

ARIES

Assistance to
Resource Institutions
for Enterprise Support

**SOMALIA : AN ASSESSMENT OF SWDO,
AND OF THE SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC
STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE
LOWER SHEBELLE**

Sponsored by the
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Directed by
Robert R. Nathan Associates, Inc.

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June 25, 1987

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USAID/Somalia

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*The views and interpretations in this publication are those
of the author (s) and should not be attributed to the U.S.
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ARIES

Assistance to Resource Institutions for Enterprise Support

The ARIES project is designed to strengthen the capabilities of support organizations in developing countries to implement small-scale and micro-enterprise development programs. ARIES builds on the work of the Agency for International Development's former Program for Investment in the Small Capital Enterprise Sector (PISCES) and Small Business Capacity Development projects. It works with intermediary support organizations that provide services to small and micro-businesses and industries, such as private voluntary organizations (PVOs), banks, chambers of commerce, management training centers, business people's organizations, and other developing country government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

The contract for this five-year project has been awarded to Robert R. Nathan Associates, Inc. (RRNA) with subcontractors Harvard Institute for International Development (HIID), Control Data Corporation (CDC) and Appropriate Technology International (ATI).

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The ARIES project has three major components -- research, training, and technical assistance -- designed to cross-fertilize each other. The applied research component focuses on economic, social, and organizational issues surrounding intermediary support organizations to inform AID missions and host country actions in this subsector. The training component includes design, testing, conduct and follow-up of training programs in such areas as finance, management and evaluation for PVO and NGO personnel. The technical assistance component provides short-term technical assistance to AID missions and intermediary organizations to assist small and micro-enterprise development.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADB	African Development Bank
AID	United States Agency for International Development
AFMET	Agricultural Farm Management and Extension Training
FSR/E	Farm System Research and Extension
CARS	Somali Central Agricultural Research Station
CBR	Crude Birth Rate
CDR	Crude Death Rate
CF	Contact Farmers
CSBS	Commercial and Savings Bank of Somalia
CSD	Central Statistical Department, Ministry of National Planning
DICC	District Input and Credit Committee
EEC	European Economic Community
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FEA	Field Extension Agent
FHH	Female Headed Household
FLEC	Family Life Education Center
FSR/E	Farm System Research and Extension
GSDR	Government of the Somali Democratic Republic
HRD	Human Resources Department, Ministry of National Planning
HQ	Headquarters
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank)

ILO	International Labour Organization
ILO/JASPA	Jobs and Sales Program for Africa
MCH	Maternal and Child Health
MHH	Male Headed Household
MOA	Somali Ministry of Agriculture
MOH	Somali Ministry of Health
MOI	Somali Ministry of the Interior
MOJ/RA	Somali Ministry of Justice and Religious Affairs
MONP	Somali Ministry of National Planning
NICC	National Input and Credit Committee
OEF	Overseas Education Fund
PD	Program Development
PEM	Protein-Energy Malnutrition
PHC	Primary Health Care
PP	Project Paper
PVO	Private Voluntary Organization
RICC	Regional Input and Credit Committee
RNI	Rate of Natural Increase
SDB	Somali Development Bank
SIDAM	Somali Institute for Development and Management
SOMAC	Somali Academy of Arts and Sciences
So.Sh.	Standard Acronym for Somali Shilling
SOMTAD	Somali Trade and Development
SRSP	Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party
SSA	Social Soundness Analysis

SSE	Small-Scale Enterprise
STC	Save The Children
SWDO	Somali Women's Democratic Organization
SWMP	Shebelli Water Management Project
TA	Technical Assistance
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
T+V	Training and Visit Model of Agricultural Affairs Extension
UNCDF	United Nations Capital Development Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Education Fund
USAID/Somalia	USAID Mission in Mogadishu
WED	Women's Education Department, Somali Ministry of Education
World Bank	IBRD

Exchange rate as of May 1987 -- official exchange rate So.Sh. 90 = US\$1. Parallel/market rate -- So.Sh. 140 = US\$1.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Somali Women's Democratic Organization (SWDO) asked USAID/Somalia to provide a team to initiate a project directed at improving its management capabilities and improving social and economic conditions of rural women in the Lower Shabelle Region of Somalia. A three-person team spent three weeks in Somalia assessing the organization of SWDO, its current activities in Lower Shabelle (Shebelli), and the economic activities of rural and urban women. In addition, documents and other materials were reviewed and discussions were held with donor agencies in Somalia and Washington, D.C.

The research suggests that it is feasible and highly desirable to provide technical assistance to SWDO as a mechanism for impacting on and assisting Somali women to improve their economic well-being. Of equal importance is to devise and target strategies to include women in the mainstream of development activities (viz., development projects concerned with infrastructure, agriculture, health, and water management).

There are three levels on which donors can assist Somali women to be integrated into development activities:

1. Projects that specifically target women or women's organizations; assistance to SWDO would fall in this category.
2. A women's component or add-on to a larger and sometimes unrelated project in which women's activities are separated from the main project activities.
3. Large projects in which women are integrated into mainstream efforts; special consideration should be given to assure that their needs are addressed and that they participate.

Demographic and social data suggest that Somali women are subject to greater health problems, have less education, and less de facto rights in society than men. On the other hand, women are taking an increasing role in development, especially in the urban areas, and the legal changes brought about by the Family Law of 1975 are beginning to be felt more extensively.

In the agricultural sector, women perform more than half of the labor in farming and herding, yet their importance in production is ignored by governmental agricultural services, research and extension, and by donor-funded projects, all of which tend to focus instead on women's role in marginal economic activities. Similarly, women's roles in commerce and in the small-scale enterprise sector are overlooked; projects focus on rudimentary handicraft production, while ignoring the activities in which there is a large female participation rate, such as trading. Credit programs and technical training tend to ignore the needs of women.

SWDO, with 60,000 members, has a network of executive committees linking the national headquarters, through the regions and districts, to a large number of community-based units in villages and towns. The main strength of the

organization is its network of committed members and structured committees. The membership is oriented not only toward political mobilization; they also have a mandate for economic and social development that they are now beginning to exploit more seriously. SWDO has been directed from the top and, because of the urban elite of its executive committee, its orientation has tended to reflect national policy agendas, as opposed to economic activities directed to rural and to poor women. Yet, because of its extensive network, the potential for SWDO to impact on rural development is significant. An example of its ineffective orientation toward economic activities for rural women has been its emphasis on handicrafts. This emphasis targets small groups of urban women, produces marginal income and lacks sustainability.

Donor development programs and target projects of special interest for interventions are reviewed in this report, with particular reference to women. USAID supports family health, management training, and private sector projects. The upcoming Shabelle Water Management Project (SWMP) provides an example of a mainstream project that has thus far ignored the needs, interests, and roles of women in water collection and in agricultural production. The United Nations agencies have funded agricultural credit, health, data collection, and refugee assistance programs. Some of these provide examples of projects that have targeted women specifically, but in their roles as wives and mothers rather than as key participants in mainstream economic activities. On the other hand, Save the Children has formulated an innovative enterprise development project, with training and credit components, supporting community initiated economic activities, and has made a concentrated effort to encourage women to participate. SWDO is participating in a Family Health Project and is

getting ready to implement a new project against female circumcision; this neither strengthens SWDO as an institution nor enhances its ability to impact on economic activities for women. An upcoming World Bank project, to assist the productivity and welfare of women, is proposing support to SWDO and to the Ministry of Interior. The Bank invites other interested donors to get involved in various aspects of this effort, from the project design through the final implementation stage.

Recommendations for three project interventions are given in Chapter 5. The first aims to provide technical assistance to SWDO through re-directing the organization to:

1. Focus on broad programs rather than exclusively on projects
2. Act as a linking organization between ministries, donors, and projects relating to women, in addition to implementing projects of their own
3. Increase emphasis on SWDO committees below the national level and particularly at the district and village level. All levels need to become proactive, have their own sources of funds, and concentrate on reaching women for more than political mobilization. It is recommended that participatory methods that provide feedback from rural, peri-urban, and urban women be devised and encouraged
4. Form a new unit to provide the locus for technical assistance packages for the rest of the organization, including an in-house information gathering and dissemination capability to liaise with the donor community at the national and project levels
5. De-emphasize handicrafts as the prime income generating option for women. Any handicraft project needs market study and stringent quality control

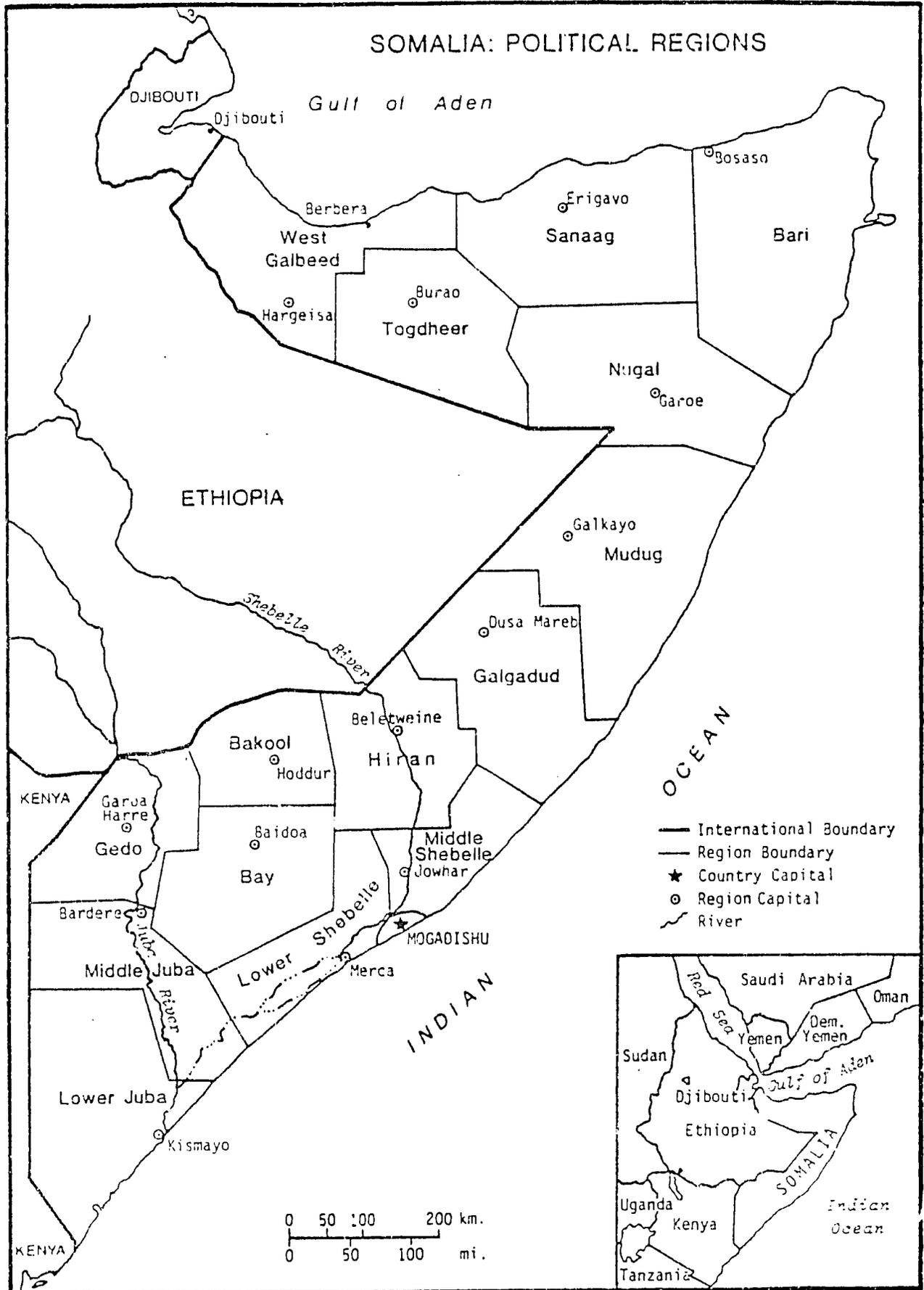
These changes will be facilitated by technical assistance and training to improve management capability, community development expertise in local committees, and database development and management.

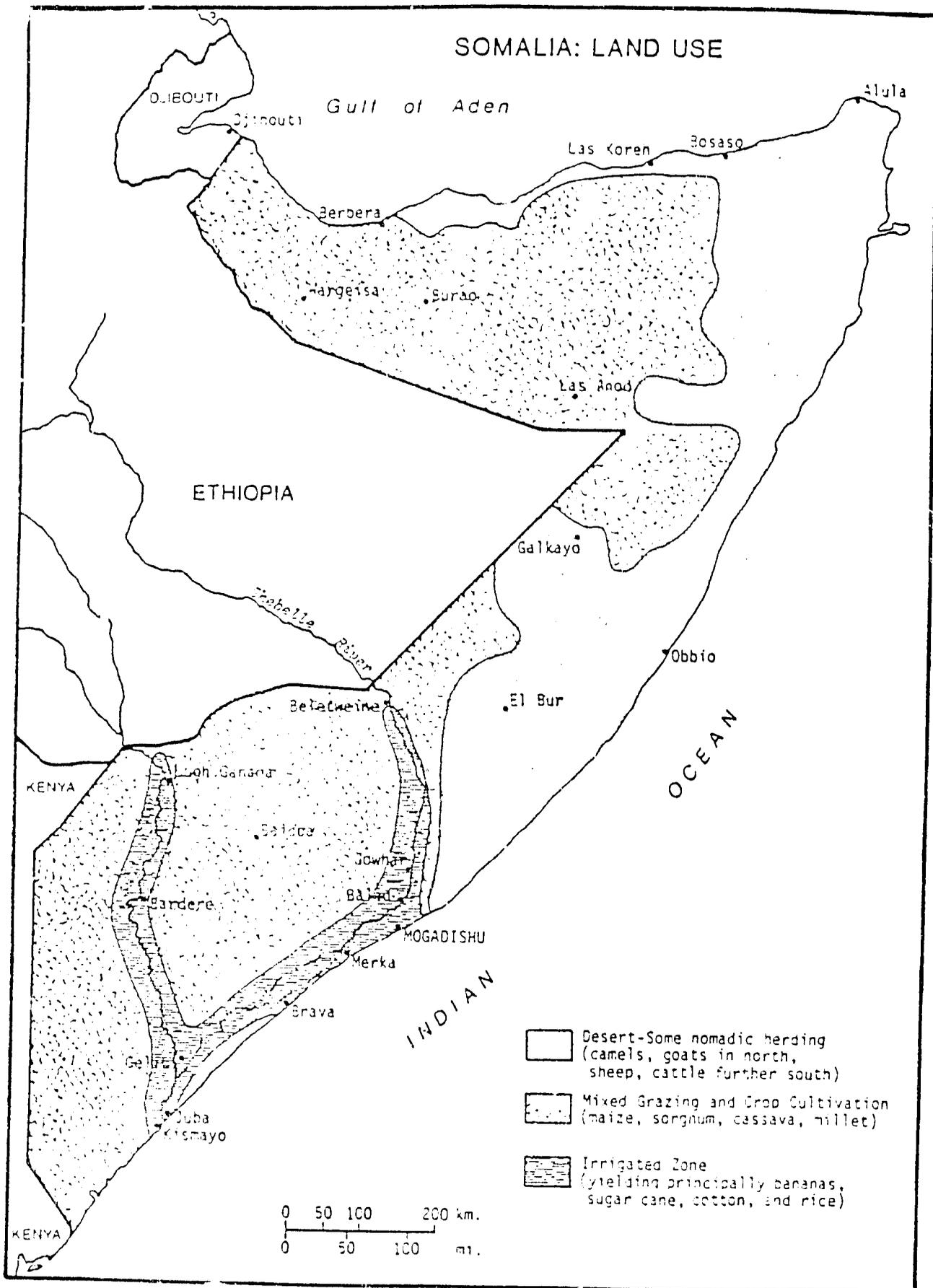
The second recommended intervention is to build in components to assist female farmers in the upcoming USAID Shabelle Water Management Project by including the needs of women in the project design and implementation. Specifically, the project intervention would include the development of infrastructure to supply potable water for household use, collection of sex-disaggregated data in the baseline survey, inclusion of women in credit and training programs, assistance to women in registering land, adaptive research to take gender related issues into account, development of strategies for reaching women with extension services, and monitoring the participation of women as project beneficiaries.

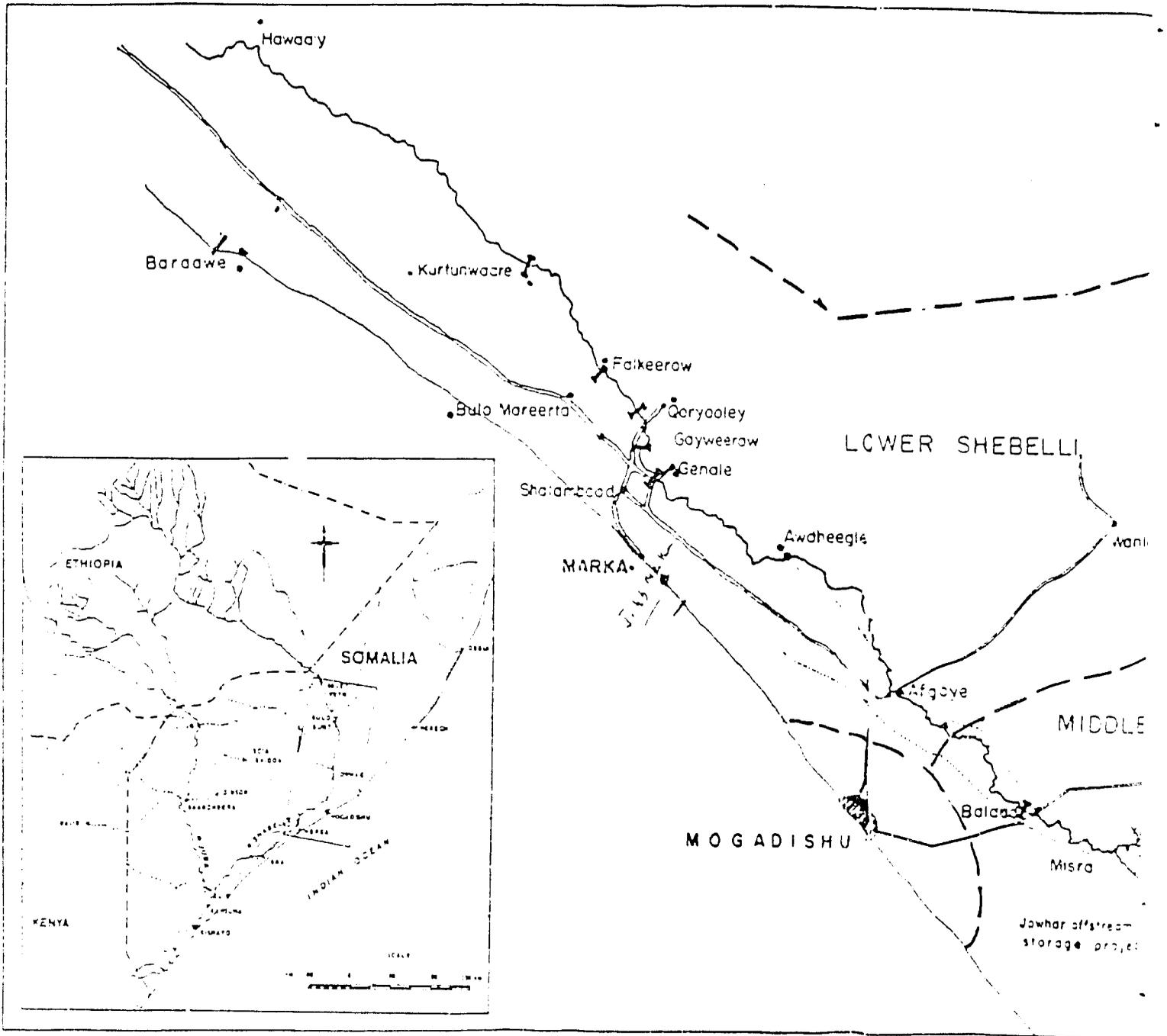
The third intervention is to increase women's access to credit of all types, but firstly, to the UNDP/FAO inputs credit program at the Commercial and Savings Bank. This would be accomplished by a program of information and outreach to inform women of the requirements for obtaining credit and to assist them to fulfill the requirements. The first requirements to be addressed are membership in a cooperative or other creditworthy group and registration of land title in an irrigated area. USAID/Somalia could also link into the present United Nations Capital Development Fund Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers Project with local currency funds.

It is also recommended that SWDO encourage the formation of non-formal savings and credit associations among women. Technical assistance could be provided to investigate the

feasibility of organizing a network of cooperative credit unions throughout Somalia.







CHAPTER 1. WOMEN IN SOMALI SOCIETY

Demographic Characteristics

Population

Compared to most other Sub-Saharan African countries, Somalia is relatively homogenous in terms of linguistic, cultural, and religious background. Somalis constitute about 98 percent of the population; the rest are Arabs, other Africans, Europeans, and Asians. The population is estimated to be between 5.9 and 7.7 million by mid-1987 (Somalia CSD and HRD 1985; Population Reference Bureau 1987), with a sex ratio of 100.4 males per 100 females, and an age distribution of 46.5 percent under 15 years of age (Somalia MONP and UNICEF 1984: 3; Somalia MONP 1984).

Approximately 32 percent of the population is urban, 34 percent is rural, and 34 percent is nomadic (AID CDSS 1985: 19). The overall rate of urbanization is estimated at 5.4 percent (World Bank 1986: 240). It is believed that this is related not only to urban "pull" factors, but also to rural "push" factors that drive people from the harsh conditions of the countryside. In the Lower Shabelle, the region of interest to this study, there are indications of net in-migration, of both men and women, because of favorable agricultural opportunities in the Shabelle River Valley.

The population of Somalia is growing rapidly because of a desire for many children, and prevailing patterns of fertility and mortality show sustained, high birth rates in combination with declining death rates over time. A recent study showed that 90 percent of the women surveyed desired more than six children (Sibanda 1985: 63-64). Another study reported that less than 10 percent of the women interviewed expected families of five children or less, and that three-fourths of the women expected family sizes of eight or more (Somalia MOH 1985: 42). In fact, the 1980-81 Population Survey found that the average number of children ever born, by the end of the childbearing years, is 7.5, and that the Adjusted Total Fertility Rate (TFR) is 7.4 (Somalia MONP 1985: 18, 22). The World Bank maintains that the TFR is somewhat lower because the nomadic population, which in most countries has lower fertility, was not included in the survey. Thus, the Bank estimates the TFR at 6.7 (World Bank 1985: 4-5).

Various estimates place the Crude Birth Rate (CBR) at 46.5-49.0 (Somalia CSD and HRD 1985; Somalia MONP 1985: 18, 22; World Bank 1985: 4-5; World Bank 1986: 230). Such birth rates have remained high over time.

Although death rates are still high, they have fallen over time, leading to a high rate of natural increase. The Crude Death Rate (CDR) has dropped from 30 per thousand in 1940 (Abdi 1985: 23) to a present range estimated widely from 15.4 to 23 per thousand (Somalia CSD and HRD 1985; Somalia MONP 1985: 27; World Bank 1986: 230; World Bank 1985: 5; Population Reference Bureau 1987).

Subtracting the CDR from the CBR provides an estimate of the Rate of Natural Increase (RNI), a measure of the annual

growth rate of the population. Although it has been estimated to be as low as 2.5 percent (Population Reference Bureau 1987), it is more commonly estimated in the relatively high range of 2.9-3.2 percent (World Bank 1986: 228; World Bank 1985: 2-3; Abdi 1981: 19-21; Somalia CSD and HRD 1985).

While overall death rates have fallen over the years, infant and child mortality rates have remained high. Recent estimates of infant mortality rates have been as high as 170 per thousand (Abdi 1985: 24) and as low as 147 (Somalia MONP 1985: 26). However, even the latter figure is high compared to many other African countries. Maternal mortality rates are also high. For every 100 children born in Somalia, one mother will die in childbirth and two others will suffer related morbidity (Abdi 1985: 24).

Table 1-1 summarizes the main demographic data discussed above.

Health and Nutrition

There are few up-to-date and reliable statistics on health in Somalia. However, until recently, the main emphasis has been upon curative health, practiced in some 80 hospitals in the country, mostly in urban areas, and 308 basic health units, including approximately 88 maternal and child health (MCH) clinics. Thus, because of the dispersion of the population over vast areas of the country, according to the National Health Plan 1980-1985, 85-90 percent of the rural and nomadic population have not had access to health facilities. For example, in 1981, there was a ratio of one physician per 15,630 persons, and one nurse for each 2,550 persons. As a

Table 1-1. Demographic Indices

Mid-1987 population	5.9-7.7 million
Sex ratio	100.4 males per 100.0 females
Population under 15	46.5 percent
Geographic distribution:	
Urban	32 percent
Rural	34 percent
Nomadic	34 percent
Urbanization rate	5.4 percent
Total fertility rate ^a	6.7-7.4
Crude birth rate	46.5-49.0 per 1,000 population
Crude death rate	15.4-23.0 per 1,000 population
Rate of natural increase	2.9-3.2 percent (annual)
Infant mortality rate	147-170 per 1,000 live births
Maternal mortality rate	1 per 100 children born

a. The average number of children a woman will bear, assuming that current age-specific birth rates will remain constant throughout her childbearing years.

result, many Somalis have had to, or have chosen to, depend upon traditional healers for care.

More recently, there has been a shift away from the curative approach to the establishment of a primary health care (PHC) system. This will focus on rural villages, with emphasis upon training community health care workers and upgrading the skills of traditional birth attendants.

Some of the most common diseases that Somalis, both male and female, suffer from are tuberculosis, malaria, shistosomiasis, and intestinal disorders. Malnutrition is also a serious problem for all Somalis, young and old. Overall, the World Bank reports that in 1983 Somalis were obtaining only 89 percent of the required daily calorie supply per capita (World Bank 1986: 234). One study indicated that 35 percent of the rural population and 19 percent of the urban population of both sexes fell below a calorie-based poverty line (Somalia MONP and UNICEF 1984: 69).

Although malnutrition is a general problem, women, as well as their children, are particularly at risk. A survey carried out in Mogadishu indicated that 34 percent of the women surveyed showed evidence of nutritional deficiency (Sibanda 1985: 51). It also indicated that 16 percent of children under five surveyed showed moderate protein-energy malnutrition (PEM), and 4 percent exhibited severe PEM. This is lower than Ministry of Health estimates for all of Somalia, that are 19 percent and 7 percent, respectively (Sibanda 1985: 73-75). The study in Mogadishu concluded that when the data are broken down by age, it could be seen that the children are born malnourished, as a result of malnourished mothers and

poor nutrition during pregnancy, and that their malnourished status worsens, for those who survive (Sibanda 1985: 76).

Other very serious health problems arise for women and their daughters in Somalia because of the almost universal practice, before the age of ten, of female circumcision and the relatively common accompanying practice of infibulation. The most serious complications occurring at the time of the operations include severe shock, hemorrhage, pain, and infections (Somalia MNOP and UNICEF 1984: 87-88; Masood 1983; SWDO 1985: 45 Abdallah 1982). Complications continue throughout life, however, and are very serious for both mothers and babies at the time of childbirth. Most women experience long, difficult, and painful births. Many of them attempt to reduce their consumption of food during the last trimester of pregnancy in order to relieve the pain of the anticipated birth. This causes further complications leading to small, underweight babies and malnourished mothers.

