water. The two perennial rivers in Somalia are the Juba and Shabelle. The Juba-Shabelle basin, with a total area of 810,427 square kilometres, covers about one-third of Ethiopia, one-third of Kenya and one-third of Somalia. Over 90 per cent of the flow originates in the Ethiopian highlands.

121 Some municipalities have enacted by-laws for solid and bio-medical waste management – Hargeisa, Berbera, Bosaso, Garowe, Mogadishu and others – but enforcement capacities are limited.
The mean annual runoff at the border between Ethiopia and Somalia is 5.9 cubic kilometres for the Juba River at Luuq and 2.3 cubic kilometres for the Shabelle River at Beletweyne. The downstream discharge at the Shabelle River is decreasing rapidly due to losses from seepage, evaporation, overbank spillage due to a low channel capacity, and water abstraction before the flow usually ends in the wetlands beyond Sablaale.

Groundwater is limited because of the limited potential for recharge. In Somalia, internally produced water resources are 6 cubic kilometres/year, of which 5.7 cubic kilometres and 3.3 cubic kilometres are surface water and groundwater respectively, with an overlap between the two estimated at 3 cubic kilometres. Total renewable water resources in Somalia are 14.2 cubic kilometres/year; there is a dependency ratio of approximately 58 per cent and annual actual renewable water resources per capita per annum of approximately 1,100 m³/year, meaning that Somalia is severely water stressed and water scarce.

Total water withdrawal is estimated at 3.298 cubic kilometres per year (data from 2003), of which agriculture (irrigation and livestock) accounts for over 99 per cent. In the rural areas, domestic water supply is derived from surface dams, boreholes, shallow wells and springs. During the dry season, groundwater is the main supply for domestic and livestock use and is only supplemented by surface water when and where it is available. Agricultural water abstractions are mainly limited to partially controlled irrigation schemes in the river basins. Of the abstractions for agriculture, livestock accounts for around 0.03 cubic kilometres/year. Under the present conditions, surface water withdrawal amounts to around 96 per cent and groundwater withdrawal to 4 per cent of the total water withdrawal. In the dry season, as the water resources become scarce, competition for the resources is high, and groundwater supplies are often severely stressed. Domestic withdrawals are estimated to be around 2 million cubic metres per year, so total water withdrawals are around 23 per cent of total renewable water resources.

Drinking water is not available to the Somali population in quantities that match the global and national thresholds. For example, in the large-scale humanitarian response to more than 2.6 million IDPs in the country, the water supplied is merely 7 to 15 litres per capita per day. According to the data received from public–private initiatives in urban towns where metered water is supplied, the per capita per day usage of water for drinking and domestic purposes is around 45–60 litres.

Drinking water scarcity results in an overburden on women and girls, who usually haul water. Women travel 3 to 10 kilometres a day in some areas to bring water for drinking and cooking. The rural water supply sector is not developed, as the institutional structure to support this basic service either does not exist or has extremely poor capacity. Where there are sources for drinking water available, withdrawal is not sustainable due to the quick depletion of groundwater during dry seasons or through over-extraction.

According to World Bank data, freshwater withdrawal levels in proportion to available freshwater resources were at 30 per cent in 2014. According to FAO’s Aquastat, which measures Somalia’s progress towards the realization of SDG Indicator 6.4.2., data on water-stress levels is only available for the period between 2003 and 2007, when water stress was recorded at 24 per cent.

6.5 By 2030, implement integrated water resources management at all levels, including through transboundary cooperation as appropriate

Somalia is one of the world’s driest and most water-stressed countries. The management of this scarce resource in an effective and sustainable way has been a complex challenge. The Ministry of Energy and Water Resources has mobilized targeted actions under the project Support for Integrated Water Resources Management to Ensure

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Water Access and Disaster Reduction for Somalia’s Pastoralists, launched recently with funding support from the Global Environment Facility’s Least Developed Countries Fund.

With the objective of generating benefits for at least 200,000 pastoralists, the project aims to achieve the following: a) promotion of equitable water resource use with the development of an overarching Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) Strategy; b) endorsing subsidiary legal frameworks in each state to be in alignment with the national IWRM strategy; c) capacity reinforcement for technical and planning ministries, as well as relevant district departments, on IWRM principles, including awareness raising on the climate-induced impacts on water resources; d) updating vocational training and university curricula to incorporate education on IWRM and weather data collection; e) expansion of the climate and weather monitoring networks to survey the arid and semi-arid lands; f) targeted training for forecasters on timely drought and flood forecasting and information dissemination for pastoralists; g) massive awareness campaign on water conservation and management for pastoral focal points, non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations; h) water mobilization, storage and diversion; and i) training for men and women on how to exploit the local value chains associated with livestock products.

The institutions involved in the water sector are fragmented, with poor cooperation, no clear roles and responsibilities between and within the governmental institutions, and no policies or strategies. Integrated water resources management is therefore vitally important for the sustenance of lives and livelihoods in Somalia. Somalia needs significant investments in IWRM capacity building in the current decade to achieve the development priorities under the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. This should include enhancement of both institutional and individual capacities at various levels, which need to be augmented through effective transboundary cooperation with the upper riparian countries.

The arid and semi-arid conditions of Somalia limit agricultural development, especially for livestock grazing, due to scarcity of water during the dry season and in times of drought. The only perennial rivers are Shabelle and Jubba, and the country lacks the infrastructure to use them. Chronic water scarcity, lack of access to safe drinking water and sanitation services, and hydrological uncertainty and extremes (droughts and floods) can severely disrupt and compound fragilities in social, economic and environmental systems.

Improving governance and helping Somalia escape the high-frequency fragility trap requires a range of actions to expand the capacity and reach of public institutions. In the absence of trusted institutions and inclusive economic opportunities, spoiler groups such as Al-Shabaab and other non-state actors retain the ability to extract natural resource and protection rents and destabilize the country. Breaking out of this trap requires the restoration of citizens’ trust in institutions and the creation of more inclusive opportunities via service delivery.

In 2019, the Prime Minister launched the development of the National Water Resources Strategic Plan to monitor the total water potential in the country – including transboundary water, water in deep aquifers, and rainfall – and recommend actions to judiciously use the total water potential of Somalia for the overall well-being of current and future generations. An investment plan and water fund are also being discussed for implementation after the finalization of the strategic Plan. The process to develop the Plan was launched at the Somalia Partnership Forum in October 2019.

There are no known international agreements for the sharing of water resources with Somalia’s neighbouring countries or for joint river management, although the recent impetus of Somalia towards stability and regional integration has allowed for conditions where preliminary engagement is foreseen, and a national dialogue is ongoing.

6.6 By 2030, protect and restore water-related ecosystems, including mountains, forests, wetlands, rivers, aquifers and lakes
As Somalia experiences recurrent droughts, the impact on the country’s hydrologic cycle has been devastating, manifested in the immediate drying up of surface and groundwater sources. Beyond the immediate impact on human lives and livestock, this has resulted in a decline in groundwater recharge, depletion of freshwater aquifers, reduction of surface water flow, and other long-term damage.125

Capacity for geospatial research and forward planning is grossly absent, which limits the abilities of the FGS and FMSs to undertake targeted actions to arrest degradation in the ecologically sensitive regions of the country. The existing network of meteorological stations is very dispersed and inadequate for weather and climate monitoring. Somalia also reports a complete absence of any system or mechanism to track and monitor biodiversity loss, ecosystem degradation, the state of threatened and invasive species, degradation of rangeland and forest cover, and salinity due to irrigation and sea-level rise. Somalia has not yet established its national environmental standards and quality control system, and this has undermined the urgency required to protect its ecological health and services.

Stresses and impacts of climate change on scarce water resources are already exacerbating resource conflicts within communities at the household and clan level. Conflicts between farmers and pastoralists are common due to the lack of clear policies and enforcement mechanisms on water rights.

6.A By 2030, expand international cooperation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water- and sanitation-related activities and programmes126

Regarding water for drinking and domestic use, Somalia lacks rainwater harvesting, wastewater treatment, and water recycling and reuse. However, two small-scale desalination plants are functional, one in Berbera and the other in Kismayo/Bosaso.

The World Bank is working with the FGS and FMSs as well as “Somaliland” to do the following: generate, share and manage knowledge that can facilitate the cooperative development and management of international waters; explore potential high-impact collaborative investment opportunities in defined basins and regions; and create a shared understanding among stakeholders of the opportunities, risks, costs and benefits of the cooperative development and management of international waters. The four principal development objectives of this support are: 1) to provide technical support to the Government of Somalia to articulate its water resource development options for the Jubba and Shabelle basins; 2) to support the Government of Somalia to structure its transboundary agenda and explore and use the appropriate avenues to pursue dialogue; and 3) to develop a nationally owned framework for the collection, analysis and dissemination of water-related information in order to manage disasters, build human capital and promote economic growth in Somalia.

6.B Support and strengthen the participation of local communities in improving water and sanitation management

Field evidence establishes that a huge number of mechanized water systems for drinking water are non-functional due to community disputes, technical failures or groundwater depletion. However, some successful examples exist of communities managing rural clean water systems and sustaining them through community organization. More successful examples exist in rapidly growing cities and towns, where public–private partnerships deliver water supply services as a business model, with consumer committees providing strategic direction. A recent study conducted by UNICEF in 14 towns maintains that there are exemplary public–private partnership models in Somalia for urban drinking water with community participation.

125 DINA 2018 (p. 84).
126 Full title of target: “By 2030, expand international cooperation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water- and sanitation-related activities and programmes, including water harvesting, desalination, water efficiency, wastewater treatment, recycling and reuse technologies.”
Affordable and Clean Energy

Somalia’s progress towards the achievement of SDG 7 is considered slow according to the UNEP scorecard.\(^\text{127}\) The country is still heavily dependent on biomass to meet its energy requirements. The total electricity production, at 35 kilotons of oil equivalent, is considered among the lowest in sub-Saharan Africa, with 97 per cent coming from fossil fuels.\(^\text{128}\)

Charcoal production dominates the energy sector and is considered a strategic resource in Somalia; the Government is working towards its regulation. About 62 per cent and 25 per cent of urban households depend on charcoal and firewood as their main source of energy. Among rural households, 64.8 per cent rely on firewood and 24.5 per cent rely on charcoal as their main source of energy. Nomadic communities mainly rely on firewood, with 93 per cent of households using it. Overall, the percentage of households using solid fuel for cooking is 92.8 per cent.\(^\text{129}\) The illegal exportation of charcoal from Somalia is estimated to be worth US$ 340–384 million, and at one roadblock point in Badhadhe District, a Somali militia is thought to raise between US$ 8 and 18 million per year.\(^\text{130}\)

\(^{127}\) [https://wesr.unep.org/sdg/scorecard/](https://wesr.unep.org/sdg/scorecard/).
\(^{128}\) AFREC, 2015.
\(^{130}\) Nellemann, Henriksen, Raxter, Ash and Mrema, 2014.
The illegal trade in charcoal is recognized as a key contributor to insecurity in Somalia, as it provides a major source of funding for militias, terrorist groups and other actors linked to conflict, who illegally tax charcoal exports. As such, ensuring access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy not only has implications for socio-economic development in the country, but also can significantly impact peace and stability.

**7.1 By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services**

Just over 49 per cent of the population had access to electricity in 2019 – 66.2 per cent in urban areas and 17.2 per cent for rural residents. Almost no nomadic households reported having access to electricity. In urban areas, 66 per cent of households use electricity for lighting, compared to 17 per cent of rural households and less than 1 per cent of nomadic households. Only 5.2 per cent of the population rely primarily on clean fuels and technologies.\(^{131}\) Various regions of Somalia have their own separate electricity networks, most of which are run by the private sector and based on thermal generation.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Access to Electricity % of households</th>
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<td><strong>Urban</strong></td>
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A kilowatt of electricity in the Somali capital can cost as much as US$ 1 an hour; five times more expensive than in neighbouring Kenya and ten times more than in the United States. On average, electricity consumption costs represent 30 per cent of incomes. Lack of affordability therefore further reduces access to modern energy services.

While the private sector has played a significant role in according access to modern energy in many places, very little progress has been made towards achieving the affordable energy that is needed to power sustained growth. This is because the region’s grid infrastructure has been decimated by decades of conflict and isolation; Somalia’s generation, transmission and storage of electricity is among the least efficient and costliest in the world.

Furthermore, the lack of crucial infrastructure, including roads, bridges and telecommunications, is keenly felt by Somali entrepreneurs, who must rely on ingenuity when doing business, pay high costs, and even postpone planned investments.

In the absence of adequate electricity supply and access, firewood and charcoal remain the main sources of energy. According to the SHDS 2020, 93 per cent of nomadic households and 65 per cent of rural households use firewood as fuel for cooking. In urban areas, 62 per cent of households use charcoal for cooking; the figure is 25 per cent for rural households.\(^{132}\) As a result, actual consumption of energy is low in comparison with other countries, ranging from 20 to 50 kilowatt-hours (kWh) per day per person for cooking and lighting homes and streets.\(^{133}\)

Women and youth play a key role in the wood fuel life cycle. For instance, women sometimes walk up to 10 kilometres to collect wood, returning with heavy loads. This has a huge impact on their health, include injuries to the head, neck and spine, besides exposing them to violence or rape. The time spent collecting wood fuel could also be used for other more productive economic activities, such as farming or the pursuit of education (in the case of children).\(^{134}\)

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133 Afgarshe, 2015.

134 Njenga and Schenk, n.d.
gained would present an opportunity to empower women to be more efficient in their domestic chores, pursue educational opportunities, enter the workforce or start a business.\textsuperscript{135}

Somalia’s geology indicates the potential existence of oil reserves. Until recently, however, the situation has not been conducive to exploration activities. There are indications that the Dharoor field in Bari region, Puntland, has about 1.2 billion barrels of oil, with the potential of almost ten times that in deposits. There is additional potential for off-shore oil and natural gas production in the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea.\textsuperscript{136} Somalia relies heavily on imported petroleum for electricity production, and it is estimated that 97 per cent of the electricity (34 kilotons of oil equivalent) is produced from oil.

Finding substantial reserves of oil and natural gas offers a significant opportunity in the social, economic and political development of any country. When managed in an efficient, inclusive and equitable way, and with environmental safeguards in place, the oil industry can provide energy security to the country and sustain economic growth. It can transform the national economy and enable the country to enhance human development over the long term. However, such opportunities can be wasted when resource development and extraction are not undertaken in an environmentally appropriate manner.

At present, the FGS has passed the Petroleum and Mineral Law to manage the country’s petroleum and mineral resources sectors, especially concerning ownership and revenue sharing.

7.2 By 2030, increase substantially the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix

The share of renewable energy in the total final energy consumption has remained high over the years. In 1990, it was 100 per cent of the energy mix, declining to 94.3 per cent in 2012. Traditional solid biofuels formed the biggest share of renewable sources, at 65.8 per cent of total final energy consumption in 2012, while modern solid biofuels contributed 28.6 per cent.\textsuperscript{137}

Renewable energy presents a great opportunity to improve the Somali energy situation. As research and development brings better technology and global investment in renewable energy, the cost of creating renewable energy in developing countries is reducing.

A long coastline with strong offshore winds provides high potential for the generation of wind energy. Measurements of wind speeds range from a low of 3 metres per second to a high of 11.4 metres per second. Wind energy has been exploited for over 70 years, primarily for water pumping. The Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership (2012) estimates that about half the land area has suitable wind speeds for power generation, and this could help alleviate some of the existing pressure on forests for biomass energy and replace some of the diesel electricity generators, thus contributing to emissions reduction.\textsuperscript{138}

\begin{tabular}{|l|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{ENERGY SOURCE} & \textbf{Total in Somalia} & \textbf{Percentage in Somalia} & \textbf{Percentage in Europe} & \textbf{Per capita in Somalia} & \textbf{Per capita in Europe} \\
\hline
Fossil fuels & 692.48 m kWh & 93 & 49.2 & 46.14 kWh & 8,114.79 kWh \\
Nuclear power & 0 kWh & 0 & 7 & 0 kWh & 1,154.21 kWh \\
Waterpower & 0 kWh & 0 & 24.1 & 0 kWh & 3,976.91 kWh \\
Renewable & 52.12 m kWh & 7 & 19.7 & 3.47 kWh & 3,274.18 kWh \\
\hline
\textbf{Total production capacity} & 744.6 m kWh & 100 & 100 & 49.61 kWh & 16,488.68 kWh \\
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135 O’Dell, Peters, and Wharton, 2015.
Solar energy is already being exploited in Somalia for off-grid supply of electricity for lighting, cooking, water pumping and heating in both public and private buildings. The country receives an average solar insolation of between 5 and 7 kWh per square metre per day, translating to a total energy capacity of 2,163 million megawatt hours (MWh) per year.\(^{139}\)

Hydropower development has been seriously constrained by the prevailing security situation in the country. Only 2.85 per cent of total electricity is generated from hydropower.\(^{140}\) The potential for hydropower in the country is estimated at between 100 and 120 MW, of which only 4 per cent has been exploited on the Jubba River.\(^{141}\) A dam at Bardhere in southern Somalia has also been planned, but there are other challenges for the sector, including the seasonality of the rivers.

Hybrid systems are on the rise globally and are already being used or planned by many of the independent power producers in Somalia. For example, Beder in Erigavo utilizes up to 30 per cent wind in two locations, and LESCO in Las’ anod has 12 per cent renewable energy output at their largest generation site. An additional nine firms contacted have plans to incorporate renewables into a hybrid system.

Energy Security and Resource Efficiency in Somaliland–funded projects contributed to the development of “Somaliland”, aiming to make electricity more accessible and affordable to the people. A pilot project fund of GBP 2.5 million was made available for grants to private sector operators – electricity service providers for hybrid mini-grid projects that serve as a pilot to showcase that renewable energy works in “Somaliland”. Six hybrid mini-grids are installed and operational, providing clean energy to six towns: Badhan, Burao, Buuhoodle, Borama, Gabiley and Sheikh. Average tariff reductions for households in the target areas reached 43 per cent for kWh and 41 per cent for fixed rates; 10,274 new connections have been made to date. The initiative has decreased carbon dioxide emissions by 2,900 metric tons a year.

The renewable energy sector faces challenges importing large machinery such as wind turbines; there is also a lack of the capital goods such as cranes needed to install these products. However, investing in smaller-scale projects could focus on investing in smaller urban areas that have little to no access to electricity and collaborating with independent power producers to increase the mix of renewable energy in existing systems. There is clearly demand from households and businesses to invest in renewable options, but the upfront capital costs continue to constrain the development of this market.

A viable option to support renewable energy development would therefore be to invest in mechanisms that allow customers to pay as they go or pay in instalments. Other community energy development options include rural systems that are not tied to a grid as well as microgrid solutions. Pico-solar systems, as well as small-business solutions such as solar- and wind-powered grain mills, refrigeration units and water pumps, would increase the productivity of communities and households while ensuring greater resiliency.

Financial instruments can help independent power producers and communities invest in renewable energy for microgrids. Such financing can be both lucrative for investors and helpful in building momentum for the use of renewable energy by distributing the initial capital costs over several years. As a result, mixing renewable energy sources into microgrids can address immediate needs and provide a foundation for future systems.

7.3 By 2030, double the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency

According to International Energy Statistics (2014), both total and per capita carbon dioxide emissions in Somalia have been declining as total primary energy consumption has declined. However, carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuels, especially petroleum products, have been


\(^{140}\) Ibid.

\(^{141}\) https://www.reeep.org/somalia-2012.
increasing due to the growing importation of petroleum products into the country. The transport sector seems to be the main source of the emissions. The carbon dioxide emissions from consumption of energy is estimated to be 852,500 metric tons.\(^\text{142}\)

Reduction in energy loss in the production and consumption of charcoal can translate to fewer trees logged, if the efficiency efforts are complemented by activities addressing international demand for Somalia’s charcoal. The related outputs target existing energy sources and include the following activities: improved kilns for charcoal production, which have been reported to produce up to 40 per cent more charcoal than traditional kilns,\(^\text{143}\) and improved stoves, which would support efficiency in consumption and reduce the cost of energy for poor households. While this will not directly address the country’s reliance on biomass for household use, successful uptake of alternative energy by the utilities sector will spur interest in other forms of alternative energy by the private sector. This is crucial to create the market conditions for the supply of natural gas to urban households. Private sector investment is essential for the long-term growth and sustainability of the green sector in Somalia.

7.A By 2030, enhance international cooperation to facilitate access to clean energy research and technology, including renewable energy, energy efficiency and advanced and cleaner fossil-fuel technology, and promote investment in energy infrastructure and clean energy technology

As such, the FGS has prioritized the development of regulations to enable private sector investment in renewable energy and rural electrification. Also, the Ministry of Energy and Water Resources, with support from the World Bank Group, convened a meeting to identify the key priorities for the Somali Public–Private Dialogue. This dialogue series brought together stakeholders to outline goals and shared concerns.

Somali has formulated a climate change National Adaptation Plan of Action and gained access to the Global Environment Facility’s Least Developed Countries Climate Fund. Further, Somalia is now part of global initiatives on energy, including Sustainable Energy for All, and is a member of the International Renewable Energy Agency (SDG 7 localization).

Somalia’s intended nationally determined contributions (towards reduced greenhouse gas emissions), prepared by the FGS in 2015 in line with United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), emphasize the potential and value of renewable energy in Somalia. Somalia’s report to the UNFCCC associated extensive cutting of trees for firewood and charcoal with widespread land degradation and an increase in climate-related hazards such as droughts and floods, emphasizing the need to embrace renewable energy in solving the current energy problems.

Somalia’s strategy to meet its intended nationally determined contributions include: 1) accelerate diffusion of energy-efficient cookstoves; 2) promote sustainable and efficient production of charcoal (clean charcoal) for local consumption; 3) manage energy plantations sustainably to meet local demand for charcoal and fuelwood; 4) establish the liquefied petroleum gas market and accelerated diffusion to shift from charcoal to gas in main urban centres; 5) introduce biogas as an alternative source of energy in areas with large amounts of biodegradable feedstock; and 6) establish the solar energy market and accelerate diffusion of solar energy equipment to reduce local charcoal production.

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\(^{142}\) World Bank, 2017.
\(^{143}\) Kammen and Lew, 2005.
7. B By 2030, expand infrastructure and upgrade technology for supplying modern and sustainable energy services for all in developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and landlocked developing countries, in accordance with their respective programmes of support.

The Somali energy sector faces numerous technical challenges, including poor transmission and distribution systems; the inability to monitor energy generation and usage; and social, financial and infrastructural obstacles to synchronizing generators and grids.

The FGS has established a Somalia power master plan with the assistance of the World Bank. It is an activity that will set priorities and sequence investment in generation, transmission and distribution for a period of 20 years.

Somalia has also established the National Energy Policy. The objective of this policy is to foster the creation of reliable, continuous and sustainable energy provision networks throughout Somalia, from source to end consumers, in order to attract investment, promote industrialization, create business and increase quality of life, while tapping into cleaner energy sources and ensuring environmental protection and stewardship.
Like other countries attempting to meet the demands of socio-economic progress, stability, peace and security, Somalia’s pace towards SDG 8 remains low. No one sector encompasses the enormous development challenges the country currently grapples with. Its situation requires coalesced multisectoral and multi-partner efforts.

Accelerating economic growth and increasing employment, particularly for young people, has long been a priority for the FGS and as such is reflected in the NDP-9. While GDP growth in the country has been rising over the past years, it is inadequate to lift poor and vulnerable Somalis out of poverty.144 The country remains highly dependent on agriculture, which is extremely vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. Unemployment remains stubbornly high, particularly for women, youth and marginalized groups such as IDPs, illiterate persons and persons with disabilities.

