



GENDER GAP ASSESSMENT

South Central
Somalia and
Puntland



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ACRONYMS

FGD	Focus Group Discussion
KII	Key Informant Interview
MP	Member of Parliament
SMES	Small Medium Enterprises
SSWC	Save Somali Women and Children
TVET	Technical and Vocational Training

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Executive Summary: The Gender Gap at a Glance

The purpose of this study is to generate evidence to support the existence of a gender gap in South-Central Somalia and Puntland. This study examines the relative gender equality or inequality in Somalia composed of four sub-components: 1) economic participation, 2) economic opportunity, 3) political empowerment, and 4) educational attainment.

In order to explore the gender gap the study followed a mixed-methods approach. This included a thorough desk review of existing databases and related reports as well as legislative documents, a nationally representative household survey with 500 respondents, 6 Key Informant Interviews with relevant stakeholders, and 12 Focus Group Discussions with female and male community members.

The quantitative index is a relative assessment of the gender gap in Somalia and therefore does not take into account levels of attainment, but instead the gap between them. A score of 0 represents absolute inequality whereas a score of 1 represents absolute equality. More detail on the development of the index can be found in the technical annex. In addition, qualitative data is utilised alongside the index to provide contextual information and to explore the experiences and opinions by different actors of gender issues in Somalia. This section highlights key findings of the report.

Gender Gap Index: 0.56

Women in Somalia have almost half the opportunities afforded to men.

The gender gap index of 0.56 indicates that women are disadvantaged in all of the four assessed domains, ranging from fewer economic opportunities to de-facto non-representation in political decision-making processes to lower educational attainments. In addition, there are limited opportunities for formal employment within Somalia's current economic system, particularly for women.

There are limited options for formal employment in Somalia, this is especially so for women.

The percentage of respondents who are in formal employment (either full or part time) is low at only 12.2%. However, there is a clear gender divide with male respondents more than six times more likely to be employed on a full-time basis compared to female respondents (21% vs. 3.2%).

Women are more likely be unemployed but actively looking for a job.

Of the surveyed participants 37.5% of the female labour force compared to 22.6% among men were unemployed but looking for work. Women struggle to find employment opportunities and are discouraged to by pervasive socio-cultural norms that place women in the domestic sphere. Despite this plenty of women are looking for economic

opportunities outside the house. Young males were more likely to be unemployed and looking for work however women in this same age group were significantly more likely to be unemployed but not looking for work, 27.1% vs 3.9%. This represents the traditional patriarchal society that places women in in the household and men as breadwinners.

A woman's educational background decides the type of employment accessible to her.

Higher education increases the likelihood of labour market participation with 66.7% of females who are in full-time employment and 50% in part-time employment having university education. Similarly, 89.0% of women who have obtained tertiary education participate in the labour market. On the other hand, women with little to no formal education are particularly prone to vulnerable forms of employment with 88% self-employed. The micro and small business sector being highly driven by women in Somalia. These businesses are significant contributors to the Somali economy but are particularly vulnerable to external shocks or family emergencies.

Clannism is considered the main challenge in accessing employment opportunities, in addition to gender-specific barriers.

Women suffer from the precarious labour market situation in general and gender-specific barriers that impede their access to the job market in particular. In addition to pervasive clannism in the job market with favouritism preceding qualifications, women are affected by lower levels of literacy/ education than their male competitors, a weaker social network, perceived inability to work in physical jobs, and restrictive socio-

cultural norms that place women in the domestic sphere.

Women's employment outside the household was often stigmatised or seen to place them in danger of gender-based violence.

The opinions on women's employment and their role outside the home are polarised. A number of participants advocated for the economic contributions they can make to the household. Despite this, women's employment was often seen as a contribution to or substitute for the male head of household's capacity to provide. Interestingly, there was significant discussion which related to the safety of women who work outside the home, their immorality and multiple references of gender-based violence such as rape and sexual abuse. This fear adds to the societal culture and contexts that places women role in the household. Even in employment women were three times less likely to be in supervisory positions at work than men, with 75% of men supervising at least one other person compared to 25% for females.

Security and safety are hindering economic opportunities for both males and females.

Discussions in key informant interviews and FGD's highlighted that the conflict and insecurity in Somalia, particularly in South-Central Somalia is a key driver for the lack of available economic opportunities for both men and women. The insecurity has led to road closures, the destruction of infrastructure, the closure of schools and a fear, particularly by young women, of moving freely around the region. Women however were understood to be at more risk of danger in these fragile security contexts and of gender-based violence.

Legislation on maternity leave exists but is only accessible to the small number of formally employed women.

Access to maternity leave is deemed a powerful incentive for women to seek work outside the household. Legislation mandates four months of paid maternity leave for both private sector and government employees. However, enforcement is weak, particularly in smaller companies, which are the main employers of women in Somalia. Moreover, existing legal regulations do not extend to the large number of self-employed women.

A gender quota system for female representation in Parliament exists but it does not go far enough to increase women's political decision-making power.

Women's representation in decision-making bodies is currently 24% and community openness towards political participation is high with 81.8% of people agreeing that women are capable or participating in government. Despite this, women's actual decision-making ability and political power is limited. The barriers to accessing the political arena are based on socio-cultural norms that relegate women's influence largely to the domestic sphere, women's lack of social capital in a society where influence on decision-making is strongly linked to one's family background and clan affiliation and lower educational attainment compared to men. In addition, decisions are often made in informal gatherings of men.

The gap between girls' and boys' enrolment becomes apparent at secondary school level.

Boys aged 15-18 were significantly more likely to attend secondary school than females (83% vs 76.9%). The percentage of female respondents who have received no education or have attended Quranic school stands at 63.3% compared to 31.3% for

men. The gap was even more apparent the higher the education level with only 10.1% of female respondents having attended secondary school and 7.53% of female respondents having a university degree. No females had received advanced university degrees such as master's degrees compared to 3 men.

Access to higher education remains unattainable to many young women due to high costs and limited mobility. In addition to high tuition fees and lack of scholarships, the need to move to a different region, which might not be allowed by the family, further impedes the ability of young women to pursue higher education.

A narrative which links girls' access to education to their future reproductive and household role was pervasive. Equally, vocational training programmes tend to be in line with gendered expectations, strongly limiting women's options to learn a trade. In addition to the highly informal nature of the state of vocational training in Somalia, these pervasive gender norms impact which trainings and trades are deemed appropriate for young men (physical work) and which for young woman (cooking, tailoring) further limits women's options to break into the labour market.

Recommendations

Based on findings in this report, there are general recommendations for Oxfam's to consider in future programming and advocacy work for the advancement of women as listed below:

- **Strengthening women's participation in the labour market is strongly linked to increasing girls' educational attainments.** In order to increase girls' retention rates, advocacy efforts should focus on countering the prevailing narrative that women's roles are within the household. This is particularly

relevant for encouraging secondary and tertiary education for girls and encouraging the study of STEM subjects. Advocacy messages should be tailored to promote education as a gateway for girls to find self-fulfilment, to live up to their capabilities and increase their life choices, such as being able to access a broader range of job opportunities.

- **Establish scholarship funds for girls.** Considering that girls are more likely to drop out of school and less likely to undertake secondary education, scholarship funds should be established to retain girls in school. Similarly, considering that high costs of university education were the biggest barrier to higher education, university scholarship funds for young women should be established. Scholarships would also be beneficial for minority groups such as minority clans, as clannism impacts both genders and creates compounding challenges for women.
- **Equal access to TVET programmes.** Research findings revealed a gender dichotomy with regards to the vocational training programmes that are available and accessible to young women and men. Advocacy efforts should focus on breaking down the notion of gender-specific training programmes, countering the narrative that women's vocational training can only exist of cooking and tailoring. TVET centres should be encouraged to promote their courses to women and men equally and encourage women to sign up for classes that bring the greatest chances of employment.
- **Explore alternative forms of childcare.** Considering that the existing legal framework on four months of paid maternity leave is only accessible to the small number of formally employed women in addition to weak enforcement

members could be further encouraged to coordinate childcare among themselves, for instance by allocating funds towards access to available nurseries or rotating childcare duties among members.

- **Strengthen the political participation and the impact of the quota system.** The quota system is a significant step forwards in the political participation and representation of women and the majority of survey respondents were in favour of the political quota for women. Despite this, it does not go far enough to ensure the decision-making power of women, particularly in forming legislation, at higher levels of government but also at the community level. In conjuncture with allies in civil society, business and government sector must continue its advocacy for the political participation of women by increasing the allocation of political seats. Equally, the constitution should include the continuation of the quota system for future elections. Puntland currently has less political participation and would benefit from more focused advocacy efforts.
- **Advocate for the protection of women in the workplace.** The risk and fear of gender-based violence such as sexual harassment and rape outside the household, at work or when applying for employment adds to the narrative that keeps women within the household and prevents them from searching for employment. This scope of this study means that it is not possible to ascertain the risk of women in the workplace and it should be further explored. A better understanding of the protection risks to women in the workplace would be beneficial in improving the safety of women and advocating for safer practices.

BACKGROUND

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to generate evidence on the gender gap in Somalia. While previous research projects have pointed to gender discrepancies on various levels, there has not been a comprehensive gender gap index assessment. This study utilises a composite indicator index to provide data to substantiate these working assumptions.

There have been significant efforts to decrease the gender gap in Somalia. These have resulted in a 24% representation in the 10th Federal Parliament and the development of a National Gender Policy and the adoption of the National Action Plan on Ending Sexual Violence in Conflict¹. The National Gender Policy of the Federal Government of Somalia was established in 2014 with a goal to promote gender equality and sustainable human development and to ensure equal value is placed on the contributions of women and men as equal partners in post conflict reconstruction and national development. The Somali private sector is dominated by micro, small and medium enterprises driven by woman. Despite this, Somali women are documented

to have little access to credit, technology and information with women highlighted among the most marginalised in relation to equal access and human rights.²

Composite indices are a powerful tool for civil society to hold its government and other influential stakeholders to account. This study establishes a composite index, based on up-to-date data, to measure the gender gap in South Central Somalia and Puntland. This is composed of the following four sub-components:

- Economic participation
- Economic opportunity
- Political empowerment
- Educational attainment

The mixed methods data allows for nuanced recommendations and highlights avenues for Oxfam to target their advocacy and project implementation. A description of the indicators that are assessed in each sub-component is given in Section 4. In addition, the Technical Annex explains measurement aspects in greater detail.

¹ UN (2018) UN Somalia Gender Equality Strategy 2018-2020.

² Sahro, A (2016). European Union Somalia Gender Analysis Study, SIDRA. Garowe.

METHOD

In order to establish a composite index comprised of four sub-components the research followed a mixed methods approach. This utilised both quantitative and qualitative methods allowing for nuanced targeted recommendations for future programming and advocacy. This included a desk review of existing reports as well as legislative documents, a quantitative household survey of 500 respondents, 6 KIIs and 12 FGDs.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Focus group discussions allow for nuanced and open-ended responses to difficult questions, eliciting more information on attitudes, perceptions, and experiences that otherwise cannot be obtained by a quantitative survey. While the household survey allows for analysis of general population trends, FGDs allow for more detailed reports including in-depth explorations of respondents' views and experiences. For the purpose of this research assignment, 12 FGDs were conducted to gather community perceptions on gender gaps within the four sub-components. In order to ensure a geographical spread, interviews were conducted in Kismayo, Baidoa, South west, Beledweyne, Galmaduug and Garowe. One FGD was held with women and another with men. FGDs were separated by gender in order to ensure that women feel comfortable speaking up and giving their honest opinions.

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS

KIIs are a crucial way to access a population of influential people who would otherwise

not be captured by a typical household survey, in particular local government partners or influential private sector representatives. In analysis and report writing, this allows for new and often overlooked voices to be documented, as well as detailed experiences and sentiments that can only be gathered from open-ended questions. For the purpose of this research assignment, six KIIs were conducted to gather contextual information on gender gaps within the four sub-components and learn from key informants' perspectives on these topics. All six KIIs were conducted in Banaadir. Targeted interviewees included:

- 2 business leaders (1 male, 1 female)
- 2 government representatives (1 male, 1 female)
- 2 leaders of civil society organisations (1 male, 1 female).

QUANTITATIVE HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

The household survey administered to 500 respondents using Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviews (CATI) was the largest component of the research assignment. It was administered in Consilients in house call centre in Hargeisa utilising the mobile data collection platform OND/ODK.

Sampling

Somalia has not published a population census since 1975 so this research relied on data from the updated version of the 2014 UNFPA Population Estimation, published by OCHA in 2017. This version is disaggregated by district, which was necessary for creating a proportional sample for South Central

³ The Qualitative data collection was carried out by SSWC not Consilient Research, but transcriptions were analysed and included in the report by Consilient Research.

TABLE 1 demonstrates the sample population in each region by urban and rural.

Region	Planned Urban	Planned Rural	Total
Bari	26	17	43
Nugaal	14	9	23
Mudug	25	17	42
Puntland Total	65	43	108
Galgaduud	20	13	34
Hiraan	18	12	31
Middle Shabelle	18	12	31
Banaadir	98	0	98
Lower Shabelle	43	28	71
Bay	28	19	47
Bakool	13	9	22
Gedo	17	12	29
Lower Juba	17	12	29
South Central Total	272	118	392

Somalia and Puntland. The sample was stratified proportionally to the population size to each region. Within each region there was a 50% female to male gender split within each region. Consilient Research utilised the national estimate of 60% Urban and 40% Rural within each region, apart from Banaadir which is wholly urban administrative district. The number of surveys taken in each region is outlined in table one below broken down by urban and rural.