The practice of female circumcision is a deep-rooted tradition. But, there is rising opposition to it, particularly among Somali women. The Somali Women's Democratic Organization (SWDO), along with other organizations, is presently engaged in a campaign to educate Somalis about the health consequences of this practice (SWDO 1985: 45).

The injurious effects of many, closely spaced children upon the health of both mothers and children have also been recognized in recent years in Somalia (DeLancey 1987). Efforts to educate women about the health problems and to urge them to begin more actively to space their children are now being made, particularly through the Somali Family Health Care Association and its constituent members, i.e., SWDO, USAID,

the Ministry of Health, the Women's Education Department of the Ministry of Education, and UNICEF. Information is reaching both urban and rural women throughout the country through the SWDO communication network, but acceptance of such ideas still meets resistance because of religious tenets and cultural tradition.

Education

In the early 1970s, the Government of Somalia conducted a mass literacy campaign throughout the country. Thus, figures on literacy in the country reflect this influence, perhaps, more than that of attendance at school. For example, the Population Census of 1975 reported that 54.8 percent of the population was literate (60.9 percent of the men; 47.9 percent of the women). Yet, only 3.4 percent of those over the age of ten had ever attended school (10.5 percent of the men; 5.9 percent of the women). Literacy was slightly higher in the Lower Shabelle Region than overall (64.5 percent of total population; 69.6 percent of the men; 59.2 percent of the women). However, the percent who had ever attended school was lower in that region than for the country as a whole (3.3 percent of total population; 4.5 percent of the men; 2.0 percent of the women), probably because the number of available schools in Mogadishu is greater than in other geographic locations (Somalia MONP 1984: 119), so there are more places available.

Table 1-2, from the 1982 Labour Force Survey (Somalia MONP 1985: 25), provides information on literacy by age, sex, and rural-urban location. The table reveals, as do the earlier data, that literacy is more prevalent in urban

Table 1-2. Percent Literate by Age, Sex, and Rural-Urban Sectors

Age	Mogadishu		Other urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-24	84.5	63.3	82.1	54.8	49.7	20.3
25-49	74.5	27.5	73.1	20.9	40.4	6.6
50+	57.9	6.4	50.7	6.2	25.3	-

Source: Somalia. MONP. CSD. National Survey of Population 1980-81: Report on Findings, November 1985.

than in rural areas, and that literacy is higher among men than women in all categories.

Table 1-3 provides further information on educational accomplishment by sex and rural-urban location. Similar to the findings in Table 1-2, Table 1-3 reveals that a greater percentage of urbanites compared to rural individuals (within each sex category) and a greater percentage of men than women have completed each educational level (Somalia MONP 1985: 26). The World Bank confirms these findings. In 1983, 28 percent of the school-aged males compared to only 15 percent of the school-aged females were actually enrolled in school in Somalia (World Bank 1986: 236).

Social Characteristics

Marriage

Marriage is nearly universal in Somalia; only the physically or mentally disabled do not marry (see Table 1-4, and Somalia MONP 1985: 14-15). By age 35, nearly all Somali women have been married.

The average age at first marriage ranges from 18.6 years in the rural agricultural sector to age 20.4 years among the nomadic population (Somalia MONP 1985: 15). The earlier Census of Population differed slightly, but showed regional breakdowns as well. Thus, in the Lower Shabelle Region, women marry, on the average, at 18.7 years of age. This varies, however, according to location. Urban women in the region marry at 18.6 years; rural women marry at 18.7 years; and nomadic women marry later, at 19.3 years of age (Somalia MNOP 1984: 70).

Table 1-3. Educational Level Completed by Sex and Rural-Urban Sectors

Sector		Ever attended school	Elemen- tary	Inter- mediate	Second- ary	Univer- sity	Tech- nical
<u>Mogadishu</u>							
Male	100	52.3	15.9	22.5	10.5	2.4	1.0
Female	100	34.2	12.0	17.2	4.1	0.5	0.4
<u>Other Urban</u>							
Male	100	44.0	13.6	21.6	7.4	0.8	0.6
Female	100	21.7	8.5	10.8	1.7	0.3	0.4
<u>Rural</u>							
Male	100	12.7	6.6	4.9	0.7	0.1	0.4
Female	100	5.0	2.7	1.8	0.2	0.1	0.2

Source: Somalia. MONP. CSD. National Survey of Population 1980-81: Report on Findings, November 1985.

Table 1-4. Percent Distribution of Males and Females
by Age Group and Marital Status, 1980

Age group	MALE				FEMALE			
	Never married	Married	Widowed	Div./ sep.	Never married	married	Widowed	Div./ sep.
15-19	98	2	0	-	73	25	1	1
20-24	76	23	-	1	24	69	3	4
25-29	39	58	1	2	6	87	3	4
30-34	13	82	2	3	2	89	4	5
35-39	6	88	3	3	1	89	4	6
40-44	3	93	2	2	1	83	8	8
45-49	2	92	3	2	1	79	8	3
50-54	1	93	3	3	1	66	16	17
55-59	1	91	4	3	3	65	20	12
60+	2	86	6	6	1	28	34	37

Source: Somalia MONP.CSD. National Survey of Population
1980-81: Report on Findings, November 1985.

Childbearing begins soon after marriage and continues until the end of the reproductive years. This fact is evident from the high CBR and TFR described earlier. It also is consistent with Islamic law relating to marriage, that defines marriage as a contract that has as its main object the procreation and legitimization of children.

Divorce

Very little data on divorce are available, although it is generally believed that the rate is very high. It is also believed that remarriage occurs regularly, with short duration between unions. Table 1-4 above indicates that very few women are divorced or separated at younger ages. This could be interpreted to mean that the divorce rate is very low for young women. Or, more probably, it could mean that young women remarry soon after divorcing. In fact, data from a recent survey show that 38 percent of ever-married women had been married more than once (Somalia MONP 1981, as cited in Somalia MONP 1984: 76). The percentage of women remaining divorced or separated begins to increase with age (Table 1-4) until it reaches a maximum of 37 percent, greater than the percentage of women married or the percentage of women widowed, for women over 60 years of age. Data in Table 1-4, as well as that from the 1975 Census of Population, show that sex ratios of divorced men per 100 divorced women are quite low (see Table 1-5 below), and suggest male-female differences in remarriage (Somalia MONP 1984: 73).

Although the legal causes of divorce are limited and set forth by the Family Law of 1975, the actual causes of divorce are more numerous. For example, when a husband marries another wife, some women prefer to live separately or to be divorced. Some divorces arise out of frustration caused by

Table 1-5. Currently Divorced Males per 100 Currently Divorced Females by Rural-Urban Sector and by Age Categories

Sector	Age 14-49	All ages
Urban	21	18
Rural	38	23
Nomadic	56	39

Source: Somalia. MONP. CSD. Analytical Volume: Census of Population 1975. January 1984.

infertility. More recently, divorces have begun to result from the stress of rapid social change, as noted among resettled nomads (Masood 1983).

Women's Rights and the
Family Law of 1975

In 1975, the first Family Law was put into writing (Somalia MOJ/RA 1975). It was heralded as a landmark that gave equal rights and duties to men and women in marriage, although still maintaining the husband as the head of the family. But, it caused great dissension among many who considered it anti-Islamic. For example, by tradition, and also in accordance with Islam, men may be married to as many as four women at one time. Yet, the Family Law prohibits marriage to more than one woman except under certain conditions recognized by a District Court.

Other conditions are also regulated by the Family Law. For example, divorce used to be the absolute right of the husband whenever he wished. Under the Law, certain conditions must prevail for divorce by the husband and for dissolution of the marriage by either party, and action must be taken in court. Similarly, rules for the maintenance and guardianship of children are set out. Distribution of marital property at the time of a divorce is regulated so that a divorced woman may not be driven from her home without possessions. And, inheritance, which by Islamic law permits sons to receive twice that of daughters, should be distributed equally. In addition, beyond the realm of marriage, the Family Law has been interpreted to provide women with additional rights that allow them to participate more fully in public life, to hold political office and thus participate in decisionmaking, and particularly to have land rights that provide them with access

to credit and training (Somalia MONP and UNICEF 1984: 84). Although these and similar rights have been put into writing, many of them are not accorded in practice.

Division of Labor

Within the Household

The division of labor within the household differs, depending upon the urban-rural location of the family and the principal economic occupation of the family. That is, there are basic differences, depending upon whether or not the family is nomadic, agricultural, or urban-based and government/business/trade oriented. However, in all families, women are responsible for managing all aspects of the household, especially cooking, cleaning, and caring for the children.

Among nomadic families, women, girls, and young children, whether boys or girls, are also responsible for looking after the small livestock such as the sheep and goats, and often the cattle as well. The latter is particularly true when the men and boys drive the camels to more distant locations for water and grazing during the dry seasons when the cattle must remain closer to the water points.

Within farming families, in addition to managing the household, women also farm, producing and often marketing their crops. Typically, they are more involved in the production of foodcrops for household consumption and less involved in independent production of cash crops for the domestic or export markets than men. But, the latter does not keep them from working on their husbands' farms as well as their own.

The sexual division of labor in agriculture is discussed in greater detail under that heading in Chapter 2.

Typical of most African countries, even when women spend long hours working on their farms, they spend still longer hours working in their households. Table 1-6 provides evidence of this from a recent study carried out in the Bay Region (Longstreth 1985). The table describes the sexual division of labor by individual task within the household in typical agro-pastoral families, and emphasizes the extent to which the burden of work in the household falls upon women. In this example, women spent more than ten times as much time as men working in their households, even though they also spent 1 1/3 times as much time as men did on the farm. That is, in addition to nearly 3½ hours of work on the farm each day, on the average, the women also spent seven additional hours in household work, preparing food and cooking, caring for their children and others, sewing and caring for clothing, shopping, and gathering fuel and water. Preparation of food was, by far, the most time-consuming task in the household. Caring for children and maintaining a supply of water were the next most time-consuming tasks.

In urban areas, women's work differs from that in the rural areas. While women continue to be responsible for managing their households and ascertaining that their children are cared for, they may also need to earn an income because they must purchase most of their food and fuel, and possibly even their water. Many women engage in self-employment as traders, and increasing numbers are entering the labor force in the civil service or in private business.

Table 1-6. Average Time Spent in Productive Activities
by Men and Women in Selected Villages in Bay Region

Activity	Mean minutes per day	
	Women	Men
<u>Total Time in Agricultural Work</u>	205.23	158.60
Major crop production	143.10	88.02*
Minor crop production	0.17	0.10
Animal husbandry	34.41	36.72
Poultry	1.31	0.84
Food preparation for sale	17.45	.30**
Selling	7.34	32.67
Construction	1.79	0.00
<u>Total Time in Household Work</u>	416.05	39.17****
Food production for consumption	228.19	6.02****
Cleaning	18.26	.52****
Physical child care	55.12	4.83****
Non-physical child care	12.60	1.48**
Physical care of others	8.14	0.00
Non-physical care of others	3.91	0.00
Management	13.78	5.74**
Clothing care	8.59	0.00
Shopping	16.52	17.62
Fuel gathering	19.48	2.31***
Water gathering	31.47	0.64****
<u>Total Time in Other Work</u>	28.95	46.34
Paid Work	0.00	19.49***
Clothing construction	0.00	1.05
Manufacturing	33.90	25.81

Note: Differences in time allocations were determined with t-tests; levels of significance were designated as follow: *p<.10, **p<.05, ***p<.01, ****p<.001.

Source: Molly Longstrath. "Final Report on the Women's Time Use Study, Bay Region, Somalia, May to July 1985." Paper funded by a Women in Development Fellowship from CID/WID USAID.

Within the Labor Force

The labor force, or the economically active population, is defined as all persons of a particular age category (age ten and over, in the Labor Force Survey of 1982) who have been either working or looking for work during a specified time period, in order to generate income. It is important to note that by this definition, women who work in the household, but who do not generate an income, are not considered as part of the labor force. They are, therefore, not considered economically active.

Labor force participation rates may be determined by calculating the proportion of all persons in an age category who are members of the labor force, i.e., who are economically active. The Labor Force Survey of 1982 found that urban women have very low labor force participation rates in general, and also in comparison to urban men (Table 1-7). This results from their greater involvement in household work and the higher proportion of girls going to school in urban areas, particularly Mogadishu, than in rural areas (Somalia MONP 1985: 43, 54). Rural women, by contrast, have much higher labor force participation rates; more than half of the rural women are economically active, because of their greater involvement in livestock rearing activities and agricultural work in addition to their normal household work.

The type of work that women perform within the labor force is shown more specifically in Table 1-8. In Mogadishu, the two categories of sales workers and professional, technical, and related workers account for about one-half of the total, while the two categories of clerical-related and service workers account for another 28.4 percent of the labor force (p. 58, 65). These categories include women traders and

Table 1-7. Labor Force Participation Rates by Urban-Rural Sector and by Sex for the Twelve Months Prior to the Labor Force Survey of 1982

	Mogadishu	Other urban	Rural
Male	.5237	.5142	.7997
Female	.1371	.1274	.5285

Source: Somalia. MONP. CSD. The 1982 Labor Force Survey: Analytical Report. November 1985.

Table 1-8. Working Population Aged Ten Years and Over
by Urban-Rural Sector, by Sex, and
by Type of Work
(Last 7 Days before the Labor Force Survey of 1982)

Type of work	Mogadishu		Other urban		Rural	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
All	1,675	412	1,238	365	2,453	1,720
Not stated	22	13	4	3	12	5
Professional/technical related	197	97	127	31	54	6
Administrators, executives, and managerial	305	39	243	14	51	1
Clerical and related	179	64	142	29	38	3
Sales workers	264	104	199	91	121	52
Service workers	100	53	44	26	26	6
Agriculture, forestry, fishing, hunting	51	14	234	153	2,077	1,635
Production, transport, equipment operators, laborers	556	27	245	18	74	12
Not classified	1	1	-	-	-	-

Source: Somalia, MONP, CSD. The 1982 Labor Force Survey:
Analytical Report. November 1985.

shopkeepers, as well as civil servants and professionals such as nurses and teachers, and also secretaries, clerks, and typists. In other, smaller urban locations, women are more involved in agriculture-related occupations, with 42 percent of the workers falling within that category. In addition, another 25 percent of the labor force are involved in the category of sales workers (p. 58, 66). In the rural sector, where there are more than twice as many female employees as in the two urban sectors combined, 95 percent of the women in the labor force are involved in agricultural work, while 3 percent are working in the second largest, though much smaller, category of sales workers (p. 58, 67). It is important to note that sales workers are predominantly individual market vendors and not employees.

Overall, most studies show that the largest number of women throughout Somalia are located in the rural areas. Women who are economically active in those locations are mainly involved in agricultural work, usually as small-scale farmers or as farm laborers, receiving low remuneration for very burdensome, time-consuming, low-productivity work. Those women, in particular, should be specifically targeted for development assistance in Somalia.

CHAPTER 2. WOMEN IN THE ECONOMY

Agriculture

Overview and Constraints

Farming Systems

Women make up approximately 70 percent of the rural work force and perform 60 percent of rural production work (Ministry of Planning 1984: 79-80; Masood 1983). In the nomadic sector, the majority of households are at a subsistence level, and women are involved in livestock production. Generally women care for small animals such as calves, goats, sheep, and poultry. They collect forage, graze and milk the animals, and process and market animal products. Occasionally, they are involved in these activities in relation to large animals, although this is more usually the responsibility of men. Table 2-1 shows the division of labor in livestock management in terms of male and female household heads (MHH and FHH), wives, boys, girls, and external labor. Women are also involved in the marketing of livestock and animal products; Table 2-2 gives the levels of participation in terms of MHH, wives, and FHH. Women who head their households are more likely than wives to do tasks (such as selling large and small livestock) that are usually carried out by men.

Table 2-1. Division of Labor by Sex in Tasks
Related to Livestock Management

Tasks	MHH N:86	FHH N:10	Wives N:86	Boys N:70	Girls N:78	External	
						M	F
Herding camels	-	-	-	2.0 (3.0)	-	1.0 (1.0)	-
Milking camels	-	-	-	1.0 (1.5)	-	2.0 (2.0)	-
Herding cows	1.0 (1.0)	2.0 (20.0)	6.0 (7.0)	13.0 (18.5)	10.0 (13.0)	3.0 (3.0)	-
Milking cows	8.0 (9.0)	3.0 (30.0)	17.0 (20.0)	7.0 (10.0)	3.0 (4.0)	2.0 (2.0)	-
Herding/feeding calves	-	1.0 (10.0)	9.0 (10.5)	7.0 (10.0)	12.0 (15.0)	-	2.0 (2.0)
Collecting forrage	2.0 (2.0)	-	14.0 (16.0)	5.0 (7.0)	12.0 (15.0)	-	2.0 (2.0)
Herding goats/sheep	-	-	-	3.0 (4.0)	7.0 (9.0)	-	-
Milking goats	1.0 (1.0)	1.0 (10.0)	5.0 (6.0)	1.0 (1.5)	2.0 (2.5)	-	2.0 (2.0)
Raising chickens	1.0 (1.0)	5.0 (50.0)	65.0 (75.5)	8.0 (11.5)	19.0 (24.5)	-	1.0 (1.0)
Selling large livestock	38.0 (44.0)	5.0 (50.0)	8.0 (9.0)	2.0 (3.0)	-	-	-
Selling small livestock	21.0 (24.0)	7.0 (70.0)	30.0 (35.0)	2.0 (3.0)	-	1.0	-
Slaughtering	50.0 (58.0)	4.0 (40.0)	5.0 (6.0)	25.0 (26.0)	2.0 (2.0)	8.0 (8.0)	-
Preparing hides/skins	30.0 (35.0)	2.0 (20.0)	15.0 (17.5)	19.0 (20.0)	-	2.0 (2.0)	-
Preparing milk products	-	5.0 (50.0)	37.0 (43.0)	-	10.0 (13.0)	-	-
Marketing milk products	-	3.0 (30.0)	21.0 (24.0)	1.0 (1.5)	5.0 (6.5)	-	-
Marketing meat and eggs	1.0 (13.0)	6.0 (60.0)	35.0 (40.5)	-	5.0 (6.5)	-	-

Source: WED/FAO Rural Household Survey, 1983.
Note: Number in () is a percentage.
Masood (1983:27).

Table 2-2. Levels of Market Participation

	Male H/H	Wife	Female H/H
Marketing item	N = 86	N = 86	N = 10
Large livestock	38 (44 percent)	8 (9 percent)	5 (50 percent)
Small livestock	21 (24 percent)	30 (35 percent)	7 (70 percent)
Milk products	-	21 (24 percent)	3 (30 percent)
Meat and eggs	1	35 (41 percent)	6 (60 percent)

Source: WED/FAO, Rural Household Survey, 1983).

In the Lower Shabelle and Juba riverine areas, many households are agricultural or agro-pastoral and women are involved in all aspects of farming at both subsistence and cash sales levels. The sexual division of labor and the contribution of women and men to farming activities are given in Table 2-3. Standard descriptions of the sexual division of labor in African agriculture often specify that men clear and prepare the land, while women plant, weed, and harvest. Careful studies all over the continent show that women and men are involved in a variety of farm operations, many of which overlap (see Spring 1985; 1987). The Somali data in Table 2-4 show that both sexes do all tasks and that FHH perform these operations (such as land clearing and preparation, planting, weeding, irrigating, transporting, and digging storage pits) in greater frequencies than wives, presumably because of the absence of male labor. There are no sex differences in fertilizing crops, but the incidence of use of this input is low.

Data from the time use study given above in Table 1-6 (Longstreth, 1985) show that women in the Bay Region spend more time (205 minutes or about 2½ hours per day) in agricultural work than do men (159 minutes or about 1½ hours per day). Minor crop production and animal husbandry tasks are similar in time expended, but women spend an hour per day more than men on the production of the major crops. Women consider weeding done with a hoe as the most tiresome task, according to Longstreth.

It is important to emphasize the large amount of work and responsibility women have in the production of staple and cash crops (such as maize, sorghum, sesame, tomatoes, and bananas) and of livestock enterprises (such as cattle and

Table 2-3. Division of Labor by Sex in Agricultural Tasks

Task	Male head of household N=85	Women in household N=84	Female head of household N=10
Land clearance	53 (62.3)	49 (57.7)	7 (70.0)
Land preparation	47 (55.2)	48 (56.4)	7 (70.0)
Planting	63 (74.1)	66 (77.6)	9 (90.0)
Fertilizing	9 (10.5)	10 (11.7)	1 (10.0)
Weeding	59 (69.4)	60 (70.5)	8 (80.0)
Irrigation	32 (37.6)	11 (12.9)	5 (50.0)
Bird scaring	33 (38.8)	30 (35.2)	4 (40.0)
Harvesting	58 (68.2)	67 (78.8)	8 (80.0)
Transport	20 (23.5)	36 (37.8)	5 (50.0)
Threshing	9 (10.5)	64 (75.0)	8 (80.0)
Digging pits/storing	56 (65.8)	34 (40.0)	7 (70.0)
Marketing large quantities	42 (49.4)	26 (23.5)	6 (60.0)
Marketing small quantities	13 (15.2)	50 (58.8)	5 (50.0)

Note: Number in () is a percentage.

Source: WED/FAO, Rural Household Survey, 1983.
Ministry of Planning (1984: 81).

small ruminants). The data on their work is especially important because of stereotypical notions that women are only or primarily responsible for small kitchen gardens and chickens. This misconception has led to the rationale that programs for women should emphasize advice on horticultural crops and poultry. In fact, Somali women, just as Somali men, require technical packages and extension advice on major and minor crops and on small ruminants and cattle.

Women are also responsible for fetching water and fuel. According to the data in Table 2-4, women in Lower Shabelle spend between four and seven hours per collection and they collect fuel between one and seven times a week. Water collection in the region takes half an hour in the wet season and eight hours in the dry season (Table 2-5). In the wet season, women may take several trips per day to fetch water, but in the dry season, they usually make only one.

It is important for programs and projects to appreciate women's work in fetching water and that lengthy collection times affect agricultural and domestic work schedules. Furthermore, water for household use from streams and irrigation channels is prone to waterborne diseases, especially schistosomiasis in Lower Shabelle. A proposed water management project (see Chapters 4 and 5) should address both household water supply and women's roles as agriculturalists in the target area.

Wage Labor

Most women in the agricultural sector are concentrated in subsistence farming as unpaid family workers. Some of these women also perform agricultural wage labor, of which there are two types. Poor and landless women may hire themselves for

Table 2-4. Time Spent in Fuel Collection

Region	Frequency/ Week	Average time/ Collection
Lower Shabelle N:24	1-7 times N:18	4-7 hours N:18
Bay N:37	1-8 times N:34	1-9 hours N:34
Middle Shabelle N:35	2-3 times N:30	2-4 hours N:24
Total N:96	1-9 times N:82 (average)	3-4 hours N:76 (average)

Source: WED/FAO Rural Household Survey, 1983.
Masood (1983:28)

Table 2-5. Time Spent in Water Provision

Village	Round trips	
	Wet season	Dry season
Sarman Dheer	½ hour	6 hours
Hareero Jiifo	1½ hours	6 hours
Shabelle Dugsilo	½ hour	8 hours
Wasta Jaffay	½ hour	4 hours
Buulo Hawo	½ hour	8 hours
Lootis	½ hour	6 hours
Robay Gadud	½ hour	3-6 hours
Gaduudo Dhurti	1 hour	6 hours
Bulio Fur	½ hour	1½ hours
Durei Aki Galle	½ hour	5 hours

Source: Ministry of Mineral and Water Resources and Water Development Agency, 1983.

Masood (1983:28)

piece work or day work to individual wealthier farmers in the area for cash or kind payments. The farm operations they perform are usually weeding and assistance with harvesting (threshing and transporting). Wages are low and employment is seasonal and temporary.

Women are also employed on a seasonal, but more regular daily basis on plantations, state farms, and cooperatives where they tend to do planting, weeding, and harvesting. Women work on bananas in Lower Shabelle, the main cash crop and the country's second largest export. Table 2-6 shows that women are involved in transporting seeds and fruit, planting, hoeing, fertilizing, and cutting the fruit (SWDO 1985: 56). Women also clean and pack the bananas. In total, women account for 57 percent of the total labor force involved in banana production. Currently there are no differences in pay scales between men and women doing the same jobs, but there are pay differentials for different jobs. Women interviewed at one of SOMALFRUIT's packing plants in Lower Shabelle reported that they work three to four consecutive days when ships come into port (about three times per month), earning a total of So.Sh. 300-500 for the period worked, depending on task performed. Some of these women, who are SWDO members, also had irrigated farms. They had a variety of strategies that included cultivation by themselves and their families of maize, sesame, and tomatoes, depending on the season, cultivation of fruits (soursop, papaya), renting some of the land and receiving payment in crops grown, fishing with nets and traps, and seasonal weeding on nearby Italian plantations.

Registration and Land Tenure

The traditional land tenure system is based on the household's continual usage or inheritance of a plot. Recent

Table 2-6. Work Division by Men and Women
in the Banana Plantation

Banana works	Number of women		Percentage of women	No of men	
	10-14	15-50		10-14	15-59
Carrying in seeds	-	80	80.0	-	20
Putting the seeds in lines	-	16	39.0	-	25
Sowing	-	80	80.0	-	20
Irrigation	-	-	-	-	120
Hoeing	50	100	51.7	60	80
Fertilizing	-	100	83.3	-	20
Pruning	-	-	-	-	90
Harvesting	-	-	-	-	12
Carrying the fruit	-	130	81.3	-	30
Cutting	-	20	66.7	-	10
Cleaning	2	8	100.00	-	-
Packing	<u>2</u>	<u>30</u>	100.0	<u>-</u>	<u>-</u>
Subtotal	52	564		60	427
Total		616			487

Source: SWDO (1985:56)

land tenure legislation allows long-term registration of lands in individual names, within a certain range of minimum and maximum sizes. With those recent changes in the law, the best, irrigated agricultural land is rapidly being registered in the names of wealthy, often well-educated, urban men who know the mechanics of acquiring land. In research conducted in October 1986 by members of the Faculty of Economics at Somali National University, a not uncommon complaint of farmers along the Shabelle River in Afgoi District was that their land, that had been in actual use under the traditional land tenure system, had been taken over by wealthy, large-scale farmers from Mogadishu. Some of the poor farmers maintained that they had to resort to a farming system of kala goys (share cropping).

More often than not, the land that a woman farms is not registered in her own name, for either cultural or economic reasons. A married woman is less likely to farm her own land; she is more likely to farm a portion of the land that may be registered in her husband's name. Women tend to have smaller plots than men and the plots are less likely than men's plots to be irrigated. When a large plot of land is registered in a woman's name, it has been found, sometimes, that this has been done to disguise the identity of a prominent husband. Yet, it is important for women to have access to titled land, particularly when they need seasonal credit for inputs to expand production.

Assistance to Farmers

Research and Extension

The agricultural crop sector produces 11 percent of GDP and has been a focus of Somali hopes to increase exports and

improve the lives of villagers. The Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) has several research stations and extension programs. The Somali Central Agricultural Research Station (CARS) in Afgoi, originally set up with USAID and FAO funding, focuses on irrigated crops. Its mandate includes foodcrops, especially grains (maize), legumes, and oil seed crops. Along with standard sections such as soils, agronomy, horticulture, pathology, entomology, irrigation, forage, and weed control, is a new farming systems research and extension (FSR&E) section and team. The FSR&E section includes two extensionists. There are hopes that some feedback from extension and from farmers may be obtained by this arrangement. The team includes an agronomist and an entomologist but lacks an economist/rural sociologist. Up until now, research findings have been given in annual reports and there have been no mechanisms to get feedback from extension or from farmers.