144 https://www.imf.org/external/datamapper/NGDPD@WEO/SOM
High rates of economic exclusion not only have consequences for poverty reduction efforts, but also for peace and stability in Somalia, with those most destitute being more susceptible to radicalization and recruitment by organized crime networks and armed groups. As such, promoting inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all in Somalia is key for advancing prosperity and peace in the country.

An Inclusive Green Economy is based on sharing, circularity, collaboration, solidarity, resilience, opportunity, and interdependence. The design principles for an “Inclusive Green Economy” speak to these elements of a socio-ecological and economy-wide transition and call for economic and fiscal policy reforms, legislative changes, new technologies, changes in financing, and strong institutions that are specifically geared to safeguarding social and ecological floors.

Somalia has satisfactorily implemented three International Monetary Fund (IMF) Staff-Monitored Programmes since 2016, enhancing state legitimacy and improving macroeconomic management and performance. These programmes addressed some structural rigidities and institutional weaknesses. However, limited revenue collection and capacity of the public sector poses a considerable challenge for public funding.

The most realistic approach to generate pro-poor growth will be government facilitation of a more business-enabling environment for the private sector, together with diversification – both within the traditional sectors of agriculture, livestock and fisheries, and away from these historical sectors towards other promising sectors. Such emerging sectors include telecommunication, financial services, the urban and internet economy, and petroleum. Diversification should increase economic resilience and mobilize greater revenue. The three overarching strategic areas of focus are 1) enhancing institutions to develop the legal and administrative capacity to create a more business-enabling environment; 2) rehabilitating and

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146 https://www.imf.org/external/datamapper/NGDP_RPCH@WEO/SOM
expanding key infrastructure to support growth and generate employment; and 3) expanding opportunities and access to public services for all Somalis as a sustainable path to poverty reduction.

8.2 Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation, including through a focus on high-value added and labour-intensive sectors

To achieve higher levels of economic productivity, the Government will create an enabling environment for economic growth; strengthen key economic infrastructure; diversify the private sector, making it more resilient to climate change and accessible to poorer segments of Somali society; and adapt national food production systems to the realities of climate change. Building a more diverse and competitive economy capable of taking advantage of emerging regional trade opportunities is the best route to broadening growth and mobilizing revenue in the medium to long term.

Evidence from the economic literature has long established that some sectors are more important than others for economic growth and employment creation, and that specific public support to these sectors is warranted. Growth in these sectors generates comparatively more overall output and employment growth for the whole economy and can be boosted by preferential fiscal or financial measures and other support programmes. While developing a strategy to encourage industries with high labour requirements, employment-intensive sectors such as light manufacturing (including agrifood processing, leather processing and renewable energy), information technology, construction (public works and housing), and primary production systems (livestock, crops and fisheries) can all generate significant employment, especially for youth and women.

The mining sector of Somalia is still in its infancy, with activity predominantly artisanal in nature. However, Somalia has significant growth potential, and large portions of its landmass are yet to be explored. The country has never had an overall geological and mineralogical survey; at the same time, reconnaissance and exploration efforts have been erratic.147

8.3 Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services

Employment challenges are central to Somalia’s sustainable development agenda. The lack of decent employment opportunities has far reaching implications for poverty reduction, stability, security and stemming irregular migration.

Somalia’s demographic growth is among the fastest in the world, at about 3 per cent annually. An estimated 400,000 persons are entering the labour market every year.

Development of the National Employment Policy for Somalia, finalized on 27 February 2019, demonstrates the commitment of the Government of Somalia to place employment at the centre of its development agenda.

The Policy focuses on three priority areas: 1) strengthening the private sector and promoting micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises; 2) supporting productive economic sectors for job creation; and 3) strengthening labour market governance. It rests on the recognition that job-rich, sustainable and inclusive growth is growth that makes good use of Somalia’s key asset, its labour force. The policy also prioritizes the inclusion of women, youth, IDPs and persons with disabilities.

The promotion of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises is a major avenue for increasing productive employment and income opportunities in Somalia. The employment policy sets out actions to promote these enterprises by improving

147 Known minerals in the country are: 1) precious/semi-precious stones (gold, diamonds, platinum and gemstones such as emeralds, rubies, sapphires, tourmaline and meteorites); 2) industrial minerals (phosphates, kaolin, bentonite, potash, lithium brines, sepiolites, talc, pegmatite and quartz); 3) target ores (iron, copper, zinc, rutile for titanium, tin and silver); ornamental stones for building materials (granite, limestone, marble, kaolin and lime); and 4) energy minerals (uranium, lignite, coal and hydrocarbons).
access to credit, the regulatory environment and entrepreneurship capacities.

Finally, Somalia has requested support from UNESCO to develop a National Culture Policy, which can also promote job creation and economic development through the cultural sector following the guidance of UNESCO conventions in the field of culture.

**8.4 Improve progressively, through 2030, global resource efficiency in consumption and production and endeavour to decouple economic growth from environmental degradation, in accordance with the 10-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production, with developed countries taking the lead**

The 10-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns is a global framework for action to enhance international cooperation and accelerate the shift towards sustainable consumption and production patterns in both developed and developing countries. The framework supports capacity building and facilitates access to technical and financial assistance for developing countries for this shift. Somalia has not benefitted from this initiative.

Population growth and multi-faceted resource availability are driving Somalia’s growing urbanization trends and expanding informal settlements in urban areas. The situation drives the demand for increased resource consumption, with subsequent environmental impacts on wood resources, waste disposal, and water and sanitation. Waste finding its way into the environment is one of the key environmental challenges facing Somalia. This is largely due to the country’s limited waste management infrastructure, weak regulatory frameworks, limited participation of consumers and key industry players in the recovery efforts, and other aspects of waste processing and management.

* See SDG 12 on Responsible Consumption and Production for further information.

**8.5 By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value**

Generating employment, particularly among the most vulnerable, is central to NDP-9 and its poverty reduction goals. Employment concerns are central to Somalia’s sustainable development agenda, and the lack of decent employment opportunities has far-reaching implications for poverty reduction, stability, security and addressing irregular migration. Employment is mostly informal, and most people lack any form of labour or social protection. Women and youth are particularly disadvantaged, as are nomadic populations, IDPs and persons living with disabilities.

Labour force participation is low, at just 48 per cent, with this proportion decreasing significantly for youth: 33 per cent for those aged 15 to 24 and 14 per cent for female youth.¹⁴⁸

![Labour Force Participation 2019 (%)](chart)

Similarly, unemployment remains stubbornly high in Somalia, with 14 per cent of the total labour force not working and with females having a higher jobless rate than males. Youth are acutely affected, with a quarter of all youth (15 to 24 years) unemployed. The rates are even higher for female youth.¹⁴⁹

According to the SHDS 2020, 9 per cent of ever-married women were employed at the time of the survey, while 1 per cent were employed but...

¹⁴⁸ [https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.ACTI.ZS](https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.ACTI.ZS)
had worked in the 12 months prior. Just 3 per cent of women from nomadic communities were currently employed, compared to 12 per cent from urban areas and 11 percent from rural areas. Women from wealthier households were also more likely to be employed. The likelihood of employment also increased with the age of the women. While non-agricultural work was largely paid in cash, a significant proportion of agricultural work (42.8 per cent) was unpaid.

Efforts to address these challenges have focused on supporting value chain development, particularly in the fisheries and renewable energy sectors and in skills development. While various short-term employment opportunities were cultivated in labour-intensive and apprenticeship initiatives, in the long term more productive employment was established through micro-enterprises or wage employment in construction, fishing, renewable energy (solar) and other sectors.

A coherent set of actions across policy levers is required for an economy to make good use of its key asset, the labour force, and thus generate decent jobs at pace with demographic growth and considering the skill set of its existing workforce. The National Employment Policy is a vehicle to make employment central to the national development agenda. An effective governance system is required for such a policy. Employment promotion, as embodied in this policy, will require a new standard of engagement by, and the increased capacities of, key public institutions, including the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. It also presupposes enhanced policy coordination and inclusive social dialogue.

8.6 By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training

It is estimated that 45.6 per cent of the Somali population is below the age of 15 and 81 per cent below the age of 35. However, Somali youth have not been afforded the opportunity to develop to their full potential and access the opportunities that enable them to grow and prosper as fully engaged, responsive and productive citizens. During the civil war and stateless decades, the youth did not have opportunities to improve their well-being or access quality education applicable to the needs of their country. As a result, an estimated 70 per cent are unemployed or underemployed.

Furthermore, as noted under SDG 4, only 26 per cent of children aged 14–17 are enrolled in secondary education. Only a fraction of youth ever attend university, estimated at less than 2 per cent overall, with a weak enrolment of female students (30 per cent). The low rate of enrolment in technical and vocational education and training, the poor labour market relevance, and the lack of har-
monization of training curricula mean youth do not develop the skills required by the labour market.

As such, prospects for Somali youth will not improve unless the country moves towards sustainable and inclusive development, prioritizing education, infrastructure and industrialization investments. The country has also suffered from a brain drain, with capable human capital, primarily youth, fleeing the country and leaving Somalia with a largely unskilled labour force.

Furthermore, research that analysed ILO employment programmes (which did not have a direct peacebuilding goal) found that support for violence among the Somali youth programme beneficiaries reduced from 16 to 6 per cent. This demonstrates a direct link between youth employment empowerment and reduced radicalization.150

The National Youth Policy defines interventions for reducing youth unemployment through strengthening education and skills development and increasing employment creation and economic development.

8.7 Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms

In its 2019 Trafficking in Persons Report on Somalia, the US Department of State found that Somalia is a source, transit and destination country for men, women and children subjected to forced labour and sex trafficking.151 Information regarding trafficking in Somalia remains extremely difficult to obtain or verify. Due to the protracted campaign to degrade Al-Shabaab and establish law and order in Somalia, law enforcement, prosecutorial personnel and judicial officials remained understaffed and undertrained, and lacked the capacity to effectively enforce anti-trafficking laws. The pre-1991 penal code – applicable at the federal and regional levels – criminalized labour trafficking and some forms of sex trafficking.

The “Somaliland” government established the Counter Human Trafficking Agency of Somaliland in 2016, which included representatives from immigration, police, the coast guard, the attorney general’s office, and the ministries of commerce, finance and civil aviation. The agency was mandated to coordinate counter-trafficking efforts, including developing legislation and collecting data, but its work has remained limited in reach. In November 2017, Puntland ratified a human trafficking legislative framework after three years of consultations.

The Criminal Investigations Department of the Somali Police Force established an anti-trafficking and anti–migrant-smuggling unit, which was staffed by six police officers and mandated to investigate potential cases of trafficking to be referred for prosecution.

The FGS lead anti-trafficking official was the Special Envoy for Children’s and Migrants’ Rights, who steered a small staff under the Office of the Prime Minister. The inter-ministerial Trafficking and Smuggling Task Force ostensibly served as the national anti-trafficking coordinating body, which included representation from the Somali Police Force, Ministry of Internal Security, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Justice, and Ministry of Interior, Federal Affairs and Reconciliation.

Regarding child labour, data from the 2014 Labour Force Survey reported that 10 per cent of Somali children (aged 5 to 14 years) had worked at least one hour in the week preceding the survey interview. This data suggests high levels of child labour, but needs to be taken with caution, as it is not sufficiently detailed to properly shed light on the phenomenon.

Because of the difficult economic conditions, a
number of children skip school to support their families. Some have lost one or both of their parents and are the breadwinners of their families. In the absence of public support, these children are usually unable to continue their education. Young girls are also vulnerable and exploited for domestic chores, or face sexual and gender-based violence.152

Somalia ratified the Convention concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour in 2014; however, effective measures to secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour need to be implemented and adopted.

Child soldiers continue to be an issue in Somalia due to protracted fighting with Al-Shabaab and internecine war. According to the UN Secretary-General’s Report on Children and Armed Conflict, released in June 2019, armed groups in Somalia forcefully recruited and used in conflict 2,228 boys and 72 girls in 2018. Al-Shabaab recruited 1,865 children, accounting for the highest number of child recruits. In addition, 375 children were detained in 2018 for their alleged association with Al-Shabaab.153

In October 2019, in the presence of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict, the FGS signed a road map detailing measures and practical actions to prevent violations against children and to release children associated with armed forces and reintegrate them into communities.154

8.8 Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment

Somalia’s Labour Code was enacted in 1972 and reviewed and revised in February 2019 to ensure it adheres to international labour standards. Besides general provisions, the labour code governs contracts of employment, apprenticeship, remuneration, and occupational health and safety. A national diagnostic profile will be conducted with the engagement of key stakeholders and national policies and programmes to reinforce national occupational safety, health systems and infrastructure in order to mitigate persisting and emerging occupational health and safety risks. The Government will be further encouraged to ratify and implement relevant UN labour conventions.

The level of vulnerable employment is high in Somalia, given that own-account (self-employed) workers and contributing family workers account for an estimated 76 per cent of total employment in 2019 – 75 per cent among men, and 88 per cent among women.155

8.9 By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products

In the 1960s and 1970s, Mogadishu was known as the “Pearl of the Indian Ocean”. However, the outbreak of civil war in 1991 triggered the collapse of Somalia’s once-promising tourism sector, and for the ensuing 25 years the only foreigners who visited the country tended to be diplomats, aid workers, African Union peacekeepers and employees of the United Nations and other international organizations.156

However, there are steps underway to return it, and the rest of the country, to its former glory as a haven for tourists seeking a mix of beach, culture and history – so much so that in some quarters, the country’s revamped tourism sector, while still in its nascent stages, is being touted as a potential catalyst of significant economic growth and employment in the coming years.

That prospect received a boost in September 2019, when Somalia was admitted as the 157th member of the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) at the organization’s general

153 https://childrenandarmedconflict.un.org/somalia/
155 https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.EMP.VULN.ZS
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.EMP.VULN.FE.ZS
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.EMP.VULN.MA.ZS
assembly in Chengdu, China.

According to the UNWTO, which helps destinations position themselves in global tourism markets, the spread of tourism in industrialized and developed states has produced economic and employment benefits in many related sectors – from construction and agriculture to telecommunications. It adds that developing countries particularly stand to benefit from sustainable tourism; the organization helps make this a reality. However, limited data exists on the sustainable tourism actions being taken by Somalia’s tourism industry players and stakeholders.

Though still modest, the number of bona fide tourists arriving from Europe, Asia and the United States has been on the rise. More than 150 travel agencies currently operate nationwide, and foreign airlines operate regular flights to the capital, Mogadishu, from Istanbul, Nairobi, Addis Ababa and Doha.

More analytical work would be needed to explore the tourism potential of larger urban centres in terms of conference tourism at the national level and beyond, as exemplified by SomTech and the popular book fairs in Mogadishu and Hargeisa, to create jobs in the hospitality industry.

UNESCO’s Sustainable Tourism Programme (linked with the 1972 World Heritage Convention) further offers an opportunity to strengthen the enabling environment in Somalia by advocating policies and frameworks that support sustainable tourism as an important vehicle for managing cultural and natural heritage.

8.10 Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all

Generally, financial institutions play a vital role in economic growth, and their ability to function well is a priority. Financial institutions in Somalia encompass banks, hawala money transfer businesses, and microfinance institutions, and each of them plays an important role.

As of January 2019, 8 banks and 11 money transfer businesses were licensed by the Central Bank of Somalia, but 3 banks are not yet operational. The total banking industry assets were US$ 351 million as of September 2018. To expand access to banking and financial services, legal financial frameworks and strategies will need to be developed and implemented. However, this will have to consider the fact that many Somalis live in informal settlements in urban areas, meaning that they cannot use their land as collateral on a loan; in addition, they often lack a formal address they could use for a bank account or credit application.

Due consideration should also be given to the establishment of a women’s bank to expand women’s access to financial services. Somali women disproportionately face financial access barriers that prevent them from participating in the economy and improving their lives.

8.A Increase Aid for Trade support for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, including through the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-related Technical Assistance to Least Developed Countries

Somalia is considered a low-income country and least-developed country, and enhanced trade could improve the country’s standing among least developed countries. The Somali Compact (or New Deal, adopted in 2013) emphasizes trade development. Although there is not much information on the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Assistance for the Least Developed Countries (EIF), the programme is collaborating with Somali counterparts to strengthen the country’s trade-related institutions, especially the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

Furthermore, discussions continue regarding trade for development and poverty reduction (according to EIF, 2020). However, there is limited information on the progress with EIF. It is important to note the ongoing process towards World Trade Organization accession, which could attract in-

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vestors and thereby improve the country’s trade deficit, leading to job creation.

8.B By 2020, develop and operationalize a global strategy for youth employment and implement the Global Jobs Pact of the International Labour Organization

The National Youth Policy and the National Employment Policy will inform the development of interventions for promoting youth employment. An assessment of the current data on youth employment will be used for informed policy decisions and ensuring evidence-based and gender-sensitive policymaking. As part of the implementation, the Global Jobs Pact interventions under the National Employment Policy and social protection strategies will be developed and adopted. Social dialogue will be promoted through the established Somali National Tripartite Consultative Committee and capacities of social partners on labour standards enhanced.

* See Section 8.5 for further information on youth employment.
Decades of conflict in Somalia have had a devastating impact on socio-economic conditions and infrastructure. Economic and manufacturing activities and trade and transportation networks have slowed down or been completely disrupted.

With limited institutional and fiscal capacity, Somalia is facing challenges maintaining and expanding its public infrastructure – roads, electricity, water and sanitation – and developing the regulatory, governance and financing frameworks that could significantly improve the situation in the country. About 90 per cent of the primary roads need reconstruction. Only 2,860 kilometres (13 per cent) of a total of about 22,000 kilometres of roads are paved; the rest are earthen or gravel, thus affecting access by road to 42 districts and to markets.
The situation limits cross-border trade with neighbouring countries and prevents the country from utilizing the great potential of ports and strategic trade routes. The low level of activity at ports and airports is in turn linked to the lack of sustainable economic development, industrialization and investments. Nevertheless, the development of Somalia’s infrastructure is crucial to improving overall economic performance and efficiency; as such, investments and economic governance need to be focused on high-potential areas.

Somalia’s proximity to strategic maritime transportation routes provides an opportunity for the development of ports and linkages to regional and international trade. Before the civil war, Somalia had 15 operational ports and facilities. In recent years, only four ports – Mogadishu, Bosaso, Berbera and Kismayo – have been repaired and/or upgraded and are serving the increasing demand for domestic and international trade.

9.1 Develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure, including regional and transborder infrastructure, to support economic development and human well-being, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all

Infrastructure in Somalia has suffered from lack of maintenance, and much of it has disappeared, particularly roads. The country has about 22,000 kilometres of roads, of which 4,124 kilometres are main roads.159 Out of these, 2,860 kilometres are paved and 1,264 kilometres are unpaved. Overall, 13 per cent of roads are paved, 4 per cent are gravel and 83 per cent are earthen. The country’s paved roads can be classified as poor, as more than 90 per cent have deteriorated. According to the African Development Bank (AfDB), Somalia’s current road network facilitates the annual movement of approximately 1.2 billion tons/kilometre and 3.2 billion passengers/kilometre.

Somalia’s path towards sustainable development can be achieved through resilient infrastructure and sustainable industrialization. The potential of cross-border trade is significant, as the trade routes between Kenya, Somalia and Ethiopia are crucial. However, the only established route currently is the Berbera–Addis Ababa corridor, which competes with Djibouti for Ethiopian imports/exports.

Due to security and greatly deteriorated roads, routes such as Mogadishu–Beletweye–Addis Ababa and Mogadishu–Baidoa to Dolow and Mandera have become largely unusable. Investment in infrastructure and improved security could allow the resumption of cross-border trade and trigger sustainable economic development and inclusive job creation. However, this would also require better linking such infrastructure development projects with urban and territorial planning that takes into account the specific challenges and opportunities for secondary and tertiary cities and towns along the corridors.

Somalia has the longest coastline in Africa, with several harbours and ports. Despite this, the GDP contribution of the fisheries sector in Somalia is very limited or non-existent.160 This is due to poor infrastructure such as roads and ports that need upgrading, but also a lack of skilled fishermen and equipment. Accessible and upgraded roads leading to ports would promote inland trade and even cross-border trade with Ethiopia with its large population, thereby facilitating the export of livestock.

The four main ports of Somalia (Mogadishu, Berbera, Kismayo and Bosaso) are in reasonably good condition.161 Two of the ports employ large number of workers – 5,000 in Mogadishu and 2,000 in Berbera. Moreover, the ports’ capacity is estimated at about 20 per cent, and there is huge room for improvement.

Air travel is underdeveloped. The low level of activities at ports and airports is often related to the lack of sustainable economic development, industrialization, investments and cross-border trade.

According to the African Development Bank, rebuilding the country’s infrastructure, especially

159 AfDB 2016.


161 AfDB, 2016.
roads, ports and airports, would take many years. The main reasons are lack of capacity (technical capacity limitations, including maintenance and management capacities) and lack of accessibility (security), which pose risks to the investment process. In addition, there is a lack of capacity to supervise third party contracts and raise the US$ 2 billion required. However, the country could be given a lifeline if the debt relief process is successful and the ensuing investments could result in resilient infrastructure and sustainable industrialization.

9.2 Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and, by 2030, significantly raise industry’s share of employment and gross domestic product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in least developed countries

Somalia’s industrial base was already small before the civil war of 1991, both in terms of its contribution to GDP and the contribution by its livestock sector; however, it was performing well against its neighbours. During that period, the country’s manufacturing contributed 6.3 per cent of the GDP, but faced decline at the end of the 1980s. The country’s real GDP grew by an estimated 2.8 per cent from 1.4 in 2017. However, the share of manufacturing in this growth was relatively small. Manufactured goods only accounted for 15 per cent of exports in 2016, with high-tech goods accounting for just 5.3 per cent of the manufactured goods exported.

The reason for the weak manufacturing and high-tech sectors is primarily related to the volatile security situation, a lack of domestic and foreign investment in industrial development, the lack of skilled labour, and comparatively high costs for operations (water, energy, land prices, etc.). In addition, the lack of a conducive environment for investment limited the development of the productive and manufacturing sector, as Somalia is ranked at the bottom of the World Bank’s Ease of Doing Business survey (190 out of 190). This is exemplified by the fact that it took on average 70 days to start a business in Somalia, the eighth longest period of time globally. Consequently, the proportion of Somalis employed in the industrial sector has remained consistently low for almost two decades. In 2019, only 4.6 per cent of the population were employed in the industry, with this figure falling to 3.7 per cent for women.

Furthermore, the trade deficit is estimated at 70 per cent of GDP, while the global market share of the country from 1995 to 2016 remained zero per cent, which puts Somalia at 158th in the ranking. However, according to the NDP-9 the demand for manufactured goods is expected to rise as a result of increased urbanization and consumption fi-

166 https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.IND.EMPL.ZS?locations=SO.
nanced by remittance. The country can attract access to finance and affordable credit integration into value chains and markets by giving attention to the development of various investment-attractive tools.

While there has been some level of investment by the diaspora in fish canning, meat processing, mineral water production and a Coca-Cola factory, the Government recognizes that the contribution of manufacturing is very low.

With demand for manufactured goods expected to rise, the lack of a regulatory environment, technical skills, investments and access to finance will need to be addressed. Government strategy relates to the development of industrial strategy, investment promotion, and the development of technical skills and industrial zones, which rightly require strong focus.

An improvement in the security situation would also increase confidence among investors, allowing them to bring know-how and skills to improve human capital, thereby improving productivity, job opportunities and overall economic growth.