COMPOSITE INDICATORS FOR GENDER GAP ASSESSMENT

This section outlines the indicators that were measured under each sub-component and used to produce the composite gender gap index. The indicators listed below have been inspired by the indicators used in the Global Gender Gap Index and have been selected for their relevance, context-appropriateness and their feasibility for the method of this

research assignment. In order to ensure that all indicators are context-appropriate, their selection has been informed by a desk review of relevant data reports. The tools for this research are modelled on a Gender Gap Assessment in Somaliland produced for Oxfam in 2019.

The composite gender gap index comprises perception survey data, expert assessments, and desk-based research into existing legislation. The index therefore includes both *de jure* and *de facto* indicators. *De jure*, or rules-based, indicators capture concepts such as legislative regulations on, e.g., inheritance rights or parental leave arrangements, and whether they are in place or not. *De facto*, or outcome-based, indicators capture the views of both experts as well as survey respondents of various types, assessed through the quantitative household survey.⁴ For further information on the indicators listed below, the Technical Annex offers definitions as well as explanations on measurement aspects.

⁴ Information on the use of *de jure* and *de facto* indicators in the creation of government indicators can be found here: Government Indicators: Kaufmann, Daniel & Kraay, Aart. (2007). Governance Indicators: Where are We, Where Should We Be Going?. The World Bank Research Observer. 23. 10.1093/wbro/lkm012.

TABLE 2 demonstrates the indicators used to assess each of the four themes.

Economic Participation	Economic Opportunity
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adult unemployment rate (as % of female, male labour force) • Female/male youth not in employment or education • Female/male high-skilled share of labour force • Female/male rate of underemployment • Law mandates equal pay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existing law that mandates non-discrimination based on gender in hiring • Access to maternity leave • Ability of women to rise to positions of leadership • Percentage of women/men with an account at a financial institution • Access to financial services • Access to remittances • Women's ability to make financial decisions • Inheritance rights for daughters • Women's secure access to land use, control and ownership and women's secure access to non-land assets use, control and ownership
Political Empowerment	Educational Attainment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quota for women on candidate lists in parliament • Women's representation in Local Council • Women's representation in Parliament (Upper & Lower House) • Number of female ministers compared to male number • Community openness towards women's participation in formal government structures⁵ • Women's influence on decision-making at the community-level⁶ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Female literacy rate of male value • Female net primary enrolment rate over male value • Female net secondary enrolment rate over male value • Female, male primary education attainment rate • Female, male secondary education attainment rate • Female, male tertiary education attainment rate • Percentage of individuals using the Internet (female, male ratio)

⁵ Considering that this indicator is perception-based rather than a de-facto figure, it is not included in the composite indicator but rather serves as contextual information.

⁶ See above.

LIMITATIONS

In view of the chosen methodological approach for this study, three potentially limiting factors are noted.

- **Response bias:** Although phone ownership across Somalia and Somaliland is very high at an estimated 90%⁷, the response bias is inherent to CATI data collection. It is likely to play a more significant role in rural locations where – although phone ownership rates are estimated to be equally high as in urban settings – phone connectivity is weaker. During data collection, this bias was mitigated by ensuring that each respondent was called at least three times before marking them as unavailable. Once a respondent was marked as unavailable, he or she was replaced by another respondent that was selected randomly from the Consilient phone bank. This phone bank includes over 8,500 contacts for Somalia with an even distribution across the six regions, urban and rural settlements and gender. This large number of available contact numbers ultimately allowed for the full realisation of the targeted sample.
- **Self-selection bias:** Self-selection bias is pertinent to any kind of social science research where participation is voluntary. Hence, the realised sample for this project is limited to respondents

who consented to partake in the survey. In addition, a commonly observed factor that influenced people's decision to participate in a survey is their perceived prospect of benefitting personally, e.g. through monetary rewards or humanitarian aid. This bias was mitigated to the best of the enumerators' abilities by informing respondents about the purpose of the survey and explaining that their participation would not result in any immediate benefits. In order to mitigate any potential privacy concerns, respondents were informed at the beginning of the survey, and throughout, that they have the right to refuse to answer any question, that their personal details will be kept confidential, and that the survey is only conducted for research purposes to improve project implementation.

- **Social desirability bias:** The social desirability effect is a likely occurrence in any kind of social science research that asks about sensitive topics where respondents might feel compelled to appear as good citizens. In this survey, it appears that respondents have over-reported school enrolment rates, as results are much higher than estimates in previously conducted surveys. However, this does not compromise the validity of the data but should rather be considered as contextual information.

⁷ Reliable statistics on phone ownership in Somalia can be found here: http://www.altaiconsulting.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/WB-MME_Final-Short-Version_20170608.pdf (Last accessed on 12 February 2020)

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The following section utilises both the qualitative and quantitative data to examine the gender gap in Somalia, on the four sub-components, economic participation, economic opportunity, political empowerment and education attainment. Due to the homogeneity in

economic and political laws in Puntland and South-Central Somalia these sections are not disaggregated by administrative zone. However, in the education section data is disaggregated between Puntland and South-Central Somalia where appropriate.

The overall Gender Gap index: 0.56

ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION

TABLE 3 demonstrates the economic participation indicators alongside key figures.

Component 1 – Gender Gap for Economic Participation: 0.65		
Indicator	Gender Gap	Key Figures
Adult unemployment rate (as % of female, male labour force)	0.61	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The percentage of respondents aged 5-64 that are unemployed but actively looking is higher among females (37.5%) than males (23%).
Female/male youth not in employment or education	0.73	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Men in this age group were most likely to be unemployed but looking for work 54% vs 46%. However, women were significantly more likely to be unemployed but not looking for work 27.1% vs 3.9%, which represents the socio-cultural norm that places women in the domestic sphere and men as bread winners. Overall unemployment including those not looking is at 73.1% for females and 54% for males.
Female/male high-skilled share of labour force	0.92	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Higher education increases the likelihood of labour market participation for both genders: 89.0% of female respondents who have obtained tertiary education are participating in the labour market (either employed or looking), compared to 96.0% among men.

Female/male rate of formal employment	0.15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Females are significantly less likely to be in paid full-time and part time-employment however informal employment is widespread for both males and females. • Of the people working in salaried employment either part or full time 82% were men and 13% were females. Self-employment is common for males at 56.90% and Females at 50%. In addition, the same percentage of Female and Male respondents are contributing family workers at 2%.
Female/male rate of underemployment	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Underemployment concerns men more than women: Among those respondents who indicated that they work less than 40 hours per week, 74.4%% of men and 25.6% of women stated that they would like to work more hours. (Note that due to the polarity of the question, a lower percentage is the desired outcome, indicating smaller likelihood of underemployment). In the context of Somalia this could hint at long working hours in small informal businesses, common employers of women.
Law mandates equal pay	0.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is legislation in place that mandates equal pay for equal work, however there is little awareness and implementation of this law.

Labour Force Participation

Somalia has one of the youngest populations in the world with an estimated 75% of the population being under 30. There has not been a comprehensive labour force survey in Somalia, however the UNDP Human development report of 2012 found that 54% of the population are unemployed with 68% of youth aged 14-29 unemployed. Of the unemployed youth 20% stated that the reason for unemployment was a lack of experience and low pay⁸. It also placed the formal sector unemployment for women at 74%.

Based on survey findings, labour force participation stands at 82.6%. The percentage of people unemployed but actively look stood at 30.2%, this figure is considerably lower than the unemployment rate was estimated at 54% in the UNDP population report. This could be attributed to the social desirability effect, as explained in Section 5, which compels survey respondents to give socially acceptable answers to appear as good citizens. Formal employment is low for both men and women with 40.98% employed in informal sectors such as agriculture, construction and daily wage labour work. Disaggregation

⁸ UNDP Human Development Report 2012.

by type of employment reveals that 47% of participants who are in a formal employment relationship are employed in professional labour including teaching, medicine and law. The high level of people working in professional sectors is perhaps a result of a predominantly urban sample and the large proportion of the sample being in Banaadir, the urban administrative region of Mogadishu.

There are limited options for formal employment in Somalia, this is especially so for women.

As indicated in Table 4, the percentage of respondents who are in a formal employment relationship, i.e. in either full-time or part-time paid employment, is low in total 12.2% (7.8% and 4.4%, respectively). However, there is a clear gender divide with male respondents more than six times more likely to be employed on a full-time basis compared to female respondents (21% vs. 3.2%). This is even more stark than the UNDP survey findings that formal unemployment sits at 74%. Approximately one quarter of respondents indicated that they are self-employed or business owners, including farmers and livestock owners. The gender gap in this category is present but

less pronounced at 56.90% for Males and 50% for Females. In addition, although the overall percentage is quite small females and males were almost equally likely to work as contributing family workers at 2.2% and 2% respectively.

Women with higher education background are most likely to be in formal employment

Those respondents who indicated that they are in full-time or part-time paid employment were further asked to specify their type of job. As demonstrated in Table 5, the most common job type for both genders is professional work, with a higher percentage of females employed as professionals at 50% compared to 47.2% of men. The survey indicates that women are generally less likely to work outside the household but those that have obtained higher education are more likely to work in salaried positions. For instance, women with a university degree are most likely to work in either full-time or part-time employment (66.7% of females who are in full-time employment have university education and 50% are in part-time employment have university education).

TABLE 4 Occupation by gender

What is your main occupation?						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Paid, full-time employment	33	13.1%	6	2.4%	39	7.8%
Paid, part-time employment	20	7.9%	2	0.8%	22	4.4%
Seasonal work/Flexible work	13	5.2%	6	2.4%	19	3.8%
Self-employed/business owner (includes farmer and livestock owner)	66	26.2%	50	20.2%	116	23.2%

Contributing family worker (helping out in a business operated by family members)	10	4.0%	11	4.4%	21	4.2%
Unemployed (not working outside the home, not in school or training) - looking for work	58	23.0%	93	37.5%	151	30.2%
Unemployed (not working outside the home, not in school or training) - NOT looking for work	19	7.5%	56	22.6%	75	15.0%
Student/Apprentice/Vocational training	29	11.5%	16	6.5%	45	9.0%
Retired/Disabled	2	0.8%	2	0.8%	4	0.8%
Refused	2	0.8%	6	2.4%	8	1.6%
Total	33	13.1%	252	100%	500	100%

Interestingly, a large percentage of women who have received no formal education, i.e. Quranic or no education, are self-employed with 88% of self-employed females having received no education. In addition, no females with a university education identified as self-employed. This supports the impression that women with low educational attainments who identify as self-employed may be more

vulnerable in employment. Women are noted to be significant drivers in small and medium enterprises in the private sector in Somalia.⁹ However, their self-employed nature means their job status and income are insecure. This is compounded by the fact that they have been previously noted to have less access to technology and credit options.¹⁰

TABLE 5 Job type by gender

In what type of job are you employed?						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Professional	25	47.2%	4	50.0%	29	47.5%
Skilled labour	9	17.0%	1	12.5%	10	16.4%
Government	2	3.8%	2	25.0%	4	6.6%
Labour	8	15.1%	1	12.5%	9	14.8%
Agricultural sector	6	11.3%	0	0.0%	6	9.8%
Total	53	100.0%	8	100.0%	61	100% %

⁹ Sahro, A (2016). European Union Somalia Gender Analysis Study, SIDRA. Garowe.

¹⁰ As above

Women in Business

It is estimated that Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises make up almost all of Puntland and Somalia's private sector.¹¹ There has been no comprehensive inventory of Small, Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Somalia, but it is believed that women make up 60% of business owners. The UNDP stated that women in Somalia tend to have a limited education, lack basic business skills and are often the only breadwinners of the family.¹² Therefore, many enter into business as a coping mechanism and their economic and employment status remains insecure. Despite the potential vulnerability of small businesses, the majority of respondents deemed women capable of owning successful businesses. Of the surveyed participants many women highlighted the positives of the high representation of women in small business, again linking the prevalence of women in business to the space that was created in both the household and in business as a result of the civil war and insecurity.

Interestingly, there was a significantly larger proportion of males who strongly disagreed



“According to me, after the fall of the government in 1992, men got involved in conflicts while women started business activities that is why I can say, it's women who are highly involved in business in this area. This sector has created immense business opportunities for the women. I can say that the number of women is more than the men.”

Key Informant private sector businesswomen

with this statement at 11% compared to 5.6% for females. This could represent the traditional patriarchal society in which women and men have distinct gender roles which relate to perceptions of work. Interestingly, FGD participants mentioned a number of feminine traits that make women better businesspeople such as being trustworthy, patient and kind.

TABLE 6 Participant opinions on whether women are capable of owning successful businesses

Women are capable of owning successful businesses.						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%		
Strongly disagree	28	11.1%	14	5.6%	5	1.0%
Somewhat disagree	1	0.4%	4	1.6%	8	1.6%
Neither agree nor disagree	2	0.8%	4	1.6%	24	4.8%
Somewhat agree	14	5.6%	10	4.0%	416	83.2%
Strongly agree	203	80.6%	213	85.9%	5	1.0%
Refused	2	0.8%	3	1.2%		
Total	252	100%	248	100%	500	100%

¹¹ ILO Somalia report: Assessment of Policy and Legal Frameworks for Small and Medium Size (SMEs) in Somalia (Puntland and Somaliland), 2011.