The Agricultural Extension and Farm Management Training Project (AFMET), a multi-donor project (IBRD, USAID, ADB, and GSDR), operates through the Training and Visit (T and V) Model in which each Field Extension Agent (FEA) works with 64 contact farmers (CF), who are divided into eight groups; each CF has ten families to whom to extend information. FEAs are high school graduates interested in agriculture who receive a three-month training course. They are assigned to the village and then trained for a season. Most FEAs are young men. Although some women were hired, few elected to stay in the rural occupations and left the employment. The T and V system provides for monthly and fortnightly (bi-weekly) refresher sessions for FEAs so they can give recommendations every two weeks to farmers.

The climate of Somalia is divided into four seasons: two rainy seasons (Gu and Der) each followed by a dry season. The

Gu is the long rainy months from March/April to June/July in which up to 70 percent of total rainfall of 100-500 mm/year falls. Der lasts from September/October to November/December. In Lower Shabelle, maize is grown during the Gu season.

The Lower Shabelle Region has both irrigated and dryland farming. Large-scale private and state farms produce bananas, rice, and sugar. Smallholders on irrigated land grow maize and sesame in rotation with bananas and other horticultural crops (papaya, grapefruit, and vegetables). In rainfed or dryland agriculture, smallholders grow sorghum, and some pulses (cowpea, mung bean) and sunflowers/safflowers. In Lower Shabelle, AFMET works in five extension areas (Merka, Merka II, Awdhaegle, Qorioley, and Afgoi). Table 2-7 gives some present yields as well as some short-term projections that various agricultural projects might hope to accomplish.

Through FSR&E, the constraints that farmers experience have been determined and extension messages have been formulated to remedy the constraints that mostly focus on low plant populations, untimely weeding, water management, and pest management. In addition, farmers are affected seriously by the lack of credit for inputs, drought every three or four years, difficulties in obtaining plowing services (tractors), and soil salinity.

AFMET is involved with research trials in order to verify extension recommendations and to provide practical exercises for FEAs and for farmers. Work has been conducted through simple on-farm trials such as different levels of nitrogen and with different levels of plant populations, different levels of nitrogen with different levels of weeding, and maize/cowpea intercropping mixtures. Based on trial and other results, the

Table 2-7. Present and Short-Term Improved Yields of Crops in the Project Area

Crop	Unit	Present yield average ^a	Projected small scale	Yield large scale
Sorghum	qt./ha. ^b /season	6.2	7.0	21.0
Maize	qt./ha./season	10.4	12.0	21.0
Rice	qt./ha./season	10.0	14.0	25.0
Sesame	qt./ha./season	4.6	5.0	8.0
Groundnut	qt./ha./season	5.0	6.0	10.0
Cowpeas	qt./ha./season	4.8	6.0	10.0
Cotton	qt./ha./season	5.0	8.0	16.0
Sugarcane	mt./ha. ^c /year	55.5	-	90.0
Bananas	mt./ha./year	21.2	-	25.0

a. Under irrigation, except sorghum.

Source: Somalia Agricultural Sector Survey (n.d.): 80.

b. One quintal = 100 kilograms/hectare.

c. Metric ton/hectare.

constraints and the various extension messages have been developed (see Table 2-8).

AFMET personnel in Janale (Genale) have distinguished three types of farmers belonging to three different recommendation domains in their target areas. These are traditional farmers who continue to farm without adopting any of AFMET's improved practices or technologies. These farmers realize maize yields of ten quintals/ha. (1,000 kg./ha.) for the Gu season. Advanced farmers, who are using AFMET's recommendations, have yields of 45 quintals/ha. (4,500 kg./ha.) and the intermediate or "transitional" farmers have yields of 25 quintals/ha. (2,500 kg./ha.). It would be useful to have data on the characteristics of each type of household in terms of its composition and available labor, sex of household head, crop and livestock enterprises, and off-farm activities to see whether or not female-headed households have been affected much by extension.

AFMET's contact with farmers is given in Table 2-9. Fifty FEAs, five of whom are women, have reached 126 villages in 1986 and the hope is to reach 225 in 1987. Compared to similar programs in other countries, the number of farm families claimed to have been reached (34,080 in 1986 and 43,320 in 1987) seems too large relative to the number of contact farmers (2,400 in 1986 and 3,200 in 1987). AFMET personnel in Lower Shabelle mentioned that at present, less than 0.5 percent of these are women, but that the goal is to have two women as part of each group of eight CFs. The staff noted that it was culturally possible for male FEAs to work with female farmers, although there are others who would disagree. However, since extensionists choose to work with farmers who have land title, they may encounter difficulties finding women with title to land (see land tenure and

Table 2-8. Constraints and Types of Extension Messages

Constraint	Types of Extension Messages
Low yield	Increase plant populations (density and spacing) (50,000 plants/ha.) Seed selection Improved seed Land preparation Fertilizers: amounts and timing
Weeds	Deep plowing Manual weeding Early and timely weeding Crop rotations Intercropping Chemical control
Pests (maize-stalk borers)	Control for maize, cowpeas, and sunflowers Crop rotation Better land preparation Chemical control
Water/irrigation	Canal cleaning Problem solving for water management Machinery maintenance
Land preparation	Oxen training in rainfed areas (tsetse in irrigated areas) Tractor plowing
Lack of information about farmers	Record keeping

Table 2-9. Extension Activities in Lower Shabelle,
1986-1987
(Category for Number of Female Contact Farmers Added)

	Merka I		Merka II		Awdhaegle		Qorloley		Atgoi		Total	
	1986	1987	1986	1987	1986	1987	1986	1987	1986	1987	1986	1987
No. of FEAs	10	9	9	8	9	10	12	14	10	9	50	50
Village reached	38	27	18	37	25	41	22	80	23	40	126	225
Farm families reached	6,720	7,740	6,200	6,200	5,400	8,600	8,760	13,040	7,000	7,140	34,080	43,320
Number of contact farmers	480	576	432	512	432	640	576	896	480	576	2,400	3,200
Number of female contact farmers												
Package demonstrations	166	300	167	247	148	431	178	612	166	379	825	1,949
Comparison trials	190	250	203	201	224	208	269	287	216	197	1,102	1,143
Fertilizer plots	20	24	15	24	19	28	17	33	4	20	75	129
Farming systems research	16	32	12	24	12	28	8	33	12	36	60	153
Research extension link	-	5	5	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	10
Food security survey points	1	1	1	1	4	4	1	2	-	-	7	8
Monitoring and evaluation survey points	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	5

registration below). In addition, the T and V system schedules contacts with farmers at regular intervals and times. Unless these meetings are synchronized with the time women have available, women may be bypassed by extensionists. Nevertheless, the staff commented that it could be possible for women to be chosen as CFs, trial cooperators, and targets of extension services, but this would take some support and direction to staff from the senior AFMET officers.

Record keeping to collect information on project participants is an important component of the AFMET extension program. No sex-disaggregated data are collected, but extension data on standardized reporting formats are collected by the staff. These could easily be changed and used by the FEAs. An example of a sex-disaggregated format is given in Appendix C.

Credit

Credit is important for increasing agricultural productivity. Medium- and long-term credit is necessary for the purchase of agricultural equipment such as tractors, or for extensive land improvement such as digging irrigation canals or purchasing a pump. Short-term credit is also important for the purchase of seasonal inputs such as improved seeds, fertilizer, and pesticides, because it is difficult for farmers to pay for such inputs before they sell their crops at harvest time.

In Somalia, there are two main sources of credit from the formal, financial structure of the country, the Somali Development Bank (SDB) and the Commercial and Savings Bank of Somalia (CSBS). The SDB provides medium- and long-term credit in the productive sectors of the economy, such as agriculture,

livestock, and industry. The bank's headquarters are in Mogadishu and there are branches in Hargeisa in the North and Kismayo in the South.

The Commercial and Savings Bank of Somalia provides short-term credit, especially to the commercial sector. The bank has 38 branches throughout the regions and districts of the country. The bank has recently initiated a new project with the assistance of the UNDP and the FAO, and a grant from the UNCDF, to provide seasonal credit to small-scale farmers. This credit program will be discussed more fully in Chapter 4 under the heading "projects of special interest for interventions."

In some African countries, there are a variety of non-formal or semi-formal types of savings institutions that are used by those who do not have access to the formal banking structure. Such institutions are conspicuously absent in Somalia, except for rotating credit associations, used most often by market women in urban locations. The dearth of alternative institutions is at least partly due to the Islamic belief that interest payments might be usurious.

It is difficult for small-scale farmers, whether men or women, to obtain credit in Somalia because they so often lack collateral in the form of titled or irrigated land necessary to satisfy formal bank requirements for loans. But, it is even more difficult for a small-scale woman farmer to obtain access to credit, partly due to culture, and partly to economics. If a woman is married, she is less likely to farm her own land than a portion of her husband's land. If she has her own land, it is likely to be a smaller plot of land than those of men, and it is less likely to be irrigated or registered. Women are often reluctant to apply for loans because they fear

that they will not receive them, or because they do not know the mechanics of obtaining loans or how to complete the paperwork. They may not have the time to spend away from their family or the money needed to register their land or to travel to the bank to convince officials to give them a loan. The latter is particularly true for the SDB, as there are only two branches outside of Mogadishu. But, it is also true to a lesser extent for the CSBS.

It is evident from the few data available from these two institutions that women have received only a very small share of the total credit extended thus far (SWDO 1985: 60-61). No credit was provided to women by the SDB prior to 1982. Table 2-10 provides data on credit extended to women in 1982-84, although the figures are incomplete. Nevertheless, it is possible to see that the number of female beneficiaries of credit from the SDB is very small and that credit to women as a percent of total credit was also very small. Only 14 or 15 women in all of Somalia received credit from the SDB in 1984. And, except for the one female beneficiary in Kismayo in 1984, the amount of credit extended to women as a percentage of all credit extended by the bank has ranged between 0.0 and 8.2 percent.

The data available for the Commercial and Savings Bank of Somalia are similar (see Table 2-11). Only three months in 1985 were available. But only 25 women received loans from all 38 branches during that time period (SWDO 1985: 62-63). And, the amount extended to women as a percent of total credit extended ranged from only 0.4 to 7.0 percent, a very small proportion.

Women could potentially benefit from greater access to credit to increase agricultural productivity. They need

Table 2-10. Credit Extended to Women by the Somali Development Bank, 1982-84

Location and year	Amount	Percent of total amount	Number of beneficiaries
Mogadishu			
1982	31,729,220	1.0	3
1983	n.a.	3.0	3
1984	59,302,157	8.2	11
Hargeisa			
1982	4,856,245	4.3	5
1983	n.a.	1.2	5
1984	n.a.	5.6	2-3
Kismayo			
1982	169,969	3.5	1
1983	0	0.-	0
1984	n.a.	44.1	1

Note: n.a. = data not available.

Source: SWDO. Women in the SDR, Mogadishu: SWDO, 1985.

Table 2-11. Credit Extended to Women by the
Commercial and Savings Bank of Somalia,
January-March 1985

Month	Total amount	Women's share	Percent of total	Number of women who received loans
January	161,421,210	11,300,000	7.0	4
February	709,562,320	2,800,000	0.4	7
March	277,715,316	12,682,761	4.5	14

Source: SWDO. Women in the SDR. Mogadishu: SWDO, 1985.

assistance, however, to remove the present constraints. Some recommended interventions are presented in Chapter 5.

Cooperatives

Cooperatives are active in many aspects of the Somali economy. There are multi-purpose cooperatives, group farm cooperatives, and to a much lesser extent, cooperative farms. The multi-purpose cooperatives may focus on agriculture, industries and handicrafts, livestock, fisheries, transportation, consumer trade services, and forestry. Among them, the agricultural cooperatives join two to six villages and have a minimum membership of 100; the land and private property remain under the individual ownership of each member. Cooperatives grant credit, provide machinery, sell produce, carry out social and cultural activities, gain access to extension services, increase land holdings, and promote the joint accumulation of working capital.

Group farms have a minimum of 25 farmers or landless workers who practice collective or semi-collective cultivation, usually using modern technologies such as tractor ploughing, fertilizations, and plant protection. Cooperative farmers use the land collectively and pool their labor and other resources.

The following table (Table 2-12) lists the six types of cooperatives, and the frequencies of each type for the country and for Lower Shabelle.

Although total membership of cooperatives in the area was not determined, an examination of the records of a newly established one revealed that of 110 members, 32 were women.

Table 2-12. Cooperatives in Somalia

Type of cooperative	Number of cooperatives	Number in Lower Shabelle
National Agricultural Cooperative Organization	413	87
National Fisheries Cooperatives Organization	23	4
National Organization of Livestock, Forestry, and Incense Cooperatives	83	5
National Cooperative Organization of Handicrafts and Small-Scale Industrial	22	5
National Organization of Transport and Construction Cooperation	33	7
National Organization of Consumer and Service Cooperatives	<u>70</u>	<u>11</u>
	644	119

No women held any leadership position or served on any committees. There is one woman who is the president or chairperson of a cooperative (the "Ubax" Cooperative in Qorioley), who was elected over three male candidates. She is an active person in local government. The SWDO Regional Chairperson observed that SWDO could mobilize women to stand for election and to serve on committees.

Multi-purpose cooperatives have been designated by the Commercial and Savings Bank as acceptable for the joint guarantee of loans extended through the UNCDF Seasonal Credit for the Small Farmers Scheme. In fact, it is primarily members of cooperatives who qualify for credit; hence, women need to be members to qualify.

Commerce and Small-Scale Enterprise

Overview and Constraints

The scope for viable commercial and other small-scale enterprises (SSEs) varies with population density. Clearly, the larger the market, the greater the diversity of enterprises and potential for development. This means planners need to be responsive to the realities of specific locations when projects are designed. Small enterprise development must not be viewed in isolation, as SSEs are clearly a sub-sector of private enterprises. More importantly, this subsector is a vital component of a larger economy that is complementary to the agricultural and livestock sectors. It is a source of earnings and employment, a provider of non-farm goods and services, and an important farm-to-market link in the economic chain.

Rural small enterprises exist in towns and villages in three basic forms:

1. Productive enterprises such as carpenters, blacksmiths, bakers, potters, weavers, tailors, and shoemakers
2. Processing enterprises such as maize grinding mills, sesame oil processing, and confection production
3. Service enterprises such as tea shops, restaurants, fuelwood vendors, retail shops, barbers, transportation services (donkey carts and trucks), and repair and maintenance shops.

Characteristically, men's enterprises are small in size and employ the owner and few workers. Most of them rent a small workshop and pay annual taxes. Their markets are in their own villages and sometimes extend to the neighboring villages and towns. Women, however, tend to concentrate in income generating activities with low barriers to entry and requiring minimum skills and investment. With few exceptions, they work singly and realize no economies of scale in purchasing or marketing. Women living in towns or villages generally do not farm. The majority are in very small commercial trading, production, or service businesses with few, if any, employees. They generally do not pay rent or taxes.

Trading

In the market places, women generally sell produce or goods they have bought from a wholesaler or cooked themselves. In Merka, women dominated the firewood business, from the wholesalers down to those who broke up kindling, while only men sold charcoal. In Mogadishu, women also sold fabric and

clothing, although they competed with male shopkeepers in this market.

In all the towns examined, the stall holders and shop owners were mainly men, although sales staff could be female, usually family members and unpaid. However, there were exceptions of women who were successful in owning and managing these enterprises.

Women vendors sold from mats on the ground, usually in the same location each day. They went to work every day and were the sole support of their families. Many had been in business for a number of years, but their working capital only grew in response to inflation. Women did not move from a place on the ground to a rented stall. It is unclear if this is due to chance, cultural barriers, lack of capital, or the type of product sold.

Working capital varied from nothing (a lady selling wood she had collected) to So.Sh. 20,000 (a wood wholesaler who buys by the truckload). The average stock was So.Sh. 1,000, that turned over every two days. Respondents reported obtaining start-up capital from families or from husbands. The women were unwilling or unable to say how much they earned in a day, either from reticence to discuss income, or because they did not keep adequate accounting records. (Only the firewood distributor had a watch, a measurable sign of wealth.)

Housewives will make baskets and other crafts, incense, or food specialties at home for sale to a middleman who then resells in the market. Those close to a market will collect extra firewood, thatch, or hay to sell in the town as a source

of cash. Women farmers usually sell their cash crop to a wholesaler, who only buys a single product, and then distributes to the market vendors. Wholesale markets are located outside the town center and are dominated by men. Smaller villages do not have a market and women are not so visible in the commercial sphere.

Small-Scale Production

In towns and villages, women who make pottery and other crafts, prepare foods and sweets, and work as dressmakers conduct these activities mainly as a cottage industry. Such activities imply that the husband or father is the main breadwinner; more importantly, they allow women time to rear a family and look after a house. Rarely do the producers sell their own output in the market. Female heads of households who need to support themselves are full-time vendors in the marketplace.

In Brava, there are a number of family workshops making shoes. These are managed by the father and the women work alongside boys as part of the family unit. This family cooperation is also seen in the weaving cooperative in Jelib-Merka. Here, a female family member, usually the wife, prepares the threads and strings the looms, while the man weaves the cloth and handles the money. In the latter case, although both people are members of the local weaving cooperative, none of the women are officers. Fish drying is a seasonal activity also undertaken by women, but it is not a regular income earner.

In Mogadishu, basket makers work together at the Lido (a tourist market area), but they are from the same area, and the bonding is informal. Reportedly, there are also some women

who own furniture production units and showrooms. They hire a man to run the workshop and do the selling themselves. In the gold market area, there are female vendors who do small-scale trading in gold-colored costume jewelry on the street outside the leased gold shops which were run by men. Again, they do not have leased premises and have a minimum of investment in stock. The team did not focus on this minority of urban women.

In the rural areas, the economy is less monetized and female farmers have much less opportunity to earn discretionary income through small-scale production. They have less time, less capital, and smaller, more diffused market demand (Stearns: 1985). At the other end of the scale, women seeking to go into a formal sector business face the same types of constraints as men; that is, the lack of foreign exchange, uncertain government policy environment, and scarce credit. However, they also face social constraints that are difficult to address directly.

Handicrafts

Handicraft production is overrated as an income generating opportunity for women. The income earned per unit of time spent is often too low for all but those with otherwise low opportunity costs. The team saw old women making camel blankets from scrap material. For them, this is a useful activity; they have no other demands on their time, it is a social occasion, and it earns a little cash. Housewives and young girls making traditional caps and hats are likewise happy to earn a small amount of money in a social setting.

For women with financial responsibilities, crafts should be viewed as secondary to a mainstream activity where the

earning potential is greater. It is only when there is a substantial market for the product that the craft becomes an economically competitive activity. Pottery making on a village scale and basket making in a tourist center are two examples. Large-scale, organized handicraft production is constrained, first, by the small domestic market and, second, by the high quality demands of export marketing. The issues of capital and management are also major problems which would require expensive technical assistance to address. It is unlikely that any project focused on handicraft production could succeed financially.

Assistance to Commercial and Small-Scale Enterprises

Women in Somalia are most active in a narrow range of subsistence farming and micro enterprise activities, circumscribed by tradition and circumstance. Changing the range of activities is far more complex than enterprise promotion schemes for men where no break with tradition is involved. Any program to assist women in commerce and production should plan for increments of change, so that women gain confidence in their ability to handle more complex businesses. This means working first with women presently in business, assisting them to be more profitable.

Credit for working capital is of primary importance since most women are in trade. For lenders, this is the riskiest type since the collateral value of the goods is not great and repayment depends on the skills and honesty of the borrower. Working capital credit programs are described more fully in the PISCES documents produced by USAID.

Credit can mean a number of things. The UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers scheme is planning to diversify into commercial credit. There are targets of numbers of beneficiaries and an expert is going to be hired. This target could include women and the expert to be hired could be assigned the task of including women in credit input programs. Assessing this would require women to demonstrate creditworthiness or belong to a group which acts as the guarantor. Another model involves the formation of informal savings and loan groups among interested women. In Zaire, there is a national trade association of market women that arose from this type of informal saving and lending system.

The credit should be in small amounts, at commercial rates, to be paid back on a schedule matching the business cycle of the borrower. A trader might pay back daily, a wholesaler weekly, and an agricultural cooperative seasonally. Any credit should be linked to training in rudimentary business principles and marketing, appropriate to the business of the borrowers.

In 1981, the Somali Development Bank (SDB) made credit available for "rural development" to landowners. Research indicates that small entrepreneurs find it difficult to get credit through the Somali Development Bank because of collateral requirements. Those interviewed perceived the only guarantee of access to credit from the SDB to be through owning "big" houses. In practice, borrowing capacity was defined as one-third of the assessed value of the property pledged as collateral. Further, the SDB extends loans only for agricultural purposes and "productive" industry which leaves out transport operations, agro-industrial service operations, and many others in trade, maintenance, and distribution.

Even though entrepreneurs face difficulties in obtaining credit from the SDB or CSBS, it seems that a very efficient and highly developed extended-family credit system does exist. Many of those interviewed had some access to credit through the extended family. Family savings, often with remittances from the Gulf States and Saudi Arabia, are the standard and most often the only sources of credit. Grinding machines, sewing machines, carpentry equipment, and tools were usually bought with resources that were made available through members of the extended family. It is not known what proportion of the remitters or beneficiaries are women. Repayment of this type of credit seems to be a debt of honor, but not an onerous one. Schedule of repayments seems to be flexible, based on an agreement between the owners of the enterprises and their relatives, with the prime element being the capacity of the business (owner) to repay.

Many women are in subsistence activities and have only a small surplus of time, effort, and resources to commit to change on an individual basis. Women need to be encouraged to form groups to achieve their economic goals. Groups are excellent mutual support units. Cooperative efforts to purchase in bulk, develop a resource, borrow funds, or to market collectively are very effective. This is currently being done by the basket makers in the Lido and the cooperative at Jelib-Merka. There is also an upcoming group farm project (OEF International and USAID/SWDO) that will help women work a large farm, as well as encourage enterprise development. Mutual interest groups can also form the basis of credit associations or unions. The women of Dar-es-Salaam Village near Afgoi collectively purchased a water pump which they run as a village asset.

The team did find a real reluctance on the part of women to borrow money. In one vivid case, an influential woman had turned down credit for a highly desirable use until additional explanation of the benefits of credit overcame her reluctance. An enterprise promotion or assistance scheme should address this reticence directly in order for the proposed beneficiaries to take advantage of the provision of credit. The formation of a group of traders in a market, or female farmers in a village can provide a mode for training in problem identification and exploration of solutions. In such situations, access to credit would be identified as an area of interest, and training would highlight the problems and opportunities connected with borrowing.

The team is not recommending group businesses, however. These are rarely worth the time once a small profit, if any, is divided among many.

CHAPTER 3. INSTITUTIONS FOR WOMEN

The Somali Women's Democratic Organization

Origins, Objectives, and Goals

The Somali Women's Democratic Organization (SWDO) was founded in 1977 by the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party (SRSP). As one of the three branches of the SRSP, SWDO's mandate was to propose, promote, and initiate progressive policies and programs for the advancement of Somali women. The statutes of SWDO state that it is to:

"struggle towards the betterment of the social life of Somali women, their liberation from social and economic inequality, the safeguarding of their basic rights, and the encouragement of their full participation in the national construction."¹

SWDO was to be "a broad based women's organization capable of mobilizing and guiding the Somali women toward the right path of the Revolution." SWDO's first objective was to raise the political awareness of women and to mobilize them to fulfill the objectives of the SRSP.

1. See Appendix D for the complete Statutes.

In 1984, SWDO aspired to "translate the spirit and deeds of Somali women into positive activities fulfilling the Party principles and Government policies," and to enable women to participate in development programs and to guide them into a "socially meaningful life." This amplification of social goals reflected SWDO's increasing interest and focus on social and economic development as a necessary adjunct to its political activities.

Institutional Structure and Financial Planning

National Level

SWDO has four main organs, (1) a Congress, (2) a National Council, (3) an Executive Office, and (4) Regional, District, Town, and Village Committees. The Congress meets every two to five years to elect the National Council, which includes the heads of the Regional Committees. The National Council elects the Executive Office annually (see Figures 3-1 and 3-2).

The Executive Office administers SWDO on a day-to-day basis. There are 11 officers: the President, Vice President, and Secretaries for Mobilization, Information and Propaganda, Women's and Children's Welfare, Education and Training, Foreign Relations, Finance and Economic Affairs, Administration, Planning and Projects, and Inspection and Discipline. Most officers are paid, but their staffs are composed of volunteers and support personnel seconded from other government offices. The President of SWDO has the option of requesting support personnel as needed.