9.3 Increase the access of small-scale industrial and other enterprises, in particular in developing countries, to financial services, including affordable credit, and their integration into value chains and markets

Developing productive capacities, including those of small-scale industries and enterprises, is the key to achieving sustained economic growth. It is through expanding these productive capacities that developing countries will be able to rely increasingly on domestic resources to finance their economic growth, thereby reducing aid dependency and attracting private capital inflows of a type that can support the development process. The existing productive sector value chains are mostly informal, with little or no value addition happening. Most of the raw materials are sold unprocessed or semi-processed, with marginal benefits for the producers. The infrastructure available in the supply chain is very limited, which prevents scaling up or adding value in the production chain.

Attracting investment is therefore of crucial importance, with a focus on improving infrastructure to facilitate production, developing laws friendly towards investment, and creating incentives for investment. In addition, the country can attract access to finance and affordable credit integration into value chains and markets by giving attention to the development of various investment-attractive tools: industrial zones, special economic zones, free economic zones, etc. Moreover, legislation related to attracting investment will need to be drafted, including industrial zone laws, investment promotion laws, public–private partnership laws and others.

9.4 By 2030, upgrade infrastructure and retrofit industries to make them sustainable, with increased resource-use efficiency and greater adoption of clean and environmentally sound technologies and industrial processes, with all countries taking action in accordance with their respective capabilities

Creating infrastructure in the productive sector value chain would provide facilities that can assist in the scaling up of the supply chain, thereby increasing shelf life, reducing distress sales, adding value in the chain for better margins, and increasing the scope of procurement. Investments in large productive units would further increase the country’s GDP as well as create job opportunities.

Development of Somalia’s critical infrastructure and its proper management and maintenance is crucial to improving overall economic performance and efficiency. As such, investments and economic governance should focus on high-potential areas. Currently, inefficiencies are the result of the poor quality of transit point roads and warehouses; inadequate customs clearing capacity; lack of security; and inadequate vehicle standards and axle load controls. The complete lack of transport infrastructure adds to the delays.167

There is a lack of storage facilities for incoming goods in the supply chain that need temporary

storage. The situation is made worse by inefficient security checkpoints, which are costly to both manufacturers and importers of goods. Consequently, just-in-time delivery is not possible, making it difficult to increase efficiency in the manufacturing process. As a result, on top of already low manufacturing ability, the costs that are borne by local companies are passed on to consumers.

According to the report Somalia’s Vision for Private Sector Development, clustering of infrastructure and industry around hubs has been widely practiced globally. It is through clustering of trade and trade-based services that the private sector can flourish. The argument is that the private sector cannot emerge in a vacuum by merely developing policies, laws and regulations; whether or not an investor can register a business in less than a day will not necessarily remove a major constraint. Hence, developing infrastructure and packing and marketing ability can increase efficiency in manufacturing and exporting products.

9.5 Enhance scientific research, upgrade the technological capabilities of industrial sectors in all countries, in particular developing countries, including, by 2030, encouraging innovation and substantially increasing the number of research and development workers

Somalia’s high-tech goods were 5.3 per cent of total exports of manufactured goods in 2016. These are products defined as having high research and development intensity and include computers, pharmaceuticals and electrical machinery. It is well known that Somalia is not specialized in the manufacturing of high-tech goods; indeed, there is no evidence to show whether the country exports finished products, partly assembled products, or even components and parts. In addition, the number of high-tech goods exported (whether with low or high levels of local research and development) is not clear. Data on “manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment” is not calculated and included in the NDP-9.

Globally, investment in research, development and new technology continues to represent a major component in the generation of innovation that will shape the future of manufacturing/industrialization in both advanced and emerging economies. Somalia is no different, and if the country can attract foreign investment by putting in place regulations and policies and in turn improve the ease of doing business, steady progress towards 2030 can be realized.

9.A Facilitate sustainable and resilient infrastructure development in developing countries through enhanced financial, technological and technical support to African countries, least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States

Somalia’s infrastructure was destroyed or became dilapidated during more than two decades of conflict, leaving the country with poor transport, energy, water and sanitation, and ICT sectors. It is through infrastructure development that Somalia can establish a basis for productive and social activities, consequently improving quality of life, creating jobs, increasing productivity, and in turn triggering enhanced security and promoting stability. Infrastructure, particularly for the above-mentioned sectors, will be vital to the development of the private sector, which will lead to higher employment and discourage the fundamentalist agenda.

Recognizing the importance of infrastructure in attracting investment and developing a capable and competitive private sector, the FGS requested the AfDB to lead infrastructure planning and development by establishing a Multi-Partner Somalia Infrastructure Fund. A needs assessment was conducted in coordination with the FGS in 2015–2016, covering four major infrastructure sectors.

This has resulted in the project pipeline of a total of US$ 454 million, which was approved by the Somalia Development and Reconstruction Facil-

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168 Full title of target: “Enhance scientific research, upgrade the technological capabilities of industrial sectors in all countries, in particular developing countries, including, by 2030, encouraging innovation and substantially increasing the number of research and development workers per 1 million people and public and private research and development spending.”

169 UNIDO, 2019.
According to the AfDB, the US$ 350 million the Somalia Infrastructure Fund is expecting to raise under its first phase will be sufficient to rebuild strategic parts of the transport network, including highways, ports and airports. This funding will improve access to quality electricity, water and ICT services, thereby facilitating substantial and resilient infrastructure development in the country. However, to date AfDB has only been able to secure US$ 108.6 million in pledges for the Somalia Infrastructure Fund, of which only US$ 60.5 million has been disbursed by donors.

There have been significant plans for support to infrastructure development from abroad, notably from Gulf states, although this is largely undertaken for geostrategic reasons, with limited visibility and outside of the established aid coordination mechanisms.

In 2018, Dubai state-owned port operator DP World launched a US$ 101 million project to expand Berbera port in “Somaliland”. The first phase is part of an expansion deal signed with DP World in 2016 and is worth a total of US$ 442 million. The expansion is expected to provide an alternative export route for Ethiopia, which currently relies on Djibouti for its trade. However, this investment was highly opposed by the FGS as a violation of its sovereignty.

In late 2017, Somalia and Qatar signed a US$ 200 million infrastructure and job creation agreement for funds to, among other things, rehabilitate roads linking the Mogadishu and Lower Shabelle regions. In August 2019, it was announced that Qatar Ports Management Company (Mwani) will enter into an investment partnership with Somalia to construct a new seaport in Hobyo, in Mudug region. Turkey has also invested significantly in infrastructure – for example, the refurbishment of Aden Adde International Airport and the building of roads in Mogadishu.

Finally, with Somalia on the path to debt relief under the HIPC Initiative, it is hoped that the country will be able to secure access to credit or finances that could support the infrastructure sector.

9.B Support domestic technology development, research and innovation in developing countries, including by ensuring a conducive policy environment for, inter alia, industrial diversification and value addition to commodities

Manufacturing value added (MVA) output of the intermediate consumption before 1991 was indicated by UNIDO (1988) at US$ 24.5 per capita. The MVA indicator is used to show the growth of the volume of industrial production. In the years after the civil war, calculation of MVA and focus on industrial development was limited. After 1991 until recently, the manufacturing sector remained stagnant, with the MVA at 2.1 per cent of the country’s GDP, which is almost 80 per cent less than other sub-Saharan countries.

A positive development over recent years has been the establishment of the annual Mogadishu Tech Summit, which was first held in 2018. The Summit is an annual gathering that focuses on the need for the Government of Somalia, business community, donors, private sector, entrepreneurs and development organizations to apply innovation and technology to drive sustainable development.

At the 2019 event, Salaam Bank pledged US$ 5 million to be made available over the next three years to innovators and entrepreneurs. Access to these funds will be provided through Somalia’s first-ever technology innovation hub, iRise, which promotes collaboration between innovators and investors. The hub also offers the resources needed by budding entrepreneurs and start-ups, such as business training, mentorship, project evaluation and support during the incubation stages of their projects.

174 https://iap.unido.org/country/SOM.
175 https://www.so.undp.org/content/somalia/en/home/presscenter/articles/2019/mogadishu-tech-summit-closes-with-attendance-
It is crucial to have a policy environment that is conducive to enhancing manufacturing and creating a diverse market in the country. In Somalia, the development of industrial policy will play a crucial role in inducing industrial transformation that can spearhead a sustainable and competitive sector with socially inclusive and environmentally friendly industries. The industrial policy should anticipate the necessary structural changes to be made, designing new processes (policies, regulations, etc.) and removing or correcting obstacles.

It is important to identify how and where to diversify, and to create government policies together with the private sector in order to have inclusive research and to trigger innovation and industrial diversification through an environment of mutual learning and dialogue. Furthermore, as mentioned in the previous section, legislation/policies related to investment attraction will need to be drafted (e.g. industrial zone laws, investment promotion laws and public–private partnership laws). These will lead to investment in research, improve the policy environment, and, most importantly, lead towards the diversification of industries and commodities.

* See Sections 9.2 and 9.5 for further information on domestic technology development, research and innovation, and industrial diversification.

9.C Significantly increase access to information and communications technology and strive to provide universal and affordable access to the Internet in least developed countries by 2020

Somalia’s telecommunication sector has advanced quickly in recent years. In contrast to neighbouring countries, Somalia offers competitive telecom and Internet services. According to World Bank data, in 2018 there were 51 cellular subscriptions per 100 people in Somalia. The SHDS 2020 suggests that 74.4 per cent of households have a mobile phone, with 73 per cent of women owning one.¹⁷⁶ The proportion of Somali women (15 years and older) with a mobile money account stands at 63.9 per cent.¹⁷⁷

However, mobile phone coverage is not homogeneous across all regions in Somalia, as rural areas are less likely to be covered. Furthermore, coverage varies by age, with the elderly less likely to own a SIM card or mobile phone. According to the International Telecommunication Union’s Measuring the Information Society Report 2018, the recent progress towards political stability is a good sign for the country, allowing it to become more attractive to foreign investment and move the telecommunication and broadband sector to the next level.

Despite its fragility and underdeveloped financial institutions, Somalia has one of the most active mobile money markets in the world, outpacing most other countries in Africa. Approximately 155 million transactions, worth US$ 2.7 billion, are recorded per month.¹⁷⁹ In 2017, 70 per cent of Somalis with mobile phones regularly used mobile money.¹⁸⁰ Somalis use mobile money services for paying bills, receiving salaries and conducting merchant transactions between US$ 20 and 200. Also, development agencies use mobile money for cash transfers to urban-based beneficiaries. Some municipalities in “Somaliland” and Puntland have commenced mobile payment applications for tax collection and local services.

Nevertheless, the mobile money sector lacks ro-

¹⁷⁷ SDG indicator 8.10.2 (b) (SHDS 2020).
¹⁸⁰ World Bank, 2019.
bust consumer protection and “know your customer” protocols. The mass adoption of services, while impressive, actually presents opportunities to broaden and deepen these services, leading to more competition in the financial services market.

While mobile cellular penetration is relatively widespread, Internet access, while increasing, remains very limited, with only 11.9 per cent of households having an Internet connection. A mere 15.1 per cent of women and girls surveyed had used the Internet by any means in the 12 months prior to being questioned in 2019. Only 6.9 per cent of households have a computer.

Most importantly, laws, regulations, competitiveness and an investment-friendly environment are required to further develop the country’s telecommunication and move towards universal and affordable access to mobile networks and the Internet.

The Somalia Information and Communications Technology Policy and Strategy (2019–2024) aims to provide universal local access to affordable voice and Internet services by 2024, with a special focus on women, youth, disabled persons and marginalized groups.

To enable this, the Policy will focus on facilitating and supporting the development of efficient and secure nationwide communications infrastructure that provides affordable and pervasive broadband connectivity and accelerates socio-economic development in all parts of Somalia. In addition, the Policy commits to ensuring that all telecommunication operators have access to a) fibre links between all major urban areas, b) multiple fibre connections to global and regional backbones, c) efficient local interconnection points, and d) a universal access strategy that supports the provision of access in underserved areas.

181 SDG indicator 17.8.1 (SHDS 2020).
Somalia has made significant progress against its various peace- and state-building priorities. However, despite its achievements, the country is still dealing with political, financial and security-related stresses. According to the World Bank’s Somali Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment, poverty in Somalia is very significant, with nearly 70 per cent of Somalis living on less than US$ 1.90 per day, making Somalia one of the poorest countries in sub-Saharan Africa. It has the sixth highest poverty rate in the region after the Democratic Republic of Congo, Central African Republic, Madagascar, Burundi and South Sudan. Inequality is also very high, with a significant proportion of the country’s wealth concentrated in relatively few hands. There are also spatial disparities, with growing inequalities between urban and rural areas.

There is growing consensus that economic growth is not sufficient to reduce poverty if it is not inclusive and if it does not involve the three dimensions of sustainable development – economic, social and environmental. As such, there will need to be a more equitable distribution of not only wealth, but also opportunity if the country is going to be successful in lifting its population out of poverty and vulnerability.
**10.1 By 2030, progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40 per cent of the population at a rate higher than the national average**

The distribution of wealth and resources among Somalia’s population is unequal. The Gini index, which measures inequality as the dispersion in consumption expenditure in the population, is 37 for Somalia, compared to an average value of 42 in low-income sub-Saharan countries. While inequality is lower than in most low-income African countries, many non-poor are at risk of falling into poverty after an adverse shock to consumption. The low inequality is owed to homogeneous levels of consumption, leaving even non-poor Somalis not very far from the poverty line.184

Furthermore, data from the World Inequality Lab indicates that 17 per cent of national income in Somalia in 2017 went to the top 1 per cent of earners, while the top 10 per cent received over 50 per cent of national income. The bottom 50 per cent made only around 14 per cent of national income.185

Data on growth rates of household expenditure or income per capita in the bottom 40 per cent of the population and the total population is currently not available; however, the World Bank estimates that households in the top 60 per cent of the total consumption distribution consumed 2.8 times more than households in the bottom 40 per cent. The study adds that the bottom 40 per cent are less likely to have access to electricity and education; they also receive fewer remittances compared with the top 60 per cent. On average, 50 per cent of urban households across regions rely on wage labour for their livelihood; however, no disaggregated data is available on the proportion of people living below the median income, by age, sex and existence of disability.

There are also significant differences in household wealth levels depending on location, with urban households being wealthier than those in rural areas. However, nomadic households are by far the poorest.186

**10.2 By 2030, empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status**

Somali society is characterized by clan-based divisions, inequalities and exclusions. Minorities, persons with disabilities, IDPs and smaller clans face discrimination and struggle to exercise their right to participate in economic, social and cultural activities and political processes. Reliable data on the proportion of the population at the receiving end of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law is not available, but according to estimates, marginalized communities, which constitute almost one-third of the population, and people under 30 years of age, who comprise almost 70 per cent of Somalis, are excluded from meaningful participation in social and political processes, which hinders their right to development.

**10.3 Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard**

Somalia has made progress in strengthening human rights legislative and protection frameworks, which are essential for establishing conditions

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185 [https://wid.world/country/somalia/](https://wid.world/country/somalia/).
towards ensuring equal opportunity and reducing inequalities of outcome. A road map to implement 2012 action plans on children and armed conflict was signed in October 2019. Three important bills – the Disability Bill, the Child Rights Bill and the Female Genital Mutilation Bill – have been developed, in addition to strengthened commitments to report on and implement ratified treaties and conventions – demonstrated by reporting under the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Convention against Torture and ratifying the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. IOM, through the Migration for Development in Africa programme, has been able to contribute to a number of fiscal and social protection policies that aim at achieving greater equality, including the National Gender Policy, the FGM Zero Tolerance Policy and the Federal Investment Law, which are pending approval by Parliament.

Legislation has also been developed in two FMSs and “Somaliland” on urban land management to support equal access to land and its resources among men and women.

While the FGS has yet to sign and ratify CEDAW, 2019 saw the development of the Somalia Women’s Charter, a framework which brings gender equality and women’s empowerment into the core of all legislation, policies and budgets.

10.4 Adopt policies, especially fiscal, wage and social protection policies, and progressively achieve greater equality

With the help of ILO, Somalia was able to revise the 1972 Labour Code on 21 February 2019. The Labour Code combines issues relating to fundamental principles and rights at work, employment contracts, labour relations, safety and health, industrial training, wages and remuneration, labour institutions, and the institutions of social dialogue in a single legislation.

The National Employment Policy for Somalia was finalized on 27 February 2019. It focuses on three priority areas: strengthening the private sector and promoting micro-, small-, and medium-sized enterprises; supporting productive economic sectors for job creation; and strengthening labour market governance. The policy adequately covers all relevant areas, including a focus on vulnerable segments of society and the inclusion of women, youth, IDPs and persons with disabilities.

Following the approval of the National Social Protection Policy by the Cabinet in 2019, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs developed a five-year Social Protection Implementation Plan.

10.5 Improve the regulation and monitoring of global financial markets and institutions and strengthen the implementation of such regulations

Somalia has been absent from global financial markets and institutions, and there is tangible progress on the development of core components of the public financial management framework as required under the HIPC initiative for relieving external debt.

10.6 Ensure enhanced representation and voice for developing countries in decision-making in global international economic and financial institutions in order to deliver more effective, credible, accountable and legitimate institutions

While Somalia is yet to join the WTO as a member, the country is a member of a number of international and continental economic and financial institutions.

As of 2019, Somalia is a member of the United Nations General Assembly, International Monetary Fund, African Development Bank and Islamic Development Bank. Due to the 30-year-long state collapse, Somalia has taken steps to normalize its relationship with some of these international organizations. In February 2020, the World Bank announced that it will normalize its relations with Somalia, which will open up opportunities for the country to access concessional financing from the Bank’s International Development Association (IDA) and allow it to work closely with all arms of the Bank.

10.7 Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and respon-
sible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies

By building governments’ capacities to implement well-managed and comprehensive migration policies, migration is made more orderly, safe, regular and responsible. Somalia’s Immigration and Naturalization Directorate (IND) is an independent directorate under the Ministry of Internal Security, and it works together with the police in law enforcement. The IND has drafted various legislation, including draft legislation on IND roles and responsibilities in 2018, the draft Somali Immigration Law in 2018, and the draft Somali Passports Law in 2019. The draft Somali Immigration Law was approved by the Ministry of Justice, followed by approval from the Attorney General’s office. The draft is currently sitting with the Council of Ministers (this includes the Prime Minister’s office). Once the Council of Ministers approves the draft, it will be moved to Parliament, then the President’s Office.

The FGS and regional authorities are working on developing harmonized standard operating procedures for return and reintegration, as well as establishing referral mechanisms for Somalis who have fallen victim to human trafficking and smuggling and found themselves stranded in other countries such as Yemen and Libya. IOM has been supporting the FGS to facilitate Somali returns and reintegration, with the largest numbers from Yemen and Libya. The Mixed Migration Task Forces operating in Puntland and “Somaliland” serve as important forums to provide holistic approaches towards addressing the protection and humanitarian needs of mobile populations. As the United Nations and Somalia work on the implementation of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, IOM as the secretariat is collaborating with partners towards establishing the UN Network on Migration, which will support the Government in prioritizing migration-related interventions, policies and allocation of resources to address those needs.

On 22 January 2020, IOM convened the Regional Ministerial Forum on Harmonizing Labour Migration Policies in East and Horn of Africa, during which the Somalia Minister of Labour and Social Affairs, together with other ministers in the East Africa and Horn of Africa region, for the first time signed a communique on regional cooperation on labour migration. The objective of the communique is to solidify a united approach on safe, regular and humane labour migration that is guided by the 2030 Agenda, the objectives of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, the African Union (AU) Agenda 2063, and the AU Free Movement of Persons Protocol in order to reach policy coherence and better development outcomes through migration.

Furthermore, the FGS has built or refurbished five border posts (El Berde, Dolow, Dhooley, Ras Kamboni and Ferfer) and equipped them with the Migration Information and Data Analysis System, a high-quality, user-friendly and fully customizable Border Management Information System. A rapid border assessment was conducted in 2016/2017, and comprehensive border assessments were conducted in 2019/2020 along the Somalia/Kenya border. The Immigration and Naturalization Directorate has prioritized the (re)construction of more border posts in 2020.

Somalia also hosts approximately 36,000 refugees/asylum seekers, primarily from Yemen and Ethiopia, who face a precarious existence. However, Somalia achieved an important milestone in recognition of refugee rights at the Global Refugee Forum on 17–18 December 2019. The FGS, led by a senior delegation comprising Prime Minister Khaire, the Minister of Planning and the Minister of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management, among others, made a number of noteworthy commitments in relation to all displaced persons and refugee returnees, including:

1) to strengthen the provision of durable solutions

187 IOM, IOM Global Compact Thematic Paper on Border Management. Improving states’ capacities for better migration governance is also highlighted as a recommendation in the Secretary-General’s Special Representative for Migration’s report to the General Assembly: Recommendation 11 is to “invest in State capacities to manage migration”.

188 See also Target 17.18.
to all displaced populations and refugee returnees; 2) to relocate and reintegrate 5,000 refugees (as well as 25,000 refugee returnees and 50,000 IDPs); 3) to create jobs (with established targets for IDPs and refugee returnees); and 4) to find permanent solutions for the recurring flooding cycle that leads to displacement.

It should also be recognized that progress is being made in the formulation of the Refugee Act; the FGS also ratified the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs in Africa (the Kampala Convention) on 26 November 2019. With the deposit of the ratification to the African Union on 6 March 2020, Somalia became the thirtieth African Union Member State to ratify the convention since 2009.

* See also section on “IDPs, Refugees and Refugee Returnees” in CCA Chapter 6 (Leave No One Behind)

10.A Implement the principle of special and differential treatment for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, in accordance with World Trade Organization agreements

WTO agreements contain special provisions that allow developed countries to treat least developed countries more favourably than other WTO members. While Somalia is still not a member of the WTO, there are a number of countries and organizations that implement special and differential treatment for Somalia with respect to the proportion of tariff lines applied to its imports according to UNCTAD’s Handbook on Duty-Free and Quota-Free Market Access and Rules of Origin for Least Developed Countries. These include the Eurasian Customs Union, Iceland, New Zealand, China, Morocco and the Republic of Korea.

10.B Encourage official development assistance and financial flows, including foreign direct investment, to States where the need is greatest, in particular least developed countries, African countries, small island developing States and landlocked developing countries, in accordance with their national plans and programmes

Total annual resource flows for humanitarian and development assistance by donors to Somalia averaged about US$ 2 billion in 2017, 2018 and 2019. This is a significant increase from pre-2017 levels, which averaged about US$ 1 billion a year. While the increase in recent years has been largely due a surge in humanitarian assistance to stave off famine, development aid has also been steadily rising over the past decade, from just US$ 202 million in 2009 to US$ 924 million in 2018.

While Somalia has seen a continuous upward trend in foreign direct investment since 2011, the level of investment remains relatively low when compared to the country’s needs. One of the main hindrances in increasing financial flows into Somalia is the insufficiently developed financial sector, where “know your customer” arrangements are still insufficient and assurances vis-à-vis money laundering and financing of terrorism cannot yet be made. Without tackling this, the financing architecture for development investment in Somalia is unlikely to change substantially, and the country will remain dependent on ODA. The official development assistance, however, is insufficient to cater for the investment requirements and is not always to right type of financing.