¹² UNDP Human Development Report 2012

Unemployment

Unemployment levels among survey respondents are quite high with 30.20% of respondents being unemployed. Another 30.2% of respondents were unemployed but not looking for work (7.5% among men and 22.6% among women). The small number of men not looking for work compared to women highlights the social-cultural norms that place women in the domestic sphere and men as employees. A larger proportion of women were looking for work in comparison to men at 37.5% vs 22.6%. This signifies that despite these socio-cultural norms plenty of women are looking for economic opportunities.

Women are more likely to be unemployed but looking for work.

In addition, unemployment levels are slightly higher among younger respondents at 35% for participants age 24 and younger. This contradicts the UNDPs findings that unemployment is significantly higher in younger populations. This could be attributed to one quarter of respondents in the survey aged 14-24 being currently in education and therefore not classified as unemployed. Of the females aged 24 and under, 46% (54% for males in the same age group) and 44.9% and 44.9% of females age aged 25-34 (17.9% of males in the same age group) are unemployed. Young males were more likely to be unemployed and looking for work however women in this age group were significantly more likely to be unemployed but not looking for work, 27.1% vs 3.9%. Again, representing traditional patriarchal society that places women in the household and men as breadwinners. Overall unemployment including those not looking is therefore at 73.1% for females and 54% for males. FGDs demonstrated that there is a societal perception that women, especially young women, should be at home to maintain safe and should

therefore not search for employment opportunities. Safety and security concerns which surround women in the workplace is discussed in more detail later in the economic opportunity section.

Moreover, urban dwellers were marginally less likely to be looking for work than respondents in rural locations (29.3% vs. 32.1%), with rural populations more likely to work in agriculture and be self-employed (29.6% for self-employed). In addition, a significantly larger percentage of participants were in education in urban regions at 11.5% vs 3.7% in rural regions. The percentage of jobseekers was highest among refugees and was marginally higher in IDP populations than residents (33.3% for refugees, 30.5% for IDPs, and 30.2% for residents). Somalia is a long-standing and complex humanitarian disaster meaning that many IDPs are in protracted displacement and as a result, IDP populations may have found coping mechanisms and employment options within host communities. This could be why unemployment is similar between resident and IDP populations.

Underemployment

Underemployment is measured by the total hours worked in all economic activities in one week. The rate of underemployment is the percentage of respondents who work less than 40 hours per week and wish to work more hours. Based on survey findings, the average number of hours worked per week comes to 37.9. Women reported a slightly higher average of 41 hours, compared to 37 hours among men however women were almost twice as likely to work more than 40 hours than men. Only 23.6% of men worked more than 40 hours compared to 44.6% of women. This higher average might be a hint to unregulated opening hours of small businesses and low productivity jobs, i.e. long working hours for little output. Among those who indicated that they work less

than 40 hours per week, 74.4% of men and 25.6% of women stated that they would like to work more hours.

Equal pay for equal work

Key informants were largely unaware of any anti-discrimination legislation that mandates equal pay for equal work. One participant explained that:

Though largely unaware of policies most participants advocated that there is no reason why one person should be paid less than another when doing the same job. There was also significant discussion of discrimination legislation which mandates that women and men should have equal opportunities to undertake work and be employed.



“This (equal pay for equal work) law explains that employees should be paid on the amount of work they carry out in their day to day activities. On the same note, people should be paid in accordance to their qualifications, if for example one has a degree and the other has a masters then the pay should be different because of the qualification”

Female Clerk at the ministry of Commerce

ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY

TABLE 7 Gender Gap indicators for economic opportunity

Component 2 - Gender Gap for Economic Opportunity: 0.56		
Indicator	Gender Gap	Key Figures
Existing law that mandates non-discrimination based on gender in hiring	0.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is some legislation in place that mandates non-discrimination based on gender (or any other demographic variables) in hiring.
Access to parental leave	0.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Legislation mandates 4 months of paid maternity leave for both private sector and government employees. However, enforcement is weak, in particular in smaller companies, with no repercussions in case of disregard.
Ability of women to rise to positions of leadership	0.57	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Men are almost twice as likely to rise to positions of leadership in their job as women. The percentage of survey respondents who indicated that they supervise the work of other employees stands at 44.1% for men and 25.0% for women..

<p>Access to financial means (including account at a financial institution, access to financial services, access to remittances, and financial decision-making power)</p>	0.88	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to financial means remains challenging for both men and women. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The percentage of respondents with an account at a financial institution is 70.2% for men, compared to 66.7% for women. - Only 6.0% of male and 3.2% of female respondents have ever taken out a loan in their own name. - Women are slightly more likely to receive remittances in their own name (9.7% of females, compared to 9.1% of males). • Financial decisions at the household level are taken more by men more than women in 38.8% of households compared to 26.8%.
<p>Inheritance rights for daughters</p>	0.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inheritance rights are regulated through Islamic law, according to which a son inherits twice that of a daughter, a brother twice that of a sister, and the husband twice that of his wife. Considering the socio-cultural context and research findings that indicate the majority of respondents support inheritance rights as prescribed in Sharia law, the gap for this de jure indicator is set at 0.5: Women have some inheritance rights but not the same.
<p>Women's secure access to land use, control and ownership and women's secure access to non-land assets use, control and ownership</p>	1.0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land ownership in Somalia is governed through secular, customary (xeer), and Islamic law. The National Constitution as well as Sharia law recognise women's right to property. <i>Xeer</i> has been known to deny women their share of inheritance in both land and livelihood assets in order to protect the property of the patriarchal family. However, as this could not be substantiated within the scope of this study, this de jure indicator is set at 1.0.

Challenges in accessing the labour market

Clannism is the biggest barrier to accessing employment opportunities – for both men and women

For both males and females the greatest barrier to employment, especially for young people, is pervasive clannism in the allocation of jobs i.e. favouritism in hiring based on clan membership. Jobs are distributed based on people's connections, regardless of qualification. It also means that for young people with little experience who do not have the right connections have little opportunities to gain experience. This and a lack of experience in addition to the general lack of employment opportunities, was said to dissuade young people from pursuing higher education. Despite this, many felt that the challenges in employment

were the same for both young people and older people, particularly in relation to clan-based hiring.



“Clannism and nepotism is still a challenge for the young”

Male FGD participant Garowe

With regards to economic opportunities, women suffer from the insecure labour market in general and have additional gender-specific barriers that impede their access to the job market. They have the added disadvantage of lower levels of literacy/education than their male competitors and a perceived inability to work in physical jobs such as construction, which constitute a large proportion of job opportunities in Somalia. In general, there are restrictive socio-cultural norms that place women in the domestic sphere and discourage them from actively seeking out economic opportunities.

Women's employment outside the household was often stigmatised or seen to place them in danger of gender-based violence.

Evidence suggests that the opinions on women's employment and their role outside the home are polarised. A number of participants advocated for the employment of women and the contributions they can make to the household. Even so, women's employment was often seen as a contribution to or substitute for the male head of household's capacity to provide. Male FGD participants were more likely to express reservations against women working outside the household. Those FGD participants who were in opposition to women working outside the household drew upon traditional concepts of masculinity that understand the male as the sole provider



“Young people face the challenge of experience, they would be asked if they have experience of more than 5 years, they get discouraged when they apply to the job”

Male FGD Participant Kismayu



“The clan elders are opposed to the quota system, also clan elders and the 4.5 system does not support the representation of all and the power is limited within a few groups of people hence the exclusion of other groups.”

**Female CSO Representative
Banaadir**

and the need for women to maintain in the domestic sphere and look after the children. This was contrasted by participants, mostly females who linked women's employment to sentiments of self-determination and self-actualisation.



"Most men don't like employed women as they perceive she will fail to perform on household chores."

Female FGD participant

sexual violence via 'arrangements' between clans of the victim and rapist, often resolved through the payment of money or forced marriage between victim and perpetrator. FGDs suggest that these risks may also be present within the workplace, when travelling to the workplace or when trying to gain employment. In general, there was a fear towards women's safety when outside the home. This risk and the fear of the potential risk is likely to prevent women from trying to gain employment and family members supporting female members to work. These same discussions were not present within KII with business women, men or CSOs and were more present in FGDs with male participants.



"I think of immorality, because our women are supposed to be at home not going outside to seek for jobs."

Male FGD participant



"Security, I think of her safety, if she is going out on a daily basis she can be raped by other men."

Female FGD participant



"To me I think she is very hardworking, she has beat all the odds that force women to stay at home."

Female FGD participant



"There are different challenges between men and women, girls experience abuse and sexual exploitation when looking for jobs, male employers ask for sex before they give jobs to women."

Male FGD participant

Interestingly, there was significant discussion which related to the safety of women who work outside the home, their immorality and multiple references of gender-based violence such as rape and sexual abuse. There is significant prevalence of gender-based violence in Somalia, with no laws prohibiting domestic violence, spousal rape or sexual harassment. Although laws that prohibit rape exist, they are poorly enforced. (Dfid) There is use of customary ways to solve incidents of

It is important to consider that regardless of whether these security issues are or are not as pervasive, they feed a societal perception that women are unsafe which keeps women confined to their role within the household. It is therefore essential to increase the legislation and protection of women in the workplace, raise awareness of the rights to protection and encourage women to apply to jobs.

Legislation on non-discrimination

Based on key informants' accounts, there are laws in place that prohibit gender-based discrimination (or discrimination based on other demographic characteristics) on the labour market. However, it seems that these hiring processes are often not implemented or respected by hiring bodies, particularly in relation to hiring within clans. The quota in place set by the Civil Service Commission in which at least 30 out of 100 jobs available in the government must be filled with women helps enforce female representation. However, there is less implementation in the larger workforce and private sector. That being said the private sector also has significant representation of women, however these businesses and their employees are less likely to be given employment rights and benefits such as holiday pay, maternity leave and sick pay. Similarly, a number of participants were unaware of any specific laws, this means both potential employees and employers are unaware of the legislation and their rights in relation to non-discrimination.



"I am not aware of any specific laws, what I know is that there are institutional policies that are formulated by the different organisations, and what is written in every employee job description."

**Female CSO representative,
Beletwein**

Women's ability to rise to leadership positions

As previously discussed, there is significant female representation within the Somali

workforce, yet women have significantly less chance to rise to leadership positions than men.

Women are three times less likely to be in supervisory positions at work.

Women were three times less likely to be in supervisory positions at work than men, with 75% of men supervising at least one other person compared to 25% for females. Interestingly, of the participants surveyed 74.6% of people disagreed that women had the same opportunity as men to rise to positions of leadership compared to only 19.4% who agreed. This was similar among both males and females however only 7.4% of women agreed compared to 12% of males. This demonstrates that there is a general view that women do not have as much opportunity to rise to positions of leadership within the Somali society. Interestingly, when FGD participants were asked to characterise a person who runs a successful business, multiple participants automatically used the terminology "him or he" in their answer, which could suggest an assumption that people who run successful businesses are male. These same participants were advocating that women should work in the household.

Access to parental leave

Access to maternity leave is deemed a powerful incentive for women to seek work outside the household. Article 15 of the Somalia Private Sector Labour Code (Code NO: 65) regulates access to maternity leave, mandating that a pregnant mother is entitled to 16 weeks of maternity leave, which she is supposed to commence four weeks prior to giving birth. In addition, a pregnant mother or a mother who has given birth cannot be removed from work until the baby is one year old, except if her contract period expires normally during that time.¹³

¹³ Ministry of Labour, youth and sports. Puntland Labour Code for private and business organisations. Puntland State of Somalia.

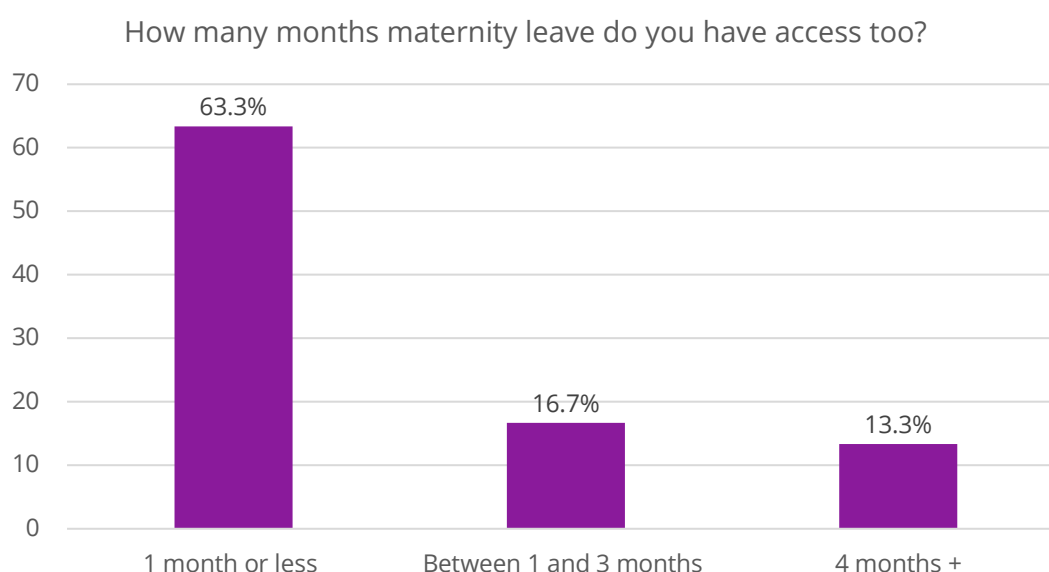
TABLE 8 Participant opinions on whether women have the same opportunity as men to rise to leadership positions

Women have the same opportunities as men to rise to positions of leadership.						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Strongly disagree	50	19.8%	22	33	13.3%	5.9%
Somewhat disagree	10	4.0%	12	4	1.6%	2.5%
Neither agree nor disagree	8	3.2%	10	10	4.0%	3.2%
Somewhat agree	26	10.3%	39	24	9.7%	8.1%
Strongly agree	153	60.7%	506	170	68.5%	79.8%
Refused	5	2.0%	3	7	2.8%	0.5%
Total	252	100%	248	100%	500	100%

Respondents who indicated that they are in a full-time or part-time formal employment relationship were asked whether they have access to maternity or paternity leave, which 49.18% of respondents confirmed. Considering there are no formal regulations on paternity leave in place, male respondents perhaps referred to maternity leave arrangements that their employer has in place for female colleagues. A closer look at the nature of parental leave indicates that the legal regulations that mandate

four months of maternity leave are largely disregarded by employers who are said to offer leave. Of the survey respondents with access to parental leave 66.3% indicated that they are only granted one month or less. Only 13.3% of respondents stated that they were granted the four months that they are entitled to by law. The majority of respondents indicated that they continue to receive their salary during parental leave however 30% of participants are not paid for maternity leave.