Figure 3-1. SWDO's Structure

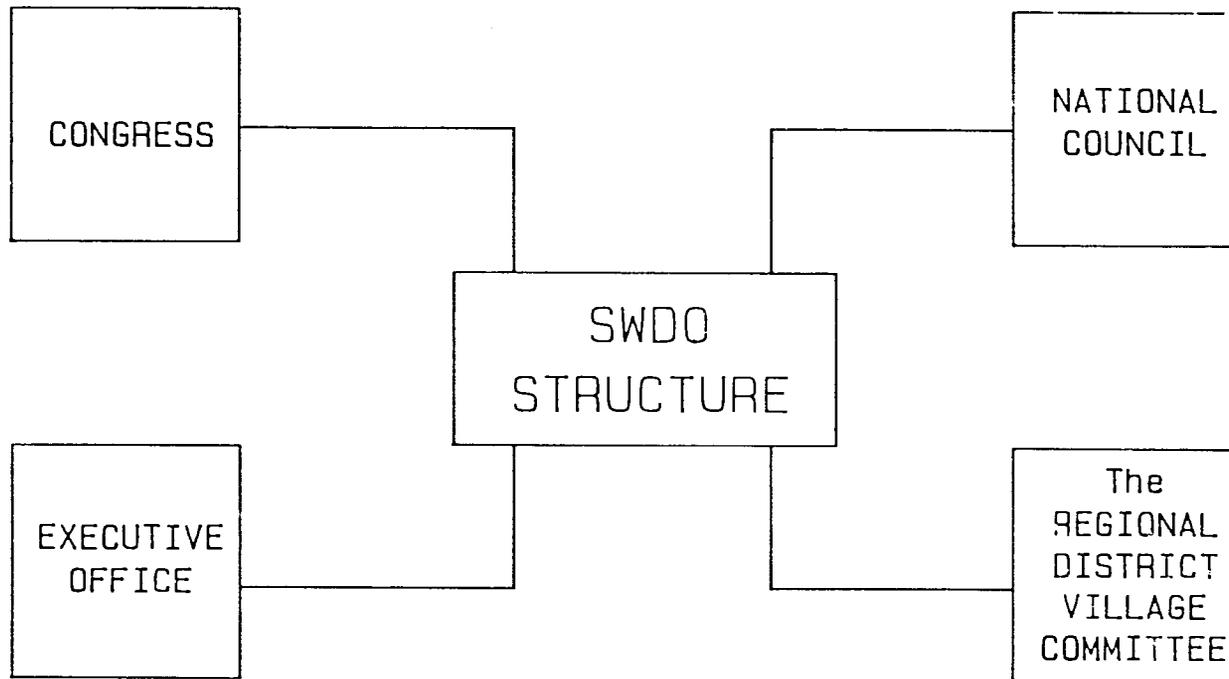
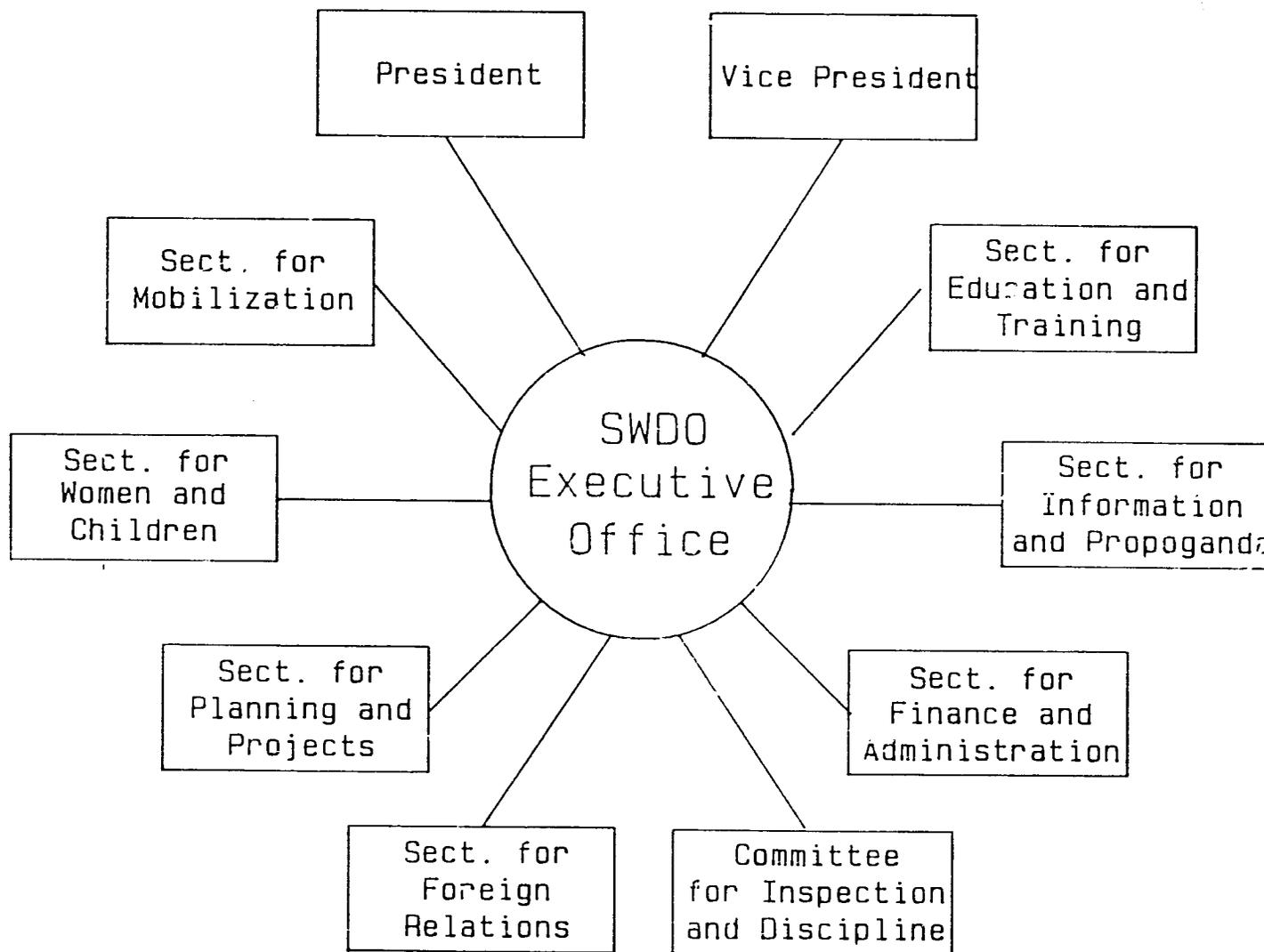


Figure 3-2. SWDO's Executive Office



The total number of those working at SWDO Headquarters (HQ) varies; 54 are paid staff members, of which 26 are drivers, cleaners, and messengers who are paid less than So.Sh. 600 per month. The current top salary is So.Sh. 2,000 per month, paid to one Secretary. There are two Secretaries who read and write a foreign language, but both are new to their jobs and one serves on a part-time voluntary basis.

Budgeting and funds allocation are carried out centrally on an ad hoc basis. Any Officer requiring funds for printing or travel, for example, applies to the Office of the President for approval. The Secretary of Finance and Administration then issues any approved monies. It is unclear how the accounting functions are divided between the Accountant and the Secretary for Finance.

Donor assisted projects are treated as separate units for accounting purposes. These projects are managed and administered by separate staff who are hired and paid for by project funds and work in the Project's Office.

Neither formal planning nor financial budgeting occur within SWDO. In part, this is because there is no financial certainty or consistency from year to year. For example, in 1986, SWDO received So.Sh. 450,000 from the SRSP. In 1987, the SWDO President asked for and obtained a commitment of So.Sh. 3,000,000 -- of which So.Sh. 750,000 was distributed to SWDO by April 1987.

About So.Sh. 60,000 is realized from members' dues, mainly from women who are employed in the government, where it is deducted from their pay. Dues are collected semi-annually (So.Sh. 2/month for those in cash employment and So.Sh. 1/month for others) and are split 50 percent to the HQ, 30

percent to the Region, and 20 percent to the District. The Northeast, the largest region, contributed So.Sh. 5,000 in 1986, but contributions vary with the conditions in the rural areas.

SWDO owns its headquarters building which is managed by the SWDO Trading Agency. The building generates So.Sh. 1.5 million in gross rental income annually. Clear accounts are kept by the accountant for the Trading group, but the building expenses and SWDO executive expenses are mixed, so the net income of the building and its exact contribution to defraying SWDO's operating costs is not obvious.

Overall, SWDO's major group of expenses is related to the preparation and printing of receipts for dues and membership cards. It was reported that due to inflation, SWDO had to ask for an additional So.Sh. 150,000 to cover higher printing costs, suggesting that the membership system is a major cost factor in the organization rather than a revenue generator.

Regional Level

The Lower Shabelle Regional Committee has nine members, including a Chairperson, Vice Chairperson, and Secretaries for Finance, Training, Mobilization, and Supervision. They inspect and oversee the activities of their respective secretaries in the divisions. Only the Chairman is paid by SWDO and all support staff comes from the local government.

In Lower Shabelle, there are seven district committees, each with a nine-member executive committee (including a Chair, Vice-Chair, and Secretaries for Finance, Community

Affairs, Training, and Control). None of the executives are paid.

In the Merka district, there are 280 village level communities, each with up to a seven-member Executive Committee; some of these women may, in fact, be the only SWDO members in the village. At the village level, the divisions between officers are blurred and members seem to make collective decisions, without deferring to the authority of the various officers. Members appear to be influential, active women in their communities, who are prepared to organize on behalf of SWDO.

The Regional Office in Lower Shabelle did not have a listing of all their members or village level committees, but one of its major responsibilities is to conduct a series of inspection visits to these villages, and communications with the villages are fairly frequent. In most districts, village level committees are expected to write regular reports to the SWDO District Chair. These reports detail the action taken by the respective committees during the previous period, particularly in mobilizing women to participate in ongoing campaigns or celebrations.

Given the almost total lack of financial resources outside of HQ, regional and district committees depend upon the local SRSP and Government resources for logistical support and staff. Inspection trips are planned to take advantage of local Party or government transport, and staff support is seconded from Local Government. SWDO appears to be well known and respected by the local Party apparatus. In Merka, for instance, the Governor has given the Lower Shabelle Executive

Committee land and a building to use for an income-generating activity.

Membership

Membership is open to all women over 18 who are willing to pay dues, although women in the smallest centers often do not pay. SWDO believes it has about 60,000 members, but there is no central list. The best coverage occurs in urban centers, and especially among government employees. Reportedly, SWDO has a representative in each Ministry.

SWDO's Range of Activities

At present, SWDO is active in four main spheres, political, social, external, and economic affairs. Political activities are the most developed and include seminars on new laws and policies, mobilization for preparation and celebration of national days, participation in public campaigns, and dissemination of government policy.

In social and external affairs, SWDO contributed to the enactment of the Family Law in 1975, and to the formulation of policies designed to promote greater participation of women in economic, political, social, and cultural activities. SWDO is an implementing agency for the USAID Family Health Project, and is actively combatting female circumcision (with Italian support, see below). Local committees work to assure adherence to the Somali Family Law and the Secretary for Inspection and Discipline gives legal support to women seeking retribution under this law (5,600 cases were processed in 1986).

Externally, SWDO seeks relations with women's groups internationally, and sends representatives to conferences and seminars on topics of interest, both local and foreign.

In the economic sphere, SWDO sets a number of goals for the organization, namely, to assist and encourage educated women to get better jobs, to initiate vocational and technical education programs to help women earn money, to establish women's cooperatives in groceries, production, agriculture, and livestock, and to encourage and help women profit from their traditional skills, such as handicrafts, cookery, tailoring, cosmetic products, and small-scale industries. (SWDO Information Booklet: 1985)

In 1981, SWDO established a tie dye and tailoring training school and production unit in Mogadishu (the Handicraft Training Center). From 1981 to 1984, it was assisted by a Danish expert, but since then it has suffered from lack of foreign exchange. Although the accounts have not been finalized for 1986, the school and production unit has reportedly lost So.Sh. 400,000 in the last ten months. Due to lack of material, the unit was not operating when the team visited. The quality of production varies widely and output is sold in a shop in the SWDO building (see Appendix G).

SWDO's economic activities have been handicapped by: (1) the absence of an action plan that articulates the way in which SWDO's economic goals are to be accomplished; and (2) SWDO's top-down orientation. If a project is to be implemented, its structure and direction are designed and managed by the donor through the Planning and Project Office at Headquarters. The local committees carry out the initiatives or directives passed down from Mogadishu. There is little

institutionalized effort to support local committee initiatives, and the committees' lack of independent resources further restricts community based efforts.

In addition, SWDO projects have focused mostly on the traditional role of women as mothers and homemakers and not on their roles as income generators. The needs and interests of women living in villages and towns have also been addressed more than those of rural agricultural and pastoral women. SWDO's health, education, craft, and cultural activities are located in towns and villages.

Finally, observation showed that affluent women were more involved in SWDO and its activities at the regional and national levels, perhaps because they have more free time.

Strengths and Weaknesses:
Analysis of Constraints

SWDO's network of committees has the ability to contact women in cities, towns, and villages more completely than any other institution for women in Somalia. From the regional level downward, this is accomplished at remarkably little cost. The capacity to communicate and involve women in various activities is SWDO's greatest strength. However, for a number of reasons, SWDO at the national level does not use this network as fully as it might. The interests of the Executive Office in assisting women economically relate to women as citizens with national responsibilities and not to women's special needs as farmers, traders, and herders. There is, moreover, little awareness that SWDO's permanent staff should be responsible for implementing the policy directives of the Executive Office. Operationalizing policy statements is left to the committees in the field, who predictably

respond by repeating the policy message of the national leadership.

Local committees are not given a mandate to initiate. They are usually in the reactive mode, that is to say, they respond to the next higher level. This means that there is little flow of ideas from the lower levels to the top. As a result, SWDO is directed by urban women and is not organized to respond to the needs of rural or poor women. Equally important, there is no opportunity for feedback from the bottom up to occur in order to plan new activities.

In the political sphere, the goal of mobilization can be very simple, such as getting the women to clean their village or mobilizing them to turn out for a rally. The time frame is short and the messages are clear. Success is easy to measure in terms of number of participants. Inspection trips made by national and regional executives look specifically at turnout to measure the effectiveness of a local committee. In the social and economic spheres, the problems and solutions are more complex and need more focused attention. Action in these spheres has remained in the hands of donor directed projects such as the Handicraft Training Center, the upcoming Project on Female Circumcision, and participation in the Family Health Project (see below). SWDO committees at all levels could play a greater role in directing where and how the donors could assist women in social and economic development.

Ongoing activities at all levels, including mobilization and legal assistance to divorced women and widows, are motivated by outside forces such as the national party or the woman in need. There appears to be little internally directed activity, except in isolated committees where the leadership

is particularly dynamic. This means that there is little innovation or change through time. The same messages are repeated and the same problems remain, with no new efforts to conceive of and implement action plans to solve them. The development activities of the organization have focused on traditional women's areas: health, handicrafts, and cultural activities. Efforts in education and training have also focused on traditional activities such as homemaking and tailoring. If income generation is to be the next target area, the traditional focus must broaden.

The National Committee must ask itself whether it wants to continue the creation of specific projects with specialist project teams (managers and support staff) or begin building a program of action that will work toward developing and involving the whole organization and women in different sectors, from top to bottom.

The former approach will probably result in an isolated and unsustainable project similar in impact to the Handicraft Training Center Project. Once the project is over and the donor-based financial assistance and expertise is withdrawn, there will be little residual management ability to keep it going.

The latter approach suggested here would involve strengthening SWDO as an institutional broker or facilitator of meaningful development programs. SWDO could exploit its network and committed volunteers and leave the technical specialization to the specialized ministries and agencies. SWDO committees at the grassroots level could solicit views and needs from the community and could communicate these to the people who would design projects. SWDO activists could

organize and motivate women to take the fullest advantage of any and all projects that are implemented. Programs developed in this manner have a greater likelihood of becoming self-sustaining since they would address the immediate concerns of the potential beneficiaries. SWDO would assure that technical projects address the needs of women and that women take part in them to the fullest extent, without getting involved in the mechanisms of implementing them.

A prime attraction of implementing projects has been the funding and resources that come with them. Unfortunately, many of these resources are only available as long as a project is ongoing, and usually the resources are targeted at project-related activities. Aside from the Project Office that has outside donor funds, the rest of SWDO struggles with an erratic and insufficient resource base. These resources are used primarily to collect dues, to supervise the various levels of committees, and to mobilize women for demonstrations of support for global national issues. SWDO field committees need a greater revenue base if they are to act as agents for development in their respective communities.

SWDO and Handicrafts

Development planners and women's organizations often think of handicraft projects first when they think of income generating activities for women. Hence, it is not surprising that SWDO's first economic activity focused on the Handicraft Training Center concerned with tie dyeing and tailoring. This interest in handicraft activities for women is based on various notions, including the belief that handicrafts are the type of work that women do well, that the work does not interfere with domestic responsibilities, that low levels of

investment are required, and that short periods of time will produce items for sale.

Indigenous handicrafts carried out by Somali women include making pottery, basketry, and mats; the former is a rural village activity, the latter two are found in rural and urban areas. Men are involved in such activities as weaving, jewelry making, and leather working. Of these, gold and silver smithing yield the highest returns. Urban and peri-urban women do various stitchery activities that include the embroidery and knitting of hats and decorative wall hangings. SWDO felt that the team should see all the craft activities in which women are involved and particularly emphasized hats, baskets, mats, and pots (see Appendix G).

Crafts that give good returns are rarely practiced by women. Costing out the amounts received for pots, baskets, mats, and hats showed that returns by Somali women interviewees were not great, and in no way compared, for example, with the returns from men's crafts activities such as gold and jewelry making.

Unfortunately, the reality of the handicraft industry is rarely judged accurately. Few realize that excellent handicrafts require specialized skills and often years of apprenticeship. Craft production is often labor-intensive and provides meager returns for long hours of work. Furthermore, these activities are rarely stepping stones to a small-scale industry that would offer greater incomes to women. Any type of income-generating activity for women requires a solid understanding of their lives and of how the enterprise fits into their work patterns and income requirements. Somali hat makers, for example, are for the most part housewives for whom

stitchery provides recreation and "pin money." No amount of capitalization could turn these embroidered or crocheted hats into a booming business. Certain villages are noted as places where pottery is produced and traders visit these villages to purchase items; the women there are also farmers and farm laborers. Their pot-making could be facilitated by carts to help them carry raw materials (clay) and finished products. (Appendix D gives an example of a cart that might be feasible.) Marketing strategies could produce wider distribution, although currently traders come to the village to purchase the pottery.

SWDO embarked upon the Handicraft Training Center in 1981 as a means of assisting women with skills training and income generation. The Center was funded by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), executed through the Handicraft and Small Scale Industry Unit of the African Training and Research Centre for Women. The Danish International Development Agency provided technical assistance for four years. In 1981, SWDO received US\$179,000 (So.Sh. 16,110,000) to train four groups of 35 women each and seven professional/administrators in basic skills in tie dyeing, screen-printing, tailoring of ladies' and children's wear, and doll, basket, and mat making. The first progress report noted that neither the target number of women nor the anticipated sales were achieved. However, the 1984 issue of Himilo: The Voice of the Somali Women, a magazine produced by SWDO, was pleased to report that the Center sold So.Sh. 1,094,000 in 1983 compared with only So.Sh. 361,000 in 1982. They estimated that cost recovery was 85 percent in 1983 compared with only 40 percent in 1981. The end of project report (Petersen 1984) reported that a total of 130 women were trained (with an additional 18 still receiving training), 77 in basic skills,

21 in advanced skills, 3 instructors, and 9 staff. Production of dolls, toys, and traditional crafts was discontinued in 1981 and embroidery was discontinued in 1983. The SWDO (1985) volume notes that 346 women have been trained. As noted above, the financial statement for 1986 showed that the Center's operation resulted in a net loss of So.Sh. 400,000.

The team visited the showroom and the Center in May 1987 at the request of SWDO, who admitted that the Center had invested in individuals, rather than in a cooperative effort that could maintain capital for continual operation. The SWDO staff insisted that the major difficulty of the Center was lack of hard currency to purchase dyes and material. The visit revealed that production units were still using the same screens and blocks that had been in use since 1984 (when the expatriate technical assistance person left). Only 15 of the 30 sewing machines were usable, and three broken-down vehicles were parked in the courtyard. The building was in disrepair and the last class had 68 students, but training was stopped because of drought and lack of materials, according to a member of the production section. A visit to the retail outlet and an examination of the inventory showed that many of the dresses and cloth were poorly executed. Some were printed upside-down, irregularly printed, or printed off-center. Garments were often stained or spotted with dye. The tailoring was poor in that items were cut and sewn irregularly, seams were unmatched or unfinished, and stitching was often in the wrong places. No new designs or patterns had been created since 1984.

Other Units for WomenWomen's Education
Department (WED)

The Women's Education Department (WED) in the Ministry of Education was organized in 1974 with a mandate to design and plan an overall strategy for women's education on a long-term basis. The broad objectives of WED are to:

1. Improve the capacity of women so as to participate more fully in national and community development
2. Provide opportunities for women to develop their skills and knowledge so that they are better placed to care for themselves and their children
3. Raise the level of the literacy of women, and widen the scope of understanding and intellectual thinking about their life and environment (SWI 1985: 39)

More specifically, according to the 1980 prospectus, WED was set up to provide non-formal education opportunities to rural and urban women to enable them to contribute more fully in the national development programs. WED recognized that women to a large extent are responsible not only for the physical and social well-being of the family, but also for contribution to the economic resources of the household through agriculture and management of all other resources. To accomplish non-formal education, Family Life Education Centers were established in all 82 districts of Somalia, and in 20 additional refugee camps (approximately 66 centers were actually in operation in 1985) (Masood 1983: 42; National Planning Seminar 1984).

The curriculum of the Family Life Education Centers covers three areas: basic literacy, development of skills, and family life education. It includes courses in food and nutrition, child care and development, health and hygiene, clothing and tailoring, handicraft making, community development, and literacy training. These subjects are taught over a period of four years, on a half-day basis, after which a certificate is earned. An entire year is spent on the family life component.

In 1979-80, 3,714 students were enrolled in classes. During the 1981-82 school year, 5,933 women were trained in literacy and home economics skills. However, because of recently falling enrollment, WED made an internal evaluation in 1983. It found that eight of the 42 FLECs were closed, due to lack of attendance, lack of qualified lecturers, lack of funds, and lack of facilities. The women found that after investing four years of their time in the centers they earned a certificate that did not provide access to further education or employment. However, while attendance lagged for the curriculum set by WED, new FLECs in the same region were self-initiated by groups of women who borrowed a meeting place, brought their own material, and divided themselves into "action groups" according to their learning needs. The WED course was too long and too rigid for most women. Thus, the evaluation led to some restructuring of WED, and teachers are now being reoriented towards a greater outreach style of operation (Somalia MONP and UNICEF 1984: 40-41).

In order to operate the FLECs, WED also has one-year training courses in training centers established by the Ministry of Education with the assistance of UNICEF. These are for teachers and headmistresses of the FLECs. Since 1974,

almost 600 teachers and headmistresses have been trained (National Planning Seminar 1984).

During the last year, the WED received a gift of sewing machines and a grant to set up a revolving loan fund for the purchase of cloth and sewing supplies to establish a small-scale enterprise in dressmaking. The women purchase the cloth that is handwoven in Jilib-Merka, and other traditional cloth-weaving communities along the coast, and create fashionable attire for women and girls. Although an evaluation is not available because it is just a new endeavor of the WED, the designs of the clothing are attractive, and the clothing is well-made and can be seen worn in Mogadishu by Somali women and expatriate women alike.

Women's Unit for Research and Documentation, SOMAC

In May 1983, a Women's Unit for Research and Documentation was established within the Somali Academy of Sciences and Arts (SOMAC) because of the lack of written materials and the absence of an archival center related to women's studies. The Women's Unit was the product of efforts exerted by SWDO and female intellectuals, with the collaboration of the Ministry of Higher Education and Culture, the SOMAC, and other concerned agencies (Women's Research Unit 1984: 19).

The objectives of the Unit are to:

1. Establish a base for documentation and archival materials concerning women
2. Increase the knowledge and understanding among women in Somalia by systematic collection and analysis of existing data

3. Initiate studies, data collection, and action-oriented research on women's condition in order to feed back to the SWDO and help national institutions and others to identify the factors facilitating or limiting their advancement (Women's Research Unit 1984: 19)

The first project carried out by the Women's Unit was research on women's movements, based upon collection of archival and existing sources, as well as on collection of oral history. The second project was an in-depth study of female circumcision and infibulation for use as a basis for attempts to change the practice. A study of marriage and divorce in Somalia is now in progress.

Somali Family Health
Care Association

The Somali Family Health Care Association is a new, non-governmental organization with two main objectives:

1. To acquaint Somali families with the benefits of child spacing to assure adequate health of the mothers and children
2. To acquaint Somali parents with the short- and long-term medical dangers of circumcision and infibulation to their daughters (Somalia MONP and UNICEF 1984: 64)

Other objectives are:

1. To protect mothers' health and improve their status
2. To disseminate nutrition education to the people by using various techniques
3. To create centers for social and health services whereby diffusion of family guidance shall be carried out

4. To organize seminars about family health conditions resulting from lack of family planning knowledge
5. To prepare research studies on the health and socioeconomic conditions of the family
6. To provide family planning methods by giving necessary health and social care
7. To communicate with similar organizations in the Arab World and at the international level to exchange knowledge and expertise according to international and Somali rules and usage ("Establishment of the Somali Family Health Care Association" 1984: 14).

Action is taken by the Association upon the advice of an Executive Committee consisting of representatives from the Ministries of Health and Education and SWDO, among others. The Association is partially funded by USAID.

Other

Several other institutions are involved in women's development programs as follows (SWDO 1985: 38):

- . The Ministries of the Interior and Justice, the Somali Youth Union, and the Custodial Corps are engaged in the development and training of Somali Young Pioneers who are orphans. More than 1,600 young women have been trained in different skills since its establishment.
- . The Ministry of Education and the Somali National Commission for Refugees organized training programs for refugee women in Somalia.
- . The Ministry of Fishery, Settlement Development Institutions, and related projects have attempted to work specifically with women to develop their skills in agriculture and fishing production.

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CHAPTER 4. DONOR PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS

Donor Programs in Brief

USAID

USAID currently implements some national projects that affect the Lower Shabelle Region. The Family Health Services Project (649-0131) provides training to women in child spacing and health, using SWDO as an assisting agency. The Somali Management Training and Development Project (SOMTAD, 649-0119) has had a training component in Lower Shabelle but no women have as yet been included.

The Policy Initiatives and Privatization Project (PIPS, 649-0132) has not worked directly in Lower Shabelle, but has had one woman entrepreneur as a client. An upcoming \$50 million project, the Shabelle Water Management Project (SWMP) will focus exclusively on the area but presently has no women's component. (SWMP is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.)

The portfolio of active USAID projects will drop from 18 in 1986 to eight in 1988. The largest single project will be the SWMP.

USAID implements its refugee programs with extensive assistance from PVOs. Of particular interest are the programs to assist refugee women in farming, forestry, and income generating projects. Among the PVOs are Overseas Education Fund (OEF) with projects in forestry, farming, and small enterprise development, and Save the Children with projects in farming, community outreach, and skills training for women (see below for a fuller description). The PVO efforts are interesting because they explore innovative areas, including involving women in agro-forestry, promotion of animal traction, and enterprise development.

UNDP

The United Nations Development Programme is most active in the Seasonal Credit to Small Farmers, in conjunction with the FAO (UNCDF - \$640,156, FAO - \$1,020,000). In addition, UNSO/Denmark has funded sand dune fixation in Merka. Women have been mobilized to work on this labor-intensive self-help project.

In non-formal education, UNICEF has been providing assistance for materials and technical support to the Women's Education Department (WED). Most recently, substantial assistance was provided to train refugee women in family life education. This effort enhances the growing awareness that women's contributions are essential to alleviate poverty, meet basic family needs, improve food production, and distribute resources more equitably. Since its establishment, approximately 600 teachers have graduated from the WED Family Life Teacher Training Centre in Mogadishu. In addition, UNICEF has been involved in forestry projects (that could be duplicated in the Lower Shabelle and designed to include women).

The United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA) is in the midst of a three-phase census, coupled with a human resources development component and a population education project. UNFPA is particularly interested in increasing the women's component of this five-year effort (1987-91), but lacks ideas. It has funds to allocate to a research and data collection effort, including training for researchers, but it has not identified an appropriate vehicle for implementing the effort.

The ILO, UNFPA, and Habitat, using UNDP funding, are erecting 200 demonstration low-cost houses in Dar-es-Salaam, a model village, in Lower Shabelle. ILO and UNDP are jointly supporting a Somali PVO (Haqbitar) in the Qorioley refugee camp. A soap making project, employing both men and women, was set up, and is reportedly self-sustaining, although another report said they had not yet started. Unfortunately, the team was unable to visit the project firsthand.

An eight-member ILO/JASPA team has just finished a mission and their report on the role of women in the informal sector is expected by June 1987.

In Lower Shabelle, the European Economic Community (EEC), the Italians, and the World Bank have all been involved in agriculture and irrigation rehabilitation. Almost \$90 million will be invested in irrigation and area development from 1982 to 1990. It is uncertain how much of the benefit will reach women as collectors of household water and female farmers, who tend to work on smaller plots, farther from the main canals.

Projects Specifically for Women

UNICEF

The Qoribley refugee camps are the locus of a major effort to assist women and children. UNICEF, UNHCR, and Save the Children all have projects at the camps. The UNICEF Family Life Training School teaches traditional home management, childcare, cooking, and sewing. Recognizing that most women need to earn a living from the skills they are taught, UNICEF has recently added a business component to the four-year program, though as with all the Family Life programs, the drop-out rate is high since mainstream agriculture provides far greater income earning potential.

The best graduates either get a sewing machine (82 so far) or are employed in the tailoring workshop. This workshop is attached to other income generating efforts, a shop and a restaurant. These enterprises were started with credit from UNHCR but they have long since paid back the loans. The restaurant repaid So.Sh. 100,000 in nine months. Finally, it was remarked that although the restaurant is very profitable, it is unlikely that the shop and tailoring units could survive if they had to pay regular expenses such as rent and salaries.