* See “Macro-economic Overview” section of CCA Country Context chapter, the CCA Financing Landscape and Opportunities Chapter, and Targets 1A and 15A in this chapter for further information on ODA in Somalia

10.C By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent

Members of the Somali diaspora have been active agents in the stabilization and socio-economic and institutional capacity-building efforts of the Government of Somalia during the past two decades. The Somali diaspora represents a powerful resource for the Government to tap into to address shortages in skills and human and financial resources. In addition, the diaspora has spearheaded efforts in economic recovery and made investments in small- and medium-sized enterprises in local economies across the country, thereby creating employment and livelihood opportunities for Somalis.
Remittances act as a crucial safety net for many Somalis, but there are significant variations in the amount and frequency of transfers and who receives them. Surveys indicate that a majority of Somali households do not benefit directly from remittances. Variations exist in the locations where remittances are more commonly found, between urban and rural households, and geographically. Northern areas appear to receive more on average than those in the south. Remittances are an important factor in determining the resilience of different communities and the relative levels of inequality in Somalia. Furthermore, access to credit is enhanced by remittances, which also increase the purchasing power of households and diversify the nutritional intake of families.\textsuperscript{189}

Generally, diaspora remittances, estimated at US$ 1.5 billion in 2018, have contributed greatly to the development of the country, with amounts comparable to international aid flow and exceeding foreign direct investment. Remittances account for approximately 23 per cent of GDP, based on data reported by the IMF. According to the Remittance Prices Worldwide database, the average cost of sending remittances to Somalia has increased – for example, from 6.3 per cent in the fourth quarter of 2014 to 7.1 per cent in the fourth quarter of 2017 from the UK, and from 9.06 per cent in the first quarter of 2016 to 11.2 per cent in the first quarter of 2018 from Australia. The increases are due to the anti-money laundering and counter-terrorism regulations imposed on foreign banks holding Somali money transfer company accounts around the world. The World Bank and the FGS are working with partners on addressing fundamental issues affecting remittance flows to the country in order to improve the formalization, transparency and compliance of the money transfer business sector in Somalia.

The FGS is also working towards developing a national diaspora policy, which would be an effective framework to guide the mobilization of resources and the engagement of the diaspora to maximize on the development potential of the diaspora in a coherent and comprehensive manner.

Somalia is one of the fastest urbanizing countries in the world. Somalia’s urban population is estimated at around 6.45 million people, making up 45 per cent of the national population and growing at an average rate of around 4.2 per cent per annum. The World Bank estimates that if the current trend continues, by 2030 Somalia will add another 4.5 million residents to its already constrained urban environment. The rapid urbanization is caused by significant forced displacements from rural areas into urban areas driven by conflicts, insecurity, and cyclical environmental adversities such as drought and famine. An additional factor is economic rural–urban migration.

The large and rising influx of drought-related displaced people in Somalia’s urban areas puts additional stress on already strained key sectors: land and housing, health, education, water supply and sanitation, protection and employment.

190 UNDESA (2018), data from the 2018 triennial review; see also UN Somalia, Integrated office of the DSRSG/RC/HC (2019), Towards Sustainable Urban Development in Somalia and IDP Durable Solutions at Scale.
191 World Bank (2018), Somalia Urban Resilience Project.
However, urban policies can play an important role in achieving national environmental and green growth goals. For instance, they can lower the long-term costs to the economy of national environmental policies. Cities are responsible for a significant share of infrastructure investments, which if invested wisely can contribute to national efforts to combine growth with environmental performance.

11.1 By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums

It is challenging to monitor progress in reducing the proportion of the urban population living in slums, as currently no accepted definition of “slum” is being applied in the country. However, current unplanned and unregulated city expansion has led to arbitrary distribution of land and has aggravated contestation over land, housing and basic services. Intense competition over land exacerbates forced evictions, particularly among IDPs and the urban poor. Urgent action is needed to reverse the current situation, which sees the vast majority of urban residents breathing poor-quality air and having limited access to transportation and open public spaces, in particular youth-friendly spaces. A special feature of Somalia’s urbanization is the youth factor. An estimated 46 per cent of the Somali population are children (aged 0–14 years), and 27 per cent are adolescents and youth (aged 15–29 years). Together they make up almost three-quarters of the Somali population.

The 2017/2018 Somali High Frequency Survey refers to a strong correlation between poverty and quality of housing. The NDP-9 highlights the fact that the Government has limited capacity and resources to address the challenges in steering and managing housing and basic services provision. In the absence of public sector support, private-led development and service delivery models have emerged, but the booming activity in the sector does not match the demand of the majority of the population. Engagement with municipalities is key in developing safe and affordable housing schemes for its populations. At the forefront should also be mechanisms to integrate IDPs into the urban centres and enhance service delivery to all communities.

11.2 By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons

Urban sprawl – exacerbated by new IDP settlements and compounded by decades-long infrastructure backlogs and neglect – impacts the accessibility and connectivity of urban areas. This mostly affects the poorer part of the population, but widely affects an increasingly larger proportion of urban residents who do not have convenient access to public transport, resulting in longer travel times to livelihood opportunities and services. Currently, only Hargeisa has a regulated public transport system, while in most other urban centres informal transport modes are highly prevalent; in some cases, these provide reliable transport for urban populations. Only Garowe has a rudimental mapping of such provision. In the absence of any accurate information or study regarding other urban centres, it is possible to assume that the majority of the population, especially peripheral communities, are socially and spatially excluded from reliable, affordable urban transportation.

11.3 By 2030, enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries

Although accurate population data is missing, projections demonstrate that most urban areas are

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192 Data on urban growth (built-up areas) is available for Mogadishu, Baidoa, Kismayo, Dolow, Garowe, Hudur, Hargeisa, Jowhar, Beletweyne and Balad, and will be submitted as soon as possible.

193 UNFPA, 2019: detailed results are to be expected from the Demographic and Health Survey in early 2020.

194 NDP-9, 2020–2024, p. 89.

195 Ibid., p. 237.
expanding at a faster rate than their populations. Between 2013 and 2018, areas occupied by cities grew on average 1.17 times faster than their populations.\textsuperscript{196} Urban densities of cities have consequently been declining, causing sprawl. Notably, in areas that have seen a huge influx of IDPs and returnees, where displacement has been the main driver of the urban expansion, the overall density of the city has substantially increased (for example, in Baidoa, the population – including IDPs – increased between 2016 and 2018 by about 300 per cent, but the urban area increased only by about 10 per cent).\textsuperscript{197} However, this usually has not happened thanks to good urban planning practices, but rather due to the compact nature of the IDP settlements, which suffer from overcrowding and poor living conditions.

Both trends create profound repercussions for sustainable urbanization and deep social, economic and environmental repercussions at the local, regional and global scale. Better management of urban growth will be crucial to guarantee sustainable urbanization.

To address these issues, some effort has been made at state and district levels to improve urban management through policies and regulations. “Somaliland”, Puntland and South-West State have approved land laws and policies,\textsuperscript{198} flanked by a federal legislation initiative.\textsuperscript{199} This is alongside progressive efforts by local governments in the issuing of titles and allocation of settlement sites for IDPs and communities at risk of evictions, followed by partner support for community-based planning and site upgrading. The FGS also acknowledges the benefits of community action-planning processes as inclusive participation tools in urban planning and management, and as tools for unlocking resources for implementation.

All tiers of government need technical and managerial skills, the ability to engage with the public, and strong capacities to design, implement, monitor and evaluate local public policies and services. Many initiatives have been striving to introduce good planning and sound management and to build local government capacity in inte-

\textsuperscript{196} Based on actualized data from UN-Habitat’s urban profiles for Hargeisa, Garowe, Beletweyne, Jawhar, Balad, Baidoa, Hudur, Dolow and Kismayo, and population projections.
\textsuperscript{197} UN-Habitat (2018), \textit{Baidoa Urban Profile}.
\textsuperscript{198} Urban land management legislation is in place in Somaliland (Law No. 17). Drafted legislation for urban land management: in South-West State, with the President for submission to the regional assembly; in Puntland, draft submitted to the regional assembly. Urban regulatory frameworks (planning standards and guidelines, plan making systems) are in place in Somaliland and Puntland.
\textsuperscript{199} City Planning Bill, second reading in December 2019.
grated urban planning processes. “Somaliland”, Puntland, South-West State and Jubaland, even if at different levels of development, have a functioning urban planning unit within their ministry of public works to facilitate urban and district development planning. This is done, for example, by supporting mapping infrastructure and drawing road network plans for district centres, as well as conducting public participation workshops with the local communities.

Mogadishu and Hargeisa, as the main urban centres in Somalia, are also developing urban visioning initiatives as inclusive participatory processes to mobilize and build consensus among all residents, communities, stakeholders, politicians and investors to invest in the desired future developments and to pave the way for a participatory strategic urban action plan that creates a safe and healthy environment.

However, the Government approach needs to become more strategic in responding to the full range of challenges and opportunities posed by rapid urbanization. This can be done by formulating a national urbanization strategy as a first step to help identify urban development priorities, shape plans and better coordinate actions by all actors involved, including the private sector.

11.4 Strengthen efforts to protect and safeguard the world’s cultural and natural heritage

The steady development of constructed areas that are not properly planned is a significant risk for environmental degradation and loss of natural and cultural heritage. Various private initiatives supported by some non-governmental organizations are currently ongoing in various urban centres, engaging citizens in development and in appreciation of the natural and cultural environment.

Urbanization is also a risk for historical centres, namely Mogadishu, Merca and Barawe, which constitute an invaluable testimony of the evolution of Somali civilization and East Africa’s urban experience. These historical cores are characterized by a deterioration of housing, lack of adequate road infrastructure, and the invasive presence of commercial and productive activities. The increasing real estate market pressure may bring a permanent alteration of the historical fabric within these cities if areas of strategic protection are not defined. Protection could instead match conservation requirements with the vital needs of an urban settlement, potentially turning these areas into a
driving force for the revitalization of other cities.

Federal and state governments place a high priority on environmental sustainability. NDP-8 and NDP-9 emphasize the mainstreaming of environmental concerns to avoid overexploitation of natural resources. A National Environment Policy and Environment Act have been drafted and are currently under review by the Council of Ministers.

While cultural conservation activities have been limited, Somalia has made recent progress in the promulgation of UNESCO’s cultural conventions, and a memorandum of understanding was signed on 11 February 2020 between the Federal Republic of Somalia and UNESCO to strengthen cooperation in the fields of education and culture towards achieving the 2030 Agenda. Nevertheless, the necessary investment in cultural and natural heritage is yet to be substantiated.

11.5 By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters, including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations

Somalia has been experiencing natural disasters in the form of droughts and floods with increasing frequency in the last decades.

Multidimensional poverty increased significantly in the country as a result of the 2017 drought, especially in the most-affected regions, in terms of food insecurity; limited access to water, health and education; increases in diseases and under-5 mortality; and displacement. Similar impacts result from the floods that happen recurrently during many rainy seasons, both Deyr and Gu, and affect urban centres most heavily.

According to the Somalia Drought Impact and Needs Assessment, the 2016/2017 drought resulted in losses and damages of approximately US$ 3.25 billion, with the agriculture, livestock and fisheries sectors feeling these losses most acutely (59 per cent).201 The Recovery and Resilience Framework prioritized recovery interventions sector-wise, geographically and temporally, through strengthening government capacity to deal with, recover from and build resilience against natural shocks. The NDP-9 also highlights climate change and natural disasters as critical concerns in the strategic development of Somalia, but an integrated approach needs to be implemented that looks at long-term action for risk reduction, preparedness and resilience.

11.6 By 2030, reduce the adverse per capita environmental impact of cities, including by paying special attention to air quality and municipal and other waste management

Basic services and infrastructure in urban areas are inadequate and face increased pressure. Provision of basic services such as health, education, water and sanitation, power, and solid waste management is reaching a saturation point given the influx of people. Uncontrolled and informal exploitation of the aquifer threatens the sustainability of, safety of, and access to urban water supplies. Waste management is being neglected, causing pollution and contamination. This in turn causes a sharp rise in communicable diseases such as acute watery diarrhoea/cholera and the re-emergence of infections such as measles.

There are different public–private partnership initiatives for solid waste management between local authorities and private companies across urban centres, but these are far from meeting internationally accepted standards and reaching out to all communities.

Several local governments have been working to build and strengthen financial management systems to improve planning and budgeting at the


district level and link increased revenues to improvements in service delivery and enhanced provision of local services (such as urban roads, water supply and solid waste management), either directly through support to the district administration or through public–private partnerships overseen by the local authority.

11.7 By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities

Most cities in Somalia struggle to ensure that their populations have convenient access to open public spaces. Thanks to Urban Planning Regulatory Frameworks developed through consultative processes in 2014 and 2015, only “Somaliland” and Puntland have defined standards for open spaces, recreational areas and urban green, although their provisions struggle to be applied in most new urban areas.

There have been some positive strides in the form of youth centres constructed in Mogadishu and Kismayo in 2019, which provide vulnerable youth safe and generative spaces for their positive development. However, primarily private-led urban development and the comparatively low negotiation power of the administration results in an inadequate to non-existent share of land dedicated to open public spaces in these cities. In the few towns that have some provision for public spaces, their distribution is uneven across the urban area, and a large part of the population does not have convenient access to them. In recent years, reports have emphasized the increasing incidence of violence and rape across Somalia (now “common”) and women suffering from sexual harassment, assault and exploitation. This is also happening in urban settings, emphasizing the need for safe, inclusive and healthy public spaces across Somalia.

11.A Support positive economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas by strengthening national and regional development planning

Despite Somalia’s rapid urbanization, its economy has remained largely agro-pastoral, with the agricultural economy contributing approximately 75 per cent of GDP.

The agro-pastoral economy has experienced vulnerability to climate-related events and to environmental degradation, resulting from instability, conflict and stagnation of the sector, which in turn has contributed to poverty.

While public investment in agriculture can generate growth and reduce poverty, it may still result in the outflow of workers to other economic sectors. There are also opportunities to innovate in the agro-pastoral sector by recognizing its relationship to urban centres.

The recent recovery of areas from violent extremist groups, mainly in Hirshabelle, Galmudug, Jubaland and South-West States, could give a new role to regional planning, involving, for example, agricultural and economic corridors that can improve rural economic development. Should public investment in infrastructure be made in small and intermediary towns as security and access improves, enabling them to attract small industries and businesses, and linkages strengthened to form effective networks of villages, towns and cities, rural economies can be strengthened through greater proximity to services and finance offered in nearby towns.

Furthermore, during drought, proximity to nearby towns – as a viable refuge alternative to more distant major cities – may provide the opportunity for continued connection to pre-drought sources of livelihood, and may also ease the return of those wishing to come back after the drought. It also provides the possibility to have a foot in both camps, with some family members working in rural livelihoods and others in nearby towns, thus diversifying sources of livelihood and improving

the resilience of families.

It is also important to note the connections between rural transformations, urbanization processes and global connectivity, and the role of telecommunications in facilitating exchanges between nomads, agro-pastoralists and farmers in rural areas and their extended kin in Somali urban centres and in the diaspora. This is leading to rapid changes in land use and nomadic patterns due to new flows of capital triggered by urban-based citizens and diaspora Somalis who invest in land because they anticipate profitability from crops and livestock as well as rural-to-urban transformations. Private accumulation of land is therefore increasing – partly facilitated by the increasing formalization and titling of traditional tenure systems, especially in “Somaliland” and Puntland. Understanding the drivers and nature of the ongoing processes of rural transformation, urbanization, globalization, and new forms of regulation and governance is a prerequisite for effective regional and territorial planning and for contributing to the sustainability of these processes and national economic development.

11.B By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change, resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels

Over the last years, disasters in Somalia have increased dramatically, both in number and in the size of their impact, and climate change threatens to make this trend even worse. Of particular concern is the flood risk in the cities along some sections of the two main rivers, Shabelle and Jubba. Most urban centres suffer from flash floods and inundations, as drainage infrastructure is insufficient or non-existent.

Although the NDP-9 identified risk management as critical, the main actions carried out have been related to the response and recovery phases, based on immediate assistance, restoration of basic services, social recovery and livelihood recovery once the event has already occurred. However, there have been practically no measures in the mitigation and preparedness phases.

Somalia has already in place a countrywide Flood Risk and Response Information Management System, but this needs to be connected to a proper gendered disaster information and monitoring and evaluation system integrated into disaster risk management plans at country, state and local levels.

In this regard, the Puntland government has already undertaken a Community Survey and Mapping for District Disaster Risk Management to provide data, information and analysis to help understand the current disaster management system in specific districts of the state.

Some initiatives are also being rolled out in Hiraan State, with a focus on Beletweyne, to support community disaster preparedness and disaster management capacity. However, a holistic approach is needed that considers gender differential issues alongside those impacting more vulnerable populations regarding disaster prevention, response and recovery actions and priority interventions.

11.C Support least developed countries, including through financial and technical assistance, in building sustainable and resilient buildings utilizing local materials

Technical options that consider Somali traditional building culture and locally available materials are being introduced into the construction of some buildings developed by local administrations and international organizations. However, to reach solutions at scale there must be more significant engagement with the local construction sector
and local skilled labour, with an expansion to include women. Capacity development for the construction sector is needed to incubate the necessary construction skills and traditional knowledge, support the use of appropriate building materials, and facilitate the introduction of resilient prototype housing designs.

At the same time, the introduction of building code and building permit systems would assure minimum construction quality for structural resilience. Puntland and “Somaliland” do have systems in place, but harmonization among different municipalities as well as enforcement of the standards would be required in order to significantly impact the construction sector.

Progressive registration of households could increase land tenure for vulnerable households, in turn stimulating investments in housing improvement, structural retrofitting and “building back better”.
Any consideration of Somalia’s progress towards sustainable consumption and production needs to be placed in the context of its global economic and environmental footprint.

Somalia is one of the smallest the economies in the world, with one of the poorest populations. While no data is available on material consumption and production (see Section 12.2), Somalia imports significantly more material goods than it produces – meaning that much of the material waste resulting from domestic consumption is attributable to goods produced elsewhere.

Somalia is also one of the lowest producers of greenhouses gases in the world in both aggregate and per capita terms. Estimates produced by the Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research indicate that Somalia produced approximately 0.1 metric tons of CO₂ per capita in 2018, compared to 0.4 metric tons per capita in Kenya, 5.1 in Turkey, 8.0 in China and 16.1 in the USA.
Somalia’s very low profile as a consumer and producer of material goods on the global stage does not however obviate the need to minimize the adverse impacts of domestic consumption and production on human welfare and the health of its environment. As evidenced in the profiles on SDGs 14 and 15, Somalia faces significant threats as a result of, inter alia, toxic waste dumping; illegal, unregulated and unreported (IUU) fishing by foreign vessels; and the degradation of fragile rangelands as a result of charcoal production and livestock rearing. Traditional practices combined with poor infrastructure and a lack of access to modern storage technologies conspire to produce very high post-harvest losses in the productive sectors.

12.1 Implement the 10-year framework of programmes on sustainable consumption and production, all countries taking action, with developed countries taking the lead, taking into account the development and capabilities of developing countries

Sustainable consumption and production was first defined at the 1994 Oslo Symposium as “the use of services and related products, which respond to basic needs and bring a better quality of life while minimizing the use of natural resources and toxic materials as well as the emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle of the service or product so as not to jeopardize the needs of future generations”.

Subsequently, at the 2012 United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20), UN member states signed up to a global commitment aimed at accelerating progress towards sustainable consumption and production, known as the 10-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns. Somalia does not currently have a sustainable consumption and production action plan, and is not formally committed to developing one.

The NDP-9 highlights the priority of promoting sustainable production, but this statement refers to economic sustainability and is narrowly defined. Elsewhere, the plan contains a reference to the importance of finding “an equilibrium” between “economic and environmental development”, recognizing “that… future prosperity and development is tightly linked to today’s effective resource management”, and makes a number of references to the importance of climate-smart agriculture, with an emphasis on practices that promote resilience to climate change. It is open to debate whether these statements amount to a meaningful commitment to mainstream sustainable consumption and production principles into priority national policies and programmes.

12.2 By 2030, achieve the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources

Material footprint refers to the total amount of raw materials extracted to meet final consumption demands in a country. As mentioned, Somalia does not collect data on its overall material footprint, material footprint per capita or material footprint per GDP at the current time. Nevertheless, some inferences can be drawn from available global and national data.

In 2017, low-income countries on average consumed approximately 2 metric tons of material per head of population, on which basis Somalia’s material footprint is likely to be less than 30 million metric tons per annum. Global data suggests that material footprint is positively correlated with a country’s population and aggregate growth (GDP), and that it tends to increase at a faster rate the more populous and prosperous a country becomes. Somalia’s material footprint is therefore likely to be increasing at the current time – albeit from a very low base – as both variables exhibit marked upward trends. Material footprint per capita, by contrast, is likely to be falling slightly as population growth outpaces GDP growth. There is no evidence to suggest that material footprint growth in Somalia will become decoupled from population and GDP growth.

Domestic material consumption (DMC) measures the total amount of materials directly used by an economy to meet the demands for goods and services from within and outside its borders. Again, Somalia does not collect data on DMC, DMC per
capita or DMC per GDP, but data for sub-Saharan Africa as a whole suggests that DMC per unit of GDP in 2017 was approximately 2.8 kilograms per dollar. On this basis, Somalia’s DMC is likely to be less than 12 million metric tons per annum. Globally, the material intensity of production (the amount of resources that a country uses to produce a fixed amount of goods) tends to decrease as countries grow and improve their resource efficiency. Given the very low levels of investment in infrastructure and technology, this effect is likely to be negligible in Somalia at the present time.

12.3 By 2030, halve per capita global food waste at the retail and consumer levels and reduce food losses along production and supply chains, including post-harvest losses

Post-harvest losses in agriculture are substantial across Somalia. Average grain losses in southern Somalia are estimated at 20–30 per cent of the harvest and may exceed this range in some cases. This is equivalent to approximately 50–80,000 tons of cereals per year, valued at US$ 15–20 million. A recent baseline study revealed that grain losses associated with traditional storage systems (underground pits) are significantly higher (40 per cent) than losses associated with post-harvest techniques such as transportation and drying (20 per cent).

No quantitative information is available on fish waste in Somalia, but post-harvest losses are also known to be high in the fisheries sector due to the lack of investment in cold chain infrastructure. Expert opinion suggests that post-harvest waste is at least as high as in nearby Comoros and Kenya, which report losses of 30 per cent.

International development partners have sought to address the problem of high post-harvest losses, with some notable successes to date, but on a limited scale. These programmes should be scaled up and replicated.

To date, a food loss index – based on food losses from production up to (but not including) retail for a basket of main commodities – has not been calculated for Somalia. A global food waste index, which includes the retail and consumption levels, is currently under development.

12.4 By 2020, achieve the environmentally sound management of chemicals and all wastes throughout their life cycle

Somalia is party to a number of multilateral environmental agreements relating to hazardous wastes: the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer; the Rotterdam Convention on the Prior Informed Consent Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and Pesticides in International Trade; the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants; and the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal (see also chapter on “Commitments to International Norms and Standards”).

Somalia’s capacity to monitor its commitments under these agreements is extremely limited, however, with the result that in most cases no definitive picture can be given of overall levels of compliance or non-compliance. Several decisions under the Montreal Protocol note, for example, that Somalia has repeatedly failed to establish baselines for data relating to controlled substances with ozone depletion potential, stressing that “compliance with the Montreal Protocol cannot be determined without knowledge of those data”.

Somalia’s main challenge with respect to controlled substances relates to the use of hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) in imported refrigerators. In the absence of specialist recycling capacity, most of these end up on the street or in open landfills, where they pose a threat not only to the environment, but also to human health. Somalia’s phase-out plan, agreed for the period 2012–2020 under the Montreal Protocol, entailed a reduction of HFC consumption and the promotion of low global warming potential alternatives. This appears to have achieved limited success, as the FGS report-
ed a drop in HFCs from 16.46 parts per trillion in 2013 to 15.26 in 2018.