FIGURE 1 The length of maternity leave participants had access to



Legislation on maternity leave exists but is only accessible to the small number of formally employed women

Most participants were aware of the legal regulations that mandate maternity leave however there were different understandings of the allowed length of time. Despite this, only few knew women who had been granted such leave, most referring to government employees, employees at public institutions such as schools and NGO workers. During a key informant interview with a female government representative, she explained that there are challenges in the private sector in which many employees are not being given their maternity leave and their salaries are not paid in full. Interviewed key informants explained that smaller companies that do not have the resources to cover for a person going on a four-month leave. With the micro and small business sector being predominantly driven by women, there are implications on the likelihood of women who either work or run these informal businesses being able to access maternity leave.

The issue of paternity leave for which there are currently no legal regulations was considered less important among interviewees, as women are seen as the primary care givers. The concept of a father being allowed to spend some time with his wife and new-born produced mixed feelings. Many welcomed the idea explaining its usefulness to support the wife after she has given birth, to help around the home and to bond with the child. Generally, it was understood that paternity leave should be shorter, often a few days or a week to help the wife after childbirth. Many participants, both males and females expressed strong views and opinions as to why men shouldn't be given the opportunity. These were rooted



'They (men) should not be given time off because they are the ones that need to look after the family'

Female FGD Participant



'I don't think this is important, the mother can take care of her child and the father goes out to look for their daily bread'

Male FGD Participant

in the understanding of men's and women's roles in the family and household.

Access to financial means and services

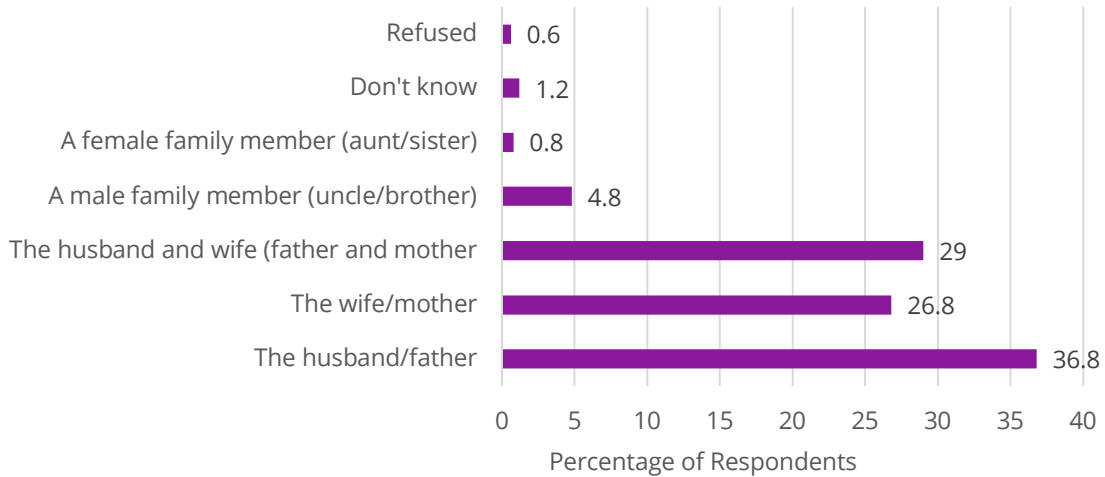
Women in post-civil war Somalia/Somaliland have increasingly taken on greater economic responsibilities due to men being absent, abroad for work, or incapacitated due to khat consumption; however, their influence on financial decision-making remains largely limited to the domestic sphere.¹⁴ Survey findings indicate that men are considered to be more responsible for the major financial decisions of the household than women. Of the respondents, 36.8% of people answered the husband or father is responsible followed by the wife at 26.8% and 29% for both the husband and wife.

Access to formal finance options is the biggest challenge for small businesses and women who are the largest drivers of these enterprises. Most small enterprises

¹⁴ NAGAAD/Ministry of Justice/Progressio Somaliland. Women's Human Rights in Somaliland. 2010.

FIGURE 2 Which household member makes financial decisions within the household

If your household has a major financial decision, such as buying more livestock or making repair works to your house, who makes this decision?



do not qualify for bank credit for lack of fixed assets to offer as collateral. Accessing microfinance services has been identified as a key driver of SMEs and their success and capacity to grow, to compete to create jobs and contribute to poverty alleviation in developing countries.¹⁵ Unfortunately, the accessibility of microfinances in Somalia is limited and the collateral requirement of MFIs is often too much for small businesses with loan repayments rarely based on the capacity of enterprises, making it difficult to meet obligations¹⁶. This is likely the reason for the prevalence of lending forms such as Hagbed which also tend to be organised and driven by women. As a short-term solution, women entrepreneurs are often borrowing from the informal sector, which

is not conducive to growing a business sustainably.¹⁷ This leaves them financially vulnerable, when women may have initially entered into these small businesses as a coping strategy.

Lack of access to the financial market is the biggest challenge for women to grow their businesses sustainably

Of the surveyed participants 68.40% had access to a financial institution, including *hagbed*.¹⁸ Women were more likely to have access to an account at a financial institution in their own name than men (66.7%% for men, 70.2% for women). In addition, urban dwellers are more likely to have a bank account than rural dwellers

¹⁵ Hossain, F, Christopher, I and Millar, T (2012) Microcredit and international contexts, achievement and challenges, Routledge, Oxon.

¹⁶ Ali, A., Abu-Hadi, A and Sheikh Ali, A. (2013). The Accessibility of Microfinance for Small Businesses in Mogadishu, Somalia.

¹⁷ Somaliland Women Chamber of Commerce. Annual Report Jan-Dec 2018.

¹⁸ Hagbed – or ayuuto or shalong – is a typical rotating credit and saving association (ROSCA). It follows the principle of a micro-saving and –lending scheme with groups between 20 and 30 members, often women, pooling together money in a common fund. For more information see: Mobile money and Somali social networks: Cultivating monetary alternatives in a volatile world. Gianluca Iazzolino. <https://www.escholar.manchester.ac.uk/api/datastream?publicationPid=uk-ac-man-scw:199524&datastreamId=FULL-TEXT.PDF> (Last accessed on 13 November 2018)

(66.0% for rural, 69.5% for urban). Mobile money has superseded the use of cash in Somalia and has been argued to improve financial inclusion. A study by the world bank estimating that 70% of women have a mobile money account.¹⁹ Despite this, the mobile money system can be considered vulnerable due to the lack of monitoring, consumer protections and a lack of systematic know-your -customer requirements. For this reason, access to mobile money is not considered as access to formal financial intuitions. Hagbed is largely driven by women in Somalia and is likely the reason for the larger access to financial institutions by women rather than men in this study.

In this study, only 4.60% of respondents indicated that they had borrowed money, options for taking out a loan from a financial institution being limited for both males and females. Purchasing food and goods was the predominant reason for people taking out loans. Only 4 participants, two males and two females, had tried for a loan but were denied. Of this group, two refused to answer why they were denied, the rest were denied because the financial institution did not trust that they were able to pay the loan back.

There was limited discussion of different

challenges between genders in gaining access to a loan. Many participants felt the challenges were the same, however those who disagreed explained that women tend to have less assets like land and vehicles that can be used as security when taking out loans which makes them less likely to be accepted by formal institutions for loans.

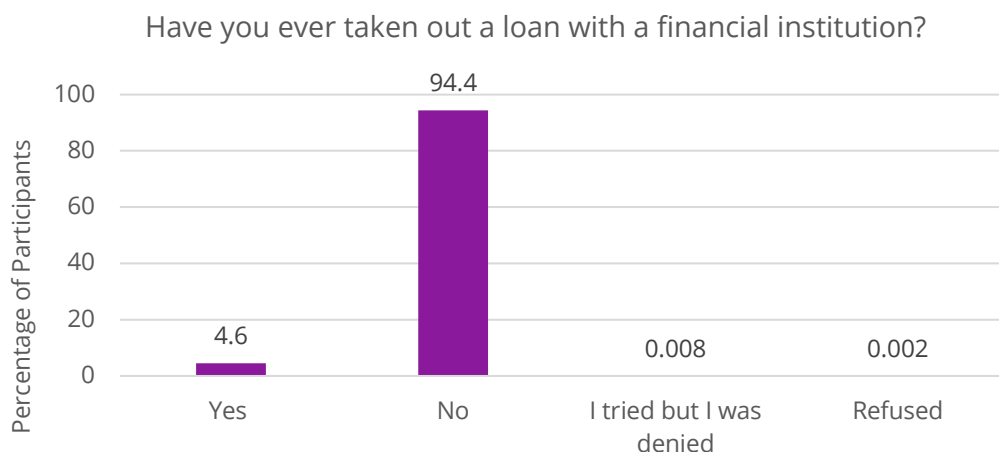
The desk review Desk review suggests that remittances are overwhelmingly sent directly to and controlled by women, as they are in control of the household budget and considered more reliable than men. However, of the surveyed participants only 9.40% received personally received remittances from abroad on a regular basis. Females respondents were only slightly more likely to receive remittances than men (9.7 vs 9.1).

The use of remittances did not vary greatly between genders with remittances said mainly to go towards spending for everyday life, including buying food, household goods, school fees and saving money for emergency or health purposes.

Women’s Inheritance rights

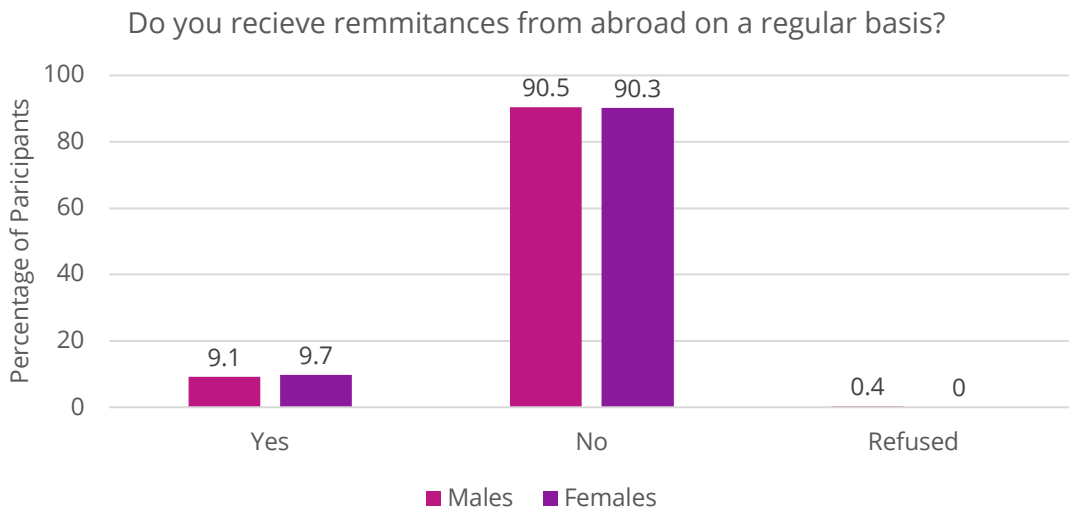
In Somalia, inheritance rights are regulated through Sharia law. Islam does not deny

FIGURE 3 Households who have taken out loans with financial institutions



¹⁹ Somalia Economic Update, Rapid Growth Mobile Money: Stability or Vulnerability? World Bank Group, Africa.

FIGURE 4 Gender of the member of the household who receives remittances



women’s inheritance but sets out the rules by which inheritance is to be shared among female and male dependents.

In Sharia law a son inherits twice that of a daughter, a brother twice that of a sister, and the husband twice that of his wife (Verse 11, Surah 4, An-Nisa).²⁰ This apparent unequal treatment of sons and daughters is explained by referring to the financial obligations that men bear, as they have to bestow mahr upon their wives, a mandatory payment paid to the bride at the time of marriage. All expenses of wife and children are to be paid for by the husband, while the wife is not obliged to spend any of her wealth, including mahr and inheritance that she brings into the marriage or income earned through livelihood activities, on



“There is a share for men and a share for women, from which is left by parents and those nearest related, whether the property be small or large – a legal share.”