A small garden and a poultry project, both run by individual women and selling only to the shop and restaurant are also attached to these enterprises. Other training is assisting women to set up as hairdressers, shopkeepers, and cooks. These examples show what can be done in areas where there are enough people with enough money to provide a market for the goods or services.

Other refugee projects are planned but have not yet been designed. It is hoped to add additional skills training in blacksmithing and pressing oil crops. These are traditionally male occupations, so it will be interesting to see if an effort is made to include women.

UNICEF's planned assistance to SWDO was as follows (in US\$000):

1984	50.0
1985	55.0
1986	75.0
1987	<u>75.0</u>
TOTAL	225.0

The 1984-85 funds were used to prepare and publish information booklets on SWDO. The funds for subsequent years did not materialize -- no mention of the intended contribution was made by the SWDO Secretary for Finance, and the UNICEF team has been withdrawn.

Save the Children (STC)

Save the Children is working in both the camps and Qorioley Village. The original refugee program, funded by USAID/UNHCR, irrigated 310 hectares (ha.), procured another 900 ha. of rainfed farmland, and allocated 1/10 ha. to each of the 2,800 trainee farmers. Now, four years later, the training is over and the issue of how to permanently allocate the standard minimum of one-ha. plots has arisen.

At present, there is an appropriate technology center supported by Save the Children in Qorioley town. The Center is experimenting with improved building methods to reduce the

dependence on mud and wattle construction, thus freeing women for other things.

In addition, small community initiated development projects have been supported using the "trickle up" concept of providing seed money to individual women who apply for assistance. Projects include small farms, tea shops, a butchery, bee keeping, and a number of retail outlets, including a textile cooperative. Save the Children began by working with women's committees in the camps and the practice has spread to the town. The SWDO local committee could have initiated this type of action, but reportedly, they were very directive and community women preferred to pursue their own ideas.

Save the Children funds between So.Sh. 5,000 and 45,000 for any one project, giving half loan and half grant, interest free. Repayment is monthly in So.Sh. 1,000 increments. STC has made a deliberate effort to reach women and so has had to overcome a cultural reticence. Many loans have been agricultural. (There is no lack of land to rent as charges are nominal.) The main problem women have is in clearing and obtaining grazing rights.

The project is too new to see whether women's projects can bear the cost of interest, but there is optimism since most women are engaged in activities with which they have experience. It was remarked that men's businesses tend to be more profitable since they are based on greater skills and capital levels. For example, it takes So.Sh. 30,000 to buy a cow for slaughter, and profits are approximately So.Sh. 2,000-3,000. In contrast, a mat maker may sell all she makes but she cannot live on the meager proceeds of several hundred So.Sh. Apparently, one camp commander refused to allow a women's committee to take over a failing corn mill that might

have generated substantial income, because this is traditionally men's work.

SWDO's Eradication of Female Circumcision and Infibulation Project

More than 90 percent of the girls in Somalia are currently infibulated because of cultural beliefs. SWDO, in association with religious, medical, and social leaders, prepared a proposal for a project to eradicate the practice. In 1987 or 1988, SWDO will receive US\$500,000 from the Italian Government to pay for vehicles, audio-visual materials, staff salaries, training seminars, and technical assistance.

The project's goal is to collect information and educate people about the deleterious health consequences of female circumcision. Project staff (women leaders, religious leaders, traditional birth attendants, and medical and paramedical personnel) are to be trained through seminars about the practice and ways in which it may be eradicated. It is hoped this increased effort will be built upon SWDO's past efforts in this area.

This project provides an excellent example of a worthy project whose implementation does not strengthen SWDO's project management capacity or its financial position over the long term. However, it does further SWDO's goals in the social sphere to improve family health.

Family Health Project

SWDO participates as one of the implementing agents of the Family Health Project, funded by USAID. Other participants are the Ministry of Health and the Women's Education

Department (WEC). The Project, begun in 1985, aims to improve maternal-child health and decrease morbidity and mortality. SWDO's objectives are to inform and educate parents about child-spacing, oral rehydration solution therapies, and female circumcision practices. An examination of work plans and accomplishments since the Project's inception show that SWDO has developed a family health curriculum for SWDO communicators, conducted orientation workshops for the Central and Executive Committee of SWDO and for SWDO leaders in Lower Shabelle, held seminars for local women leaders and circumcisionists, and prepared radio programs and newspaper articles incorporating themes about child-spacing and female circumcision. This project shows the potential in using SWDO leaders as agents for social development.

Projects of Special Interest for Interventions

Shabelle Water Management Program

USAID's proposed \$50 million project (Shabelle Water Management Project, SWMP), has as its purpose to bring increased and more efficient irrigation and adaptive research to a target area in Lower Shabelle. Additionally, depending on their level, researchers, extensionists, and farmers will receive training in advanced agriculture or in improved farm technologies. Unfortunately, the Project Paper has omitted a consideration of women agriculturalists (in training, credit, and extension programs, and in land registration) and of household water supply. A description of the Project, and how components to benefit women may be included in the Project, is given under project interventions in Chapter 5.

Seasonal Credit
for Small Farmers

The objectives of the UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers Project are to increase agricultural production and to raise the productivity of small farmers, to achieve self-sufficiency in basic food, and to reduce dependence on importation of food, in particular cereals, by extending seasonal credit in the form of agricultural inputs such as seeds, fertilizer, and insecticides. It is also proposed to extend credit for land preparation costs by entering into a contract with ONAT (the state agency for farm equipment rental) and other private tractor operators (CSBS 1987 and Mohamed 1986). The project is being implemented by the CSBS, which has established an Agricultural Loans Department for Small Farmers, and is administered by a National Input and Credit Committee and three Regional/District Input and Credit Committees at Merka and Afgoi in the Lower Shabelle Region, and at Jowhar in the Middle Shabelle Region.

The project began in five villages in the Lower Shabelle in 1984 and expanded to 26 in the Lower and Middle Shabelle Regions by 1986, thereby benefitting 1,935 farmers cultivating 2,880 ha. of land. Expansion was made possible by a grant of \$1 million from the UN Capital Development Fund (UNCDF) and a \$191,000 contributed from the Government of Somalia. The target of the project is to assist some 5,000 farm families cultivating 14,000 ha.

Villages are proposed for participation in the Project by the Regional and District Input and Credit Committees (RICC, DICC). The National Input and Credit Committee (NICC) makes the final selection from those proposed. The NICC includes a senior official of the CSBS as chair, and representatives of

the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Finance, and Union of Somali Cooperative Movement (USCOM). Criteria for selection include: an extension agent in the village, assured irrigation facilities, easy access to the village by road, and a well-established village organization or multi-purpose cooperative.

Credit is made available for short-term advances to farmers who cultivate not more than five ha. The maximum amount of individual credit is limited to \$300 per farmer (about So.Sh. 27,000). Interest on the credit may not exceed 10 percent without prior approval by the UNCDF, although an additional 2 percent penalty interest may be charged for overdue credit. In the future, the interest rate may be regulated by directives from the Central Bank of Somalia. Participating farmers within a selected village must have land registered in their name and possess an original lease certificate on the land. They must also be a member of a multi-purpose cooperative society or a recognized farmers group with a village committee at its head.

Applications for credit are submitted by individual farmers, with the assistance of the extension agent, to the village cooperative committee. The cooperative committee or village committee sends the credit application forms to the CSBS branch bank which, in turn, approves loans on the recommendation of the RICC or DICC. The USCOM guarantees the bulk loans granted to the multi-purpose cooperative societies. An original lease certificate, a promissory note executed by the farmer and signed by the chair of the cooperative/village committee and the resident extension agent, and the credit agreement form are deposited with the CSBS. Loans or the inputs for which the loans were necessary are then distributed to the farmers by the multi-purpose cooperative or village

committee. The extension agent provides advice and oversees the correct usage of inputs by the farmer. Recovery of the loan is made after the harvest.

Tables 4-1 and 4-2 summarize, respectively, the distribution of inputs and the recovery record of the credit for the Gu season 1986.

The World Bank: A Pilot Project
to Develop the Productivity and
Welfare of Women

The Somali Government has just requested a loan for project preparation assistance from the IBRD for a project to establish a women's section within the Ministry of the Interior (MOI). The unit is to strengthen the MOI's capabilities in policy formulation and program design and evaluation in the field of women's development by: (i) strengthening the capacity of the SWDO for communicating with and helping women's groups to articulate their needs; (ii) providing inputs and logistical support for specific activities involving or affecting women, (iii) providing opportunities for credit and savings for women; (iv) strengthening planning and administrative capability of organizations working directly with women, including SWDO; and (v) developing an information/training program to orient men and staff of the technical sectors of government towards the special needs of women.

This pilot program will be funded in connection with an unrelated, but very large, health project and is not expected to be implemented until 1989 or 1990. However, a four-member project preparation team is expected to complete its analysis in 1987. The consultants' terms of reference focus on the

Table 4-1. Repayment Situation of Gu
1985 Credits as of August 31, 1986

	Total credits So.Sh.	Repayments So.Sh.	Percent	Balance So.Sh.
<u>LOWER SHABELLE</u>				
Ugunji	115.078	115.078	100.0	-
Dar-es-Salaam	179.842	179.842	100.0	-
Mubaarak	199.340	199.340	100.0	-
Sigaala	100.592	63.235	62.8	37.357
Kurtun-Waarey	68.552	58.200	84.9	10.352
Kolweyn	186.734	175.234	93.8	11.500
Buulo-Sheekh	<u>227.878</u>	<u>157.234</u>	<u>69.0</u>	<u>70.644</u>
Subtotal	<u>1,078.016</u>	<u>948.163</u>	<u>87.9</u>	<u>129.853</u>
<u>MIDDLE SHABELLE</u>				
Kongo	146.842	146.842	100.0	-
Ahmed Cigow	67.808	67.808	100.0	-
Hawaadley	78.240	78.240	100.0	-
Banaaney	97.908	79.319	81.0	13.589
Kalluundi	131.161	101.546	77.5	29.615
Buray	315.893	304.809	96.5	11.084
Eaarey	60.033	60.033	100.0	-
Koriso	<u>27.710</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>27.710</u>
Subtotal	<u>925.595</u>	<u>838.597</u>	<u>90.6</u>	<u>86.998</u>
Grand Total	<u>2,033.611</u>	<u>1,786.760</u>	<u>89.3</u>	<u>216.857</u>

Source: Mohamed Ali Abucar. "Report on the Agricultural Credit Seminar held on September 27, 1986 in the Cooperative Training Center - Mogadishu." October 5, 1986.

Table 4-2. Summary of Input Distribution, Gu Season, 1986

Village	No. of farmers	Hectares	Maize seeds (Kg)	Rice seeds (Kg)	Urea (Kg)	Basudin (Kg)	Cash sales (Shs)	Total sales (Shs)
<u>LOWER SHABELLE</u>								
Ugunji	93	224	1,700	-	10,000	446	-	310,025
Dar es Salaam	81	237	1,000	-	13,700	536	-	356,535
Mubaarak	57	90	500	-	7,000	201	-	181,152
Buulo-Sheekh	14	62	550	-	4,800	125	24,000	128,450
Sigaale	25	40	800	-	3,900	200	-	129,227
Golweyn	37	89	1,000	-	7,500	315	-	218,671
Dragariire	39	32	700	-	2,100	200	-	90,699
Aw-Dheegle	73	158	1,000	-	10,300	150	-	263,885
Isbaheysiga	530	624	7,400	-	-	-	-	321,533
Sabiit-Canooole	34	60	1,200	-	4,700	-	-	144,911
Mareerey	35	117	2,350	-	9,400	-	-	281,088
Beledamiin	11	45	900	-	3,000	75	-	104,291
Bariire	34	124	2,440	-	11,700	250	88,750	323,619
Buulo-Sheekh (cash)			650	-	35,300		652,575	652,573
Sub-Total	1,063	1,902	22,190	-	123,400	2,498	741,325	3,506,679

(continued)

Table 4-2 continued

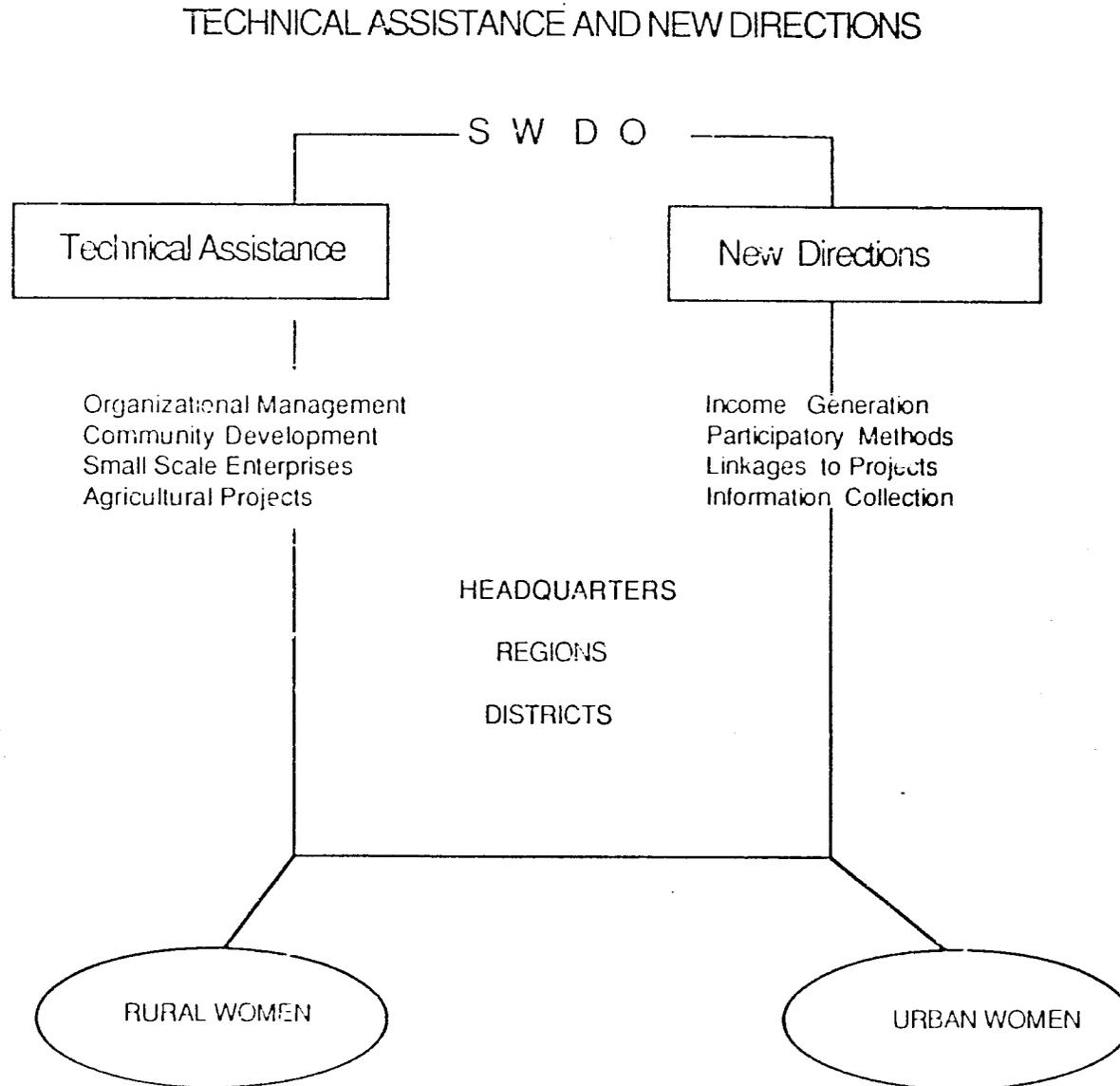
Village	No. of farmers	Hectares	Maize seeds (Kg)	Rice seeds (Kg)	Urea (Kg)	Basudin (Kg)	Cash sales (Shs)	Total sales (Shs)
<u>MIDDLE SHABELLE</u>								
Kongo	71	135	2,700	-	100	21	-	123,047
Halgaan	67	145	2,900	-	1,200	20	-	151,187
Ahmed Cigow	109	195	3,900	-	-	-	-	169,520
Buulo-Waarey	98	141	2,404	2,100	6,100	-	88,750	269,805
Burey	20	55	770	-	10,000	-	-	242,600
Geeda-Barkaan	70	100	1,881	-	1,400	36	-	114,242
Banaaney	20	30	-	-	3,000	-	53,250	53,250
Kalluundi	19	40	-	1,950	4,000	-	71,000	113,379
Baarey	20	30	-	-	3,000	-	53,250	53,250
Gaafay	22	40	800	-	-	-	-	34,814
Timiro	43	42	824	-	-	10	-	37,303
Xaanshooley	13	25	500	-	-	245	-	88,409
Sub-Total	572	978	16,679	4,050	29,200	332	266,250	1,450,806
=====								
GRAND TOTAL	1,635	2,880	38,869	4,050	152,600	2,830	1,007,575	4,957,485
Gu - 1985	700	1,701	16,137	-	70,650	2,358	59,350	2,073,964
Gu - 1984	508	923	6,700	-	47,000	2,915	-	401,886

Source: Mohammed Ali Abucar. "Report on Agricultural Credit Seminar held on the 27th September 1986 in the Cooperative Training Center - Mogadishu," October 5, 1986.

following skill areas: management, administration and financial control, training and communication, women's affairs, and credit and savings. The final product will be a detailed project, complete with budgets and implementation plans.

IBRD has indicated a willingness for AID to then look at the whole program of action and to select an area of interest to support.

Figure 5-2.
PROPOSED



activities and, hence, projects in health, agriculture, water and enterprise development and (b) involving women across many districts in a single development effort through its nationwide system of committees.

Major programatic efforts could focus on increasing a number of women as participants in:

- . Ongoing government, donor, and PVO projects
- . Decisionmaking capacities in units such as cooperatives and local government
- . Rural agricultural development as well as urban enterprise endeavors
- . Credit and capitalization programs and projects

Many of these programatic efforts could be accomplished by SWDO regional and district personnel at little or no cost, as seen below.

Examples

Many cooperatives have women members. However, few of them have women in elected positions, partly because few women stand as candidates. The same is true of elected positions in town councils. SWDO leaders at the regional and district levels could encourage women to stand for office and identify and assist potential candidates for specific positions.

Another programmatic effort could aim at increasing the number of women participants in the UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers program. The SWDO committee could assist village headmen and project personnel in informing women about credit and facilitating women's application to the program.

Finally, SWDO local committees could work with the Ministry of Agriculture's extension program to reach more women farmers. The committees would assist by identifying innovative female farmers who could be the contact farmers who form the basis of the Training and Visit Extension method, disseminating the extension recommendations.

SWDO as a Link

As the only national organization with a network reaching down into the smallest village, SWDO is well placed to provide linkages between the agents of development, government, donors and PVOs, and the women of Somalia. The SWDO HQ would work directly with donors, providing information, project ideas, and feedback from the field from the perspective of Somali women. The HQ would also link with the network of SWDO committees, soliciting ideas, doing research in various problem areas, and informing them of upcoming projects. The local committees could work with the community to develop project ideas, mobilize participation in new donor projects, and solicit feedback about ongoing projects.

SWDO Self-Support at Field Level

The Regional, District, and Village level committees of SWDO are at a disadvantage because they lack resources. It is true that they keep 30 percent and 20 percent, respectively, of the membership fees they collect, but this is less than So.Sh. 1,000 per month. In Merka, the SWDO Regional Office has been given land and a small building (with some kitchen facilities) by the Governor. The SWDO leadership there wants to have a restaurant to make money to support itself. Their first thought was to ask a donor for funds. However, a better

method is for them to set an example to other women by starting the enterprise themselves, thereby showing what interest and determination can do to generate income.

It was suggested to the members that a number of alternative strategies might be used to begin the project:

- . Strategy 1: Start with a small investment such as So.Sh. 30,000 and get members to buy shares in the business; have one paid employee who is experienced.
- . Strategy 2: Take a loan for a larger amount from the bank. The members were, in fact, offered the possibility of getting a loan, but were unsure of the procedures and worried about the commitment. After learning from the team about the bank's procedures, they might select this strategy, especially if a technical assistance person can work with them in terms of management of the enterprise.

By encouraging each level of the SWDO structure to identify, implement, and profit from its own income generating projects, SWDO demonstrates to the nation, and sets an example for women specifically, that it can be more self-sufficient. Even today, almost half of SWDO Headquarters (HQ) funds come from the rental of its building.

Local Committees Should be Proactive

Committee members at the Regional and District levels must be given guidance so that they can identify ongoing development activities in their areas. They will have to:

- . Examine the types of projects that are ongoing in their areas

- . Examine types of possible participation by people and determine whether or not there are already some women participating
- . Question whether or not there are additional women who could benefit from project services
- . Discuss with local leaders the possibilities of recruiting women as well as men to participate
- . Inform women about these services and encourage their participation

Training as to how to do these kinds of endeavors must be given to SWDO Chairpersons of the Executive Committees at the Regional and District levels. This training will be discussed in greater detail in the section on program suggestions.

Participatory Methods. There must be mechanisms to enable rural women to express their needs and problems to the SWDO hierarchy, as well as to the well developed existing channels, for SWDO to be able to direct its members from a top-down approach. However, rural women have a number of constraints that may prevent them from expressing their needs and problems, including:

- . Shyness
- . Lack of time to attend meetings
- . Inability to express themselves
- . Lack of knowledge as to techniques, technologies, or procedures
- . Lack of self-esteem
- . Lack of awareness that women are allowed to and capable of participating in projects or programs

Although some rural women know their problems and can state their needs, others cannot. Rural women can be taught to express themselves and an appropriate context and comfortable setting can be created to facilitate their doing so. One method is to give women training in expressing themselves in public meetings, with other women or even with men and women. Another is to give leadership training to selected groups of women -- perhaps those identified by village headmen and SWDO Committee members. Alternatively, existing SWDO members in the rural village could be the core of such a group. This kind of training is often carried out by female extension or community development staff. But because there are very few of these individuals in Somalia, SWDO will have to function in this capacity. Figure 5-3 gives an example of a problem-solving methodology that asks about the problem and considers what can be done and how this can be accomplished (including designing a plan of action). This method has been used with women farmers elsewhere (Evans 1983) and it could be modified to suit the local context.

Structural Changes in SWDO

One goal of these recommendations is to assure continuity over time in SWDO programs and to provide a staff to undertake program planning and management for the organization, separate from but guided by the development policies set by the elected executive committee. A second goal is to promote a responsive dialogue between development needs and program responses between the field level committees and the national level. A third goal is to enable the field committees to inspire community based development and to assist women in operationalizing their ideas.

PROBLEM SOLVING EXTENSION METHODOLOGY*
PRINCIPAL STEPS IN OVERCOMING PROBLEMS THROUGH
DISCUSSION WITH FARMERS

I. WHAT IS THE PROBLEM?

- (LOOK) (a) What are the problems?
 - The farmers themselves present problems.
 - The staff takes up leads.
 - The staff pose problems.
- (b) Priorities
 FOR EACH PROBLEM
- (c) Why is it a problem?
 (d) What effects does it have on people?
 (e) Is it a common problem?

II. WHAT CAN BE DONE?

- (THINK) (a) Discuss possible ways of overcoming the problem.
 - The farmers present their ideas.
 - The staff gives it's ideas.
- (b) Decide what would be realistically and practically possible within the range of the majority of people.

III. HOW CAN IT BE DONE?

- (PLAN CHANGE)
- (a) Decide what has to be done.
 (b) Decide how it is to be done.
 (c) What is needed?
 - materials
 - services
 - training - what needs to be learned?
 - where should training occur?
 - who should be trained?
 - what demonstrations are needed?
- (d) What problems are likely to be encountered?

IV. IMPLEMENTATION:

Undertake Plan of activity.

*From J. Evans' "Women's Involvement in the Seasonal Credit Programme in the Phalombe Rural Development Project", Paper presented at the National Credit Seminar in Chintcheche, Malawi, February, 1983.

It is recommended that SWDO receive funding to form a new unit or office to provide the focus for technical assistance, that would eventually benefit the whole organization. In Mogadishu, this new office or secretariat would have three main areas of interest: program development, information gathering and dissemination of materials, and donor relations. This same unit could provide in-house management support to other parts of SWDO. Currently, each Secretary for an activity has its own focus of interest, be it mobilization, propaganda or mothers and children. It is proposed that this new office or unit assist the others to articulate an annual program of action and then to formulate concrete projects to be undertaken.

The program development (PD) function would work with the National Committee and the field committees to formulate programming plans and budgets for SWDO activities as a whole. Budgeting would then allow fundraising targets to be set. The National Committee would keep prime responsibility for facilitating fundraising, but up until now, they have not known how much they needed for their activities. In addition, PD would help local committees better manage their program planning, budgeting, and implementation efforts.

In the field, PD staff would work with local committees to promote dialogue on specific program ideas and to develop and implement community based ideas. A medium term goal is to promote the formation of small, community based women's groups (such as cooperatives, market women's groups, or savings associations) that are capable of independent, self-directed action, without day-to-day involvement of the SWDO local committee.

This new secretariat would have an information gathering and dissemination function, different from but complementary to that of the propaganda and external secretaries. In this context, information would be gathered in the field, by the local committees, and also in Mogadishu, to support programming decisions. This function would work closely with WED and SOMAC in their research efforts.

Donor relations would work closely with information gathering to assure that the issues researched are relevant to donors. The office would then write up and present the data to influence donors' project planning. The office would also monitor projects to be implemented and generate project descriptions for use in the SWDO committees. These tasks do not need a large staff, but they must have excellent communications skills.

De-emphasizing Handicrafts as
the Major Income Generation
Activity for Women

SWDO would like to rehabilitate the Handicraft Training Center, and to receive hard currency to purchase dye and fabric. However, much greater quality control and financial management would be required to render the operation productive. Handicraft projects in general suffer from having rather limited markets and clientele, and unless a high quality and reasonably priced product can be produced, guaranteed markets are few. It appeared that a few expatriate women purchase the Center's products, but that the Somali women do not. Before any further funding is expended for craft activities, it is important to do the following:

- . Undertake a market study to determine potential buyers and competitors (for instance, the Women's Education Department also has a unit that does tie dye).
- . Determine quality control standards and appropriate motivating forces to maintain a consistently high quality.
- . Specify the numbers and categories of women who can benefit from handicraft training.

In all likelihood, only a small number of urban or peri-urban women will benefit from such a center. However, if production can be organized on a for-profit, market-responsive basis, a handicraft cooperative may become a viable project.

Proposed Technical Assistance

Management Capability

To enhance the effectiveness of this new effort, we propose technical assistance (TA) and resources to improve SWDO's financial management, budgeting and planning capability, and information handling. TA is needed at all levels to ensure efficient and effective use of scarce resources. We propose several types of TA. The first would be in the form of a management and finance specialist to provide training to local committees on the criteria for selecting income generating projects and on profitable project management. The training will emphasize the separation of the business management and finance from the other activities of the committee.

Data Collection and Project Design

The second TA package would focus on assisting SWDO at HQ to conceptualize and design information gathering activities

in order to use this information to influence donor project design. This effort would identify and highlight areas in which women may be targeted for assistance under projects funded by donors. HQ would also learn how to turn this project-specific information into packages that the local level committee could use to orient women to the project or help them access the project benefits being offered. In the field, the committees should learn the basic skills of gathering information, maintaining a database, and identifying problems, thus allowing them to respond effectively to HQ requests for data, as well as for supporting their own efforts. The capability to collect and use information to influence and assist donors would put SWDO in a proactive mode and would give the organization the linking mechanism between donors and Somali women. See Appendix F for specific project suggestions.