Somalia also faces a significant threat from the illegal dumping of toxic waste at sea, on its shores and in its hinterland, although by its very nature this is extremely hard to verify and quantify. A report produced by Transparency Solutions in 2016 concludes that while numerous claims of toxic and nuclear waste dumping in Somalia cannot be conclusively proven, further scientific investigation is warranted.

Somalia does not currently collect data on waste generated per capita and the proportion of hazardous waste treated by type of treatment.

12.5 By 2030, substantially reduce waste generation through prevention, reduction, recycling and reuse

Somalia does not currently collect national data on waste recycling. In general, public awareness of the need for improved waste management and hygiene practices in Somalia is low – various estimates suggest over a third of the population still requires basic education in relation to the dangers of open defecation and garbage disposal.

The capital city of Mogadishu designated its first official landfill sites as recently as December 2019. In Berbera, an integrated urban development project has begun with a focus on resource management, job creation, reduction of waste and use of a landfill site. But the picture is not entirely consistent. For example, in recent years both the government of “Somaliland” and Al-Shabaab have issued laws/decrees banning the use of single-use plastic bags. To date there are no public services that provide for the recycling of waste, although in Mogadishu a flourishing private sector enterprise has recently been established that converts waste plastic into roof tiles.

12.6 Encourage companies, especially large and transnational companies, to adopt sustainable practices and to integrate sustainability information into their reporting cycle

One of the defining characteristics of the Somali economy is the prominence of a small number of large-scale conglomerates that are run by Somalis with dual or multiple nationalities, operating across various national jurisdictions, with Dubai or Djibouti as the main financial and business hubs. These transnational enterprises – Dehabshiil, Hormud, the Amal Group, the GSK Group, the MSG Group, Indhadeero, the Ominco Group – all have their roots in services such as money transfers, banking, telecommunications, trade and logistics, but have subsequently expanded into other sectors of the economy, including energy, real estate and construction. Corporate social responsibility measures are an integral component of their business operations – including in some cases community environmental upgrading works – but environmental sustainability auditing and reporting are not yet de rigueur.

Somalia does not currently collect data on the number of companies publishing sustainability reports, although it is likely that this practice will become more commonplace in the future as a result of increased competition in the growing domestic renewable energy sector and the opening up of oil and gas exploration rights to environmentally sensitive international energy companies.

12.7 Promote public procurement practices that are sustainable, in accordance with national policies and priorities

Article 9 of Somalia’s 2015 Public Procurement, Concessions and Disposal Act requires that “in implementing this Act, procuring entities must ensure that procurement packages and concession agreements do not include any goods and works that have been declared by the relevant national authorities responsible for health and environment as harmful to humans and/or to the environment”. Under the Joint Programme on Local Governance and Decentralized Service Delivery, selected district and state administrations are being supported in establishing and keeping structures for transparent procurement processes.

12.8 By 2030, ensure that people everywhere have the relevant information and awareness for sustainable development and lifestyles in harmo-
ny with nature

The concept that human communities co-exist with the rest of the natural world and should seek to live in harmony with it is enshrined in Somali traditional law (Xeer), which is still practiced in many rural areas of Somalia. Xeer does not recognize individual land ownership rights, but allocates land and water access to households with rules intended to prevent their overuse. Unfortunately, Xeer has not evolved to keep pace with many distinctly modern environmental threats, including the industrial-scale exploitation of natural resources – for example, charcoal production and trawler fishing – and the increasingly severe and unpredictable impacts of climate change on rural and urban communities.

In recent years, development partners, government ministries and faith leaders throughout Somalia have made efforts to address this lacuna and increase awareness about current environmental threats. Some of these efforts have focused on single issues – for example, charcoal production and water management – while some have addressed broader issues of environmental concern, including tree planting, maintaining open spaces in flood-prone areas, and climate change adaptation measures.

A small number of current initiatives aim to introduce climate change education into school and university curricula. While these efforts are clearly to be applauded and encouraged, in a country with 33 per cent primary school enrolment and a 50 per cent adult literacy rate, other means will still be necessary to ensure that rural communities are empowered with the awareness and knowledge they need to maintain a symbiotic relationship with their environment.

12.A Support developing countries to strengthen their scientific and technological capacity to move towards more sustainable patterns of consumption and production

As noted elsewhere (SDG 15), Somalia continues to be heavily reliant on international development partners for the systematic collection, analysis and dissemination of data related to sustainable production and consumption, and environmental issues more widely. Moreover, due to the illegal nature of much production activity and/or its location in inaccessible areas, some of this data is of qualified accuracy.

Somalia does not currently collect data with respect to investment in research and development on sustainable production and consumption issues.

12.B Develop and implement tools to monitor sustainable development impacts for sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products

Given the ongoing threat of violent conflict in large areas of Somalia, tourism is confined to a few relatively safe locations, and returning diaspora members or domestic tourists mainly account for the activity. Although there are no official statistics to attest to the size of the current market, circumstantial evidence – for example, the construction of new hotels in major cities – suggests that all forms of tourism, including business hospitality, are on the increase.

As with many other sectors of the economy, however, Somalia’s ability to regulate tourism effectively and ensure its longer-term sustainability is very limited. Many sites of undoubted historical and cultural significance are entirely unprotected and/or in a state of disrepair, while popular beach locations are blighted by litter, untreated effluent and – in the case of the popular Jazeera beach in Mogadishu – an unregulated landfill site. The possible exception to this is the famous Laas Geel rock art in “Somaliland”, where, in an effort to limit numbers, prospective visitors are required to purchase an entrance ticket in advance from the Somaliland Ministry of Tourism.

It is hoped that investment in sustainable tourism will increase proportionately as peace and stability is achieved and the country’s undoubted tourism potential starts to be realized. Small but significant steps have been taken in recent years. In September 2017, Somalia became the 157th member of the UN World Tourism Organization,
and on 11 February 2020 the FGS hosted the first-ever visit by the UNESCO Director-General.

Somalia does not currently have a national tourism strategy or action plan; however, the UNESCO World Heritage Sustainable Tourism Programme provides guidance for the development of a strategy and action plan. This could be among the activities carried out following ratification by Somalia of three UNESCO conventions in the field of culture in February 2020.\footnote{209 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage; 1972 Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage; 1954 Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict (and its two protocols of 1954 and 1999).}

\textbf{12.C Rationalize inefficient fossil-fuel subsidies that encourage wasteful consumption} \footnote{210 Full title of target: “Rationalize inefficient fossil-fuel subsidies that encourage wasteful consumption by removing market distortions, in accordance with national circumstances, including by restructuring taxation and phasing out those harmful subsidies, where they exist, to reflect their environmental impacts, taking fully into account the specific needs and conditions of developing countries and minimizing the possible adverse impacts on their development in a manner that protects the poor and the affected communities.”}

Somalia does not currently provide subsidies to fossil-fuel consumers.
Somalia is one of the most vulnerable countries in the world to climate change, stemming from its social, economic and political conditions, as well as its geo-physical characteristics. The negative effects of climate change are already being felt across the country and are expected to get worse. Climate change will continue to be a “risk multiplier”, causing displacement, conflict, exacerbation of water and food insecurity, and fragility unless it is effectively embedded into the country’s overall management of risk-reduction and resilience-building efforts.

The Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change indicates that the mean annual temperature is projected to increase in the range of 0.9 to 1.1 °C by 2030. Further, an increase in the range of 1.7 to 2.1 °C is expected by 2050; an increase in the range of 2.7 to 3.4 °C is expected by 2080 across eastern Africa (including Somalia) when compared with the 1961–1990 base period.
Somalia is committed to being partner in the fight against climate change. Under the Transitional Federal Government, Somalia acceded to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in 2009 and ratified the Kyoto Protocol shortly thereafter in 2010. The FGS concluded the interim mandate of the Transitional Federal Government in 2012 and continued to engage on climate at international and national levels. The FGS signed and ratified the Paris Agreement on 22 April 2016.

After the FGS was established, the National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA), the first climate strategy for Somalia, was finalized in line with UNFCCC guidelines. The NAPA identified three priority areas for action, with a focus on water resources management, sustainable land management and disaster management. The first major climate programme in the follow-up to NAPA was launched in 2015. Somalia highlighted the need to build resilience against climate disasters in its nationally determined contribution report submitted to the UNFCCC Secretariat in November 2015. The NDPs (2017–2019 and 2020–2024) consider climate actions essential for economic and social development, as well to ensure peace and security in the country. The National Development Plans emphasize the need for climate-smart pastoralism and agriculture, disaster management, water infrastructure development, and investments in renewable energy to mitigate the negative impacts of climate change.

Structured discussions on the localization of SDG 13 targets and indicators have not taken place. However, results emerging from different initiatives do correspond in varying degrees to the SDG 13 targets. Implementation challenges exist due to lack of resources and capacities, and these are considered a major barrier for meaningful progress towards the targets.

13.1: Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries

According to the Emergency Events Database, floods are the most common type of disaster in the East African region (46 per cent), followed by epidemics (32 per cent) and drought (17 per cent). It is acknowledged that all these natural disasters refer to climate hazards. In terms of severity, drought hazards have affected the most people (83 per cent). This is owing to drought affecting not only livestock and natural resources, but also other aspects of livelihoods such as health, water, education and security. Furthermore, droughts in the Somali region have occurred over consecutive years, making recovery more difficult.

In recent history, Somalia has experienced multiple drought events, with the 2011 drought being the worst in 60 years.211 This event resulted in 260,000 deaths in Somalia, with a total number of 13 million people being affected in the Horn of Africa. According to the Emergency Events Database (2012), despite the fact that Somalia experienced major droughts more frequently in the 1970s and 1980s, the impacts of recent droughts have been more severe, as indicated by the number of people affected by the 2011–2012 drought event.

In February 2017, the FGS declared the 2016–2017 drought a national disaster as a result of consecutive seasons with inadequate rainfall. The drought had a severe effect on water resources, thereby affecting livestock and agricultural production, which accounts for 65 per cent of Somalia’s GDP and labour. The drought also had catastrophic effects on the Somali population, with an estimated 6.7 million people facing food insecurity; this is demonstrated by the lowest cereal production yields on record since 1988, with annual yields being 45 per cent lower than the previous five years. Food insecurity caused a proliferation of malnutrition and water-borne diseases, with 1.2 million Somali children acutely malnourished in 2017, an increase of 50 per cent from the previous year. According to the Somalia Drought Impact and Needs Assessment, the 2016–2017 drought resulted in losses and damages of approximately US$ 3.25 billion, with the agriculture, livestock and fisheries sectors feeling these losses most acutely (59 per cent).

211 IFRC, 2011.
The FGS has approved the National Disaster Management Policy, which aims to improve community resilience and preparedness in the face of disaster and climate emergencies in order to significantly reduce the loss of lives and property. The policy provides guidelines for incorporating disaster risk reduction into the national development planning processes, and outlines priority investments in disaster preparedness, early warning, mitigation and recovery. This policy recognizes the inherent synergies between disaster risk reduction, climate change adaptation and the humanitarian-development-peace nexus.

**13.2: Integrate climate change measures into national policies, strategies and planning**

The provisional Constitution of Somalia includes the obligation to prioritize “the protection, conservation and preservation of the environment against anything that may cause harm to natural biodiversity and the ecosystem” (Article 45) and the right to an environment which is “not harmful to health and well-being” (Article 25).

The NDP-8 created significant inroads and supported several initiatives contributing to the achievement of climate change adaptation and mitigation priorities in Somalia. The resilience pillar of the NDP served to promote climate-adaptive planning and disaster management programming in Somalia.

The NDP-9 integrates climate change as a constraint to both Pillar 2 (Improved Security and Rule of Law) and Pillar 3 (Economic Development), and places climate change and recurrent drought as a major cause of poverty in the country. In this regard, the NDP-9 prioritizes strengthening the capacity and commitment towards effective environmental governance. Pillar 3 of the NDP places climate change at the core of its priorities, particularly with regard to traditional livestock and agricultural livelihoods, which are heavily reliant on the natural resource base.

The Somalia Women’s Charter highlights how climate change poses distinct, enormous burdens for women and girls. Sustainable development and resilience can only be achieved if women and girls are empowered to equally contribute to the resolution of climate change problems and their differential experiences are fully addressed.

The 2013 National Adaptation Programme of Action calls for enhancing the resilience of the Somali people against the impacts of climate change by implementing priority adaptation activities under three programmatic areas: 1) sustainable land management; 2) water resources management; and 3) disaster management.

The country in 2015 prepared and submitted its Intended Nationally Determined Contributions Report to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, which was prepared in accordance with the decision of the Lima Call for Climate Action that countries should formulate policies, plans and mitigation and adaptation projects towards achieving set climate-related objectives. Somalia is updating the NDC (2015) with the aim of accelerating implementation.

Somalia has formulated the National Climate Change Policy, National Communications on Greenhouse Gas Emissions, and a strong pipeline of projects in the areas of climate adaptation and mitigation. Relevant policies at sub-national levels (Puntland and “Somaliland”) also provide recommendations for localized actions and contingency planning in the event of climatic disasters.

Somalia is yet to finalize the National Adaptation Plan. In December 2019, the Green Climate Fund approved funding to implement the National Adaptation Plan Support Programme, to be implemented by the FGS Directorate of Environment and UNDP.

**13.3 Improve education, awareness-raising and human and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation, adaptation, impact reduction and early warning**

The FGS and FMSs have been actively mobilizing resources from development partners to build capacity to deliver actions towards raising awareness and building human and institutional capacities.
Somalia Water and Land Information Management (FAO SWALIM) provides data, analysis and decision-relevant information about meteorological processes and climate change–related matters. This project serves as the scientific and technical resource in Somalia to help establish early warning systems and enhance national capacities for data analysis and dissemination.

A capacity development project is being launched by the FGS and UNDP, with funding from the Green Climate Fund, that aims to raise awareness, integrate climate change into formal education curricula, and develop individual and institutional capacity linked to the formulation and implementation of the National Adaptation Plan.

The FGS and UNDP recently started the project Support for Integrated Water Resources Management to Ensure Water Access and Disaster Reduction for Somalia’s Pastoralists, with funding support from the Global Environment Fund. With the objective of generating benefits for pastoralists, the project aims to provide targeted assistance for capacity reinforcement for technical and planning ministries, as well as targeted training for forecasters on timely drought and flood forecasting and information dissemination.

The UN Joint Programme for Sustainable Charcoal Reduction and Alternative Livelihoods has gained invaluable experience in understanding the drivers of resource scarcity at the local level, and has pioneered to build capacities to support local-scale interventions aimed at reducing reliance on charcoal. These lessons need to be leveraged and scaled up through climate adaption actions in Somalia.

Under the Enhancing Climate Resilience of the Vulnerable Communities and Ecosystems in Somalia project (UNDP and the Global Environment Facility’s Least Developed Countries Fund), local stakeholders and vulnerable communities are engaged to implement climate adaptation activities in Somalia. The project offers invaluable insights about working with local institutions that need to be leveraged and scaled up under the National Adaptation Plan process.

The Reducing Vulnerability and Building Community Resilience to Climate Change Effects project supported targeted interventions to enhance community resilience and climate change adaptation. The rendered support to enhance community knowledge including the mapping and assessment of local hazards. The experience and lessons learned offer a replicable model to institutionalize in other climate-vulnerable communities in Somalia.

To support the implementation of the Somalia Disaster Management Policy, a national project titled Building Disaster Risk Management Capacities has been conceptualized within the Recovery and Resilience Framework. The project aims to support strengthening the national disaster management system to reduce the risks and vulnerabilities of the poor to the effects of droughts, floods, and other natural and climate-induced hazards to an acceptable and manageable level. The initiative will build capacities to mainstream disaster/climate risk reduction into important sectors, ensuring that the development planning, programming and new investments remain risk informed and resilient to the recurrent disaster shocks in Somalia. The project will implement a skill development programme to professionalize disaster/climate risk management at all levels, and to strengthen community institutional mechanisms to support multi-hazard, end-to-end early warning systems for the protection of lives, livelihoods and assets at the local level. In so doing, an innovative financing facility will be piloted in Somalia that will introduce a systematic approach for building community resilience through reducing risks and vulnerabilities in a targeted way.

* Please note that Targets 13A and 13B are not applicable to Somalia as they refer to Annex I Countries as described in the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change.212

212 Target 13A: “Implement the commitment undertaken by developed-country parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change to a goal of mobilizing jointly US$ 100 billion annually by 2020 from all sources to address the needs of developing countries in the context of meaningful mitigation actions and transparency on implementation and fully operationalize the Green Climate Fund through its capitalization as soon as possible.”

Target 13B: “Promote mechanisms for raising capacity for effective climate change–related planning and management in least developed countries and small island developing States, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities.”
Somalia’s 3,333-kilometre coastline is the largest in mainland Africa and endows the country with substantial marine resources. Its maritime zone possesses one of the most important large marine upwelling ecosystems in the world, providing optimal conditions for both demersal and pelagic fish species. Somalia is also home to several endemic species of birds, mammals and reptiles.

Detailed, reliable and up-to-date information on the Somali marine and coastal environment is extremely limited. Somalia’s waters remain largely uncharted, unsupervised and unmonitored. With the exception of several recent localized research efforts that are ongoing, no reliable data has been collected on fishing activity, landings, stocks or habitat status since before the civil war.
The main challenges to progress towards the 2030 Agenda are nevertheless well known. Despite recent progress, weak or non-existent government over much of the last 30 years has led to overexploitation by illegal, unreported and unregulated foreign fishing vessels, and pollution resulting from oil spillages and the dumping of toxic waste. Rising sea levels due to climate change, rapid urbanization and an increase in the coastal population have resulted in habitat destruction in both offshore and nearshore areas.

14.1 By 2025, prevent and significantly reduce marine pollution of all kinds, in particular from land-based activities, including marine debris and nutrient pollution

To date Somalia has taken no significant steps to reduce marine pollution from marine debris or land-based activities. As mentioned elsewhere in this report (15.1.1), comparative evidence suggests that that run-off from coastal urban and agricultural areas is causing severe damage to both coastal and marine ecosystems, especially in the East African Coastal Biodiversity Hotspot in southern Somalia. In addition, an independent study undertaken in 2016 highlighted a decline of up to 20 per cent in the number of marine phytoplankton in the Indian Ocean over the last six decades, in addition to an ongoing process of ocean acidification that poses a direct threat to coral reefs and numerous shellfish and zooplankton species – and thus to the broader food chain and marine ecosystem. Somalia’s fragile system of coral reefs is also being damaged by illegal bottom trawling (14.4).

Global indices for coastal eutrophication and floating plastics debris density are not currently available, but will be made ready by 2020. Somalia has no immediate plans to monitor coastal eutrophication.

14.2 By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems

Since 2014, Somalia has made reasonable progress towards establishing institutional and regulatory infrastructure for the sustainable management of its marine and coastal resources. However, effective fisheries management – a precondition for unlocking and sustaining the sector’s potential for increased incomes, employment, nutrition and food security – is still in its infancy.

Under the 2014 Fisheries Law, an exclusive economic zone (EEZ) was declared, covering an area of approximately 1,165,500 square kilometres. This includes a protection zone for domestic fishers extending up to 24 nautical miles from the coastline. From 24 to 200 nautical miles, domestic and foreign vessels are permitted to operate, but they must hold a valid license issued by the Federal Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR). In addition, the 2014 Fisheries Law banned trawling by domestic and foreign vessels (Article 33) and made all prior licenses – including those issued by regional authorities – null and void.

Federal and regional ministers of fisheries have subsequently worked to find a consensus on roles and management responsibilities for their respective levels of government. Provisional agreements reached in April 2014, May 2016 and May 2017 specified that the FGS would have responsibility for highly migratory species licensing in non-territorial waters. In 2018, a licensing agreement was adopted, and 31 licenses were issued for Chinese-owned and -operated longline vessels.

A further provisional agreement on the sharing of license revenues was reached at a meeting in Addis Ababa in March 2019. Observers present at the meeting reported that the agreement was intended to cover the distribution of revenues from the 31 licensed vessels only, and entailed a majority share allocated to the Federal MFMR, with smaller, unequal shares allocated...
to each of the participating FMS counterparts. It is currently unclear whether this agreement has been formalized and will pave the way for longer-term revenue-sharing agreements.

In addition, development partners provided the Federal MFMR with an Internet-based vessel monitoring system and facilitated the integration of automatic identification system data. However, the utility of the system for fisheries management purposes is limited, as it is currently only being used by the 31 licensed vessels and a small proportion of domestic vessels.

At the present time, the Federal MFMR is negotiating a second tranche of licenses that are understood to be more expensive and restrictive than the first. A new fisheries law is also being developed and is expected to address a number of outstanding issues in the 2014 law, including the definition of the EEZ, the division of competencies between federal- and state-level ministries, and compliance with the conservation and management measures of the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission. It remains to be seen whether these will entail concrete proposals for managing the EEZ using ecosystem-based approaches.

14.3 Minimize and address the impacts of ocean acidification, including through enhanced scientific cooperation at all levels

While Somalia achieves a low ranking in a global index of vulnerability to ocean acidification (151/187), this is almost entirely due to its very low per capita fish consumption. Estimates produced by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change suggest that, to the contrary, acidification is likely to exacerbate the impacts of rising sea temperatures, redistributing marine species and reducing biodiversity. In Somalia and other tropical regions, it is estimated that this could decrease yields of highly migratory species by up to 40 per cent by the 2050s, all other things being equal.

There are currently no mechanisms in place for the routine monitoring of ocean acidification levels in Somalia. Further threats to marine ecosystems in Somalia stem from climate change, the continuing growth of coastal cities, and the possibility of intensive oil and gas exploration in the EEZ.

Climate change impacts are already in evidence and include rising sea temperatures and sea levels. Rising sea surface temperatures are causing significant bleaching of coral reefs, jeopardizing fish breeding and nursery grounds, and contributing to a loss of biodiversity in nearshore waters. Rising sea levels threaten the existence of coastal communities through the flooding of low-lying coastal lands, estuaries and deltas.

At the same time, the burgeoning growth of coastal towns and cities is increasing the generation of solid waste, which is discharged directly into coastal waters. Run-off from urban and agricultural areas is increasing seawater concentrations of animal and human waste, as well as pesticide and fertilizer residue.

In early February 2020, the Federal Ministry of Petroleum and Mineral Resources published a tender protocol for oil and gas exploration in the EEZ. While it is obviously too early to assess the likely impact of this activity on coastal and marine ecosystems, well-documented experience from other oil and gas exploration sites suggests that seismic testing and exploration drilling can lead to long-term damage as a result of noise pollution and discharge – from drill cuttings, fluids and leakages – as well as interference with fishing activities. In the absence of rigorously enforced environmental management measures in the EEZ, these potential threats coexist alongside the very real possibility of further oil spillages and toxic waste dumping from unmonitored vessels passing through Somali waters.

14.4 By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting and end overfishing, illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and destructive fishing practices and implement science-based management plans 214

214 Full title of target: “By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting and end overfishing, illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and destructive fishing practices and implement science-based management plans, in order to restore fish stocks in the shortest time feasible, at least to levels that can produce maximum sustainable yield as deter-
According to FAO data, in 2016 the total fisheries production in Somalia, which measures the volume of aquatic species caught by a country for all commercial, industrial, recreational and subsistence purposes, was 30,000 metric tons.\footnote{215}{\url{https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ER.FSH.PROD.MT}}

A recently published empirical study suggests that 10 out of the 17 common fish species in Somalia’s offshore waters are exploited unsustainably, including swordfish, striped marlin, yellowfin tuna, longtail tuna, emperors, snappers, sharks, groupers and grunts. The unsustainable exploitation of yellowfin tuna is also confirmed by the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission.