Verse 7, Surah 4, An-Nisa

anyone else. However, both women and men can write a will as long as it does not violate the principles outlined in the Quran.

The quantitative survey included a somewhat controversial question to probe respondents’ attitude towards inheritance rights. Based on the legacy of Sharia and customary law in Somalia, the majority of respondent’s support inheritance rights as they are prescribed in Sharia law. This is demonstrated by 64.6% of respondents stating they strongly disagree with the notion that a daughter should have the same right to inherit family assets as a son. Interestingly, 23.6% of respondents, 21.4% among men and 25.8% among women strongly support the idea of equal inheritance rights. However, considering respondents’ socio-cultural frame of reference, it might well be that respondents had the current regulations in mind and simply reaffirmed that they perceived them as fair and equal. Considering the sensitivity of the question, it is unsurprising that 2.4% of respondents “refused” to answer this question. Interestingly, twice as many women than men refused this question. These same reservations were present

²⁰ NAGAAD/Ministry of Justice/Progressio Somaliland. Women’s Human Rights in Somaliland. 2010.

TABLE 9 Participants opinions on women's inheritance rights

A daughter should have the same right to inherit family assets as a son.						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Strongly disagree	168	66.7%	155	62.5%	323	64.6%
Somewhat disagree	5	2.0%	4	1.6%	9	1.8%
Neither agree nor disagree	2	0.8%	3	1.2%	5	1%
Somewhat agree	19	7.5%	14	5.6%	33	6.6%
Strongly agree	54	21.4%	64	25.8%	118	23.6%
Refused	4	1.6%	8	3.2%	12	2.4%
Total	252	100%	248	100%	500	100%

within the qualitative data with participants explaining that it can't be discussed but it is clearly stated in the Quran.

Land ownership in Somalia is governed through a plural system. The pre-1991 statutory law (secular) and the customary known as *xeer* and Islamic laws. As stipulated under Article 43 in the Federal Republic of Somalia's constitution land is Somalia's primary resource and the basis of the people's livelihood. It shall therefore be 'held, used and managed in an equitable, efficient, productive and sustainable manner'.²¹ The Constitution allows Parliament to enact laws regulating to the timeline, size and conditions of permits of land use and in collaboration with federal member states on stakeholders regulate land policy, land use and control measures. However Federal member states are allowed to formulate land policies at their level.

Islamic law allows women to inherit land, women are also allowed to secure economic partnerships over land use with their sons, particularly if sons are unmarried. The land tenure allows only one concession holder per household, this jeopardises the rights of woman as titles are often issues in the husband's name. Similarly, many women

register land in names of brothers or sons due to cultural factors. Survey respondents strongly supported land rights with 88.5% agreeing that women should be able to buy or inherit land in their own name. Differences between opinions and gender were not significant.

Security and safety are hindering economic opportunities for both males and females.

There was discussion by key informants and FGD participants that the conflict and insecurity in Somalia, particularly South-Central Somalia is a key driver for the lack of available economic opportunities for both men and women. Women however were understood to be at more risk of danger in these fragile security contexts and of gender-based violence. There are a number of power relations between men and women and between men themselves which include relations between younger and older men, minority clan ethnicities, wealthy and poor, settled and displaced and men within different regions. These gendered relationships and their management are sustained and linked to the concept of clan and kinship which have become intrinsic to the day-to-day in Somalia. The centrality of

²¹ House of the people of the Federal Republic of Somalia. (2012) The federal Republic of Somalia Provisional Constitution, Mogadishu.

TABLE 10 Participants opinions of women’s right land rights

Women should be able to buy or inherit land in their own name.						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Strongly disagree	15	6.0%	24	9.7%	39	4.3%
Somewhat disagree	4	1.6%	3	1.2%	7	1.5%
Neither agree nor disagree	3	1.2%	2	0.8%	5	1.4%
Somewhat agree	21	8.3%	14	5.6%	35	5.8%
Strongly agree	204	81.0%	202	81.5%	406	86.3%
Refused	5	2.0%	3	1.2%	8	0.6%
Total	252	100%	248	100%	500	100%

kinship and clan and it’s link to masculinity has facilitated female exclusion at all levels, including government, law and politics and facilitated socially acceptable forms of masculinity and structural and cultural inequality between men and women in Somalia. The insecurity has led to road closures, the destruction of infrastructure, the closure of schools and a fear, particularly by young women, of moving freely around



“The freedom of movement, easily accessible road and a significant improvement in the security status are prerequisites for this growth happening.”

Male Private Sector Key Informant.

POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT

TABLE 11 Gender Gap Indicators for political empowerment

Component 3 – Gender Gap for Political Empowerment: 0.36		
Indicator	Gender Gap	Key Figures
Quota for women in Parliament	0.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is legislation on a 30% quota for women on a parliament for the single/ lower house. However, the text of the constitution itself does not include any legal provisions for guaranteeing the 30% reserved for women in the next parliament. However, there is evidence of the limitation of this system to fully represent women and their decision-making power in parliament. In addition, the majority, 75.8%, of survey respondents felt that the quota system is a good idea for increasing/ maintaining the number of female representatives.

Women's representation in Local Council	0.45	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women's de-facto representation is still low: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is currently 24% female representation in parliament for Women. - Women secured 17% representation at local council elections - Women are in charge of a number of Ministries such as the Ministry of Women and Human rights and the Ministry of Youth and Sports. - There are 3 Female Ministers in Puntland out of 48 which is the lowest of the regional state. • The score for community openness towards women's participation in formal government structures stands at 81.8% with 0.79 for men and 0.84 for woman (with 1 signifying total openness) • 65.2% of people strongly agree that women have the same right as men at community meetings and their opinions are respected the same as men's. Evidence indicates that women's influence is often limited to advocating for male candidates or supporting the ideas of elders in community meetings rather than putting forward own ideas.
Women's representation in Parliament	0.31	
Number of female ministers compared to male number	0.19	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are 5 female ministers out of 26 minister cabinet in 2017.

the region.

A gender quota system for female representation in Parliament exists but it does not go far enough to increase women's political decision-making power.

In 2016 a parliamentary gender quota of 30% was set in Somalia and noted a significant and important step towards women's equal political participation. This resulted in a 24% representation in the 10th Federal Parliament.²² This is significantly different

compared to Somaliland where in 2018 there were only 9 female representatives in the Local Council out of 365, 1 female Member of Parliament out of 82, no women in the Upper House (Guurti), 3 female ministers (2 full and 1 deputy minister) out of 32, and no female judges. Puntland is a semi-autonomous presidential democracy which is part of the Federal State of Somalia, as such the region seeks unity of Somalis and adheres to the federal system of government. When disaggregating political empowerment statistics between the

²² UN (2018) UN Somalia Gender Equality Strategy 2018-2020.

administrative zones Puntland and South Central there was no significant difference between the two regions in opinions on political participation and empowerment. This is likely as a result of them both following the Somali Federal System. There is however a difference in the number of ministers specifically with only 3 out of 48 ministers in Puntland being female, making it the lowest rate of the regional states of Somalia.

Among the surveyed respondents, the majority agreed that women's participation in government structures like national parliament is beneficial for society as 81.8% agreed that women are capable of participating in government and only 12% disagreed. The majority of those who did disagree, 9.6%, felt that women were not fit to participate at all. Opinions on whether women are sufficiently represented were more varied. More than half of the respondents, 52.6% felt women are sufficiently represented, of which 44% strongly agreed. Contrastingly, 38.2% of respondents disagreed, 25.40% of which strongly disagreed. Interestingly, this demonstrates that almost half of the participants feel that 24% representation is not enough. These findings suggest in general there is a want for the political representation of women.

There is a growing body of literature on women's roles in state-building and peace-building processes. Similarly, Somali women have a strong history in advocating for their political rights and leadership and have been participants in restoring law, particularly at the community level. There is a lack of discussion of women's historical

engagement prior to the Barre regime, including contributions to the nationalist movement of 1943-1960 and the women's section of Barre's Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party in 1977. Unfortunately, these gains shifted over the Barre's regime some stating women were used as a tool to legitimise his authority. Despite this, these historical examples of participation alongside the survey findings suggest there is space for further improving the political participation of women in Somalia.

There have been significant gains in the political representation of women however as key government representatives pointed out, there are issues with how well this quota system actually translates into political participation. Female CSO representatives pointing out that women still do not have adequate decision-making power within political parties or when working within government roles. Equally, they are still highly underrepresented when you consider females make up approximately 50% of the population.



“Those who were elected into office have little to no capacity in their competency and they cannot take part in high level meetings, during legislation due to their low level of education and cannot make an informed decision. Clan dynamic are also a setback to the women when they are elected.”

Female CSO Representative.

TABLE 12 Participants opinions on women's rights to speak at community meetings

Women have the same right to speak up in community meetings as men.						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Strongly disagree	47	18.7%	41	16.5%	88	17.6%
Somewhat disagree	10	4.0%	5	2.0%	15	3.0%
Neither agree nor disagree	7	2.8%	4	1.6%	11	2.2%
Somewhat agree	30	11.9%	12	4.8%	42	8.4%
Strongly agree	148	58.7%	176	71.0%	324	64.8%
Refused	10	4.0%	10	4.0%	20	4.0%
Total	252	100%	248	100%	1,200	100%

TABLE 13 Participants opinions on whether women's opinions are respected at community meetings

If a woman speaks up at a community meeting, her opinion is as respected as a man's opinion.						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Strongly disagree	32	12.7%	32	12.9%	64	12.8%
Somewhat disagree	7	2.8%	11	4.4%	18	3.6%
Neither agree nor disagree	13	5.2%	10	4.0%	23	4.6%
Somewhat agree	31	12.3%	22	8.9%	53	10.6%
Strongly agree	162	64.3%	166	66.9%	328	65.6%
Refused	7	2.8%	7	2.8%	14	2.8%
Total	252	100%	248	100%	500	100%

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

TABLE 14 Gender Gap indicators for education attainment

Component 4 – Gender Gap for Educational Attainments: 0.68		
Indicator	Gender Gap	Key Figures
Female literacy rate of male value	0.80	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Literacy levels are higher among men than among women: The score for men's literacy, i.e. the combined ability to do calculations, read and write stands at 44.5% for women compared to 55.5% for women.

Female net primary enrolment rate over male value	0.95	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary enrolment rates are similar for boys and girls: Albeit likely over-reported, 78.3% of respondents' sons of primary school age go to school, compared to 74.8% of daughters in primary school age.
Female net secondary enrolment rate over male value	0.92	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The gender gap becomes more pronounced when looking at secondary enrolment rates: Albeit likely over-reported, 83.0% of respondents' sons of secondary school age go to school, compared to 76.9% of daughters of secondary school age.
Female/male primary education attainment rate	0.49	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Female respondents are less likely to reach higher levels of education than their male counterparts. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The percentage of female respondents who have received no formal education stands at 63.3%, compared to 31.3% of men. - Only 10.1% of female respondents attended secondary school, compared to 20.1% men, and 13.5% of female respondents have obtained a university degree, compared to 17.5% of men. and 7.53% of female respondents have obtained a university degree, compared to 20.6% of men. • The younger a respondent, the higher the likelihood of achieving higher education. Nevertheless, even in the youngest age group (i.e. aged 25 or younger) male respondents supersede their female peers. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - While 46.2% of female respondents aged 25 or younger have received no formal education, this percentage drops to 15.4% for male respondents in the same age group. - Similarly, 18.7% of women aged 25 or younger have attended secondary school, compared to 26.4% of males, and 5.7% have obtained a university degree, compared to 30.8% of males.
Female/male secondary education attainment rate	0.50	
Female, male tertiary education attainment rate	0.43	
Percentage of individuals using the Internet (female, male ratio)	0.53	

The National Gender Policy of the Federal Government of Somalia includes policy and implementation strategies in relations to gender and education. The goal being to promote public awareness, acceptance, equal opportunity and gender equality in employment and education and mainstream gender into primary, secondary and tertiary syllabus. There are achievements in literacy in enrolment rates as well as primary, secondary and tertiary education attainment by drawing upon a comprehensive desk review as well as the qualitative and quantitative research findings.

Literacy

Somalia has been highlighted to have one of the worst literacy rates in the world.²³ Literacy is usually measured in terms of adult and youth literacy, adult literacy being measured as the population aged 15 years and over who are able to both read and write. The UNFPA estimated the adult literacy rate in Somalia to be 40%, 36.2% among females and 43.8% among men in 2016.²⁴ This reduced from 54.8% in the 1975 census which can be attributed to the impacts of conflict on the education system. With Somalis in urban areas being more literate (64.2%) than those in rural areas (27.5%).

In this survey, the literacy rates followed a similar distribution with 54.50% of participants being able to read and write a simple sentence (all participants were 15 and over and are therefore considered adults). This is remarkably similar to the 1975 census literacy rate, which suggests that education rates have improved in recent years to match the pre-civil war rate. When broken down by gender males

were significantly more likely to be literate than females (67.5% vs 41.5%). Urban areas also being more literate (59.25%) than rural areas (45.1%).

According to this survey males superseded females in literacy skills in terms of all three categories of reading, writing and basic maths skills. This was most notable in the number of females who cannot read or write in any capacity compared to males, 41.5% vs 11.1% and 41.9% vs 10.7% respectively. Literacy including maths sits at 44.52% for women compared to 55.5% for men. Females ability to do calculations was higher in comparison to reading and writing skills, this is likely due to the need for simple calculations when purchasing or selling goods at market, again placing this role in the domestic sphere. The ability to do simple calculations was higher among women than men at 51.3% vs 48.7% but this decreased significantly for basic maths skills such as fractions and percentages, at 34.6% for females and 65.4% for males.