Community Development
Expertise

Community development TA would assist SWDO committees with specific techniques to inspire dialogue among women, to identify specific problems, and to develop collective community based approaches to deal with the problems (see Figure 5-3). The local committees would communicate specific project ideas, and assist women to take full advantage of ongoing and new projects implemented by donors and by the Somali Government in the community. They would do this by disseminating specific project information generated by the HQ Secretariat, and by assisting women to take part in projects. It is anticipated that these activities will focus on rural projects of all types, but particularly on agricultural projects. At

the moment, for example, women farmers do not get loans because their land is often not registered. SWDO could assist them to register land by informing them about procedures.

Appropriate Technologies

It is important for women to be able to incorporate into their lives new techniques for lightening the burden of their household work in order to allow more time for economic pursuits. It is also important for women to increase their productivity in whatever economic activity they pursue. Included in Appendix E are some suggestions of appropriate technology which might be relevant to Somalia. In one village, for example, women were interested in obtaining a new type of transport for the pots which they were trying to sell in a more distant market.

SWDO should investigate a method of diffusing appropriate technology such as one used in Cameroon, beginning in the 1950s by the Ministry of Education (O'Kelly 1973: 108-114; O'Kelly 1955: 33-35). A revolving loan fund was provided by the Ministry to purchase ten hand-operated corn mills for use by women in an area of the country where maize is the staple of the diet. The mills were introduced to shorten the time women spent preparing meals; the time thus gained was used to instruct the women in basic literacy, home economics subjects, and improved agricultural techniques.

Under the project, women in each of the ten locations were asked to form a "corn mill society." Each time members of a society wanted to grind their maize, they paid a small amount of cash for access to the corn mill. All the money initially collected was used to repay the cost of the mill to the Ministry. When the women in the society owned the mill,

they could continue to charge their members and retain the money for their own special projects. The Ministry of Education, when it received repayment for the original mills, was then able to purchase additional mills for other locations in that province of the country, thus continuing to diffuse the new technology in order to accomplish their dual goal of reducing women's work burden and increasing their education, ultimately leading to an increase in their economic status. These "corn mill societies" flourished throughout that area of Cameroon. An adaptation of this idea would be appropriate for Somalia. This would be an excellent way to assist rural women if SWDO has access to an appropriately-sized revolving loan fund.

Mobile Classroom

Rural women engaged in small-scale enterprise must have some basic managerial capacity in order to profit from their businesses. However, such women often have little or no education, and generally no training in operating small businesses.

At one time, the USAID SOMTAD Project had considered including the concept of mobile classrooms to conduct seminars on management topics throughout Somalia, to reach beyond the formal halls of SIDAM where the project is housed. A similar idea would benefit rural women in the Lower Shabelle and elsewhere. That is, a mobile classroom to visit rural centers and conduct seminars on simple bookkeeping and management techniques for small-scale enterprise would assist women in running a profitable business. Mr. Ramamurthy, Chief Technical Advisor for the UNCDF Credit Project at the CSBS, indicated that such courses are important in making women more creditworthy and in allowing them to qualify for loans from

the bank. He suggested that such courses would be particularly important when the project starts to extend credit to small-scale enterprises.

Specific Project Interventions

The team looked at two additional and specific projects to illustrate how women's issues and concerns can be integrated into mainstream development efforts. The SWMP Project provides a good example of project planning that has thus far ignored the role of women in an area where they are, in fact, key players. Specific interventions are suggested to include them.

The UNCDF Credit Project managers want to include more women, but lack the mechanisms to do it. Here, recommendations are made to provide these mechanisms and facilitate greater numbers of female beneficiaries. In addition, non-formal credit models are described.

Shabelle Water Management Project (SWMP) Building in Components to Assist Women Farmers

Project Description

The SWMP has an estimated commitment from USAID of \$50 million over two phases (10 years). The goal of Phase 1 is to improve water management and establish the framework for the rehabilitation of larger scale irrigation in Phase 2. Phase 1 will lay the groundwork for an integrated river basin management system that will be operated by the Ministry of Agriculture, and Phase 2 will strengthen and refine the system. Increased water delivery will allow agricultural researchers to develop better on-farm water management and adaptive

irrigated agricultural research will be conducted to improve smallholder farmers' production capabilities. Hence, the Project will address inadequate water supply and distribution, as well as ways to impose low production technologies. The SWMP, therefore, combines infrastructural support (the rehabilitation of irrigation systems already in existence) with adaptive research based on the needs of smallholder agriculturalists. In addition, a training component for farmers and for agricultural research professionals is included.

In terms of beneficiaries, the Project Paper (PP) states that the overall Shabelle area has over two million people and the goal is to improve the reliability of water allocation and the efficiency of water use. The target area contains 27,440 people and the goals are to secure land rights, increase efficiency of water allocation, increase intensity of land use, and increase farm output. Small, as opposed to large, farm owners are the intended project beneficiaries. People in the target area are agro-pastoralists who are organized around 63 aziendas or plantations. Water management committees oversee water allocation and canal cleaning, solve local and land disputes, and collect municipal taxes. The Adaptive Research Program has the potential of impacting on one-half million farmers, in terms of increasing (a) farm income and output, (b) the supply of inputs, and (c) market opportunities (USAID-SWMP 1987: 342).

The PP mentions that men and women, both as wives and as heads of households, are agriculturalists. The Social Soundness Analysis (SSA), that appears as an appendix in the report, does not give a breakdown in terms of the sexual division of labor in agriculture. The data in Chapter 2 show that men and women are involved in all agricultural tasks (e.g., land clearance and preparation, planting, fertilizing,

weeding, irrigation, harvesting, and marketing). Studies elsewhere and in Somalia show a variety of patterns. Men and women may do the same or different tasks in the same or in different fields or on the same or different crops. In the case of livestock, in Somalia there is a tendency for men to do more tasks with camels and women to do more tasks with cattle and small ruminants. In female-headed households, unless there are funds to hire labor, women do all crop and livestock operations.

In male-headed households (MHH), formal farm management is vested with the husband, although often the wife or wives do the day-to-day running of the farm. In female-headed households (FHH), women would be in charge of the entire operation. The SSA notes that only some women are de jure household heads (having full charge), while many others are de facto household heads (in charge because males are absent). Reasons for this include migration and polygyny. Only 74 percent of the population have been born in the area, and many people are continually moving back and forth to other rural and urban areas. The sex ratio takes a sharp dip for males between the ages of 20 and 39 years. Since men may have several wives, one or more may be without the husband for various time periods. Additionally, wives may be assigned different tasks in farming and herding. No figures are given in the PP as to the percentage of FHHs. UNHCR officials in Qorioley estimated that 20 percent to 30 percent of households were FHH outside the camps, compared to 65 percent to 70 percent in the camps.

The SSA notes that unless special effort is made to include women, and especially from the inception of the project, women will be excluded from land registration,

credit, input programs, adaptive research trials, and training. However, the PP mentions no mechanisms to include women in any of these programs.

In the PP, there is a serious omission of one of the most basic aspects of women's work and of household well-being. The SWMP has entirely overlooked household water supply. The SSA notes that women walk three kilometers per day to get water, that a few villages outside the target area have received piped water, and that this would likely increase the demand for a potable water supply within the project area (page 339). There is recognition that the water supplied by the project must accommodate livestock, even though animals damage canals, but women's responsibility for water is overlooked. The Project fails to provide for the construction, repair, and maintenance of wells, pumps, and taps for a potable water supply to villages that would both reduce women's work burden and increase their time for agricultural production and other activities. According to the PP, the water brought into the farm areas will probably have problems with siltation and salinity as well as with waterborne disease (especially schistosomiasis). If people use irrigated farm water for household use, the health and well-being of household members will be affected and consequently agricultural productivity will not be maximized.

Recommendation

The PP must address the needs of women as well as men in its design. It is preferable to target the needs of women and to specify the services that the Project can provide to them within the PP rather than to have a separate project or an add-on component. The following sections consider what needs to be added in terms of land registration, data collection and

project monitoring, potable water supply, credit, training, and adaptive research.

Land Registration

The PP discusses equity issues in relation to distinctions between small and large farmers (see Table 5-1). Large farmers and plantations are nearest water flow, while the small farms are in the driest areas. Land registration is difficult for small farmers, especially the poorest farmers, because of costs. It is estimated that registration fees and transportation costs total So.Sh. 20,000 to 30,000.

Female-headed households, according to the PP, have fewer registered parcels than male-headed households and the smaller parcels are seldom registered (USAID:SWMP:9). Although the Land Law permits a family to register one parcel only, a survey by the Land Tenure Center Survey reports that 32 percent of those surveyed had more than one parcel.

Recommendation

Women as FHHs and wives will need assistance in land registration, especially since land ownership is usually required to obtain seasonal credit. Land ownership may also be important for membership on water management committees, but this needs to be determined. Women must be encouraged to serve on water management committees; SWDO has the capability to assist in this endeavor, but Project interest and support is necessary.

Table 5-1. Farm Types in the Shalambood Target Area

Type	Percent
Independent smallholders (who individually hold and cultivate the land)	46.4
Smallholder agricultural cooperatives (made up of individual landholders, but often with group registration where smallholder assistance may be available but sometimes to only a few farmers on a priority basis)	13.7
Large cooperatives (owned by a small number of large investors and administered by the National Union of Cooperatives)	14.0
State farms	10.2
Large private farms (which include some owned by remaining Italians, as well as Somali owners)	15.2

Source: USAID-SWMP, 1987: 14.

Baseline Survey

The Project proposes that a Baseline Survey be carried out and suggests the types of data to be collected (USAID:SWMP:99-100). These are listed below.

Recommendation

Data on women's and men's participation and roles in agriculture and water management must be collected in Baseline Surveys. The following adds an intra-household gender component to the data collected in the survey and sex-disaggregated components for monitoring project impact.

Baseline Survey Proposed by SWMP (USAID:SWMP:99)

[Items in brackets have been added in order to assure that sex-disaggregated data will be collected.]

A minimum of a 5 percent stratified sample (n=200 households) should be surveyed. The contractor procurement schedule in PP section 7-2 should allow repeat sampling to be carried out during both the Gu and Der seasons of 1988. [The stratified sample should reflect as well as measure the types of households, especially female-headed households (FHHs).]

The baseline survey should provide at least the following data:

1. Adequacy of water supplied to agricultural land during both Gu and Der seasons [by parcel of land registered to men or women]
2. Portion of wages retained by family for consumption [by male and female family member]

3. Number of days worked, by season, full-time or part-time, etc. [by category of worker -- adult male, adult female, children under 15, hired laborer]
4. All sources of income, by type, with amounts earned (i.e., from collection of firewood, fodder, water sales, etc.) [sources of income by enterprise for adult males and females in the household]
5. Livestock census [ownership of various animals by males and females]
6. Husbandry practices and patterns of land cultivation (i.e., use of tractor plowing, furrows, etc.) [by male and female household members]
7. Household/farm budgets: a detailed examination of income sources, expenditures, and consumption [by male and female household members]
8. Availability, delivery systems, and pricing of farm inputs (seed, fertilizer, pesticides, etc.) [inputs delivered to male and female farmers]
9. Record of crops grown and hectares in a sample area, set up for monitoring activities [by male and female farmers]
10. Land holding patterns [of men and women] in the sample, data on land disputes
11. Type and number of self-help projects being carried out by specified local institutions in the project area [specify participation of women and men]
12. Annual yields of crops based on cutting and weighing [by sex]
13. Farmgate prices of crops
14. Family, demographic patterns, labor data (especially the size of the work force within each family). age when child is considered to be an adult wage earner, sources of wages

(i.e., banana plantations, etc.), male versus female division of labor

15. Membership in local institutions, patterns of attendance, etc. [by sex]
16. Access to services and locations of same: schools, health facilities, drinking water, etc. [by sex]
17. Educational attendance and literacy levels (data separated by gender and age)
18. Access to AFMET services and frequency of contacts [by sex of farmer]
19. A simple methodology to assess rural health and child nutrition should be used to rapidly assess health conditions in villages of the target area, especially those made up primarily of small farmers, the landless unemployed, and plantation laborers. The Somali Academy of Science and Technology, in cooperation with SAREC, is running a Community Health Improvement Program which has the capacity to operationalize such measures. Information on incidence of disease attributable to waterborne vector breeding (e.g., schistosomiasis and malaria) is especially important for environmental assessment activities, and as a baseline for design of environmental mitigation measures.

Table 5-2 is a modified version from an earlier draft of the PP. It summarizes the indicators to be measured and monitored. The items that require sex disaggregated information have been added using the designation M/F.

Water for Household Use

The SSA notes that women walk over 3 km. each way to bring water to their households or they pay So.Sh. 100 to have a barrel delivered. Obviously, improved water supply to villages will relieve this burden. The SSA notes that "the

Table 5-2. Summary of Indicators for the Baseline Survey and for the Monitoring of Impact^a

Indicator	Baseline Survey	Monitoring
Water	Adequacy of water on land during "gu" and "der" seasons <u>M/F</u>	Amount and frequency of water in fields throughout the system
Farm income	Portion of wage retained by family <u>M/F</u> Number of days worked <u>M/F</u> Income from outside agriculture <u>M/F</u> Livestock census <u>M/F</u> Household/farm budget <u>M/F</u> Availability, delivery, and pricing of inputs <u>M/F</u> Husbandry practices <u>M/F</u> Record of crop patterns in sample area <u>M/F</u> Yields of crops (sample cuttings) <u>M/F</u> Farmgate crop prices	Income retained by farmers <u>M/F</u> Number of days worked <u>M/F</u> Income from outside agriculture <u>M/F</u> Livestock census <u>M/F</u> Change in availability, delivery, and pricing of inputs Changes in patterns of cultivation <u>M/F</u> Changes in crop patterns in sample area <u>M/F</u> Changes in yields (sample cuttings) Change in crop prices
Landholding	Land census <u>M/F</u>	Change in land registration <u>M/F</u> Rise in land disputes <u>M/F</u>
Services	Access to AFMET <u>M/F</u> Access to drinking water <u>M/F</u> Access to education <u>M/F</u> Access to health facilities Literacy levels <u>M/F</u> Frequency and type of self-help projects carried out Rate of participation in local institutions <u>M/F</u>	Change in extension service <u>M/F</u> Change in drinking water Change in education Change in health facilities Change in literacy <u>M/F</u> Change in frequency of self-help projects Rise in local institution participation rate <u>M/F</u>
Quality of life	Measurement of child health and nutrition in poorest villages Incidence of waterborne disease and its vectors <u>M/F</u>	Changes in health and nutrition levels in poorest villages Incidence of waterborne disease and its vectors <u>M/F</u>

a. M/F = male/female. Sex-disaggregated information should be obtained in the Baseline Survey and carried through in the monitoring and evaluation data collected.

project design has proposed that USAID fund the deepening and widening of wells for drinking water through self-help experienced FVOs in the settlements of the target area" (page 339). It would be unusual to rely on other projects or donors for such a critical item.

Recommendation

A \$50 million water project should address household water supply directly. Since women are responsible for household water for drinking, cooking, and washing, serious consideration must be given to the following:

1. Construction of wells, pumps, taps, and the like for a potable water supply to villages (or households)
2. Design for and maintenance of the system by the women users
3. Prevention of contamination (waterborne diseases) and problems with salinity and sediment

Irrigation of farm lands and water for household supply must be jointly considered.

Credit

Increased water into the area will result in more farmers being eligible for seasonal credit loans for inputs of improved seed, fertilizer, and insecticide.

Recommendation

Women must be able to obtain credit for seasonal inputs, either on their own, or when their husbands are not in the

area, in order to maximize production. Strategies to make credit available to women as individuals or as members of farmers' groups must be addressed by the Project.

Training

The Project will have training components at a number of levels, including MOA staff, researchers, Field Extension Agents (FEAs), and farmers.

Recommendation

As noted in the SSA, "unless a special effort is made from the beginning to involve women, female household heads will miss out on training and other opportunities to be provided by the proposed project. This would slow down the development of a better life for many inhabitants of the region" (page 334). There are no mechanisms in the PP for including women in any of the training. SWDO could assist in selecting women farmers, if the project personnel needed help. However, the project implementors at all levels would have to be sensitive to the issue and would have to target women for training at all levels. They would have to devise strategies to recruit women participants.

Adaptive Irrigated Agricultural Research and Technical Packages

Linkages are being created with the research station (CARS) and with extension (AFMET) to carry on research trials with farmers and to disseminate extension information to farmers. Undoubtedly, many of the trials will be managed by the farmers themselves on their own farms, using standard Farming Systems Research and Extension (FSR&E) Methodology.

It will be important to include women farmers as participants both as trial cooperators and in the explanation of trial procedures to male cooperators because women often do some of the work on the trials, especially if their husbands are absent. Women will perform all tasks if they are FHH.

The project will develop technical packages ("Tech Paks") on various commodities. Tech Paks on maize, oil crops, crop rotation, soils management, and domestic vegetables and fruits are planned. The PP does not discuss strategies for the dissemination of "Tech Paks" and extension information to farmers.

Recommendation

Strategies to recruit women to be trial farmers and recipients of "Tech Paks" need to be devised and any gender-related needs and constraints must be taken into account when developing technical packages. Strategies to disseminate the extension information to women as well as to men farmers will have to be devised.

Increasing Women's Access to Credit

UNCDF: Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers Project

Women farmers could increase farm productivity by the use of seasonal credit for inputs, if they had access to it. Yet, participation of women farmers in the UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers Project has so far been minimal, despite the potential number of such beneficiaries. Exact numbers were unavailable because sex-disaggregated records are not kept. When questioned, officials were hard-pressed to give examples

of villages that included even minimal participation of women. For example, the Chair of the RICC in Merka could not recall a single women participant in some villages, such as Mubarek. He could recall only four women out of a total of 72 participants in Ugungi. He was able to point out that the Chair of the cooperative in Buulo Sheikh was a woman, as well as the one in Qorioley; we subsequently interviewed the latter. As a farmer, she has three hectares of irrigated land registered in her own name, although she also works on a cooperative farm. As a member of her cooperative, she ran for office against three men, and was elected because she had been bold enough to ask people to vote for her. As a member of SWDO, she had the assistance of that organization to encourage members to join the cooperative in order to be eligible to obtain credit under the UNCDF program. She maintained that women had been shy to join at first. However, when they realized the benefits, they began to participate in increasing numbers. During the interview, she was able to discuss some of those benefits in terms of increased maize yields resulting from application of fertilizer.

The above example indicates that women can actively participate in the UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers Project, if they are assisted in overcoming the constraints. The Project does not intend to discriminate against women, but there are certain qualifications for participation that raise special barriers for women. Together, SWDO, the CSBS, and USAID can help women break down those barriers and access the credit that is necessary for improving productivity on their farms.

Recommendations

SWDO can assist women to obtain credit by urging them to participate in the UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers

Project. SWDO should help women to qualify under the scheme by encouraging them to:

1. Register their land in their own names and obtain a certificate for it
2. Acquire land near the river where they might use a simple, gravity system of irrigation
3. Become members of a multi-purpose cooperative or a village farmers' group which qualifies for credit under the Project
4. Stand as candidates for office of a cooperative that qualifies for credit under the Project
5. Request agricultural inputs (seeds, fertilizer, pesticides) or land preparation services on credit under the program

The CSBS can assist women to obtain credit by implementing policies proposed by Mr. G. V. Ramamurthy, Senior Technical Advisor for the Project, at the team debriefing meeting with SWDO and international donor organizations in Mogadishu:

1. When loan advisory committees are created, a local SWDO representative should be made a member of the committee to bring to the attention of the bank the special problems of women.
2. When the Project implements its group lending scheme, recognition should be made of women's groups that would qualify for credit in a way similar to that of the village farmers' groups and multi-purpose cooperatives. SWDO could take an active role in organizing such women's groups.
3. When the Project broadens its scope to extend credit (to small business, handicraft production, and trade) and implements the credit guarantee scheme financed by the Central Bank, women should be targeted for inclusion. This would go beyond extending credit solely to

women who farm and would also include those involved in small-scale enterprise.

The latter proposal would allow SWDO to implement some of the earlier recommendations for strengthening the organization. That is, a SWDO committee could form a group that qualifies for credit under the scheme, begins a business, earns profits to produce the financial autonomy recommended above, and sets an example of what women working together can do. In any case, SWDO should take an active role in ascertaining that the UNCDF project proposals described above are implemented and that women are given special assistance to participate fully within them.

USAID/Somalia can assist women to obtain credit by investigating the possibility of linking into the present UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers Project with local currency funds. If it is possible to do so, the funds might be used to expand the revolving loan fund and be targeted especially for:

1. Women farmers
2. Women in small-scale enterprise or commerce

Other Potential Credit Interventions

As an alternative to the UNCDF Seasonal Credit for Small Farmers Project, SWDO should support more extensive use of non-formal sources of credit that women have used traditionally. For example, Somali women have used variations of "rotating credit associations" such as the haqbad or shaloongo, or the Italian aiuto, most often in market or trading situations or in urban locations. Such associations

are capable of generating a sizeable lump-sum of cash at regular intervals, depending on the number of women in the group. Although the sum cannot be received by each woman at the most important time of the agricultural calendar, the amount may be deposited into a savings account until that time. In Cameroon, where the credit union movement has spread rapidly, many members of rotating credit associations (njangi or tontines, in that country) deposit the sum obtained into their local credit union share savings account (see DeLancey 1978 or 1983 for a relevant discussion of traditional savings and loan associations in Cameroon). SWDO could be instrumental in mobilizing women to organize similar associations, as most Somalis are already familiar with the concept.

A second source of credit is cooperative credit unions, which have spread rapidly throughout Africa since the 1960s. At the village level, they provide a link between non-formal sources of credit such as the rotating credit associations or non-formal banks described above, and the formal, urban bank. Similar to the non-formal banks, credit union members may borrow against their share savings, or against those of other members who are willing to guarantee repayment. Loans are readily available, at low interest rates, for productive purposes. And, because credit unions reach into rural areas, as well as the large cities, they perform a function which the formal banking structure cannot afford to do.

SWDO should solicit technical assistance, such as from USAID and the World Council of Credit Unions (the apex organization for the international credit union movement), to investigate the feasibility of organizing a network of credit unions, under a national umbrella organization. This is another program that, if implemented, could integrate women into the mainstream of rural credit if they are provided with

special assistance to assure their participation. USAID should consider strengthening the rural credit system of Somalia, as it has in other African countries, by assisting the development of a credit union movement. USAID has done an excellent job with strengthening the existing credit union structure in Cameroon, with technical assistance from the World Council of Credit Unions.

Other Centrally Funded Mechanisms

AFR/PRE

The AFR/PRE office has a Private Enterprise Development Fund that provides support to Missions for technical assistance. They have given support of between \$20,000 and \$70,000 for any one activity, but assess proposals individually. Among their projects have been sectoral analyses, economic climate reports, and assistance to institutions supporting private sector growth. AID could use this fund to develop a project to support SWDO in its development of income-generating projects for local committees.

The Bureau for Private Enterprise does not generally deal with very small-scale, informal enterprises, or with institutions unrelated to business. They do have a Private Enterprise Development Support Project upcoming (summer 1987) that will provide funds for policy level work to enhance the regulatory framework constraining SSE development. USAID/Somalia should contact Tom Nicastro for further information.

S&T/HR

S&T/HR has a division related to small-scale enterprises. They have three programs, of which ARIES is one. The second,

Employment and Enterprise Policy Project, offers technical assistance and research as related to policy issues. USAID/Somalia could work with SWDO to develop their database and to assist them to become a more policy oriented body in enterprise promotion. The third, run by Appropriate Technology International (ATI), offers technical assistance and has a small grant program to assist institutions that seek to promote SSEs using appropriate technology. The Mission could develop a project with SWDO to promote this type of enterprise and buy in to the fund, submitting the proposal to ATI directly.

PPC/WID

The PPC/WID office also has a number of programs designed to support Mission activities. These are described fully in State Department telegram number 079748. PPC/WID can provide direct technical assistance to Missions, as detailed in State Department telegram number 185991. One of the cooperative agreements with the International Center for Research on Women provides assistance to Missions to enhance and utilize women's economic contribution to development efforts, and to improve the participation of women in specific project areas. Past assistance has included preparation of a WID strategy and implementation plan, evaluation of a SSE program to increase involvement of women, and assistance in project design to incorporate gender analysis in an agricultural project.

Areas of technical assistance concentrate on employment and income generation for rural and urban women, access to credit, labor force participation, education and vocational training, finance and credit, and agricultural development. USAID/Somalia could use this fund to support a project design effort geared to assisting SWDO to develop the management

capacity to act as an agent for developing women's participation in projects funded by other donors and by the Government of the Somali Democratic Republic.

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A. SCOPE OF WORK

USAID/Somalia requests PPC/WID technical and financial assistance to explore possible avenues for centrally-funded WID project.

SWDO, the principal GSDR agency responsible for WID activities, wishes to initiate a project directed at:

- . Improving management capabilities of SWDO
- . Improving social and economic conditions of rural women in the Lower Shebelli Region of Somalia.

Mission suggests a three-person feasibility study team spend 2½ weeks in Somalia to assess and recommend possible activities intended to contribute towards both these ends. More specifically, team will do the following:

- . In Washington, seek out and become acquainted with background information available for knowledgeable persons or organizations familiar with the subject of investigation.
- . In Somalia, examine the organizational structure of SWDO at the national level and within lower Shebelli. Identify and assess its strengths and weaknesses.
- . Identify and assess current activities being implemented in Lower Shebelli that are specifically addressing rural women's needs.
- . Describe and assess pertinent features of the village social, economic, and institutional context in Lower Shebelli that promote, complement, or constrain organized efforts to assist rural women improve their economic status.

- . Write a report that will do the following:
 - . Offer viable alternatives for strengthening institutional capabilities of SWDO
 - . Recommend project activities intended to improve the economic status of women in Lower Shebelli. Recommended activities must be consistent with the social, economic, and institutional context and require minimal technical and management assistance
 - . Identify centrally-funded mechanisms that can be tapped for implementing recommended activities

Report will include the following sections:

- . Two-page, single-spaced summary
- . Table of contents
- . Background statement that explains the Somali context and the particular problems which the feasibility study is addressing
- . An analysis of the information gathered
- . Conclusions and recommendations based on the analysis
- . A bibliography of sources
- . A list of institutions contacted

Team will deliver five copies of the report to SWDO, five copies to USAID/Somalia, and one copy to PPC/CDIE. Team may be requested to brief SWDO and Mission staff.

Mission recommends the following team composition:

Sociologist or Anthropologist with experience in rural development activities in Somalia. Selected individual must have knowledge of Somalia's social and cultural environment, especially as it affects women.

Agriculturalist with experience in crop and small livestock projects, preferably in Somalia. Experience in other parts of Africa acceptable.

A-3.