The majority of overfishing in offshore waters is accounted for by foreign illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing vessels. It is conservatively estimated that between 1981 and 2014, IUU fishing by foreign vessels landed over three times the catch of domestic vessels, often targeting the same fish species. In addition to its negative environmental impacts, widespread IUU fishing is a source of ongoing tension in coastal communities and has recently given rise to fears of a resurgence in piracy activity.

Foreign IUU fishing is also responsible for significant, and possibly irreversible, damage to nearshore marine ecosystems as a result of bottom trawling. Scientific studies of bottom trawling in other locations have highlighted numerous negative impacts, including disruption to biogeochemical systems and significant reductions in biodiversity, particularly corals, sponges, echinoderms and molluscs.

By comparison, available evidence on the impact of domestic fisheries on nearshore ecosystems is ambiguous. Reef and demersal species are exploited mainly by Somali artisanal fishing communities. According to some studies, the overall level of exploitation may be below the potential sustainable capacity, but local overfishing is reported for reef species – concentrated near population centres – as well as high-value inshore stocks, which include crabs, lobsters and sea cucumbers.

\textbf{14.5 By 2020, conserve at least 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information}

Somalia is not on track to meet Target 11 of the Aichi Biodiversity Targets and has no marine protected areas.

\textbf{14.6 By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies} \footnote{216}{Full title of target: “By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to overcapacity and overfishing, eliminate subsidies that contribute to illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and refrain from introducing new such subsidies, recognizing that appropriate and effective special and differential treatment for developing and least developed countries should be an integral part of the World Trade Organization fisheries subsidies negotiation.”}

Somalia does not provide fisheries subsidies of any kind.

\textbf{14.7 By 2030, increase the economic benefits to small island developing States and least developed countries from the sustainable use of marine resources} \footnote{217}{Full title of target: “By 2030, increase the economic benefits to small island developing States and least developed countries from the sustainable use of marine resources, including through sustainable management of fisheries, aquaculture and tourism.”}

Given uncertainties surrounding the extent of IUU fishing and the broader lack of data on fish stocks and catches in Somalia, it is likely to be some time before reliable and up-to-date benchmarks for sustainable fisheries yields can be calculated. Nevertheless, estimates produced for the USAID...
2016–2019 Country Strategy suggest that domestic fisheries contributed approximately US$ 135 million to aggregate GDP during 2015, compared to a value of US$ 306 million attributable to IUU fishing inside the EEZ. This figure, if correct, would be equivalent to approximately 2.6 per cent of 2015 GDP, putting the country more or less on par with the global average for least-developed countries – a significant under-achievement, given Somalia’s natural resource advantage in the sector. On the same basis, if income from IUU fishing was included in total GDP, the fisheries contribution would be equivalent to approximately 8 per cent, which is significantly above the global average for least developed countries and closer to the average for small island developing states (approximately 13 per cent).

A further indication of the potential scope for sustainably expanding Somali fisheries is contained in an independent 2015 study which estimated that the total catch landed by domestic vessels during 2013 (194,000 tons) was equivalent to approximately one-quarter of the estimated annual production potential (835,000 tons). This figure is clearly hypothetical, given the continuation of IUU fishing and the consequent overfishing of a significant number of common fish species (14.4).

14. A Increase scientific knowledge, develop research capacity and transfer marine technology

In 2018 a multi-stakeholder partnership involving the Federal MFMR, development partners, non-governmental organizations and Somali higher education institutions was established with the aim of collecting fish-landing data from Somali coastal fisheries using harmonized forms and protocols. This initiative was conceived as a precursor to estimating the national fish catch, and has since expanded to incorporate six additional fish-landing sites. Data from domestic catches will be analysed alongside data currently collected from licensed longliners to provide overall – coastal and offshore – catch estimates.

Somalia does not currently hold data on public sector research budgets, including research budgets allocated to the field of marine technology.

14.B Provide access for small-scale artisanal fishers to marine resources and markets

Small-scale artisanal fishers are protected by the 24-nautical-mile zone established under the 2014 Fisheries Law. In theory, the zone is prohibited for foreign vessels, but observations from various sources suggest that violations by foreign flagged vessels – and in some cases industrial fishing vessels flying the Somali flag – are commonplace. As previously mentioned (in 14.4), there is significant evidence of foreign IUU fishing vessels directly competing with artisanal fishers for the same fish species.

The development of small-scale artisanal fisheries in Somalia is further constrained by a range of factors, including outdated boats and fishing equipment, skills shortages (particularly with respect to modern fishing techniques), limited landing infrastructure such as port facilities, jetties and piers, and poor or non-existent infrastructure for cold storage and road access to inland markets. In addition, domestic demand for fish is reportedly weaker than in any other African nation, reflecting a strong cultural preference for the consumption of red meat.

Significant steps have been taken by several development partners in collaboration with federal and state governments to address these problems. Most of these efforts focus on one or more of four main areas: 1) the design and construction of more fuel-efficient and larger vessels aimed at increasing profitability and access to deeper waters; 2) the introduction of new fishing techniques and equipment – e.g. droplines for deep waters around fish-aggregating devices, longlines that use hydraulic gears to set lines of 5 kilometres, etc.; 3) improvements to the cold chain, including on-board fish holds, the provision of refrigerators.
to isolated fishing communities, and technical and financial assistance to fishing companies; and 4) the provision of technical training to fishing communities, cooperatives, fishing companies and appropriate federal- and state-level government officials.

In addition, some progress has been made in terms of improving sanitation and hygiene conditions throughout the sector, with limited adoption of hazard analysis and critical control points standards by private fishing companies oriented to potential export markets.

14.C Enhance the conservation and sustainable use of oceans and their resources by implementing international law as reflected in the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea


219 Full title of target: “Enhance the conservation and sustainable use of oceans and their resources by implementing international law as reflected in the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, which provides the legal framework for the conservation and sustainable use of oceans and their resources, as recalled in paragraph 158 of The Future We Want.”
Somalia is endowed with a rich wildlife biodiversity and is included in both the Horn of Africa and East African Coastal Biodiversity Hotspots. It is home to numerous endemic species of plants, mammals, reptiles, and freshwater fish. However, detailed and up-to-date information on biodiversity, including the distribution patterns of various species, is scarce, since no comprehensive empirical studies have been undertaken since the early 1990s.

Access to natural resources and the utilization of land underpin the livelihoods of a significant proportion of the Somali population. Resource competition is intense and is a key driver of violent conflict in many areas. Sustainable natural resource management and effective environmental planning are therefore crucial not only to preserving Somalia’s natural endowments, but also to rebuilding the country and ensuring its future peace and stability.
Since the establishment of the FGS in 2012, Somalia has taken important steps towards establishing an effective governance system for the sustainable use of its territorial ecosystems. At the federal level, a Directorate of Environment has been established within the Office of the Prime Minister, and plans are currently afoot to establish a federal ministry of environment and an environmental coordination agency. A federal environmental policy and law are currently being formulated. At the regional level, all FMSs have established institutions with responsibility for environmental management.

The provisional Constitution of Somalia includes the obligation to prioritize “the protection, conservation, and preservation of the environment against anything that may cause harm to natural biodiversity and the ecosystems” (Article 45) and the right to “an environment which is not harmful to health and well-being” (Article 25). These principles are further reflected in the NDP-9, which calls for a sustainable balance between economic development and environmental protection, recognizing that environmental degradation is one of the most important drivers of poverty. To date the FGS is a signatory to over 100 environment-related agreements, treaties, protocols and conventions that are relevant to SDG 15.

Somalia nevertheless faces huge challenges in meeting the SDG 15 targets. The Centre for Global Development places Somalia at the top of its list of 176 countries for overall vulnerability to climate change, after adjustment for coping capacity. Increasingly erratic rainfall and prolonged periods of severe drought and flooding have already overwhelmed customary coping mechanisms and threatened the viability of traditional agricultural livelihoods. With few alternatives available, many Somalis have turned to unsustainable exploitation of natural resources, amplifying the country’s exposure and vulnerability to future climate shocks.

15.1 By 2020, ensure the conservation, restoration and sustainable use of terrestrial and inland freshwater ecosystems and their services, in particular forests, wetlands, mountains and drylands, in line with obligations under international agreements

Forests

The vegetation of Somalia is predominantly dry deciduous bushland and thicket dominated by species of Acacia and Commiphora, with semi-desert grassland and deciduous shrubland in the north and along much of the coast. Tree coverage becomes denser in the south as rainfall increases, and soil types become more favourable for tree growing and crop production, especially in the flood plain between the Shabelle and Jubba Rivers. In contrast, the north-east part of the country has very little vegetation, although the Golis Mountains region remains an important centre for biodiversity and species endemism.

Since the 1980s, Somalia has lost virtually all of the floodplain forest that once existed along the Shabelle and Jubba Rivers, as a result of land clearance for irrigated agriculture. More recently, deforestation in rangeland areas has accelerated due to the burgeoning production of charcoal for illegal export and a rapid increase in private enclosures for livestock grazing and semi-permanent family shelters. While recent evidence suggests that the former problem has partially abated, the latter is still gathering speed and constitutes a major management and enforcement challenge for governments and traditional rulers.

In 1980, total forest resources – including the juniper forests in the Golis Mountains, the riverine and floodplain forests along the Shabelle and Jubba Rivers, the bushland and the savannas – were estimated to cover 39 million hectares or approximately 62 per cent of the country’s total land area. However, by 2014 – the most recent comprehensive data point – this figure had reduced to only 6.4 million hectares or 10.3 per cent of the country’s total land area.

For much of the period from 1980 to the present, the rate of deforestation in the south-west of the country significantly outpaced other regions as a result of industrial-scale charcoal production.

An estimated 8.2 million trees were cut down

for charcoal in Somalia between 2011 and 2017, increasing land degradation, desertification, food insecurity and vulnerability to flooding and drought (15.3).

**Freshwater Ecosystems**

Relatively little is known about freshwater ecosystems in Somalia, but evidence from comparable regions suggests that factors such as frequent droughts, pollution caused by run-off from adjacent urban and agricultural areas, deforestation, and the practice of flood recession irrigation cause severe damage to riparian ecosystems, including disruption to the spawning migrations and spawning grounds of key fish species.

The mangrove swamps that form part of the East African Coastal Biodiversity Hotspot in southern Somalia are home to six species of mangroves, as well a wide range of endemic flora and fauna concentrated near Kismayo and close to the confluence of the Shabelle and Jubba Rivers at Jumba. For many years they have been harvested for timber exported to the Arabian Peninsula, and more recently have faced additional threats from river-borne pollutants and industrial and domestic waste.

**Terrestrial and Freshwater Biodiversity Covered by Protected Areas**

Somalia can be divided into five more or less distinct terrestrial ecological zones: i) Acacia and Commiphora bushland, ii) juniper forests in the Golis Mountains, iii) evergreen and semi-evergreen bushland, iv) semi-desert grassland and shrubland, and v) Northern Zanzibar-Inhambane coastal forest, predominantly in the Jubba Valley.

These ecological zones formed the basis for a network of national parks and protected areas designated under the failed Mogadishu Manifesto in 1991. On paper Somalia currently has 6 national parks – Daallo Mountain, Hargeisa National Park, Hobyo Grasslands and Shrublands, Jilib National Park, Kismayo National Park and Lag Badana National Park – as well as 11 wildlife protected areas. None of these are functional or have protection measures in place at the current time.

In 2017, a detailed biodiversity assessment was completed, with a view to reviving the Lag Badana National Park located in the East Africa Coastal Biodiversity Hotspot – straddling the border between Lamu County in Kenya and Lower Jubba. It remains to be seen whether this initiative will succeed, given prevailing security conditions in the region and limited funding availability for environmental programmes (15A).

Somalia has already failed to achieve a number of the protected area targets included in its 2015 National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP), and is not on track to achieve Target 11 of the Aichi Biodiversity Targets, which requires inter alia that at least 17 per cent of its terrestrial and inland water is effectively conserved and managed by the end of 2020.

**15.2 By 2020, promote the implementation of sustainable management of all types of forests, halt deforestation, restore degraded forests and substantially increase afforestation and reforestation globally**

Numerous initiatives aimed at promoting reforestation, reducing land degradation and restoring the productivity of depleted rangeland are currently being implemented with the support of international development partners in Somalia. Many of these initiatives have the potential to achieve excellent localized results, but are too small and fragmented to achieve sustainable long-term impact at scale.

**15.3 By 2030, combat desertification, restore de-**
graded land and soil, including land affected by desertification, drought and floods, and strive to achieve a land degradation-neutral world

Land degradation is a gradual negative environmental process that is accelerated by human activity and lowers the productive capacity of land. In Somalia, the principle causes of land degradation are as follows: overgrazing; unsustainable agriculture; the over-exploitation of forests and woodland for shelters, enclosures and charcoal production; resettlement; and urbanization.

Somalia is at particularly high risk of desertification as a result of periodic droughts and floods. Droughts degrade vegetation cover, leaving the soil exposed to variable and torrential rain that washes away remaining nutrients. In southern Somalia, this process is significantly exacerbated by lower elevations and river floods.

The first comprehensive study of land degradation in Somalia was undertaken in 2009, using time-series remote-sensing data for the period 1982–2008. The study concluded that 27.5 per cent of the total land area was degraded, with the largest shares attributable to reductions in tree cover and soil erosion due to water. A more recent study conducted in 2011 from extrapolated local data produced a slightly higher estimate of 31 per cent.

Land degradation in Somalia is not a homogeneous phenomenon. It occurs in different forms and varies in severity, depending on the environmental and biophysical condition of the land, its socio-economic usage, the dominant form of land-use management, and the de facto regulatory framework.

The most productive areas – the Shabelle and Jubba River basins – are experiencing the highest risk of degradation due to deforestation, overgrazing, poor cultivation methods and land fragmentation. While degraded lands resulting from tree felling are a common sight across the whole of Somalia, the north-east and north-west regions are impacted most due to the steep topography and the occurrence of frequent flash floods, which lead to the formation of deep gullies. In the north, land degradation is most advanced around the main roads leading to ports, water holes and wells, where the diminished carrying capacity of the rangeland no longer supports the feeding requirements of the animal populations.

Somalia took its first tentative step towards addressing land degradation, becoming a signatory to the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification in 2002. The convention addresses desertification and land degradation issues and is responsible for the Land Degradation Neutrality Target Setting Programme. The programme areas target three components of the Somali connection to land: 1) ecological; 2) economic; and 3) administrative.

15.4 By 2030, ensure the conservation of mountain ecosystems, including their biodiversity, in order to enhance their capacity to provide benefits that are essential for sustainable development

The main mountain ecosystem in Somalia is Misty Juniper (Juniperus excelsa) forest that stretches along the northern coast from the Shimbris Mountain east of Hargeisa to Ras Asir in Puntland – the tip of the Horn of Africa. No part of this extensive ecoregion is designated as a “protected area”, although it does contain the (effectively inoperable) Daallo Mountain National Park.

The Mountain Green Cover Index measures changes in the green vegetation of mountain areas to provide indications on their state of health and capacity to perform “healthy” ecosystem functions. Baseline data from 2017 indicates that Somalia’s mountainous areas have green coverage of approximately 65 per cent, compared to an average of approximately 90 per cent for sub-Saharan Africa as a whole.

15.5 Take urgent and significant action to reduce the degradation of natural habitats, halt the loss of biodiversity and, by 2020, protect and prevent the extinction of threatened species

Since the 1970s, Somalia has signed a number of important conventions and multilateral agree-

While signalling Somalia’s aspirations with respect to halting biodiversity loss and preventing the extinction of threatened species, the impact of these conventions on the ground has arguably been limited. Many of Somalia’s commitments under CITES and the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals are non-binding and have not been adequately monitored or enforced. Within the framework of the Convention on Biological Diversity, Somalia completed its first National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan in 2015. The NBSAP seeks to align national efforts to safeguard biodiversity with the global Strategic Plan for Biodiversity (2011–2020) embodied in the Aichi Biodiversity Targets (see also 15.9 below).

The 2019 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List identifies 218 threatened species in Somalia, including 20 mammals, 26 birds, 108 other vertebrates, 7 reptiles, 3 molluscus and 54 plants. Of the threatened total, 22 animal and plant species are listed as “critically endangered”, a further 58 as “endangered” and 138 as “vulnerable”. This represents a significant increase in the threat to biodiversity occurring since the completion of the NBSAP in 2015, including a 144 per cent increase in the number of “critically endangered” animal and plant species and a 61 per cent increase in the number of “endangered” animal and plant species.

15.6 Promote fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and promote appropriate access to such resources, as internationally agreed

Somalia does not currently have any legislative, administrative or policy frameworks for ensuring the equitable sharing of benefits arising from genetic resources.

15.7 Take urgent action to end poaching and trafficking of protected species of flora and fauna and address both demand and supply of illegal wildlife products

To date there been few systematic attempts to assess the nature and scope of the illegal wildlife trade in Somalia, despite persistent evidence that the trade has been active since the 1970s and is ongoing. The last comprehensive survey was undertaken in 2006 and revealed that, of the 32 vertebrates regularly harvested, 11 appeared in the 2004 IUCN Red List as threatened species. Many others were listed in the appendices of CITES. Recent media stories have highlighted the illicit trade in cheetah cubs that are transited through “Somaliland” to markets in the Arabian Peninsula.

In addition to the ongoing trade in indigenous species, there is also evidence to suggest that Al-Shabaab has been actively engaged in the trafficking of Kenyan ivory and rhino horn, mainly to markets in China, Thailand and the Middle East.

15.8 By 2020, introduce measures to prevent the introduction and significantly reduce the impact of invasive alien species on land and water ecosystems and control or eradicate the priority species

Invasive species represent a significant ecological threat in many areas of Somalia. In freshwater and island habitats, the introduction of invasive species and habitat destruction are the two main causes of species extinction.

The major invasive species in Somalia is mesquite (Prosopis juliflora), which was initially introduced into East Africa for the stabilization of dune systems and the provision of fuel wood after prolonged droughts in the 1970s. In many areas, the species has now hybridized to the extent that current varieties have lost most of their previous valuable attributes and aggressively outcompete native shrub and tree vegetation. Recent studies indicate that Prosopis juliflora typically encroaches on productive areas under agriculture or for-
estry. In the desert or semi-desert areas its infestation is comparatively insignificant.

The second major invasive species in Somalia is the Indian crow or house crow (Corvus splendens). In the absence of scientific data, it is generally assumed that the population of the Indian crow has followed an expansion trajectory similar to that in the neighbouring East African countries of Kenya and Tanzania. Large Indian crow populations are associated with a reduction in avian biodiversity – both as a result of direct predation and increased competition for food.

Somalia is yet to introduce measures to reduce the impact of invasive species on land and water ecosystems.

15.9 By 2020, integrate ecosystem and biodiversity values into national and local planning, development processes, poverty reduction strategies and accounts

The 2015 NBSAP set out a comprehensive strategic planning framework for the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity in Somalia. It consisted of a long-term vision and five main priorities supported by the 20 Aichi Biodiversity Targets. The strategy was conceived in two phases, with Phase I ending in 2020 and Phase II ending in 2030.

Progress against the NBSAP targets was last reported in the Sixth National Biodiversity Report of Somalia produced under the auspices of the Office of the Prime Minister in December 2019. The report found that Somalia was on track to exceed Aichi Biodiversity Target 2 (integrating biodiversity values into national and local development plans) and Target 17 (the implementation of a national biodiversity strategy and action plan), but was making insufficient or no progress at all on a further 15 targets. On three remaining targets relating to the loss of natural habitats (Target 5), invasive species (Target 9), and threatened species (Target 12), the report found that Somalia was “moving away from the target”.

This lack of progress is attributable to a number of systemic capacity constraints outlined in a national capacity self-assessment (towards the Rio Convention) undertaken in 2017. The main constraints include the following:

- A lack of enabling policy regimes, budgeting systems and regulatory frameworks for effective environmental planning and management;
- A lack of horizontal and vertical coordination among national, sub-national, civil society and international organizations with responsibility for the oversight and/or implementation of environment-related programmes;
- Weak institutional capacities across all levels with regard to the understanding of biodiversity conservation, biosafety and protected areas management;
- A limited store of scientific knowledge and research specific to Somalia, owing to the prolonged conflict and a lack of institutional memory;
- The lack of institutional frameworks for the collection and compilation of data, and the lack of effective monitoring mechanisms for assessing trends against SDG targets;
- Ineffective coordination and limited engagement of non-state and private sector actors;
- The absence of transboundary partnerships for environmental information sharing and cooperation.

Notwithstanding the stated objective of the recently published NDP-9 to mainstream sustainability principles into each of its four main pillars and to achieve an “equilibrium between economic and environmental development”, the document makes no reference to the NBSAP and few specific references to biodiversity outside of broader discussions on water security and soil fertility.

15.A Mobilize and significantly increase financial resources from all sources to conserve and sustainably use biodiversity and ecosystems
In recent years, ODA flows to Somalia have not included a specific marker for conservation and the sustainable use of biodiversity and ecosystems, meaning that overall expenditure in the sector is very difficult to gauge.

The main source of dedicated environmental funding to date has been the Global Environment Facility, which has disbursed a total of approximately US$ 34 million in direct financing, compared to a figure for total recorded ODA during the period 2016–2018 of approximately US$ 3.46 billion.

The possibility of concessional International Development Association financing following Somalia’s recently announced eligibility for the enhanced HIPC Initiative may improve the outlook for long-term environment-related funding. In addition, Somalia is eligible for financing from the Green Climate Fund. A readiness proposal aimed at strengthening capacity for climate change adaptation has recently been approved.

* See Macro-economic Overview section of CCA Country Context chapter, the CCA chapter titled “Financing Landscape and Opportunities”, and Sections 1A and 10B in this chapter for further information on ODA in Somalia.

15.B Mobilize significant resources from all sources and at all levels to finance sustainable forest management and provide adequate incentives to developing countries to advance such management, including for conservation and reforestation

See 15A above.

15.C Enhance global support for efforts to combat poaching and trafficking of protected species, including by increasing the capacity of local communities to pursue sustainable livelihood opportunities

To date attempts to combat poaching and the trafficking of protected species have been limited to a small number of ad hoc prosecutions in “Somaliland”. In general, Somalia does not have the capacity to effectively regulate and enforce against poaching. Somalia is included in a global development partner programme aimed at ending cross-border trafficking in ivory and rhino horn.
Goal 16: Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions

SDG 16 seeks to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels. Following the effective collapse of the state in 1991 and the subsequent long-running civil war, state institutions have virtually had to be rebuilt from the ground up. Even now, much of the territory of the country remains under the control of Al-Shabaab and outside of the reach of official government structures and institutions. Conflict and violence persist, affecting the most vulnerable in society.

However, while recognizing the significant challenges, Somalia has made commendable progress in building and strengthening nascent state structures that endeavour to, in an inclusive and participatory manner, provide peace, security and justice; reduce corruption; and improve human rights. This remains essential in the Somali context, as without peace, stability and strong institutions, progress towards all other SDGs will be constrained and significantly more difficult to achieve.
16.1 Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere

The prevailing conflict in Somalia remains the main cause of violence and death, with human rights violations continuing to affect marginalized sections of the population to a greater extent. The lack of preventive measures, limited access to justice and weak clan protection, which render the population more vulnerable, need be addressed. The extension of state control and authority through the capture and holding of territory, as well as the simultaneous enhancement of oversight and accountability of state institutions and security forces, will continue to be critical in the efforts to reduce violence and violations.