The ability to read a book and fully understand it stood at 48.9% of respondents aged 15-24 and gradually decreased as age increased. This distribution is similar for writing and calculation skills. This further supports that literacy rates are improving. When disaggregated by group status, non-displaced people's literacy skills supersede those of IDPs or refugees. For instance, while 20.4% of residents state that they cannot read, this percentage rises to 35.6% among IDPs, and 41.7% among refugees (writing: 20.7% among residents, 35.6% among IDPs, and 33.3% among refugees). The same holds true for urban vs rural settlements with rural populations being almost twice as likely to be illiterate.

²³ UNICEF. Education in Somalia (online) available at: <https://www.unicef.org/somalia/education.html> (accessed 01/03/2020)

²⁴ UNFPA (2016) Educational Characteristics of the Somali People.

FIGURE 5 Participants ability to write by gender

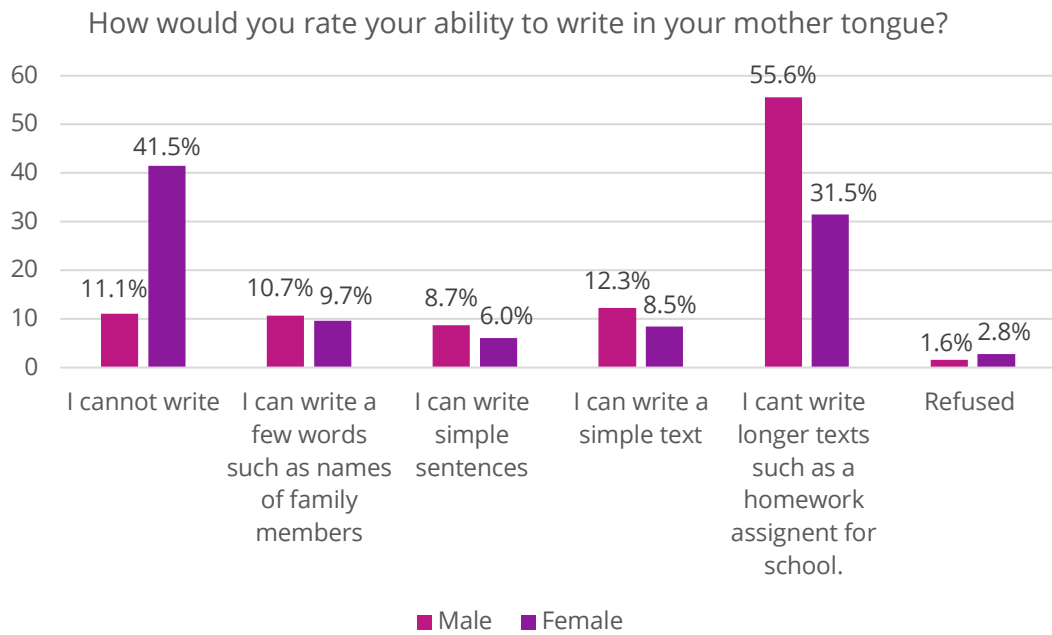


FIGURE 6 Participants ability to read by gender

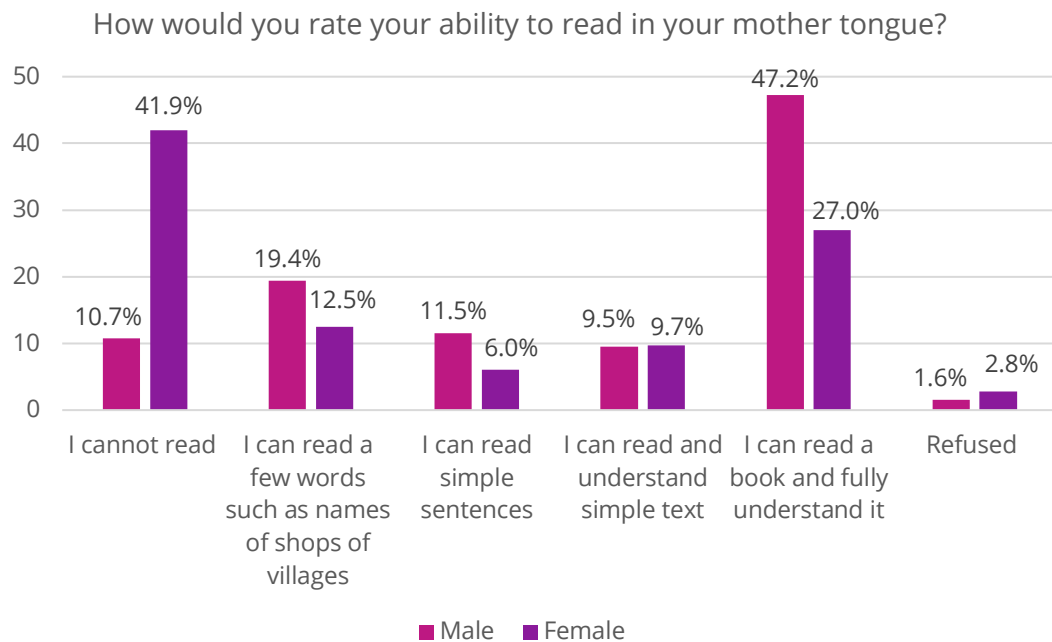
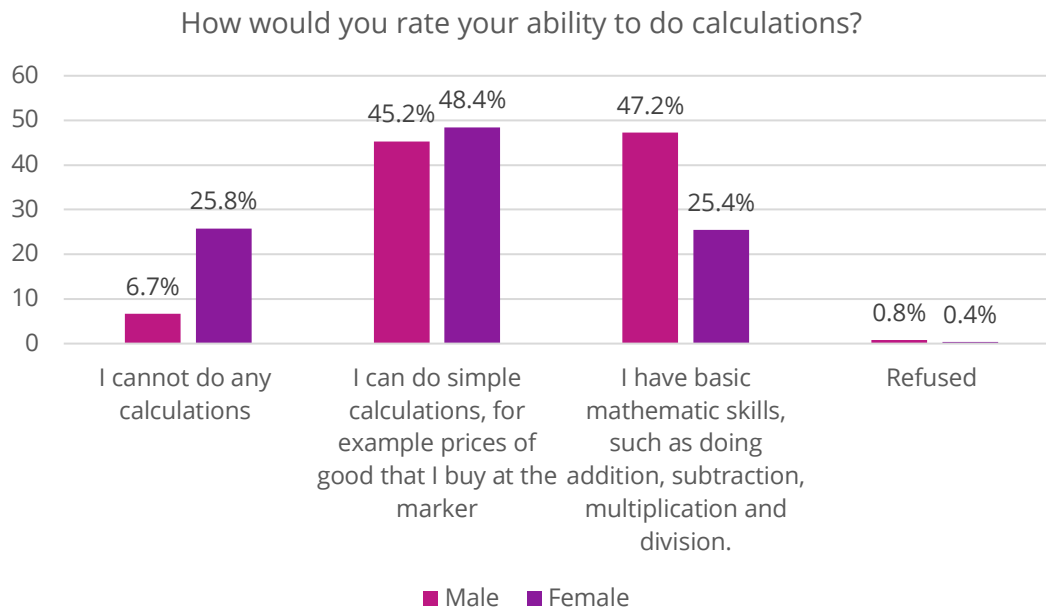


FIGURE 7 Participants ability to do calculations

Enrolment Rates

A Background on enrolment rates.

The education system in Somalia and Puntland comprises two years of early child development, eight years of primary education and four years of secondary education. The UNFPA survey records school enrolment at over a third with 36.6% of the population of persons aged six years and above being currently enrolled in school. Access to education is skewed towards males with 88.1% males enrolled compared to 35% for females. There was also a rural urban divide with enrolment rates in urban populations double that of rural populations (52.8% vs 34.2%).

There was a minimal difference between age groups 6-13 at 19.2% and age group 14-17 at 55.2%. Interestingly, this survey found that a significant proportion of the population aged 25 and above is currently enrolled in education, 16.8% for aged 25-34 and 11.9% for age 35 and above. Regionally all regions apart from Bari had

an enrolment rate of less than 50%. This was attributed to the country still being in reconstruction following the civil war. Since then there has been heavy investment into the education sector increasing levels of education.

Survey data on enrolment rates

Survey respondents were asked whether they have children of school age: 44.6% or 277 respondents have sons between the ages of 6 and 14; 48.4% or 242 respondents have daughters of primary school age. In addition, 28.2% or 141 respondents have sons between the ages of 15 and 18 and 24.2% or 121 respondents have daughters of secondary school age. Out of those respondents, 78.3% indicated that they send their sons of primary school age to school and 74.79% indicated the same for their daughters. It should be noted that respondents have likely over-reported their children's school enrolment in order to appear as good citizens. Nevertheless, the gender gap is still apparent, particularly in secondary education enrolment.

TABLE 15 The enrolment rates for girls and boys ages 6-14

Do your children between the ages of 6 and 14 attend school?				
	Sons		Daughters	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	217	78.3%	181	74.8%
No	34	12.3%	45	18.6%
Some of them attend school, while others don't.	26	9.4%	15	6.2%
Refused	0	0	1	0.4%
Total	277	100.0%	242	100.0%

More than half of primary school children are enrolled in formal schools, with a less significant percentage attending IQS or ABE. Only 7.8% of sons and 5.6% of daughters receive their education at other Quranic schools. (Note that the gender gap is calculated only taking into account the number of children enrolled in formal primary school, IQS, or ABE).

Rates of primary enrolment were similar in both Puntland and South-Central Somalia, at 79.7% and 77.9% respectively. Mudug in Puntland had the highest enrolment rates overall 90.6% and Banaadir 90.3% had the highest rate in South Central Somalia and the second highest overall. This is unsurprising considering that Banaadir is the administrative zone that

covers the same geographical area as the city Mogadishu. Lower Shabelle in South Central had the lowest number of boys' primary enrolment at 57.5% and Bari in Puntland had the second lowest at 65.4%. This was similar for girls' primary enrolment at 57.7% in Bari and 59.3% in Lower Shabelle.

The gap between girls' and boys' enrolment becomes apparent at secondary school level

Boys aged 15-18 were significantly more likely to attend secondary school than females (83% vs 76.9%). Unsurprisingly, enrolment rates are higher in urban regions than rural regions. The area with the highest secondary enrolment was Galgaduud at

TABLE 16 Type of school for children aged 6-14

Which type of primary school do your children between the ages of 6 and 14 attend?				
	Sons		Daughters	
	No.	%	No.	%
Formal primary school	127	52.3%	110	56.1%
Integrated Quranic school (IQS)	56	23.1%	44	22.5%
Alternative Basic Education (ABE)	41	16.9%	29	14.8%
Other Quranic school	19	7.8%	11	5.6%
Total	243	100.0%	196	100.0%

88.2% followed by Banaadir. The highest secondary enrolment rate in Puntland being in Nugaal at 81.8%. Interestingly, the overall enrolment for secondary school was higher than primary however there was a

smaller range in the enrolment between different locations. Again, it is likely that these enrolment rates are overexaggerated by participants.

TABLE 17 Table to show enrolment rate of children 15-18

Do your children between the ages of 15 and 18 attend secondary school?				
	Sons		Daughters	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	117	83.0%	21	76.9%
No	17	12.1%	93	17.4%
Some of them attend school, while others don't.	7	5.0%	16	5.8%
Refused	0	0.0%	1	0.3%
Total	141	100.0%	121	100.0%

TABLE 18 The reasons why children do not attend primary school

Why do your children - or some of your children - not attend primary school?				
	Boys		Girls	
	Frequency	Percent of cases ²⁵	Frequency	Percent of cases
No money to send to school	40	66.7%	39	65.0%
Other	11	18.3%	10	16.7%
No school available/school too far away	3	5.0%	7	11.7%
They need to help at home with household chores	4	6.7%	3	5.0%
Disabled/Illness	1	1.7%	3	5.0%
Family doesn't allow schooling	2	3.3%	0	0.0%
They need to work in the family business/help with farming or herding	1	1.7%	0	0.0%
They need to earn money outside the household	0	0%	0	0.0%
Education is not valuable	0	0%	1	1.7%
They need to learn a job	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
School is not safe	0	0.0%	1	1.7%
Total	71 (N=60)	118.3%	60 (N=73)	121.7%

²⁵ Since respondents could choose more than one answer option to this question, the total percentage supersedes 100.0%.

TABLE 19 The reasons why children do not attend secondary school

Why do your children - or some of your children - not attend secondary school?				
	Boys		Girls	
	Frequency	Percent of cases ²⁶	Frequency	Percent of cases
No money to send to school	20	83.3%	20	71.4%
No school available/school too far away	2	8.3%	2	8.3%
They need to learn a job	2	8.3%	1	3.6%
They need to help at home with household chores	1	4.2%	2	7.2%
They need to work in the family business/help with farming or herding	1	4.2%	0	11.5%
Other	0	0.0%	3	10.7%
Education is not valuable	0	4.5%	3	2.3%
Refused	0	1.8%	1	0.0%
School is not safe	0	0.9%	0	0.0%
Disabled/Illness	0	0.9%	0	0.0%
Family doesn't allow schooling	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
They need to earn money outside the household	0	0.0%	1	0.8%
Total	24	108.3%	28	107.1%

Attainment in Education

Women are less likely to reach higher education than men.