Specialist in Small-Scale Enterprises with experience, preferably in Somalia. Experience in other parts of Africa acceptable. At least one team member must have knowledge of and experience with WID project design and implementation processes.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B. PEOPLE INTERVIEWED

USAID/Somalia

Louis A. Cohen, Mission Director
Dale B. Pfeiffer, Deputy Mission Director
Marian Warren, Rural Development and Refugee Affairs Division
Chief
Gladys Gilbert, Special Projects Officer
Emily McPhie, Program Officer
Lalitha Jayaraman, Project Operations Specialist
Judy Shepherd, Intern

USAID/Washington

Joan Wolfe, Deputy Director, PPC/WID
Suzanne Blevins, Project Officer, AFR/PPC/WID

Somalia Women's Democratic Organization (SWDO)

Muraya Garad Ahmed, President of SWDO
Batula Sheek Ahmed, Vice President
Anab Addan Ahmed, Secretary of Supervision and Auditing
Amina Farah Domay, Secretary of Mobilization
Asha Hassan Mirre, Secretary of Finance and Administration
Jamila Said Muse, Secretary of External Foreign Relations
Abdillahi Isse Good, Coordinator of Family Health Project
Dahabo Farah, Dean of Faculty of Languages (SNU)
Sadia Abelilah Salad, Broadcasting Office (Radio)
Mahamed Jaylan, Acting Director, Female Circumcision Project
Sahra Muse Ali, Secretary of Information and Propaganda
Muridi Awes Sadik, Manager of the Hayiadda Gan Xaawo Taaro
(Hayadda Commercial Agency)
Email Ahmed M., Project Secretary
Muhamed Dere Suti, Official Photographer
Hadio Ali Barre, Handicraft Training Center, Member of
Production Section

UNICEF

M. Baquer Namazi, Country Representative
Sandra Haji-Ahmed, Project Officer
Amina H. Adan, Project Assistant

UNDP

Adel Khalifa, Assistant Resident Representative
Anita Kivalainen, Junior Professional Officer -
Women in Development

UNFPA

K. V. R. Moorthy, Deputy Representative and Senior Advisor on
Population

FAO

Dr. Herbert Schels, FAO Representative

World Bank

Brian Falconer, Resident Representative, Somalia

World Bank/Washington

Bernard Woods, Senior Project Officer
Veronica Li, Loan Officer

Ministry of National Planning

Hussein Elabe Fahiye, Permanent Secretary

Ministry of Agriculture

Dr. Mohamood Abdi Noor, Vice President and Associate Professor
of Agronomy

Ministry of the Interior

Raqia Haji Dualah, Vice Minister

Somalia Academy of Arts and Sciences

Sadya Muse Ahmed

UNDP/FAO Project Commercial and Savings Bank

G.V. Rammamurthy, Senior Technical Advisor

Mohamed Ali Abucar, Agricultural Credit Officer (technical assistance in support of Rural Credit for Coops and Small Farmers)

Lower Shabelle Region, Merka District

Ahmed Killas Jama, Governor of Lower Shabelle
 Ibrahim Elmi Warsame, Party Regional Secretary
 Husein Sheikh Abdi Ismail, Vice Party Regional Secretary
 Osman Haji Diinle, Mayor, Merka
 Zahara Mohamed Nur, SWDO Lower Shabelle Regional Chair
 Haji Robleh Nur, SWDO Merka District Chair
 Abokar Ugas Mohamed, Supervisor of Merka Branch of the Commercial and Savings Bank of Somalia, and Chair of the Regional Input and Credit Committee
 Hussein Mohalim Ibrahim, ("FACO") Regional Coordinator for the Lower Shabelle Cooperatives

Shalambood/Merka

Marion Haji, Market Vendor
 Haowa Addi, Market Vendor
 Marina Nur, Market Vendor
 Fatima Osman, Market Vendor
 Ulki Muhamud, Shop Owner
 Halima Muktar, Camel Milk Seller
 Alaso Haji Ibrahim, Store Owner
 Yusuf Sheikh Moallim Osman, Manager/Supervisor, SOMALFRUIT
 Asha Mudei, Employee, SOMALFRUIT - Banana Packing Plant
 Mumina Hassan, Employee, SOMALFRUIT - Banana Packing Plant
 Shukri Ali, Employee, SOMALFRUIT - Banana Packing Plant
 Ruqiya Mohamed Nur, Farmer (female), Shalambood
 Habiba Mohamed Abdullahi, Farmer
 Faduma Hassan Ali, SWDO Member, Merka
 Kadija Nur Ibrahim, SWDO, IEC Community, Merka
 Haji Selhehedo Hassan, SWDO Member
 Fadumo Mohamed Ahmed, Cap Maker
 Fadumo Mohamed Momin, Cap Maker
 Mana Kassim Afang, SWDO Member, Cap Maker

El Adow Village

Hadiq Sitay Iddao Hassan, Chair, SWDO Executive Committee
 Faduma Haji Osman, Vice Chair
 Merka Mohamed Emiri, Farmer, Potter
 Kureshe Abdulle, Farmer, Potter
 Makai Sheko, Farmer, Potter
 Faylay Abukar Osman, SWDO Member

Brava

Abdisalam Ahmed Elmi, Party Secretary
Kadhra Ali Mohamed, SWDO Representative
Umi Bokari Nurshe, Shoe Maker (female)
Asha Abdukadir Iyada, Shoe Maker (female)
Bhinti Bokari Nurshe, Shoe Maker (female)
Dahabo Hassan Jibril, Basket Maker, Fisherwoman
Timira Mohamud Salad, Basket Maker, Fisherwoman

Qorioley

Code Cisse, Head, UNHCR, Sub Office
Harron Abrhr, Assistant Program Engineer
Frances Riemer, Community Project Coordinator, Save the
Children Federation
Sylvia Cowan Hancock, UNHCR - UNO Volunteer
Maham Farooqi, Acting Head, Technical Unit, UNHCR,
Mohamed Nuh Ahmed, Regional Field Coordinator, ELU/CARE
Machiko Kondo, Social Services Officer, UNHCR
Amina Hassan Arbou, Chairman, UBAX Cooperative and Member of
Local Government
Warjano Abede Guled, SWDO Coordinator
Abchill Abdulla, Party Secretary
Amina Bulbul, Coop. Women Res. Representative

Janale

Mohammed Abdi Waare, AFMET - Lower Shabelle
Aadan Osman, AFMET Deputy - Lower Shabelle

Dar-es-Salaam Village

Abdulle Bube Haji, Village Headman
Binti Mohamed Abdalla, Village SWDO Leader
Osman Bube Haji, SWDO Committee
Siidow Abow Hassan, SWDO Committee
Ashir Mohamed Abdulle, SWDO Committee
Haji Nuur Abukar, SWDO Committee
Ahmed Hirab Hassan, Director, Agricultural Research Station

Afgoi

Bashir Ali Abdulle, AFMET Extension Officer

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C. SEX-DISAGGREGATED REPORTING FORMS

Generally, most programs and projects cannot specify the number of participants by gender. Lack of information can lead to assumptions such as believing that there are no women participants when, in fact, women do participate, or believing that there are many women participants when, in fact, few women participate.

Field extension agents, credit officers, project officers, and program administrators use various reporting formats to gather information on farmer participation. In order to learn about women's participation in programs such as credit, extension contracts, or training, it is possible to make minor changes in the reporting formats already in use.

The following formats have been modified slightly to add categories for sex of farmers. In this way, sex-disaggregated data can be collected from the field and can be used by project administrators to compile reports on farmers targeted and services delivered. One deals with contacts of AFMET Field Extension Agents (FEAs) and the other records the number of credit takers, their inputs, and performance.

AFMET FIELD EXTENSION AGENTS (FEA) REPORTING FORMAT
(Male/Female Categories Added by Team)

Season _____

Month _____

District _____

	FEA CIRCLES				
	1	2	3	4	5
	M/F	M/F	M/F	M/F	M/F
1. Pop. farm families					
2. Village reached					
3. Active FEAs					
4. Contact farmers visited (Check FEA diary)					
5. Demonstration held a) Comparison demonstration b) Package demonstration c) Fertilizer demonstration					
6. Group meetings (Check FEA diary)					
7. DEO days in field (Check DEO diary)					
8. Number of groups visited (Check DEO diary)					
9. Estimation adaption rate					

N.B. Other important points such as price, problems can be written on a separate paper and attached.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D. VERBATIM STATUTE OF THE SOMALI WOMEN
DEMOCRATIC ORGANIZATION

INTRODUCTION:

Liberating the society from exploitation and inequality is not possible unless Women are fully liberated and are allowed to participate fully in the construction of the new Socialist society.

Women's liberation is a basic factor of the overall struggle towards social progress and the foundation of a socialist society.

The Somali Women's Democratic Organization is an organization which is guided by basic principles of the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party. Its main objective is the struggle towards the betterment of the Social life of the Somali Women, their liberation from social and economic inequality, the safeguarding of their basic rights and the encouragement of their full participation in the national construction.

Somali Women have a bright history concerning the struggle for independence and have always taken their rightful position beside the men during the struggle against colonialism and imperialism. For the first time in the

history of our country the 21st October Revolution has given the masses the opportunity to fully participate in the Government administration and political guidance of the country. For the first time the masses have been given the opportunity to fully participate in the national development and reconstruction.

For that reason the Somali Women are the basic force and weapon of the Somali Socialist Revolutionary Party as the Secretary General of the S.S.R.P said: "WOMEN CONSTITUTE A BASIC FORCE WHICH CANNOT BE APPRECIATED OR UNDERSTOOD BY THE SHORT SIGHTED, AND THEY ARE A VANGUARD OF GREAT VALUE".

Today Somali Woman realizes its rightful position in the task of national construction and development. For that reason she is always ready wherever she may be to protect and safeguard the fruits of the Revolution.

However, there are many obstacles that are facing the Somali Woman. Among them are the liberation the remnants of the colonial heritage and the negative aspects of Somali traditional life. The Somali Woman has to overcome these obstacles in order to play her rightful role in the construction of the new society.

For these objectives to be realized and for the Somali Woman to take her rightful position in the family and the society at large, it is imperative that there exists a broad based Women's organization. This organization should be capable of mobilizing and guiding the Somali Women toward the right path of the Revolution.

Article 1

NAME OF THE HEADQUARTERS AND THE EMBLEM OF THE SWDO

The S.W.D.O. is based in Mogadisho, the capital city of S.D.R. The Organization's Emblem consists of a flag of two colours - Red and Blue.

In the middle of the Flag is a five pointed Star and a Mother carrying a Child. The Mother has her two arms raised carrying a hoe and a Gun in each hand.

The meaning of the Emblem:-

- (1) The Blue colour represents the Somali Flag.
- (2) The Red is a symbol of the revolutionary struggle.
- (3) The Five pointed Star represents the Somali People as divided by colonialism and imperialism.
- (4) The Mother represents the country.
- (5) The Child represents the nation.
- (6) The Hoe represents farming which constitutes the base of the economy.
- (7) The Gun represents the defense of the Nation.

Article 2

NATURE OF THE ORGANIZATION

1. The S.W.D.O. is a broad based democratic organization unifying the Somali Women at large on the basis of voluntary membership. It represents a broad spectrum of the Somali Women in their various social, economic and professional engagements (e.g., Workers, Youth, Co-operatives, Armed Forces, Peasants, Fisheries, Livestock herders, House Wives and other progressive Woman throughout country). The SWDO unifies in a revolutionary manner all the Somali Women engaged in the revolutionary class

struggle and the national construction of a new socialist society.

2. The SWDO is preparing the Somali Woman to actively participate in political social, economic and cultural life of society. Its main objectives are the defense of the rights of the Somali Mother, proper upbringing of the Somali Children, combating social discrimination, apartheid, zionism and all forms of imperialism and colonialism. Another basic objective of the SWDO is the struggle toward freedom, unity, democracy, peace, progress and socialism. In particular, the Organization is concerned with the promotion and defense of the rights of Women throughout the world who are engaged in this just struggle.
3. The SWDO is based on the principles and objectives of the 21st October Revolution and is geared toward the fulfillment of these objectives.

Article 3

OBJECTIVES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SWDO

In accordance with Article 2 of the Statute, the SWDO will place its strength in fulfilling the following objectives:-

- 1) To unify the strength of the Somali Women, raising the level of their political consciousness and preparing them to participate fully in the protection and defense of the achievements of the Revolution and the fulfillment of the objectives of the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party.

- 2) To combat the negative aspects of traditional culture that are standing in the way of progress and hindering the construction of a new socialist society.
- 3) To establish and strengthen the family in such a way as to be compatible with the norms and discipline of a socialist society.
- 4) To participate fully in the political economic, social, and cultural aspects of the Somali Society; to realize equality between Men and Women and to combat in general the subjugation and oppression of Women.
- 5) To combat ignorance, hunger and disease; and to raise the educational standard of Women and their political consciousness.
- 6) To create Women centres dealing with the promotion of various professions and trades like arts and crafts, co-operatives of various types, domestic science schools, kindergardens - all of which will promote and facilitate Women's participation in the economic development of the nation.
- 7) To take an active part in the resettlement of Somali nomads; in the propotion of the rehabilitation centers; in the establishment of orientation centres;. and in the promotion of the general health of the society.
- 8) To co-operate with other organizations of the society so as to be able to fulfill national responsibilities in accordance with the same revolutionary principles.

- 9) To strengthen the friendship of the Socialist Women's Organization throughout the World.

Article 4

MEMBERSHIP PROCEDURES

Membership of SWDO is open to any Somali Women of 18 years of age, who is in agreement with the programme of the SWDO in accordance with the following conditions:-

- 1.= Membership in SWDO has to be requested by an application to the organization's Committee of the Village, Town quarters or the district.
- 2.= Membership is achieved by the consent of the majority of the SWDO's meeting.
- 3.= Five Shillings entrance fee has to be paid.
- 4.= Any Women to become a member of the SWDO has to show an active involvement in the affairs of her own community.
- 5.= In certain exceptional cases a Women may be exempted from the above conditions and rewarded with membership because of diligence and extra hard work shown in the participation of the affairs of the community. This comes as a result of a suggestion from the SWDO's Committee of the Village or Town quarters which will pass this decision to the SWDO's Committee of the District, which also will in its turn pass on the decision to the Headquarters of the SWDO in Mogadisho.

Article 5
RESPONSIBILITIES OF SWDO'S MEMBER

Any member of the SWDO has the following responsibilities:-

- (1) She has to devote herself totally to the development of the political, economic and social awareness of the Somali Women.
- (2) She has to fulfill and execute in a most sincere manner the programme, the Statute and the decision of the SWDO.
- (3) She has to defend the gains of the Revolution and struggle of the revolution and struggle towards the achievement of its main objectives.
- (4) She has to combat against tribalism, nepotism, regionalism, corruption and all that hampers the progress of the society.
- (5) She has to observe the discipline of the organization and protect national security.
- (6) She has to participate actively in the meetings of the organization expressing her own views.

Article 6
RIGHTS OF THE MEMBER

Any member of the SWDO has the following rights:-

- 1.- She has the right to elect and be elected to the different positions of leadership in the SWDO.

- 2.- She has to express her own views independently at the meeting and conferences of the Organization before any final decision is reached.
- 3.- She can during these meetings and conferences criticize any member and be criticized.

Article 7

RELATIONSHIP OF SWDO WITH S.R.S.P. AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

- 1)= The SWDO has to participate fully in the fulfillment and execution of the instructions and decisions of the SRSP.
- 2)= The SWDO has direct and continuous relationship with Sister Organizations and of its own level; e.g., Workers organizations, Youth Organizations etc.

Article 8

STRUCTURE OF SWDO

The SWDO is founded on the principle of Democratic Centralism. This means:-

- 1) All elections in the SWDO are geared from bottom to top, i.e., from lower to higher levels.
- 2) There must be a strong discipline and the minority opinion must always be led by the majority in all aspects of the organization's activities.
- 3) In the hierarchical structure of the committees, the lower committees have to always fulfill and execute the decisions of the committees above them.

Article 9

STRUCTURE OF THE SWDO

The Structure of the SWDO is as follows:-

- 1.- The Congress
- 2.- The National Committee
- 3.- The Executive Office
- 4.- Regional, District, Town quarters and Village Committees

Article 10

POWERS OF THE CONGRESS.

- 1) The Congress is the highest and most powerful organ in the SWDO. It meets once every three (3) Years. The National has the responsibility of calling the Congress to session and making necessary preparations for it.
- 2) The Congress can also hold irregular sessions upon the request of the National Committee or the majority of the regional and District Committees.
- 3) The Congress has the power:-
 - (a) to listen and reject or accept the reports of the National Committee;
 - (b) to draw the general policy to be followed by the SWDO;

- (c) to accept and/or revise the programme and Statute of the SWDO;
- (d) to limit the number of the National Committee;
- (e) to elect the members of the National Committee.

The representatives participating in the Congress are elected by the Regional and District Committees and their number will be decided by the National Committee in accordance with population and economic standing of each region and district. The call to the meeting of the Congress and the agenda of the Congress have to be announced three (3) months before the meeting of the Congress.

Article 11

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE

1. The National Committee is highest organ of the SWDO in between the General meetings of the Congress in which the most revolutionary and capable Women who have taken active participation in the development of the nation are elected to the National Committee.
2. The National Committee draws the General plan of the activities of the SWDO. It specifies and takes the necessary precautions against those elements coming against the decisions of the Congress of SWDO.
3. The National Committee draws up guidelines with regard to: The preparation for the meeting of the Congress; the election of various Committees of the Organization; the

administration of finance; and the reports of the members of the Organization.

4. The National Committee guides the work; orientation programs; mobilization and writings, and propaganda of the Organization.

Note: Source document given to team was incomplete. Therefore, Article 12 and a part of Article 13 are not included in this appendix.

- 4) General Secretary
- 5) Secretary for the Welfare of Women and Children
- 6) Secretary for Organization
- 7) Secretary for Orientation and Propaganda
- 8) Secretary for Education and Training
- 9) Secretary for External Affairs
- 10) Secretary for Finance and Administration
- 11) Secretary for Development of Culture and Sports

Article 14

THE CHAIRMAN OF THE ORGANIZATION

The Chairman is the highest authority in the SWDO, and has great responsibilities with regard to the policies concerning the main objectives of SWDO and the protection of the

basic principles of SWDO. The Chairman coordinates the activities of the Organization and the relationships between the SWDO, the S.R.S.P., the Government and other organizations throughout the country.

The Chairman also monitors the activities of the executive office and the meetings of the National Committee.

The functions and responsibilities of the rest of the members of the Executive Office will be defined in an amendment to the Statutes which will be put out by the National Committee of the SWDO.

Article 15

CENTRAL COMMITTEE FOR DISCIPLINE & AUDITING

The National Committee elects from amongst its members the Central Committee for discipline and auditing. This Committee closely observes discipline and inspects the ways and means of attaining membership in the Organization; it also audits the property and financial measures of the Organization. The National Committee can revise if necessary the decisions of the Central discipline and auditing committee.

The number of the Central discipline and auditing committee is decided in the meeting of the National Committee. The functions of the Central Discipline and auditing Committee will be specified in an amendment to this Statute to be put out by the National Committee of the Organization

Article 16

REGIONAL AND DISTRICT COMMITTEES OF SWDO

The Organizations of SWDO falls into the following:-

- (1) Regional Committee;
- (2) District Committee;
- (3) Village Committee;
- (4) The Town quarter (or zone) Committee.

Article 17

FUNCTIONS OF THE REGIONAL AND DISTRICT COMMITTEES

The Regional and District Committees, in accordance with the programme and Statute of the Organization, have the following functions:-

1. Execution of the policies and organizational activities of SWDO, execution of the decisions of the higher organs of the Organization. The Regional and District Committees also have the functions of mobilizing the members of the Organization and the masses at large to fulfill their tasks in the economic, educational, cultural development and national construction in accordance with programme of the S.R.S.P.
2. The Regional and District Committees pass on reports of their activities to the higher Committees of the Organization.

Article 18

LEADING MEMBERS OF THE REGIONAL COMMITTEES OF THE SWDO

The highest organ of the Regional Committee the meeting of Regional Conference. In between the meetings the highest Regional organ is the Regional Committee of the Organization.

The Regional Committee calls the Regional meeting of SWDO at least once every three (3) years. The Regional General Conference hears the report of the Regional Committee and comments on various aspects of it and finally elects the Regional Committee of the SWDO.

The Regional Committee in its turn elects the Regional Executive Office and the delegation to participate in the Congress for the Region.

The elected Committees are approved by the National Committee of SWDO and are registered at the Headquarters.

The Regional Committee meets at least once every six (6) months, and has the function of guiding the activities of district and Village Committees.

The Structure, administrative procedures and the coordination of the activities of various Regional and District Committees will be specified in an amendment to this Statute to be put out by the National Committee of SWDO.

Article 19

DISTRICT COMMITTEES OF THE SWDO

The General meeting of the District Committee is the highest organ of the SWDO at the District level. The meeting is organized once every three (3) years by the District Committee. The meeting hears the report of the District and Village Committees.

It reviews matters concerning the political, economic and social development of the Women in District. The District

Committee of the SWDO is elected in this meeting. The District Committee, in its turn, elects the Executive Office and the delegation representing the District in the Regional meeting.

The District Committee is approved by the Regional Committee and is registered at the Regional and National Headquarters. The District Committee guides the activities of the Women in villages and Town zones and hears their report. The Committee meets at least once (1) a month.

Article 20

DISCIPLINE PROCEDURES

The mistakes Committed by a member of the Organization are judged by:-

1. The failure to fulfill his/her responsibility toward the organization and its decisions. These mistakes could bring to bear on any of the following:-

(a) Organizations: Reprimand or complete dissolution of the Committee and the establishment of a new Committee on temporary basis.

(b) Members: Any member of the Organization who commits a mistake and/or a crime may be subject to:-

i) a warning either orally or in writing;

ii) reprimand;

iii) demotion from position of power in the organization;

iv) expulsion from the Organization.

2. A member who is expelled from the Organization may rejoin after two years during which period it has been ascertained by the Committee of the community in which he/she is living that he/she has recovered from previous faults.

This is approved by the Regional Committee which in its turn, passes on his/her name to the Central Headquarters. Any member expelled from the Organization for the second time could never be allowed to join the Organization again.

Article 21

THE REVENUE OF THE ORGANIZATION

The revenue of the Organization comes basically from the settling of newspapers and other publications of the Organization; from the entrance fees and monthly dues paid by the members and from donations. The monthly dues are collected once every month at the rate of two (2) Shillings per month for working Women and one (1) Shilling per month for housewives and others who are not working.

The revenue of the Organization is spent on the following:-

- .- Development of Women and their Welfare;
- .- Raising the level of their political consciousness;
- .- Training, e.g., arts and crafts, technical know how, etc; to enable them to get new jobs;

- .- Women's education and co-operatives;
- .- Development and expansion of kindergardens, etc.

Details of expending and inspecting the revenue of the Organization will be specified in an ammendment to this Statute to be put out by the National Committee of the SWDO.

END.

Shariif/=

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E. APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGIES

It is important to take the needs of rural women into account when determining what items are worth pursuing. Second, attention should be given to using local raw materials to construct the technology.

Suggestions for appropriate techniques for Somali women include the following:

1. Banana chip manufacture: Bananas are grown in Lower Shabelle for local consumption and export. The snacks could be fried in sesame oil (sesame is also grown in the area) and marketed in urban areas.
2. Fish smoker: Some women who live on the coast or near the river already dry fish; others are limited by time and equipment.
3. Sorghum mills: Women in areas of dry land farming could benefit from these mills to alleviate the lengthy processing. Loans would be necessary to assist them and women could obtain loans as individuals or they could form a cooperative.
4. Cement storage jar: Water for the household is a problem in most villages. Villagers in Dar-es-Salaam collect rain water from their tin roofs, but they could be assisted by having storage jars. Tile roofs made from pottery might also be used.

5. Wheelbarrow: For carrying water and pottery. Women in the pottery villages said they wanted some kind of carts to carry clay and finished pottery. Other women need carts to carry water so that they can be relieved of the backaches and headaches of which they complain. This design would have to be tested to see if it could work on unpaved surfaces.

Raw Materials, Energy Supply and Infrastructure

By definition, an appropriate technology should be based upon locally available materials and skills and should be suited to use and maintenance in areas which may lack access to electricity, roads and other facilities.

When projects have major or minor requirements for imported raw materials, their progress can be damaged if supplies dry up. In these cases, attempts are often made to guard against potential disruption by seeking out locally available alternatives (eg, ash pot to replace imported caustic soda in soap-making in West Africa; composite flour to replace imported wheat in bread baking in Botswana). Often these local alternatives can be produced by women's groups, thus providing another source of employment.

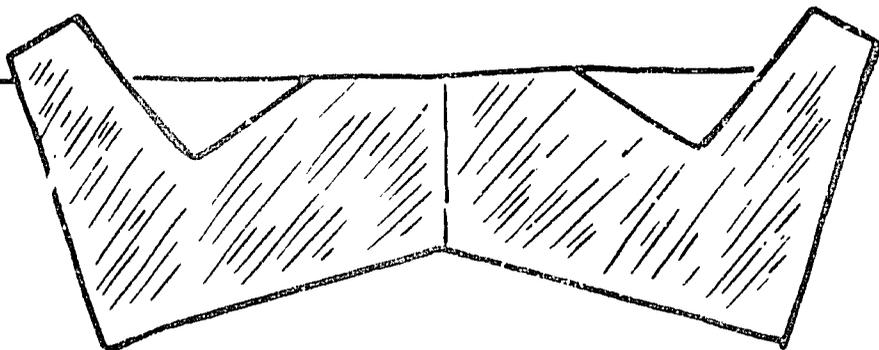
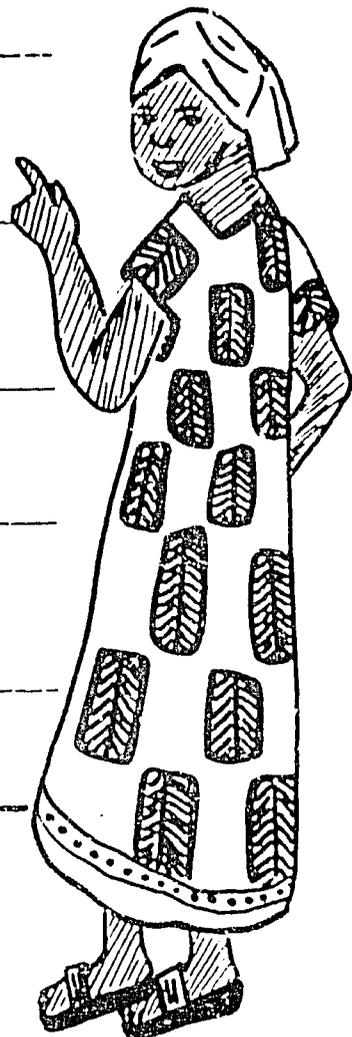
Even projects based on locally available materials can have problems. Many improved technologies increase productivity to such an extent that their introduction can cause a short term or long term strain on raw materials. In some cases, as for example with improved fish-smoking ovens in Ghana, supplies can quickly adjust to demand. In other cases, such as the introduction of improved textile technologies, limited supplies of raw material imply that some women will benefit at the expense of others, who are then displaced from a traditional activity.

Another important consideration when establishing a project is the requirement for infrastructural support - particularly power and transportation facilities. Technologies designed to be operated by hand or animal power are often well-suited to even the remotest of communities. In cases where a technology requires a source of power such as electricity or diesel, careful thought has to be given to the economic viability of the technology. One of the most common reasons for failure of projects based on diesel-operated mills or pumps is the non-availability, the irregular availability, or the unacceptably high price of fuel. Thus, extreme caution should be exercised before introducing a technology of this type - especially in remote areas. Sometimes, alternative sources of energy such as water power in Nepal and the Andes or solar power in the Sahel, can provide a solution, but experience shows that such alternatives are not without problems of their own.