The Somalia Transition Plan, which vests more responsibility for security in the national security institutions as AMISOM draws down, requires vigorous support to further reduce violence and civilian casualties in the context of military operations. The ongoing efforts to support these operations in compliance with human rights standards, including the UN Human Rights Due Diligence Policy, where UN support is provided, is expected to address violations and violence.

* See the section on Human Rights and Gender in the CCA Country Context chapter for further information.

16.2 End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children

Since ratifying the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 2015, the FGS has made progress in developing the legislation and systems that will end abuse, exploitation and all forms of violence against and torture of children. However, much work remains to be done to see children protected in Somalia. The problems and threats are manifold, emerging through harmful traditional practices, as a consequence of war and conflict, and through the abusive and exploitative practices of opportunistic criminals. Essentially, Somalia’s protective environment for children remains weak.

Warring between clans and states undermines the ability of the state to make fundamental reforms necessary for the realization of children’s rights. All clans and warring parties use children as fighters in various regions of Somalia. Al-Shabaab is the greatest recruiter of children, but they are not the only one. There is also a clash of values and ideals that is preventing the passing of legislation through Parliament. Many traditional elders and some Islamic clerics oppose rights-based legislation such as the Child Rights Bill, FGM Bill, Sexual Offences Bill, Juvenile Justice Bill and others, arguing that they are inconsistent with Somali and Islamic customs. Real changes in the lives of children will begin when the bills are passed by parliamentarians, who are heavily influenced by religious clerics.

Many of the abuses are against girls. The structural disempowerment of women results in the mutilation of the genitals of 98 per cent of girls. Many communities practice genital mutilation in the belief that it will ensure a girl’s proper upbringing, future marriage or family honour. Some also associate it with religious beliefs, although no religious scriptures require it. FGM, child marriage and favouring of the boy child for education are foundational problems to the achievement of the rights of children and lead to much of the exploitation, abuse and torture that we see in Somalia. There remains much work to be done.

* For further information, see Target 8.7 on human trafficking; the section on Human Rights and Gender in the CCA Country Context chapter, which discusses child rights abuses; and the section on Children in the CCA chapter titled “Leave No One Behind”.

16.3 Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all

The development of formal justice institutions remains in its infancy and has been stalled, not only due to conflict with Al-Shabaab, but also because of elite power bargaining and infighting over the resources associated with foreign aid and development. Key questions related to a federated justice system remain open and require compromise among leaders. Nationwide agreement on a justice and corrections model, to be enshrined in the revised constitution, is a precondition for sustainable and structured progress in this area. Because of these security and political challeng-
es, the development of a formal legal system has been slow, and basic government presence is limited to a few of the country’s larger cities. Most people therefore still rely for protection on kinship networks within Somalia’s five major clan families. Overall confidence in government institutions remains a work in progress.

Traditional mechanisms remain the main vehicle for most of the population to address disputes. Access to justice in these mechanisms remains particularly difficult for women, IDPs and members of minority clans, as traditional justice mechanisms can often be discriminatory towards these groups. Inclusion of women in positions across justice mechanisms remains generally low due to discrimination, harassment, cultural perceptions around the roles or women, and a lack of educational opportunities. Additionally, traditional mechanisms tend to focus on clan relationships, often overlooking the protection of individual rights.

Over the past year, increased access to justice was facilitated in 45 districts of Somalia and traditional justice mechanisms established to provide justice-making alternatives in view of the limited formal justice institutions, especially outside of the main urban areas. Major improvements have been made on the progressive expansion of police services through implementing the New Policing Model and training and equipping police services, in particular in the FMS.

Mobile courts function throughout 45 districts in Somalia, and 16 alternative dispute resolution centres function for women and men to address civil disputes. In 2019, these centres resolved a total of 4,164 (1,522 female, 2,642 male) cases. The Legal Aid Road Map was developed, and the legal aid bill and policy were finalized and will be submitted to cabinet for approval.

16.4 By 2030, significantly reduce illicit financial and arms flows, strengthen the recovery and return of stolen assets and combat all forms of organized crime

Somalia is yet to accede to the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its supplementary protocols: the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children; the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air; and the Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition. Accession to these instruments will subsequently require the FGS to adopt legislation effectively incorporating the provisions of the Convention and its respective protocols. Somalia ranks fourth in the African Organized Crime Index, with one of the highest criminality scores on the continent.221

Anti-money laundering and countering the financing of terrorism (AML/CFT) is one of the highest public policy priorities of the FGS. The Government and the international community consider AML/CFT reforms critical to financial inclusion (including safe financial intermediation and remittance corridors), effective payments, and security, including the ability to implement targeted financial sanctions. As such, improving the Government’s ability in this area is one of the most important enablers for achieving objectives across the sustainable development agenda – from macroeconomic growth to poverty reduction and freedom from terror. It is especially important for reliably mobilizing domestic resources. A robust anti-money laundering regime is also necessary to combat predicate offences for money laundering, including corruption.

Somalia has no correspondent banking relationships and one of the highest rates of remittances in the world. Extending and innovating payment modalities will not make up for the need for well-supervised bank and non-bank financial sectors. Additionally, the country must strengthen its ability to implement targeted financial sanctions and to disrupt cash-based money laundering and terrorist financing. Reforms also include strengthened inter-agency processes to investigate and prosecute money laundering, the financing of terrorism and 21 categories of designated offences.

221 https://ocindex.net/country/somalia.
The Minister of Finance of Somalia and the Governor of the Central Bank of Somalia issued a Financial Sector Reform Road Map and described its 2020 to 2023 macro-financial reform strategy – highlighting improving financial stability and intermediation through robust AML/CFT reforms. Among these will be clarifying the law and issuing new guidance to financial institutions, increasing the capacity of the Financial Reporting Centre, and enacting the Targeted Financial Sanctions Law by the end of March 2021. The accelerated action plan to improve AML/CFT compliance includes all intermediation – banks, money transfer businesses, mobile network operators, and designated non-financial businesses and professions. These financial sector reforms are a critical part of NDP-9’s support for sustainable development and improving the environment for remittance flows. The introduction of a digital identification system would enable a “know your customer” and overall customer due diligence dimension in Somalia’s AML/CFT framework, and would add a key positive element in the overall compliance regime necessary to support potential correspondent banking relationships.

The action the Government has already taken to gain membership in the Middle East and North Africa Financial Action Task Force has made a start at laying the inter-agency foundations for a robust AML/CFT framework. The Government is due to undergo its first mutual evaluation in 2024, and preparing for that (demonstrating implementation against the recommendations), if properly sequenced, could successfully form the structure of its reforms going forward.

Somalia and the broader region of the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden see a variety of criminal activities: attacks on commercial ships, active armed and extremist groups in the region, maritime trafficking of illicit goods, weapon smuggling, the illicit movement of persons, and small-scale drug smuggling. The emergence of piracy as a crime of universal jurisdiction saw the UN Security Council pass Resolution 1816 in 2008 authorizing foreign actors to intervene in an effort to secure the waters off the coast of Somalia. Responses on land, however, were arguably negligible, reflecting a dire need for support to institutions to adequately deal with criminal acts. A resurgence of piracy attacks was to be seen in later years.

Al-Shabaab continues to pose a significant threat to Somalia and its neighbouring countries, including by demonstrating stronger links with transnational organized crime groups involved in illicit trafficking through the Gulf region and globally. These growing linkages enable the group to continue to fuel their operations by applying heavy taxes on the import and export of goods that transit through the territory they control. As reported by the Panel of Experts on Somalia in 2019, Al-Shabaab is increasingly expanding its reach, infiltrating key infrastructure on which Somalia’s economic prosperity depends, including the major ports in the country. Along with its territory and land-based checkpoints, Al-Shabaab is reportedly further projecting its influence on the maritime space, including the acquisition of maritime capability near Merca, in response to onshore disruptions.

Among the various goods from which Al-Shabaab is known to generate revenue, charcoal has been arguably the most extensively studied, although the group’s profits are certainly not limited to that commodity. Indeed, Al-Shabaab profits from taxes imposed on products from imported sugar and cars to exported lemons, among many others.

To combat al-Shabaab’s ability to earn income from exporting charcoal, and thereby presumably to reduce the financing of terrorist attacks in East Africa, the United Nations Security Council introduced Resolution 2036 in 2012, which imposed a ban on the direct and indirect importing of Somali charcoal, whether or not the charcoal originated in that country. Eight years later, the available data suggest that the ban has been relatively effective at disrupting the export of charcoal from the country, owing partly to increased and improved international interdiction and enforcement. To put this into perspective, the UN Panel of Experts on Somalia reported in 2013 that Somalia was earning approximately US$ 360 million per year from the
charcoal trade; however, revenues have reportedly diminished to US$ 150 million in 2018. Of this amount, today Al-Shabaab is receiving less than US$ 8 million per year, down from US$ 35 million in 2011, marking a clear reduction of Al-Shabaab’s charcoal-derived income.

To complement existing international efforts, the FGS has drafted the National Charcoal Policy of Somalia, the objective of which is to “regulate charcoal production, transportation, trade for domestic consumption and totally ban charcoal export from Somalia”. As the UN Security Council resolutions do not address the taxation of charcoal for domestic purposes, from which Al-Shabaab continues to generate income, the proposed Policy has the potential to further reduce illicit revenues, following its eventual approval by Parliament and subsequent implementation.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) support has equipped the maritime police and coastguard units in Mogadishu, Bosaso and Berbera to conduct several interdictions of illegal goods, including weapons and people, while at the same time performing rescue operations that save the lives of those endangered by crossing from/to the Somali coastline and Yemen. Of relevance also is the counter-terrorism response that the Puntland Maritime Police Force has launched against ISIL from Bosaso to the Galgala Mountains to recover territory seized by the criminal organization. Also relevant is regional operational dialogue, particularly between Yemen and Somalia, on arms and people flows. Additionally, support was delivered to member states under UN Security Council Resolution 2385/17 and 2444/18, leading to the 2019 resolution on the sanctions regime that expands the UNODC Global Maritime Crime Programme mandate to look more broadly at all maritime flows that fund terrorism and transnational organized crime in Somalia.

Problems of corruption are intertwined with chronic state fragility, challenged central authority, impunity, fragile governance and political violence, all of which are mutually reinforcing. These factors also conspire to provide conditions for Al-Shabaab to continue to flourish by filling in the gaps created or unaddressed by the Somali state. While state weakness has generally been treated as a problem of capacity, the reality is that the enduring challenges facing Somalia are deeply political and not purely technical. Progress on state-building will continue to be undermined unless and until successful strategies are devised to address these challenges, particularly the persistence of political and business monopolies and cartels, as well as corruption, which is widespread and endemic.

According to Transparency International, corruption is both a major cause and a major consequence of endemic political instability in Somalia, which has been ranked at the bottom of Transparency International’s Corruption Perceptions Index every year since 2006 (Somalia again ranked last out of 180 countries in the 2019 Corruption Perceptions Index). In addition, Somalia scored last place out of 200 countries measured by TRACE International for its Bribery Risk Matrix in 2019, with an overall risk score of 94 out of 100.

![Corruption Perceptions Index in Somalia](image)

Scores are on a scale of 0-100, where 0 means that a country is perceived as highly corrupt.

* For further information, see Target 8.7 on human trafficking.

**16.5 Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms**


223 [https://www.traceinternational.org/trace-matrix#200](https://www.traceinternational.org/trace-matrix#200).
Corruption occurs at all levels in both the public and private sectors, and is a visible and expected form of behaviour. It affects virtually every aspect of Somali society: from public officials’ misuse of public goods for private gain and the solicitation of bribes in exchange for basic services to the clan-based patronage networks used to obtain employment and political appointments. Businesses have likewise adjusted to the climate of lawlessness – for instance, by avoiding taxes and selling expired food and drugs.224

Public procurement holds high corruption risks for business. The majority of public tenders are treated as confidential.225 “Secret contracting”, where officials close public procurement deals in complete absence of transparency and oversight, is a common practice. Reportedly, some regional entities have closed contracts with oil companies independently from the FGS.

However, over the past years, Somalia has taken steps to try to address corruption in the country. On 9 December 2018, the FGS, led by the Ministry of Justice, commemorated International Anti-Corruption Day in Mogadishu with senior representatives from the UN, World Bank and the international donor community in attendance. The Minister of Justice and Judiciary Affairs announced a range of measures that the FGS had adopted to address corruption, as well as the imminent launch of Somalia’s first National Anti-Corruption Strategy and the establishment of the Ant-Corruption Commission. The Minister also confirmed the intention of the FGS to ratify and sign the United Nations Convention Against Corruption. However, to date Somalia remains one of ten countries in the world, and one of two on the African continent, to not have signed or ratified the Convention.

On 20 June 2019, the FGS Parliament passed the long-awaited Anti-Corruption Commission Bill, which was subsequently signed into law by President Farmajo on 21 September 2019, a key benchmark in the FGS’s road map for inclusive politics.

In 2019, the Puntland Parliament developed a Fraud Risk Management Policy that will result in, among other things, designing fraud and corruption response plans, establishing investigation protocols and remediation policies, and formulating uniform disciplinary processes.

16.6 Develop effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels

FGS revenue is only some 5 per cent of GDP, which is barely enough to cater for salaries and operational expenditure, with very limited fiscal space for investment. While many ministries have come to terms with their mandate, the internal harmonization and coordination arrangements at both horizontal and vertical levels are still wanting, which often leads to misunderstanding and contestation, further blocking progress.

Somalia’s Financial Governance Committee (FGC) is an innovative forum aimed at mitigating governance challenges. The FGC was established by mutual agreement between the Federal Government of Somalia and the international community to provide a high-level forum for dialogue and independent advice on strategic financial governance issues. Its mandate is renewed annually by mutual consent. The FGC meets monthly and is chaired by the Minister of Finance. The FGC agenda covers: fiscal federalism, natural resource revenue management, domestic revenue mobilization, public procurement and concessions, expenditure management (including the security sector), financial sector development and asset recovery, and increasing access to external financing. It also reviews and advises on all government contracts and concessions above US$ 5 million in value.

The FGC has helped to strengthen accountability in the area of security personnel payments and has addressed constitutional arrangements for revenue sharing, legal provisions on borrowing, fiscal terms of the model petroleum production sharing agreement, and natural resource revenue management.

224 Marqaati 2017a; Legacy Centre for Peace and Transparency 2016.
However, the FGC model requires more technical and sustained expert support from the international community. It is crucial to deploy top-level delegates and advisers for such strategic engagements, over a sustained period. The FGC has developed and increased accountability with a collective responsibility and has increased transparency on public contracting.

Public financial management and audit functions have improved over the past years, although the Audit Law is still awaiting Parliament’s approval. While these are overall positive developments, awareness and the more practical arrangements concerning transparency and accountability still require significant further development.

**16.7 Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels**

While representation of different groups in society in the political and executive arena remains generally below targets and expectations, the overall trend is positive. Representation in the political arena has improved, and the main executive processes on such things as policies are increasingly implemented in an inclusive manner. It is encouraging that not only is representation improving, but also the underlying processes relating to differential status and the impact of policies on various groups in society are increasingly being analysed and taken into consideration. The new NDP-9, for instance, contains a granular poverty analysis and highlights structural processes in society that underlie inequality – for instance, stigma, cultural norms, differentiated vulnerability to violence or climate change, etc. In similar terms, interest groups are increasingly organizing themselves and starting to analyse their specific challenges and opportunities, formulating recommendations, and exerting pressure and lobbying towards improvements.

Furthermore, the Government machinery has over the years developed a relatively participatory approach to policy and strategy development. For instance, in the context of developing the NDP-9, more than 50 consultations were organized with all layers of society throughout the country. Improvements can still be made in reporting back to the citizens progress made on the implementation of the plans. However, numerous task forces, conferences and working groups, where representatives of civil society, Government, the private sector and the international community convene to discuss specific sectors or challenges in Somalia, are operational and aim to reach commonly agreed upon priorities and align development actions. Government policy and strategy development in most cases has become a rather collaborative effort among various stakeholders.

For instance, IOM, UN-Habitat and UNDP are supporting the FMSs and FGS in participatory and inclusive Community Action Planning (CAP) processes following the principle: community led, government driven. In those districts where formal district councils have not yet been established, the CAPs serve as preliminary District Development Plans. In conjunction with urban profiles, the prioritized community needs and identified priority projects are mapped and scrutinized through district authorities and state ministries; in Hirshabelle, this is done through an Inter-Ministerial Council to ensure that the CAP is in line with national and state priorities, and to promote it in order to unlock additional resources for the implementation of projects. In Baidoa and Kismayo, consolidated CAPs have been developed in 2019.

* See Target 5.5 for further information on women’s political participation.

**16.8 Broaden and strengthen the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance**

The FGS, in its Inclusive Politics Road Map (2017–2020), sets “strengthening Somalia’s role in IGAD, the AU, the League of Arab States, the Organization Islamic Cooperation, the UN and the World Economic Institutions, such as the World Bank, IMF and the AfDB” as one of key benchmarks to be achieved by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation. After the decades of conflict, Somalia is determined to strengthen its bilateral and multilateral relations in order to play its role in promoting national, regional and
international peace and security and in enhancing commercial and economic activity for sustainable development.

Somalia has made incremental progress in this regard. In October 2018, Somalia was elected as one of the 18 states on the UN Human Rights Council and will serve a three-year term beginning on 1 January 2019. Further, Somalia applied to join the WTO in December 2015, and the Working Party on the Accession of Somalia was established in December 2016. Accession to the WTO provides the opportunity for Somalia to tackle poverty through trade. With its increasing role in enhancing regional peace and security in the Horn of Africa, Somalia has shown a strong interest in taking up one of senior positions in IGAD.

Towards 2030, Somalia will continue its effort to become more a robust player in both regional and international bodies.

* See Target 16.8 for further information on progress on Somalia’s accession to the WTO.

16.9 By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration

A well-developed and functioning civil registration system ensures the registration of all vital events, including births, marriages and deaths, and issues relevant certificates as proof of such registration. Civil registration promotes efficient government planning, effective use of resources and aid, and more accurate monitoring of progress towards achieving the SDGs.

Only 3 per cent of children aged between 2 and 4 in households surveyed in 2019 for the SHDS had their births registered. Only 4 per cent of children under 2 years were registered, with just 1 per cent having a birth certificate. Such low levels of registration are largely due to the lack of a civil registration and vital statistics system in the county. Somalia does not yet have the legislation for such a system in place. There remains insufficient prioritization of this work at the national level. There are efforts to establish functional birth notification practices in Puntland, but outside of this FMS, children will not routinely be provided with a free birth certificate.

In 2020, there are efforts afoot to establish a national working group, and drafting has begun to create civil registration and vital statistics legislation that will provide a platform for the development of a functioning birth registration system in the years to come.

16.10 Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements

The right to access information still requires solid legal and regulatory backing. Article 32 of the Somalia Constitution provides for the right of access to information. The Council of Ministers additionally approved the Draft Media Law of Somalia in July 2017. The draft has since then received numerous criticisms from non-governmental organizations for being quite control oriented. Even so, there has been no progress on the draft bill since 2017.

Information availability and accessibility remains rather elusive – for instance, up-to-date government websites and structured communication on decision making is as yet unstructured. To some extent, this fuels uncertainty on government positions and direction, which negatively impacts citizens’ trust in the government machinery. Insufficient information availability prevents public analysis of the quality of processes, the underlying motives for decision making, and the intentions for the future of the country. Coupled with rumours (that at times prove to be correct), this leads to a situation where analytics are partial and where misinformation and “fake news” can thrive.

Somalia has made progress in ensuring the right to freedom of expression, but needs to do more to end the challenges that remain – including killings, beatings, harassment, arbitrary arrests, illegal detention, lack of due process or fair trial, and the closure of media outlets. While the law provides for freedom of speech, including of the press, this is often not upheld or respected. Freedom of ex-

pression and press freedom are not referenced in the NDP-9.

In 2019, 43 journalists were arrested – 19 in “Somaliland”, 10 in Hirshabelle, 6 in Banadir, 5 in Puntland and 3 in Jubaland. Eight media outlets were closed or suspended in 2019, including two TV stations in “Somaliland”, two radio stations in Hirshabelle, one newspaper and one news website in “Somaliland”, and two media organizations in Mogadishu.

In 2019, Somalia ranked 164 out of 180 countries in the Reporters Without Borders World Press Freedom Index.

Continued violations of freedom of expression, including the closure of media outlets, serve to stifle the exercise of freedoms, which is a prerequisite for sustainable political systems, security and development, as information flow is key for the awareness and engagement of all actors in these crucial processes.

16.A Strengthen relevant national institutions, including through international cooperation, for building capacity at all levels, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime

While significant advances have been made in the battle against Al-Shabaab, including the return of state control to major towns across Somalia, the presence of Al-Shabaab continues to fuel conflict and sustain a persistent state of insecurity in Somalia. Al-Shabaab has a record of exploiting local conflicts in Somalia to increase their force and support at the local level, often by forging allegiances in clan-based conflicts that are largely motivated by competition for resources and political power. Additionally, Al-Shabaab promotes violent extremism narratives and uses the presence of foreign forces and the narrative of a corrupt government – together with economic incentives, pressures from a variety of social networks, intimidation and coercion – to facilitate recruitment.

To counter this threat, the last two Presidents of Somalia declared amnesty for low-risk Al-Shabaab fighters who voluntarily defect from Al-Shabaab. To operationalize this presidential directive, the FGS developed the National Programme for the Treatment and Handling of Disengaged Combatants (National Programme) in 2013. The National Programme is managed by the Defector Rehabilitation Programme under the Ministry of Internal Security and aims to establish a comprehensive process that allows for low-risk disengaged combatants to reintegrate into communities and become productive citizens. The National Programme provides a pathway and incentive for combatants to defect through the provision of comprehensive wraparound services supporting the effective rehabilitation and social and economic reintegration of disengaged combatants. The National Programme strives to shift the tide of the Al-Shabaab insurgency by raising awareness about the traumatic and dangerous experiences of Al-Shabaab combatants and supporting a level of disengagement that outmatches the recruitment capability of Al-Shabaab.

The National Programme seeks to “make significant inroads towards a society where citizens can live in security, including a larger proportion of territory under firm government control, a reduction of terrorist attacks and reconciliation of communities”. In parallel with the National Programme, President Mohamed Abdullahi Mohamed “Farmaajo” has given amnesty to those who renounce violence and join fellow Somalis in building a prosperous Somalia.

Defectors from Al-Shabaab have been promised...
to be protected and given a fair judicial process. The amnesty declared by the President offers a critical turning point for lower-level combatants to disengage from Al-Shabaab. IOM’s research shows that the Presidential amnesty has been a key driver of defection.

The National Programme provides further impetus for combatants, with assurance of safety, the possibility of reintegration into the community, and skills and opportunities for a future life. This combination of factors supports the expectation that the disengagement of combatants could increase significantly in the near- to mid-term, and could ultimately help to turn the tide of the Al-Shabaab insurgency by amplifying narratives of the traumatic, dangerous and disillusioned experiences of Al-Shabaab combatants.

Moreover, given the transition from AMISOM to the Somali Security Forces, it is crucial to enhance the explosive hazard mitigation capability at FGS and FMS levels. Efforts are ongoing to support the Somali Explosive Management Authority, which is housed under the auspices of the Ministry of Internal Security, to deliver explosive hazard management interventions to protect IDPs, returnees and communities living near areas of high risk. Additionally, engagement is ongoing with the Somali Police Force to train, mentor and advise police explosive ordnance disposal and improvised explosive device disposal teams, along with providing them with the necessary equipment to allow them to better respond to the threat of explosive hazards. The UN also continues to engage with the FGS on weapons and ammunition management initiatives.