With regards to educational attainments, the gender gap becomes apparent immediately with female respondents less likely to reach higher levels of education than their male counterparts. The percentage of female respondents who have received no education or have attended Quranic school stands at 63.3% compared to 31.3% for men. The gap is just as apparent at higher levels of education with only 10.1% of female respondents having attended secondary

school compared to 17.5% men, and 7.53% of female respondents have obtained a university degree, compared to 20.6% of men. No females had received advanced university degrees such as master's degrees compared to 3 men.

Educational attainment varies greatly by age group for both male and female respondents. The 25 and younger group are the least likely to have no education and the most likely to have received secondary school education. The percentage of female respondents without any formal education stands at 46.2% for women aged 25 and younger and rises significantly for older age

²⁶ Since respondents could choose more than one answer option to this question, the total percentage supersedes 100.0%.

TABLE 20 Participants highest level of education

What is your highest level of education?						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No education	18	7.1%	76	30.6%	94	18.8%
Quranic school - no formal education	61	24.2%	81	32.7%	142	28.4%
Lower primary school (Grade 1-4)	20	11.5%	21	8.5%	41	8.2%
Upper primary school (Grade 5-8)	53	21.0%	26	10.5%	79	15.8%
Secondary school (Grade 9-12)	44	17.5%	25	10.1%	69	13.8%
University degree	52	20.6%	18	7.3%	70	14.0%
Advanced university degree (Master, Doctorate)	3	1.2%	0	0.0%	3	0.6%
Refused	1	0.4%	1	0.4%	2	0.4%
Total	252	7.1%	248	100.0%	500	100.0%

groups. No women over 65 had received any formal education compared to 27.3% of males in this age group.²⁷ This could suggest that the gender gap in education is reducing, which is likely an impact of the amount of investment in the education

sector in recent years. Despite this, only 18.7% of women aged 25 or younger have attended secondary school and 13.2% have obtained a university degree and none have received an advanced university degree.

TABLE 21 Highest level of education for male respondents in each age group

MALE RESPONDENTS: What is your highest level of education?					
	25 and younger	26-35	36-64	65 and older	Total
No education	2.2%	5.8%	12.3%	18.2%	7.1%
Quranic school - no formal education	13.2%	26.1%	35.8%	9.1%	24.2%
Lower primary school (Grade 1-4)	7.7%	4.3%	11.1%	27.3%	11.5%
Upper primary school (Grade 5-8)	17.0%	24.6%	21.0%	0.0%	21.0%
Secondary school (Grade 9-12)	26.4%	14.5%	12.3%	27.3%	17.5%
University degree	30.8%	24.6%	4.9%	0.0%	20.6%
Advanced university degree (Master, Doctorate)	2.2%	0.0%	1.2%	18.2%	1.2%
Refused	0.0%	0.0%	1.2%	0.0%	0.4%
Total	100.0% (n=91)	100.0% (n=69)	100.0% (n=81)	100.0% (n=11)	100.0% (n=252)

²⁷ There were only 4 female participants aged 65 and over so this statistic cannot be considered statistically representative to the population.

TABLE 22 Highest level of education for females in each age group

FEMALE RESPONDENTS: What is your highest level of education?					
	25 and younger	26-35	36-64	65 and older	Total
No education	17.6%	32.3%	45.5%	50.0%	30.6%
Quranic school - no formal education	28.6%	39.1%	28.8%	50.0%	32.7%
Lower primary school (Grade 1-4)	8.8%	9.2%	7.6%	0.0%	8.5%
Upper primary school (Grade 5-8)	17.0%	8.0%	10.6%	0.0%	10.5%
Secondary school (Grade 9-12)	18.7%	4.6%	6.1%	0.0%	10.1%
University degree	13.2%	5.7%	1.5%	0.0%	7.3%
Advanced university degree (Master, Doctorate)	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Refused	0.0%	0.0%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%
Total	100% (n=91)	100.0% (n=87)	100.0% (n=66)	100.0% (n=4)	100.0% (N=500)

Even in the youngest age group male respondents supersede their female peers. Only 15.4% of males aged 25 or younger have not obtained any form of formal education, while 26.4% of respondents in this age group have attended secondary school, and 30.8% have obtained a university degree (Table 6.21). This data suggests that the attainment of university education is increasing for both females and males. Again, it should be noted that respondents might have over-reported their educational attainments due to social desirability bias.

Educational attainments are particularly low among IDPs and refugees. A total of 71 out of 118 IDP-identified respondents have not received any formal education, while only 15 IDPs have attended secondary school and only 5 obtained a university degree. In addition, 19 out of 30 refugee-identified respondents have not received any formal education. In addition, there is a clear urban-rural divide with 39.3% of rural dwellers having not received any formal education, compared to 63.6% of urban settlers. While 18.6% of urban respondents have obtained

a university degree, this holds true for only 4.3% of rural respondents.

Access to Higher Education

Figures on tertiary education rates are difficult to come by. Somalia is still in the process of rebuilding its education sector since the civil war. In South Central a 2011 report by the Ministry of Education stated that 15 universities were operating in the region and the number was understood to be increasing significantly. The higher education sector is overwhelmingly driven by private investment, with universities being founded by NGOs or private entities and funded through tuition fees. No universities in South-Central reported receiving any government subsidies. In a 2013 survey, 51,471 students were registered across universities in Somalia and Somaliland. Of those registered 49% were in South-Central, 35% were in Somaliland and 16% were in Puntland. Mogadishu University had the largest student body at 10.2% of the overall Somalia/Somaliland student enrolment. Despite this, qualifications of teaching staff

are low with the majority of staff having only completed a bachelor's degree.²⁸ The report does not offer any gender-disaggregated information.

Access to higher education remains unattainable to many young women due to high costs and limited mobility.

As per qualitative data, access to higher education remains unattainable for many young people, as they cannot afford the fees with most universities being private institutions. Women's access is often particularly limited, as their family might not consent to having to travel or relocate to different regions.



“University Education is available, but access is to those who have money as they are all private”

Female FGD participant 35 years old, Garowe, Puntland



“Migration to foreign countries are challenges faces by the boys and girls, instead of thinking of education they want to fly outside Somalia for better lives.”

Female FGD participant, 28 Years old – Garowe, Puntland

As per survey data, female respondents with a university background are gravitating towards health science, nursing, and midwifery degrees, whereas male respondents are more likely to be enrolled



“Men and women face different challenges, young women are sometimes not allowed when parents feel an education for a woman is not important.”

Female FGD participant, 20 Years old, Galgaduud

or have obtained business, engineering, humanities or IT degrees. This trend towards a gender-specific selection of studies was confirmed by qualitative accounts. FGD participants discussed that men are more interested in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) subjects as well as business/accounting courses and, interestingly, social arts, while women tend to choose health-related professions, especially midwifery. Developing scholarships for underrepresented groups such as women and minority clans, as well as merit-based scholarships would promote access.

Vocational Training

Technical and vocational training (TVET) programmes in Somalia are characterised by little to no standardisation. There is little government coordination with most TVET programmes being privately owned and administered, often dependent on donor funding for NGOs. Prior to the collapse of the state the TVET system was well developed in Somalia but since there has been a lack of system in place and of qualified teachers and trainers²⁹.

Interviewed participants referred to different vocational trainings, most of which were run by either NGOs or private businesses. Among survey respondents, 25% of respondents (31.0% male and 19.0%

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ GIZ (2019) Rehabilitation of technical and vocational education and training in Somalia (online). Available at: <https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/75212.html> (accessed 01/03/2020).

of female) stated that they have participated in vocational training of some sort. This rather high percentage is unsurprising given the high degree of informality and lack of standardisation in TVET programmes, even a two-week course offered by an NGO could result in some sort of certification.

FGD participants shared their grievances regarding the unavailability of vocational training programmes. They explained that there are limited opportunities and courses (e.g. mechanics, construction, tailoring, cooking, henna art), that the quality is poor, and they are predominantly run by private companies so tend to be expensive. As a result, they are not accessible, especially to women. They further pointed to the short-lived nature of most programmes known to them and emphasised and that they often do not lead into employment options.

Youth opt for vocational training programmes in line with gendered expectations, strongly limiting women's options to learn a trade.

In addition, enrolment in vocational training programmes is of highly gendered nature with young women opting almost entirely for a few traditionally female vocations such as cooking and tailoring thus further limiting their options. This was evidenced in

both survey data and qualitative accounts. Young men are overwhelmingly trained in physical labour jobs such as electrical installation, mechanics, plumbing, building and construction as well as accounting. The gender split is less pronounced with regards to business management and office administration courses, while women are overrepresented in nursing, food processing/cooking, and beauty salon trainings.

Internet Access

Internet usage is low in Somalia, with only 1.88% of the population said to have used the internet in 2016. In this survey, women were less likely to have access to the internet regularly with 45.2% of male respondents stating that they access the internet every day, compared to 24.2% of women. Unsurprisingly, younger generations use the internet more frequently (50.59% for "every day" among 25 and younger; 78.3% for "never" among 36-64 year-olds). Similarly, IDP and refugee populations have less access to the internet than residents (37.7% for "never" among residents, 58.5% for "never" among IDPs, and 63.3% for "never" among refugees). Similarly, while 82.8% of urban population states that they use the Internet every day, only 17.2% of rural population access the Internet every day.

TABLE 23 Internet access by gender

How often do you usually access the Internet (on a mobile phone, a computer, or some other device)?						
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Every day	114	45.2%	60	24.2%	174	34.8%
Every 2-3 days	31	12.3%	25	10.1%	56	11.2%
Once a week	13	5.2%	13	5.2%	26	5.2%
Every 2-4 weeks	8	3.2%	11	4.4%	19	3.8%
Never	84	33.3%	137	55.2%	221	44.2%
Refused	2	0.8%	2	0.8%	4	0.8%
Total	252	100.0%	248	100.0%	500	100.0%

CONCLUSION

This report has measured and analysed the gender gap between women and men's achievements and opportunities, in relation to the four sub-components of economic participation, economic opportunities, political empowerment and educational attainment. Gender equality is highest in the field of education and lowest in formal political representation. In conclusion:

- The structure of Somalia's economy has little to no industrial production with few large-scale enterprises. The of small-scale, low-productivity businesses, brings its challenges for both women and men. However, women, in particular are disproportionately affected by unemployment, long working hours for little economic gain and a lack of access to maternity leave. Moreover, women who have not received any formal education are unlikely to be able to access formal employment situations.
- Clannism was the largest impediment to accessing the labour market and the distribution of jobs. This was particularly noted for young people with little previous experience. In addition to this, women face a multitude of challenges that limit their economic opportunities and chances to rise to a position of leadership at their workplace. This includes lower levels of literacy/education than their male competitors, a perceived inability to work in physical jobs and restrictive socio-cultural norms that place women in the domestic sphere and discourage them from actively seeking out economic opportunities.
- While the Government should prioritise the expansion of labour-intensive industries as the most urgent action to address chronic unemployment, interim measures should focus on linking highly qualified youth with potential employers, for instance through job fairs.
- The fears of the safety and security of women outside the home has further added to placing women's roles within the domestic sphere and created a significant barrier to women's employment.
- Ultimately, women's general protection at the workplace should be improved through strict enforcement of labour law provisions regarding maternity leave. These actions are likely to encourage more women to seek work outside the household.

In Somalia's traditional society religious leaders and elders are the ultimate decision-makers. As a result, women lack the social capital to exert their right to political participation it also inhibits their role in decision-making processes. Women's roles are therefore relegated to influencing decision-making processes behind the scene, for instance by advocating for a certain male candidate. Currently, the quota system, for the allocation of political seats, though an important step forward, does not go far enough to promote the actual political power of women in Somalia. Advocacy messages should increase awareness for the difference between influencing a decision and making a decision and encourage women to support each other in community meetings.

Although there is evidence of improvement girls in Somalia are less likely to reach higher levels of education than boys. In case of financial difficulties, boys are more likely to remain enrolled in school while girls are largely prepared to take on their role as wife and mother. Scholarship funds should therefore be established to retain girls in school. This with further support the facilitation of women in the workplace. To ensure the safety of girls and women outside the home, in schools and in workplaces there is a need for a better enforcement of laws on rape and sexual harassment alongside advocacy of the important role women already play in the private sector.

TECHNICAL ANNEX

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

In order to best address the above objectives of establishing a composite index comprised of four sub-components and formulating nuanced and targeted recommendations for future advocacy and programming, this study followed a mixed-methods approach. This included a thorough desk review of existing databases and related reports (e.g. on economic and education indicators) as well as legislative documents (e.g. on legislation governing topics such as non-discrimination in hiring, equal pay for equal work, and maternity leave), a quantitative household survey with 500 respondents, six Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) with relevant stakeholders, and 12 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with female and male community members.

Quantitative Household Survey

The quantitative household survey, administered to 1,200 respondents via Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviews (CATI), constitutes the core of this research assignment. The survey was administered by Consilents in-house call centre in Hargeisa utilising the mobile data collection platform ONA/ODK.

Sampling

Due to the lack of a population census since 1975, sampling for this survey relied on data from the updated version of the 2014 UNFPA Population Estimation, published by OCHA in 2017.³⁰ This version is disaggregated by district, which was necessary for creating a proportional sample for Somalia. The estimates provide a breakdown of rural,

urban, nomadic and settlements of internally displaced persons. For the purpose of regional allocation, rural, nomadic and IDP populations were combined as one rural category. The sample was stratified proportionally to the population size of the regions across Somalia and Puntland by both rural and urban settlements and gender for a randomly drawn sample size of 500.