16.B Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development

Freedom from discrimination and unequal treatment is enshrined in virtually all legal instruments, and is generally developed in line with Sharia law. However, socio-cultural and customary features, such as clan association, the position of women in society, the status of elders, and stigma related to certain personal characteristics, as anywhere else in the world introduces certain levels of differentiation and at times outright discrimination.

There is currently insufficient data on the proportion of the population that reports having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the previous 12 months on the basis of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law. However, the FGS has recently initiated important national legal and policy frameworks that are aimed at enhancing the protections and opportunities for some of the most vulnerable and marginalized groups in Somalia, allowing increased participation in efforts towards sustainable development.

In December 2018, President Farmajo signed the Establishment of a National Disability Agency Bill into law. The Agency is being established to provide protection and comprehensive care for all persons with disabilities in Somalia. Additionally, the Somali Explosive Management Agency under the auspices of the Ministry of Internal Security, along with the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development, is finalizing a Victim Assistance and Disability National Plan of Action that will inform Somali Government entities and other mine action stakeholders on how best to serve survivors of explosive hazard–related accidents and persons with disabilities. These efforts are in line with the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, which was ratified by Somalia in 2019.

Following the ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 2015, Somalia is developing a National Child Rights Bill, which also has a universal birth registration provision.


More recently, in November 2019, the FGS Council of Ministers adopted the Interim Protocol on

Land Distribution for Housing to Eligible Refugee-Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons, to address the gaps in the housing, land and property rights of IDPs and constant insecurity of tenure. The Council of Ministers also adopted National Eviction Guidelines to prevent the forced evictions faced by IDPs.

As noted under Target 15.1, Somalia has neither signed nor ratified CEDAW. And as noted under Target 16.2, many traditional elders and some Islamic clerics oppose rights-based legislation on the basis that it is inconsistent with Somali and Islamic customs.

While Article 11(2) of the Constitution states that “the State must not discriminate against any person on the basis of age, race, colour, tribe, ethnicity, culture, dialect, gender, birth, disability, religion, political opinion, occupation, or wealth”, there is no mention of sexual orientation or gender identity. Homosexuality is illegal in Somalia. Article 409 of the 1964 Penal Code states that homosexuality (same-sex intercourse) is punishable “by imprisonment from three months to three years and an act of lust other than sexual intercourse is punishable by imprisonment from two months to two years”.

Tackling these features is a long-term process in which change is significantly dependent on the national organizational development of interest groups that have the capacity to analyse, understand and implement change action. Although these organizations are emerging, it is expected that changing deep-rooted behaviour, attitudes and beliefs requires long-term engagement.
A successful sustainable development agenda requires partnerships between governments, the private sector and civil society. These inclusive partnerships – built on principles and values, a shared vision, and shared goals that place people and the planet at the centre – are needed at the global, regional, national and local level.

Somalia has been steadily rebuilding its institutions, especially in key functions related to revenue mobilization, planning, monitoring and evaluation, partnership building, and aid coordination management. As in many other conflict-affected countries, the state-building process is a long-term effort that requires continued support and national leadership, with inclusivity at its heart.

As such, partnerships should not be defined in a narrow sense as mere formal agreements among institutions, be they national or international, but should be interpreted as inclusive compacts that enable wide social participation, reaching out to those left behind.
17.1 Strengthen domestic resource mobilization, including through international support to developing countries, to improve domestic capacity for tax and other revenue collection

In terms of progress against indicators, the total government revenue as a proportion of GDP increased from 3.9 per cent in 2018 to 4 per cent in 2019. The proportion of national budget funded by domestic taxes decreased from 42.8 per cent in 2018 to 39.2 per cent in 2019, as a result of a more than 10 per cent increase in the overall revised 2019 budget.228

Remittances (directed in large part to women) are estimated at US$ 1.3 billion per year – three times more than the total foreign direct investment – and are an important vehicle for diaspora groups to maintain engagement with the country.

Regarding the generation of domestic revenues and increased export and trade indicators, the NDP-9 aims at creating a favourable environment to achieve a greater diversification of the economy and encourages public–private dialogue and innovation. To this effect, important legislation, such as the Revenue Management and Companies Acts, the Anticorruption Bill and the Public Financial Management Bill, was passed.

The country is in the final approval stages of a National Investment Promotion Strategy (NIPS), which provides a framework to accelerate both foreign and domestic investment in sectors that have the potential to impact sustainable growth, revenues, jobs and poverty reduction.229 The Resilience and Recovery Framework meanwhile places a strong emphasis on investments to recover productive assets and prevent crises and fragility.

17.2 Developed countries to implement fully their official development assistance commitments 230

In recent years the country has progressed in setting up mechanisms to enhance policy coherence on sustainable development, country-owned frameworks and planning tools for development, in support of the achievement of the SDGs and for the promotion of multi-stakeholder aid effectiveness. Somalia established in 2014 an aid architecture that brings together State and non-State actors, including donors and UN agencies, as well as FMSs and civil society. The Somalia Development and Reconstruction Facility has been focusing, at both the technical and political level, on development and reconstruction priorities. In this framework, a set of pooled funding mechanisms were set up as a means to implement the internationally agreed New Deal principles of engagement for international cooperation in fragile states and situations. These structures, which have had minor adjustments over time to adapt to new national planning frameworks, are still operational.

The Government developed and implemented the NDP-8, the first development plan in more than three decades, and has recently launched the NDP-9 to be implemented in the period 2020–2024.

More recently, in January 2020, the Parliament approved the bill instating the Somalia National Bureau of Statistics, and various executive branches in the FGS and the Office of the Prime Minister are coordinating important processes related to meeting macroeconomic, trade technology and capacity targets.

* See the Macro-economic Overview section of CCA Country Context chapter, the CCA chapter titled Financing Landscape and Opportunities, and Sections 10B and 15A in this chapter for further information on ODA in Somalia.

17.3 Mobilize additional financial resources for developing countries from multiple sources

Despite the increase in the aid flows and a greater focus on strategic public and private investment, diversifying the financing for development and reconstruction and improving the effectiveness of aid and remittance delivery is a priority for the country. The economy, historically informal and...
focused on primary productive sectors, is slowly diversifying, and new markets are being created in fields such as telecommunications, money transfer or infrastructure. The rapid growth of the urban population represents an opportunity for civil society as well as public and private actors to work together in a way that quickly and effectively responds to the increased demand for quality social services.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, the opportunities for a domestic contribution to the attainment of SDG priorities will increase significantly if debt relief for the country is confirmed. Access to international credit will enable the Government to finance public service delivery and further stabilize the environment for investment, technology and private sector development which can benefit all, especially those most left behind. In addition, Somalia will be able to benefit from the resources pledged during the 2019 Global Refugee Forum by the World Bank, especially the IDA-19 window for refugees and host communities.

* See the Macro-economic Overview section of CCA Country Context chapter, the CCA chapter titled Financing Landscape and Opportunities, and Sections 10B and 15A in this chapter for further information on ODA in Somalia.

17.4 Assist developing countries in attaining long-term debt sustainability through coordinated policies aimed at fostering debt financing, debt relief and debt restructuring, as appropriate, and address the external debt of highly indebted poor countries to reduce debt distress

On 25 March 2020, the Executive Boards of the IMF and World Bank jointly decided that Somalia has taken the necessary steps to reach the HIPC Decision Point, despite continuing economic, political and security challenges. The Decision Point stage in the HIPC Initiative process is a major step forward for Somalia’s economic development, allowing the country to normalize its relations with international financial institutions and gain access to new financial resources to help deliver long-term inclusive growth and poverty reduction.

If Somali authorities remain committed to implementing economic reforms with the same determination, the country is expected to reach the HIPC Completion Point within three years. Somalia has made progress in clearing arrears with the international financial institutions, as well as securing commitments from other creditors to provide debt relief in the context of the HIPC Initiative.

17.5 Adopt and implement investment promotion regimes for least developed countries

The Somalia Investment Promotion Agency (SOMINVEST) is in the final stages of approving a National Investment Promotion Strategy, which provides a framework to accelerate both foreign and domestic investment in sectors that have the potential to impact sustainable growth, revenues, jobs and poverty reduction. SOMINVEST has also developed an Investor Protection Policy/Framework, a five-year strategic plan, and a Resource Mapping and Investor Guide. The National Investment Promotion Strategy will prioritize attracting investment in various sectors, including livestock, farming, fisheries, energy, banking and finance. Following the HIPC Decision Point, the IDA private sector window might increase engagement to bring capitalization and as a signal to foreign investors. As debt relief progresses, ongoing actions continue to improve Somalia’s position in the ease of doing business index. The Resilience and Recovery Framework (November 2018) also puts a strong emphasis on investments to recover productive assets and prevent crises and fragility.

Technology

17.6 Enhance North-South, South-South and triangular regional and international cooperation on and access to science, technology and innovation and enhance knowledge sharing

The interest in Somalia in innovative technology is significant, for instance in the mobile banking sector. However, the infrastructure to actually deploy digital technology still remains unsatisfactory. Lo-
cal skills and competencies are insufficient, while product development is challenging. Business management skills required for the modern economy are wanting, and business development services remain mostly absent. Significant support in further promoting social impact investment, incubation and other business development services is required to appropriately prepare Somalia for the fourth industrial revolution and integrate Somalia into the global (digital) economy.

17.7 Promote the development, transfer, dissemination and diffusion of environmentally sound technologies to developing countries on favourable terms

As noted above, there is interest in innovative technology for purposes such as mobile banking, but the infrastructure and capacity are still inadequate. Support for the development of related businesses and skills is required.

Encouraging steps in the areas of technology and innovation include the development of an ICT Policy in 2019 and increased levels of funding, expertise and resources dedicated to environmental technology (Somalia’s report to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change).

17.8 Fully operationalize the technology bank and science, technology and innovation capacity-building mechanism for least developed countries by 2017 and enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology

Achieving sustainable development in the world’s 47 LDCs will pose significant challenges without rapidly building up capacities in science, technology and innovation and accessing appropriate technologies.

To address this challenge, the UN established in 2016 a new institution to improve the LDCs’ scientific research and innovation base, promote networking among research institutions, and help the LDCs access and utilize critical and appropriate technologies. While Somalia is a least developed country, it has not benefitted from the United Nations Technology Bank to date.

* See Target 9C for information on mobile and Internet penetration and usage in Somalia.

Capacity building

17.9 Enhance international support for implementing effective and targeted capacity-building in developing countries to support national plans to implement all the Sustainable Development Goals, including through North-South, South-South and triangular cooperation

The UN–managed Capacity Injection Reporting Tool (CIRT) had nearly 500 entries of financial support for professional staff embedded within government or top ups to civil servants as of June 2020. It includes reporting by the African Development Bank, the EU, Germany, IOM, Norway, UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF, and UNOPS. It includes support provided to the Federal Government, all Federal Member States, Benadir Regional Administration and “Somaliland.” This information is not representative of the overall contributions, and there is ongoing advocacy for partners to provide more comprehensive, updated data. However, apart from providing salary support to staff and non-staff government workers, the systemic improvement in government operations still requires attention. While the public financial management system has improved significantly over the past few years, arrangements around civil service management, performance management, oversight, role and responsibility distribution, policy harmonization, and legal and regulatory development are still insufficient. Confusion about roles of the FGS and the FMSs and conflict between individual ministries on leadership in specific subject matters continue to hamper development.

Trade

17.10 Promote a universal, rules-based, open, non-discriminatory and equitable multilateral trading system under the World Trade Organiza-
Somalia has not yet secured membership of the World Trade Organization. As an initial step in its application for accession, Somalia’s Working Party was established on 7 December 2016. Since the establishment of Somalia’s Working Party, Somalia has made significant progress through the efforts of its Chief Negotiator and the Accessions Division of the WTO Secretariat. It has:

1. Established an international working group and negotiating team comprising leading international practitioners, trade experts and academics;

2. Prepared an accession road map and taken steps to build a local coordinating team from among different Somali ministries and governmental agencies;

3. Begun drafting the Memorandum on the Foreign Trade Regime for circulation in preparation for the first Working Party meeting;

4. Taken steps to identify and consult regarding the chairperson of the Working Party;

5. Formally re-established ties with the World Intellectual Property Organization in order to obtain its assistance in connection with matters related to intellectual property;

6. Held bilateral meetings with representatives of multiple WTO members and a number of different national and international organizations regarding potential technical assistance and capacity-building support; and

7. Begun identifying existing gaps in Somali legislation with a view to drafting the Legislative Action Plan as part of Somalia’s Accession Package.

Going forward, Somalia will continue work on the Memorandum on the Foreign Trade Regime and its preparations for the first accession Working Party meeting. At the same time, it will focus on building organizational structures to undertake the institutional and structural reforms that are crucial for WTO accession to succeed. This is a mammoth undertaking and will require strong political commitment to reform, as well as a supportive domestic environment.\(^{233}\)

**17.11 Significantly increase the exports of developing countries, in particular with a view to doubling the least developed countries’ share of global exports by 2020**

In 2018, Somalia exported US$ 1.2 billion in goods and services, representing approximately 0.0049 per cent of global exports in that year, ranking it 170\(^{th}\) in the world.\(^{234}\) Exports in 2018 represented 26 per cent of GDP, up from 22 per cent in 2017.\(^{235}\)

In 2017, Somalia’s main export partners included Oman (31.7 per cent), Saudi Arabia (18.7 per cent), United Arab Emirates (16.3 per cent), Nigeria (5.1 per cent), Yemen (4.8 per cent) and Pakistan (4 per cent).\(^{236}\)

The protracted civil war destroyed Somalia’s productive sectors and its capacity to engage in international trade. Somalia exports totalled US$ 675 million in goods in 2018,\(^{237}\) of which US$ 409 million was livestock, while imports amounted...
ed to almost US$ 3.5 billion – mainly food, fuel, construction materials and manufactured goods. Livestock and crops remain the main sources of economic activity, employment and exports in Somalia.

According to the World Bank, agriculture represents 93 per cent of total exports, mostly linked to robust livestock exports in the recent pre-drought years. Sesame is now the largest export among crops, followed by dried lemon, in the wake of the total collapse of banana exports. Despite Somalia’s rich fish stocks, coastal fishing has remained small scale and artisanal, while foreign commercial vessels have enjoyed both legal and illegal harvesting offshore. Somalia is recovering from the downturn in livestock exports in 2016 and 2017 due to drought and the December 2016 Saudi ban on imports of Somali livestock, but doubling the country’s share of global exports by 2020 has not been possible.\(^{238}\)

Despite Somalia not yet being a member of the WTO, it benefits from a number of countries and organizations providing preferential rules of origin applicable to imports from least developed countries. According to UNCTAD, these organizations and countries include the Eurasian Customs Union, Iceland, New Zealand, China, Morocco and the Republic of Korea. According to the NDP-9, Somalia’s main trading partners are Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Yemen and Oman; therefore, the impact of the above-mentioned preferential tariff treatment is minimal.

**17.13 Enhance global macroeconomic stability, including through policy coordination and policy coherence**

Data on components of a macroeconomic dashboard that would measure Somalia’s role in enhancing global macroeconomic stability – such as indices of global liquidity, income inequality, corporate debt, global commodity prices, and the existence of capital controls for prudential macroeconomic policy – is available in Somalia. With the help of the IMF and the World Bank, Somalia has implemented reforms that improved its fiscal performance. Confidence in the economy is increasing, despite the key risks within the medium-term outlook, which include political tensions, climatic shocks and insecurity.

**17.14 Enhance policy coherence for sustainable development**

Two key complementary planning and monitoring frameworks were developed by the FGS in 2019: the NDP 9 and the government road maps (which serve to monitor programmes and projects required for the successful implementation of the NDP-9 in the areas of inclusive politics, economic development, social development, and security and justice). Both frameworks promote an integrated approach to development. Moreover, the NDP-9 mainstreams the SDGs.

It is expected that FMSs will align their development strategies to the national plan to improve coherence. In terms of coordination, the proposed refined aid architecture provides spaces

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\(^{239}\) Full title of target: “Realize timely implementation of duty-free and quota-free market access on a lasting basis for all least developed countries”.

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**Imports & Exports of Goods**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Exports of Goods (US$ Millions)</th>
<th>Imports of Goods (US$ Millions)</th>
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<td>2014</td>
<td>~2,680</td>
<td>~608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>~2,710</td>
<td>~683</td>
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<td>2016</td>
<td>~2,869</td>
<td>~647</td>
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<tr>
<td>2017 proj</td>
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<td>2018 proj</td>
<td>~3,162</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020 proj</td>
<td>~3,397</td>
<td>~799</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
for multi-stakeholder discussion at the sectoral level through pillar and sub-pillar working groups, as well as higher-level structures (Somalia Development and Reconstruction Facility Steering Committee and Security and Justice Committee) where development, resilience, peace and humanitarian issues can be discussed in an integrated manner. At the FGS level, the Office of the Prime Minister’s Delivery Unit has developed a system to track the implementation of the road maps, while MoPIED is responsible for ensuring a coherent implementation of the NDP-9.

For its part, the UN in Somalia will align its upcoming United Nations Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework or UNCF (2021–2025) to the NDP-9 priorities and will coordinate its implementation through the revised aid architecture.

17.15 Respect each country’s policy space and leadership to establish and implement policies for poverty eradication and sustainable development

The Government of Somalia developed and implemented the NDP-8, the first such national plan in more than three decades, which has been succeeded by the NDP-9. The NDP-9 has been submitted by the Government as a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, which was accepted by the IMF, achieving a positive decision on arrear clearance in February 2020. More recently, in January 2020, the Parliament approved the bill instating the Somalia National Bureau of Statistics, and various executive branches in the FGS and the Office of the Prime Minister are coordinating important processes related to meeting macroeconomic targets, trade technology and capacity.

Multi-stakeholder partnerships

17.16 Enhance the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilize and share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources, to support the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals in all countries, in particular developing countries

A revised structure for the aid architecture was being reviewed by the Government in March 2020 as part of its function to ensure mutual accountability on the priorities set forth by the NDP-9, which are linked to the achievement of the SDGs. In this regard, the Mutual Accountability Framework and the Somalia Development and Reconstruction Facility have included “must-not-fail milestones” among the national priorities that ultimately relate to the achievement of the NDP-9 objectives and Somalia’s commitments on the SDGs.

17.17 Encourage and promote effective public, public-private and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resourcing strategies of partnerships

If the aid architecture aims at systematizing the partnership of the Government with the international community on ODA contributions, it is important to note that the draft National Investment Promotion Strategy supports the establishment and strengthening of public–private partnerships and strategic investment forums. Public–private partnerships were mentioned as central for priority investments in the energy, water and social service sectors in particular. The Strategy also suggests instating a Private Infrastructure Development Donor Group aimed at attracting private sector investment to support the economic recovery of the country, as well as a Public–Private Infrastructure Advisory Facility to strengthen collaboration with the World Bank Global Infrastructure Facility, the African Investment Facility and the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank.

On another note, Local Government Associations are active in “Somaliland” and Puntland. They play a crucial role in addressing the challenges of local governments at state level and supporting their members in peer-to-peer learning and international knowledge exchanges on best municipal practices. They also support capacity development initiatives such as the Local Government Institute.

Data, monitoring and accountability

17.18 By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least
developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.

Somalia has very weak national statistical and data management capacity. At a technical level, government and development partners struggle to establish baseline data and to assess progress against any initiatives undertaken. This then impacts the ability to identify resource gaps and to prioritize resource allocations in an informed manner so as to design interventions that maximize impact. This results in suboptimal outcomes and an imbalance in funding across sectors.

While commendable progress was made in addressing data gaps and improving monitoring against the NDP-8, actual monitoring against the Plan proved extremely challenging and largely reliant on contributions from external development partners, something that was clearly demonstrated during the mid-term review process for the NDP-8.

However, progress has been made in instituting the necessary structures and frameworks to strengthen national statistical and data management capacity.

The NDP-9 recognizes the significant constraints in its ability to formulate evidence-based policies and plans; household and sectoral data is particularly scarce. The Directorate of National Statistics (DNS) has made significant strides in the past few years. An innovative series of household surveys was conducted by the World Bank, in collaboration with the Government of Somalia, in 2015/16 and again in 2017/18. An analysis of the data from these Somali High Frequency Surveys formed the basis of the detailed poverty analysis for NDP-9.

Published in December 2017, the Government’s Monitoring and Evaluation Policy guides implementation of the monitoring, review, evaluation and reporting of the NDP-9. The adoption of the policy allowed Somalia to step away from voluntary data collection and reporting and instead re-establish a national mandatory system. The policy requirements apply to all member states, line ministries and government agencies.

Completed in August of 2017, the Directorate of National Statistics Strategic Plan (2018–2022) articulates a plan to strengthen the Directorate of National Statistics to transform it into an “authoritative source of accurate, reliable and timely official statistics on Somalia that satisfies the needs of different data users.” It is envisaged that this will be accomplished through 1) improved data production and dissemination; 2) strengthened statistical coordination; 3) established environment conducive to statistical quality; and 4) strengthened human resource development and management.

Furthermore, the NDP-9 commits that the DNS and MoPIED’s Monitoring and Evaluation Department will be mandated and resourced to provide improved information flows to aid policy and operational decision makers. A new Statistics Law passed in February 2020 replaces the Directorate of National Statistics with an independent National Bureau of Statistics. The new body is mandated to collect, analyze, and disseminate all official economic, social, and demographic statistics.

17.19 By 2030, build on existing initiatives to develop measurements of progress on sustainable development that complement gross domestic product, and support statistical capacity-building in developing countries

The civil war wiped out the statistical infrastructure and systems that were in place, and the protracted conflict that followed seriously constrained the collection, compilation and dissemination of key statistics. The institutional and statistical vacuum left the Somali authorities and humanitarian and development agencies in dire need of reliable statistics for effective and informed decision making, establishing statistical benchmarks, measuring and monitoring social and economic progress,

240 NDP-9.
241 NDP-9.
and accurate reporting on development outcomes at local, national and international levels.

The World Bank’s Statistical Capacity Indicator is a composite score assessing the capacity of a country’s statistical system based on a diagnostic framework assessing the following areas: methodology; data sources; and periodicity and timeliness. The overall Statistical Capacity score is then calculated as simple average of all three area scores on a scale of 0 to 100. In 2017, Somalia scored 26.7 out of 100, placing it in joint last place alongside Syria and Kosovo.242

In an ideal scenario, a full comprehensive census would have been conducted. However, this would have been very costly and would have required safe access to all areas of the country. It also would have required a great deal of institutional capacity and specialized skills. Conducting a population estimation survey was therefore the best option because it reduced the requirements to a scale that was less costly and more manageable. Despite its limitations, the PESS provided invaluable data to help inform government and development partner planning and programming in the country in the following years.

For better evidence-based decision making and for evidence-based programming and planning, high-quality data and information is expected to be generated from the UNFPA-led Somali Health and Demographic Survey data sets to inform the Government of Somalia and development partners’ future planning, strategies, interventions and programmes. The results of the survey were released on 30 April 2020.

Moving forward, the FGS Directorate of National Statistics plans to conduct a census within the lifetime of the NDP-9 and will start with developing a census road map that will undergo a consultative and inclusive process. Funding is currently being sought to undertake the exercise.244 The Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development will be working with the DNS to mainstream sex-disaggregated data.

The President has signed into law the Statistics Act, which aims to transform the Directorate of National Statistics into a semi-autonomous Bureau of Statistics with enhanced capacity to spearhead the collection and compilation of national statistics. This is a critical milestone in the journey to undertaking a successful census for the country.

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244 NDP-9