Key Informant Interviews (KIIs)

KIIs are a crucial way to access a population of influential people who would otherwise not be captured by a typical household survey, in particular local government partners or influential private sector representatives. In analysis and report writing, this allows for new and often overlooked voices to be documented, as well as detailed experiences and sentiments that can only be gathered from open-ended questions. For the purpose of this research assignment, six KIIs were conducted to gather contextual information on gender gaps within the four sub-components and learn from key informants' perspectives on these topics. All six KIIs were conducted in Banaadir. Targeted interviewees included:

- 2 business leaders (1 male, 1 female),
- 2 government representatives (1 male, 1 female), and
- 2 leaders of civil society organisations (1 male, 1 female).

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Focus group discussions allow for nuanced and open-ended responses to difficult questions, eliciting more information on attitudes, perceptions, and experiences

³⁰ The UNFPA Population Estimation survey can be found here: <https://data.humdata.org/dataset/somalia-population-data> (Last accessed on 14 November 2018)

that otherwise cannot be obtained by a quantitative survey. While the household survey allows for analysis of general population trends, FGDs allow for more detailed reports including in-depth explorations of respondents' views and experiences. For the purpose of this research assignment, 12 FGDs were conducted to gather community perceptions on gender gaps within the four sub-components. In order to ensure a geographical spread, interviews were conducted in the regional capitals. FGDs were held with women and men separately in order to ensure that women feel comfortable speaking up and giving their honest opinions. One FGD with males and one with female were conducted in each location of Kismayo, Baidoa, South west, Beledweyne, Galmaduug and Garowe.

INDEX SUMMARY

The steps taken to calculate the Gender Gap Index are as follows:

1. Convert data to ratios/ Normalising data if necessary

Initially, all data was converted to female-to-male ratios. This was to ensure that the Index captures gaps between women and men's attainment levels, rather than the levels themselves. Indicators that were assessed on a Likert scale (e.g. literacy levels, frequency of internet usage) were calculated using min-max normalisation, which transforms the data on a common scale from 0 to 1, i.e. the maximum value possible becomes the highest score and the minimum possible value becomes the lowest score. This method is not affected by skewed values and does not make any assumptions about the distribution of the data. The obtained mean scores were then converted to female-to-male ratios as well. De jure indicators, such as existence of non-discrimination laws or legislative regulations on maternity/paternity leave, were assessed on the same scale, ranging from 0 ("non-

existent") to 1 ("existent") with an optional 0.5 step (e.g. "some laws are in place") if deemed appropriate based on research findings.

2. Truncate data at equality benchmark

As a second step, the obtained ratios were truncated at the "equality benchmark". For all indicators, this equality benchmark was considered to be 1, meaning equal chances for women and men. In line with the WEF Gender Gap Index methodology, a one-sided scale which measures how close women are to reaching parity with men has been chosen. This is the most appropriate, as it does not reward countries for having exceed the parity benchmark.

3. Calculate sub index scores

The third step in the process involved calculating the average of the indicators within each sub-component to create the sub-index scores. The Gender Gap Index uses linear, additive aggregation and weights each indicator equally within its sub-index. While there are different aggregation methods, the merit of this approach lies in its simplicity, transparency, and accessibility.

4. Calculate the final score

The composite index is in turn an unweighted average of all of the underlying sub-indices. For all the sub-indices, the highest possible score is 1 (parity), and the lowest possible score is 0 (imparity), binding the scores between equality and inequality. Similar to this, the composite index ranges between 1 and 0, allowing for comparisons to be made relative to ideal standards of equality across the different dimensions of the index.

The following tables give an overview of the indicators for each sub-component, including definitions, comments on measurement, and the figures that fed into the index.

GENDER INDEX SUMMARY

Economic Participation

Indicator	Definition	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Adult unemployment rate (as % of female, male labour force)	Share of the labour force aged 15-64 that is without work but available for and seeking employment.	Percentage of male/female survey respondents aged 15-64 that are unemployed but actively looking	23	37.5%	0.61
Female/male youth not in employment or education	Percentage of people aged 15-24 who are not in employment and not in education or training.	Percentage of male/female survey respondents aged 15-24 who are not in employment and education or training	0%	100%	0.00
Female/male high-skilled share of labour force	Proportion of a country's working-age population with a tertiary degree that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work.	Percentage of male/female survey respondents who have obtained tertiary education and are participating in the labour market (either employed or looking)	89%	96%	0.92
Female/male rate of formal employment	The number of people working in formal salaried employment	Percentage of male/female survey respondents who in formal employment.	82%	13%	0.41
Rate of under-employment	Employment at less than desired or normal working hours (40-48 hours per week). Measured by the total hours worked in all economic activities in one week.	Percentage of male/female survey respondents who work less than normal working hours per week and less than desired	86.39%	79.41%	1.00

Economic participation

Indicator	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Existing law that mandates non-discrimination based on gender in hiring	This was assessed through desk review and relevant KIIs.	0.5		
				There is currently no legislation in place that mandates non-discrimination based on gender (or any other demographic variables) in hiring.
Access to child care	This indicator looks at the length of maternity/paternity leave (days), wages paid during maternity/paternity leave, and provider of maternity/paternity leave benefits. It was assessed on various levels, including a desk review on existing legislation, quant. survey questions to relevant respondents (i.e. those in a formal employment relation), KIIs with private sector and government representatives, as well as FGDs to allow for more in-depth discussion of the subject matter.	0.5		
				Legislation mandates 4 months of paid maternity leave for both private sector and government employees. However, enforcement is weak, in particular in smaller companies, with no repercussions in case of disregard.
Ability of women to rise to positions of leadership	This was assessed through the ratio of female and male survey respondents who stated that they were in a formal employment relationship (either full-time or part-time employment) and are in a managerial role, i.e. are supervising the work of other employees.	44.1%	25.%	0.57
Percentage of women/men with an account at a financial institution	This measures the percentage of women and men who report having an account (in their own name) at a bank or another type of financial institution. Respondents were asked whether they have an account with a bank, including ROSCA, or remittance company in their name. It was made clear that the use of mobile money transfer (Zaad, hawala), which is independent from a bank account, is not what was asked for.	66.7%	70.2%	1

Indicator	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Access to financial services	Respondents were asked whether they have borrowed money/ taken out a loan in their own name from a bank or remittance company (such as Dahabshil), microfinance services (such as Salaam Financial Services or Kabaa Microfinance Institution), or ROSCA.	6%	3.2%	0.53
Access to remittances	Respondents were asked whether they personally are receiving remittances via a bank transfer or remittance company.	9.1%	9.7%	1.00
Women's ability to make financial decisions	This was assessed through a survey question asking about who in the household is responsible for major financial decisions (such as purchasing livelihood assets or land). The figures on the right refer to the percentage of respondents who indicated that either a male household member or a female household member alone is responsible for financial decisions. This does not take into account the percentage of respondents indicating that both male and female HH members are decision-makers.	38.8%	26.8%	0.94
Inheritance rights for daughters	This refers to whether daughters and sons have equal inheritance rights and was assessed through desk review of existing legislature and KIIs.	0.5	Inheritance rights are regulated through Islamic law, according to which a son inherits twice that of a daughter, a brother twice that of a sister, and the husband twice that of his wife. Considering the socio-cultural context and research findings that indicate the majority of respondents support inheritance rights as they are prescribed in Sharia law, and disagree with the notion that a daughter should have the same right to inherit family assets as a son, the gap for this de jure indicator is set at 0.5: Women have some inheritance rights but not the same.	

Indicator	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Women's secure access to land use, control and ownership and women's secure access to non-land assets use, control and ownership	This refers to whether women and men have equal and secure access to land use, control and ownership and to non-land assets use, control and ownership and was assessed through desk review of existing legislature and interviews with government officials.	1.0		
		Land ownership in Somalia is governed through secular, customary and Islamic law. The National Constitution as well as Sharia law recognise women's right to property. <i>Xeer</i> has been known to deny women their share of inheritance in both land and livelihood assets in order to protect the property of the patriarchal family. However, as this could not be substantiated within the scope of this study, this de jure indicator is set at 1.0.		

Political Empowerment

Indicator	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Quota for women on candidate lists in national/ local elections	Drawing on the on-going establishment of a quota system for political representation in Somalia, this indicator was assessed through desk review and KIIs with government and CSO representatives.	1		
Women's representation in Local Council		76%	24%	0.02
Women's representation at local council elections		83	17%	0.00
Number of female ministers compared to male number		26	5	0.10

Indicator	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Community openness towards women's participation in formal government structures	<p>In addition to establishing hard facts on women's actual representation, the quant. survey as well as FGDs assessed respondents' perceptions of and readiness towards women's political participation. Since attitudes of survey respondents do not necessarily correspond to actual levels of representation, these questions are not included in the composition of the Gender Gap Index but provide interesting comparisons between attitudes and de-facto representation. The figures on the right are the average of the mean scores of responses to the following survey questions:</p> <p>Women's participation in government structures like the national parliament and the local councils is beneficial for society. Women are sufficiently represented in the government in Somalia. Do you think women are capable of participating in all levels of government?</p>	0.76	0.78	0.97
Women's influence on decision-making at the community-level	<p>In addition to looking at formal political structures, the quant. survey as well as FGDs and relevant KIIs also assessed women's level of influence on decision-making at the community level, including the topics on which women have the most influence and whether men support them. Since attitudes of survey respondents do not necessarily correspond to actual levels of representation, these questions are not included in the composition of the Gender Gap Index but provide interesting comparisons between attitudes and de-facto representation. The figures on the right are the average of the mean scores of responses to the following survey questions:</p> <p>Women have the same right to speak up in community meetings as men. If a woman speaks up at a community meeting, her opinion is as respected as a man's opinion.</p>	0.76	0.83	0.92

Educational Attainment

Indicator	Definition	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Female literacy rate of male value	Part of the population aged 15 and over with the ability to read and write and make simple arithmetic calculations. ³¹	Average of mean scores of responses to the following survey questions: How would you rate your ability to read in your mother tongue? How would you rate your ability to write in your mother tongue? How would you rate your ability to do calculations?	55.5%	44.5%	0.80
Female net primary enrolment rate over male value	Percentage of girls and boys in the official school age range who are enrolled in either primary or secondary education.	This was assessed by asking survey respondents whether their children of primary school age are enrolled. The percentages only include those children enrolled in formal education, i.e. formal schools, Integrated Quranic Schools, Alternative Basic Education.	78.3%%	74.8%	0.95
Female net secondary enrolment rate over male value	Percentage of girls and boys in the official age range for secondary education who are enrolled in secondary education.	This was assessed by asking survey respondents whether their children of secondary school age are enrolled.	0.71%	0.66%	0.93

³¹ Definition taken from: The Global Gender Gap Index Report 2017. World Economic Forum.

Indicator	Definition	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap	
Female, male primary education attainment rate	Percentage of the population with at least a primary education, split up in lower primary (Grade 1-4) and upper primary (Grade 5-8). Data is cumulative, which means that those with secondary education and above are counted in the figures.	This was assessed in the quant. survey by asking about respondents' highest level of education. Data was disaggregated by age groups. The overall education attainment rates are the average of all age groups at the respective level, i.e. primary (lower and upper), secondary, and tertiary.	Female, male lower primary education attainment rate: 25 and younger	81.7%	57.1%	0.70
			Female, male lower primary education attainment rate: 26-35	72.6%	32.1%	0.44
			Female, male lower primary education attainment rate: 36-64	52.3%	26.0%	0.44
			Female, male lower primary education attainment rate: 65 and older	100%	0%	0
			Female, male upper primary education attainment rate: 25 and younger	74.6%	48.6%	0.65
			Female, male upper primary education attainment rate: 26-35	67.9%	21.8%	0.32
			Female, male upper primary education attainment rate: 36-64	41.9%	18.8%	0.45
			Female, male upper primary education attainment rate: 65 and older	100%	0.00%	0.00

Indicator	Definition	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap	
Female, male secondary education attainment rate	Percentage of the population with at least a secondary education. Data is cumulative, which means that those with tertiary education are counted in the figures.		Female, male secondary education attainment rate: 25 and younger	52.1%	32.9%	0.63
			Female, male secondary education attainment rate: 26-35	50.0%	16.7%	0.33
			Female, male secondary education attainment rate: 36-64	19.8%	7.3%	0.37
			Female, male secondary education attainment rate: 65 and older	100%	0.0%	0.00
			Female, male tertiary education attainment rate: 25 and younger	29.6%	12.9%	0.44
Female, male tertiary education attainment rate	Percentage of the population with tertiary education.		Female, male tertiary education attainment rate: 26-35	29.8%	9%	0.30
			Female, male tertiary education attainment rate: 36-64	7.0%	0.0%	0.07
			Female, male tertiary education attainment rate: 65 and older	100%	0.00%	0.00

Indicator	Definition	Comments on Measurement	Male Figure	Female Figure	Gender Gap
Percentage of individuals using the Internet (female, male ratio)	Frequency of internet usage on any device from any location. Assessed to provide an insight into ease of access and exposure to information.	Mean score of responses to survey question: How often do you usually access the Internet (on a mobile phone, a computer, or some other device)?	0.43	0.34	0.79