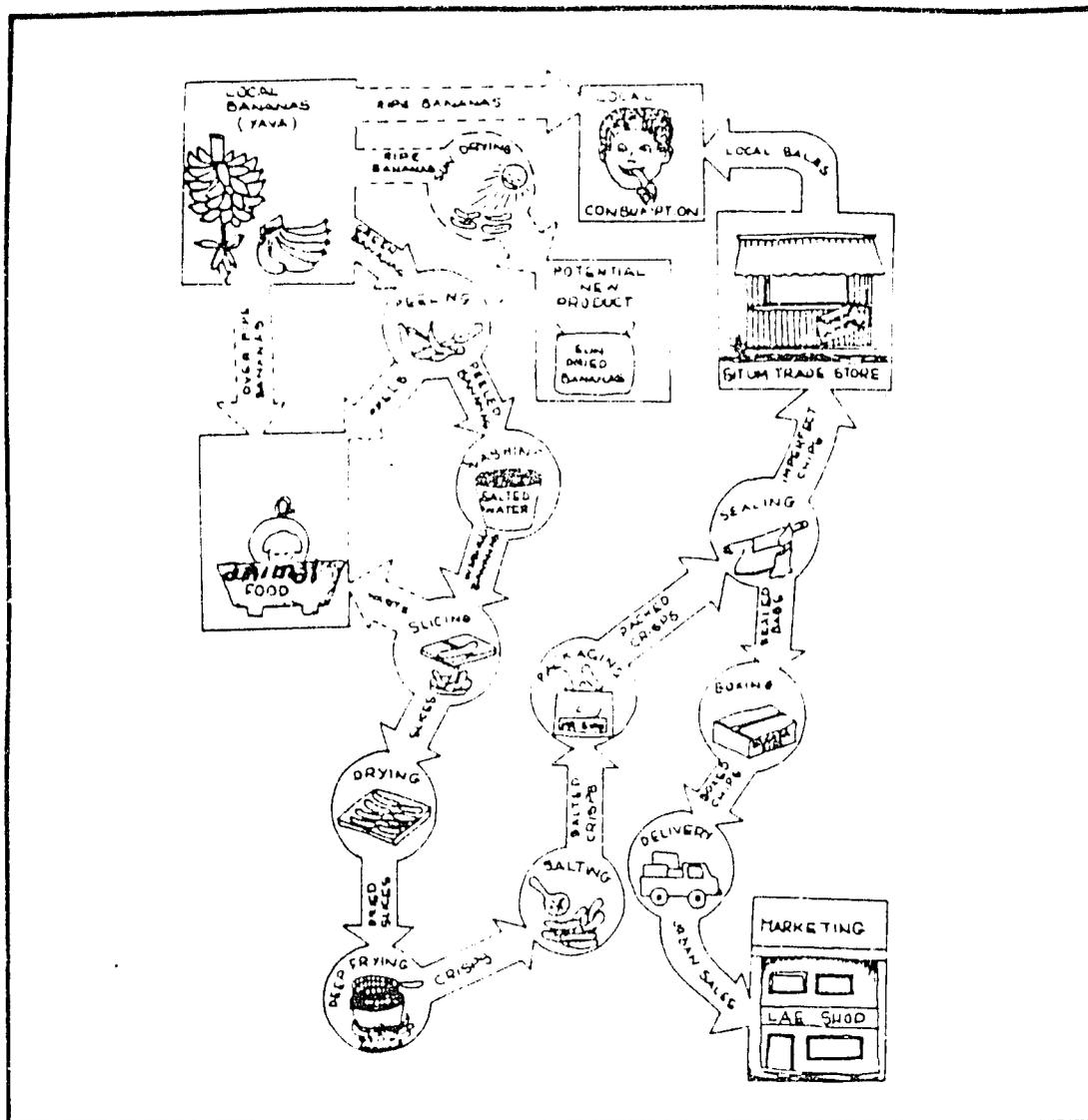
Many surveys aimed at identifying needs of rural women have found that relief from the burden of carrying heavy loads is high on their list of priorities. As yet, however, little has been done to develop or make accessible technologies which could improve means of transportation in rural areas. Even less has been done to ensure that women have access to technologies which are available. For example, in order to improve access to farms, a major development project in The Gambia built causeways and bridges and introduced animal-drawn carts to assist with load carrying. An evaluation of the project found that women had started hiring donkey and horse carts to transport crops from their farms to home, paying for these in cash or by kind. They had not, however, used carts for carrying heavy seedlings to the swamps for transplanting since they were short of cash at that time of year. This was despite the fact that many of their husbands owned carts which had been distributed by the development project. Evaluators concluded that unless equipment is made directly available to women, they may not be able to take advantage of new investments and improved infrastructures.

A Checklist: Raw Materials, Energy Supply and Infrastructure

	Yes	No
Does the technology or product use local raw materials?	_____	_____
Are sufficient and affordable quantities of materials available?	_____	_____
Are there competing uses for raw materials which could affect price and supply?	_____	_____
Can additional projects be established which enable women's groups to produce raw materials needed by other women's groups?	_____	_____
Are there substitutes if raw materials become scarce?	_____	_____
Is electricity or diesel needed? Are they reliable sources of power in the area?	_____	_____
Can alternative energy sources be used?	_____	_____
If alternative energy sources are to be used, have they been tested?	_____	_____



BANANA CHIPS



COST.	NO COST	
	LOW COST	✓
	HIGH COST	
USE.	EASY TO DO	✓
	EASY AFTER TRAINING	
	NEEDS SPECIAL OPERATOR	
CON- STRUCTION	SELF-BUILT	✓
	ARTISAN BUILT	
	FACTORY BUILT	
POWER SOURCE	DIESEL	✓
	ELECTRICITY	✓
	ANIMAL MANUAL RENEWABLE	✓
PURPOSE	LABOUR-SAVING	
	INCOME GENERATING	✓
	DOMESTIC	
MAIN TENANCE	SIMPLE	✓
	TRAINING NEEDED	
	SPECIALIST NEEDED	

BRIEF DESCRIPTION

A process in which surplus bananas are made into deep fried chips, sealed hygienically in plastic bags and sold as a snack. Any type of banana can be used in the production of chips. The bananas must be harvested and processed in the mature green stage before they turn yellow. The bananas are peeled, sliced and dropped into a bucket of salted water to be cleaned and to remove the remaining sap. The bananas are then dried in the shade for uniformity and then deep fried. After frying, the chips are salted and packed in polyethylene bags and sealed with a hacksaw blade and candle flame.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

WRITE: 1) APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE, Free Mail Bag, University of Technology, Lae, Papua New Guinea. 2) SITUM BANANA CHIP ENTERPRISE, Situm, Block N.G. 51, P.O.Box 1317, Lae, Papua New Guinea.

READ: 1) THE A.T. JOURNAL, Vol. 11, No. 1, June 1984; 2) COMMUNITY BASED FOOD-PROCESSING INDUSTRIES FOR PAPUA NEW GUINEA: THE SITUM BANANA CHIP ENTERPRISE. New, K.R., AT01, Lae, PNG, 1984.

STRENGTHS

1. Uses surplus locally available raw materials to set up a small-scale industry.
2. It provides an income-generating activity requiring few or no skills.
3. There is no waste as the banana skins can be used for pig feed.
4. There is a ready market for snack foods.
5. It is inexpensive to set up such an enterprise.

WEAKNESSES

1. Since the enterprise would most probably be set up in a rural community, transport of goods to urban areas could pose a problem.

HOW IT'S BEEN USED

SITUM PROJECT - PAPUA NEW GUINEA

This project was initiated in 1981 when the villagers started to build an addition to their trade-store with the intention of developing a women's food-making enterprise. ATDI showed the villagers how to use their surplus bananas to make deep fried chips and hygienically seal them in plastic bags for sale. The women have been very proficient in the production process, achieving a uniform quality. Their product known as 'Mr Banana Sip' is now sold through various stores around Lae.

The villagers did experience transport problems since they did not own a vehicle; however, they have since compromised with the use of public transport. Originally, the chips were sold informally through private orders in the Situm area, including the local school and soccer field. At present, an average of 1400 to 2000 bags per week are sold wholesale to the Lae health foodstore, supermarket and school canteen.

Consumer acceptance has been good and it seems from store owner's reports that potential demand is higher. Enquiries have been received from retailers in several other provinces but this demand cannot be met at the moment. Widespread distribution is beyond the current production and organizational capacity of the group. The Situm group has taken the initiative to teach other women what they have learned. They recently accommodated a group of women from a women's club in Sepik and gave them "on-the-job" training for three weeks. Through job training the Situm women were able to transfer three year's worth of experience in three weeks. The Sepik women established the same banana chip process on a smaller scale, producing the same quality of product.

CHORKOR FISH-SMOKER



	NO COST	
COST.	LOW COST	✓
	HIGH COST	
	NO TRAINING NEEDED	✓
USE.	TRAINING NEEDED	
	TRAINED OPERATOR NEEDED	
	SELF-BUILT	✓
CON- STRUCTION	ARTISAN-BUILT	✓
	FACTORY-BUILT	
	DIESEL ELECTRICITY	
POWER SOURCE	ANIMAL MANUAL	
	RENEWABLE	✓
	LABOUR- SAVING	
PURPOSE	INCOME- GENERATING	✓
	DOMESTIC	
	SIMPLE	✓
MAIN TENANCE	TRAINING NEEDED	
	SPECIALIST NEEDED	

BRIEF DESCRIPTION

A fish-smoking oven used to preserve food, the chorkor increases the nutritional value and the taste of the fish, thereby making it more marketable and increasing the income received from the sale of fish. It has proven to be far more reliable and efficient than the traditional, and some improved, smoking ovens. The chorkor smoker is simply a stack of 10 - 15 smoking trays, well encased in flexible, resistant sheeting material, usually with a sheet of plywood above and below it, and well battened down. Due to the 'chimney' formed by the stacking of the trays on the oven the heat and the smoke constantly circulate inside. Thus, a high quality, evenly smoked product is achieved with a minimum of fuel.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

WRITE: 1) UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT FUND FOR WOMEN, (formerly UN Voluntary Fund for Women), DC2-13th Floor, New York, NY 10017, USA. Attn: Olubanke Akerele; 2) Mrs SALOME ANSON, NATIONAL COUNCIL ON WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, P.O.Box M.53, Accra, Ghana.

READ: 1) "WOMEN IN FISH PRODUCTION: A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO IMPROVED FISH-SMOKING IN WEST AFRICA," UNICEF, 1981

STRENGTHS

1. The oven has a low construction cost and a long life (15 years).
2. The oven holds up to 18kgs of fish per tray and 15 trays per oven
3. Due to greater retention of heat and circulation of smoke, the finished product has a higher quality and uniformity.
4. The smoker wastes very little heat so it has a lower consumption of firewood
5. It is easy to operate and therefore much less time and effort is required than with other ovens

WEAKNESSES

1. Due to its design the oven would have to be constructed by skilled artisans.
2. For proper functioning, the oven needs to be maintained on a regular basis. (However, maintenance is very easy.)
3. For greater lifespan, mud ovens need to be protected from rain.
4. The tray frames need to be replaced every three years and the wire mesh every two years.

HOW IT'S BEEN USED

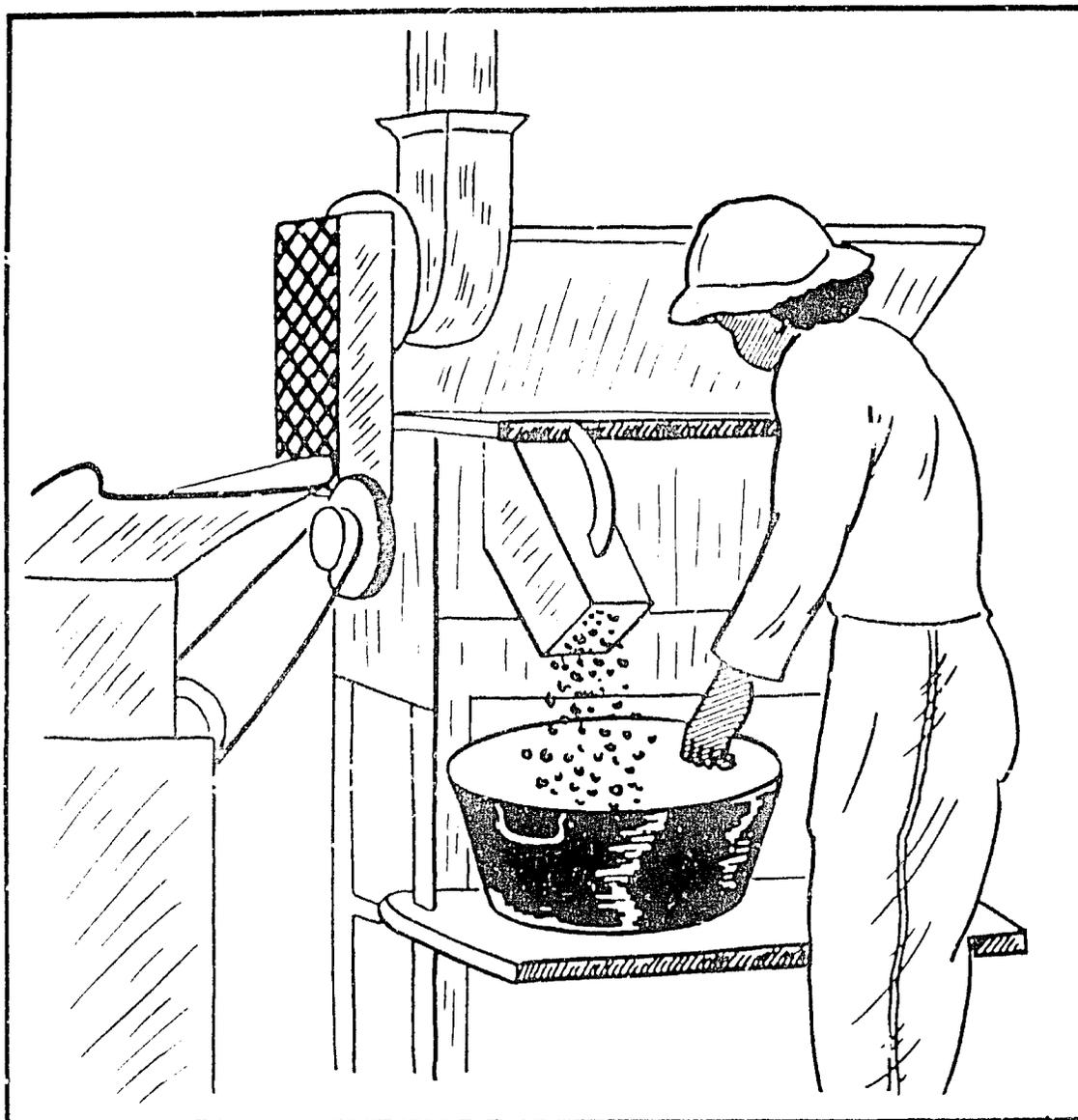
NATIONAL COUNCIL ON WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT - GHANA

The improved chorkor smoker was introduced in Ghana, originally through a project funded by FAO and recently by UNICEF and the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM). The National Council on Women and Development in Ghana acts as the implementing agency. The chorkor smoker has already proven to be readily acceptable by those who practice traditional fish smoking methods and by those women who have often rejected other so-called 'improvements'.

The project was initiated in five villages; it has since spread from the central coast of Ghana through to Keta, the Volta region and along the Volta lake to Dutroya in the Northern region. The UNIFEM financed several other small, fish-smoking projects in West Africa. The chorkor smoker has spread beyond Ghana's borders to Togo, Benin and Guinea Conakury.

The Ghanaian women not only purchase and process fish, but also transport large amounts of fish over hundreds of kilometres to market places. International agencies such as the UNIFEM have also facilitated women's access to loans. The women are able to use this credit to expand their businesses. For example, in the ocean part of Terna, a number of women who began as simple local peddlers now own large ocean-going fishing vessels. The Ghanaian women also act as extension agents by training women from other villages and neighbouring countries (Benin and Guinea). This type of peer training is an excellent way of spreading knowledge and also develops the women's self-esteem.

SORGHUM MILLING



	NO COST	
COST	LOW COST	
	HIGH COST	✓
USE	EASY TO DO EASY AFTER TRAINING NEEDS SPECIAL OPERATOR	✓
CONSTRUCTION	SELF-BUILT ARTISAN-BUILT FACTORY-BUILT	✓
POWER SOURCE	DIESEL ELECTRICITY ANIMAL/MANUAL RENEWABLE	✓
PURPOSE	LABOUR-SAVING INCOME GENERATING DOMESTIC	✓
MAINTENANCE	SIMPLE TRAINING NEEDED SPECIALIST NEEDED	✓

BRIEF DESCRIPTION

The traditional method of milling sorghum is replaced by a mechanized method known as dry abrasion. In the traditional method the grain has to be soaked before grinding to separate the bran from the grain. The mechanized method follows the same principle of separating bran from grain, but the grain is not soaked before starting. This is advantageous because soaking the grain decreases the length of time the cereal lasts before it goes bad. The mechanized method consists of a dehuller, which separates the bran from the grain, and a hammermill, which grinds the grain to meal. Additionally, the mechanized method replaces the tedious process of hand winnowing by use of a fan.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

WRITE: 1) RURAL INDUSTRIES INNOVATION CENTRE (RIIC), Private Bag 11, Kanye, Botswana; 2) INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH CENTRE (IDRC), PO Box CP8500, Ottawa, Canada K1G 3H9.

READ: 1) THE A.T. JOURNAL, Vol. 12, No. 1, June 1985.

STRENGTHS

1. A labour-saving device releasing up to four hours per day of a woman's and her children's time.
2. The mill can be used for batch service milling (where women bring their own grain for milling), and for commercial milling (where the mill owner buys grain and grinds it for sale).
3. The equipment can be made in developing countries using readily available or cheaply imported materials and local resources.

WEAKNESSES

1. The equipment is expensive, (about UK£6,250). Rural women would have to buy it on a co-operative basis or with financial assistance from appropriate agencies. (In Botswana, funding from the government and development banks is readily available.)

HOW IT'S BEEN USED

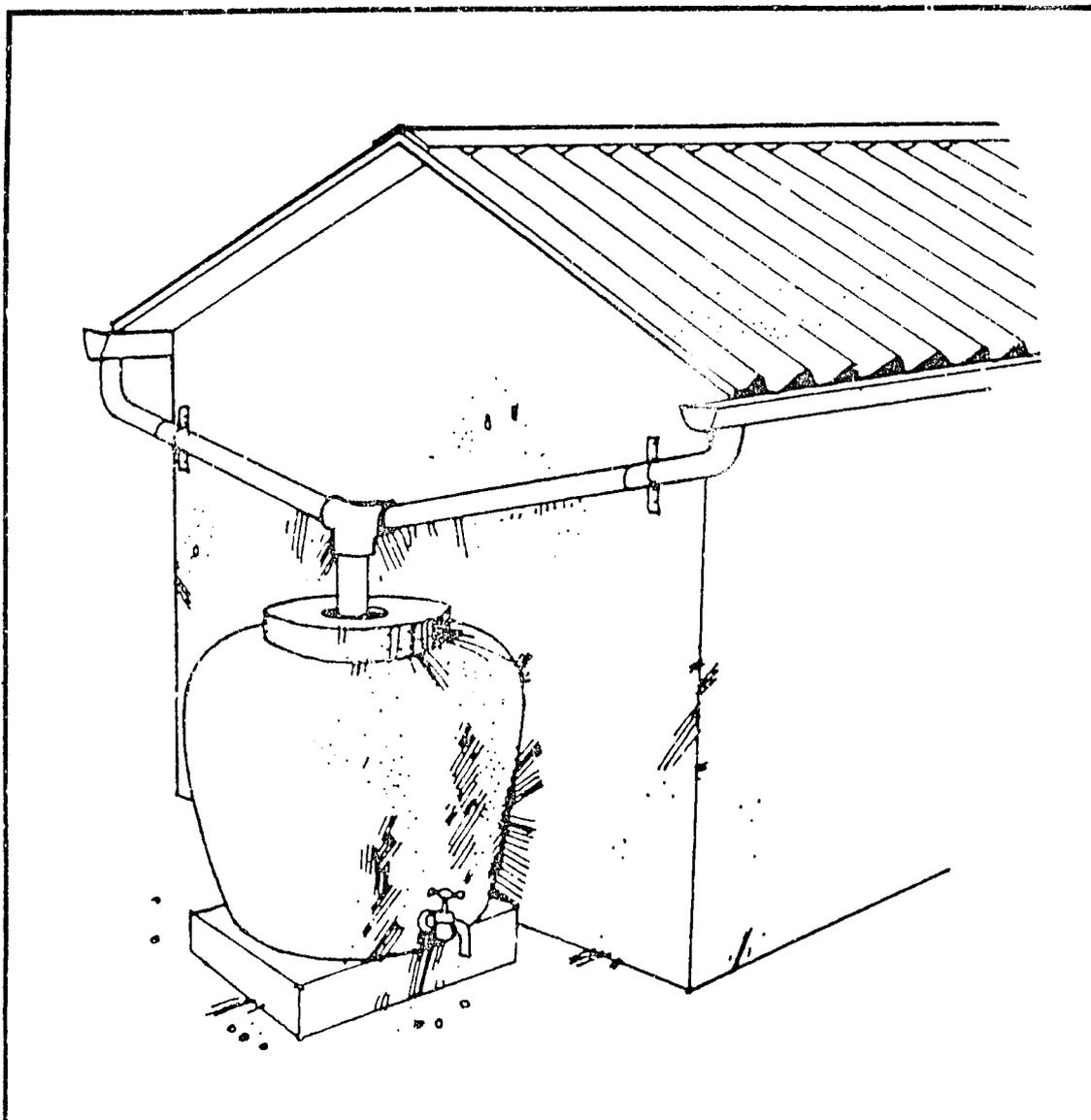
IDRC/RIIC/BAMB - BOTSWANA

In co-operation with IDRC, RIIC and BAMB (Botswana Agricultural Marketing Board) the village of Kanye (Botswana) received a model of a sorghum commercial mill. Surveys had clearly shown a need for such machines; following successful implementation in Kanye, commercial mills were installed in four other villages. Seminars were held on the use of the equipment with information on how to run a business as a mill owner. Support systems were also set up to investigate incorrect user practice and low quality manufacture. In addition the Botswana Mill Owners Association was set up for the owners to share a forum of mutual interest. The forum discusses policies such as lobbying the government to put a levy on sorghum prices to encourage the sale and purchase of sorghum from BAMB.

The mills, 36 to date, are run by co-operatives, private individuals and brigade centres. In addition to the numerous benefits already mentioned they provide over 250 direct jobs. There are firm orders for more mills as well as export orders from South Africa.

Another advantage of the mills is that they lend themselves to both commercial milling and service milling. Commercial milling has reduced the country's dependence on imported foods and enabled consumers to obtain their preferred traditional food. Service milling allows the villagers to bring their own sorghum (or buy it at the mills) and have it processed by the mill. This relieves women from a time-consuming and laborious daily task.

CEMENT STORAGE JAR



	NO COST	
COST:	LOW COST	✓
	HIGH COST	
	NO TRAINING NEEDED	✓
USE:	TRAINING NEEDED	
	TRAINED OPERATOR NEEDED	
	SELF-BUILT	✓
CON-STRUCTION:	ARTISAN-BUILT	
	FACTORY-BUILT	
	DIESEL/ELECTRICITY	
POWER SOURCE:	ANIMAL/MANUAL	
	RENEWABLE	✓
	LABOUR-SAVING	
PURPOSE:	INCOME-GENERATING	
	DOMESTIC	✓
	SIMPLE	
MAINTENANCE:	TRAINING NEEDED	✓
	SPECIALIST NEEDED	

BRIEF DESCRIPTION

A rainwater storage tank intended to provide water for domestic purposes. A large bag, made of coarse cloth or several sacks, is packed with any available material, such as grass, chaff, sand or wood-shavings. A circular object is placed in the neck of the bag to make a large opening. The bag is moistened and a thin layer of cement is plastered over the outside. Chicken mesh and wire are wrapped around the bag on top of the cement; another thin layer of cement is then applied. When the cement is dry, the bag and contents are carefully removed. The jar is plastered inside with waterproof mortar and left to cure for ten days. The jar can be made on the ground or placed on a raised platform so that a pipe and tap can be fitted to enable water to be removed.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

WRITE: 1) UNICEF, Technology Support Section, Eastern Africa Regional Office, P.O. Box 44145, Nairobi, Kenya

READ: 1) WATERLINES, Vol. 3, No. 1, July 1984.

STRENGTHS

1. The jar makes water easily accessible.
2. The jars store roof rainwater which is usually cleaner than the surface water supplies traditionally used-- especially after the first 'flush' of a downpour has been allowed to run waste.
3. Cheap and simple to build using locally available materials.

WEAKNESSES

1. Facilities to drain away spilled water are needed, i.e., a soak pit.
2. Roofs have to be designed in a way that allows for collection of rain-water.

HOW IT'S BEEN USED

UTOONI DEVELOPMENT PROJECT - KENYA

The cement water jars are being built in Kola by the Utooni Development Project. The project is planning for 3 jars per household in the village. Approximately 150 jars are already in service and an estimated 350 more are needed. The jars are designed to store roof rainwater which would normally run to waste. They are intended to provide water for domestic consumption. Women are reluctant to participate in the building of the largest jars, since the practice of climbing inside these to prepare the lining is culturally unacceptable.

The Utooni Development Project has constructed some of these jars near tree nurseries and experimental seed plots. This means that water is available as needed and repeated journeys for water are not necessary. The jars are filled manually on a rotating basis by a team of villagers.

UNICEF PROJECT - KENYA

In Lusigitti, barely eight miles (12.8kms) outside of Nairobi, the women are without land, their poverty is acute, and there is very little rainfall. UNICEF is assisting women in the construction of cement jars. Each woman contributes Kshs 260 towards her jar, and UNICEF provides another Kshs 240. The women raise the money needed by producing items made of banana fibre.

WHEELBARROW FOR CARRYING WATER



COST:	NO COST	
	LOW COST	✓
	HIGH COST	
USE:	NO TRAINING NEEDED	✓
	TRAINING NEEDED	
	TRAINED OPERATOR NEEDED	
CON- STRUCTION:	SELF-BUILT	
	ARTISAN-BUILT	✓
	FACTORY-BUILT	
POWER SOURCE:	DIESEL/ ELECTRICITY	
	ANIMAL/ MANUAL	✓
	RENEWABLE	
PURPOSE:	LABOUR- SAVING	✓
	INCOME- GENERATING	
	DOMESTIC	
MAIN TENANCE	SIMPLE	✓
	TRAINING NEEDED	
	SPECIALIST NEEDED	

BRIEF DESCRIPTION

The wheelbarrow replaces the traditional method of transporting water "jugs", usually carried by women on their heads. With this particular design, the weight of the jugs is evenly distributed, thus making it easier to push the wheelbarrow. The frame is made of welded scrap metal. The wheel consists of a used motorbike wheel, mounted on an axle with bearings. The wheelbarrows can be made locally in small welding shops.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

WRITE: 1) TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT, Enzo Fano, Rm DC1-754, United Nations, New York 10017 USA; 2) BURKINA FASO WOMEN'S ASSOCIATION, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

STRENGTHS

1. Easily fabricated using scrap metal.
2. Facilitates the transportation of heavy loads.
3. Design results in less physical effort in carrying water jars.
4. Reduces the strain on women's spinal columns.

WEAKNESSES

1. Not very convenient for soft sand tracks.
2. Wheels must be acquired in the cities (used motorbike wheels are not widely available).
3. Repair requires welding torches not widely available.

HOW IT'S BEEN USED

BURKINA FASO

This kind of wheelbarrow was introduced in Burkina Faso as part of a project undertaken by the United Nations Department of Technical Co-operation for Development. The devices are specially designed to carry 4 to 6 water jugs instead of the traditional one water jug. The wheelbarrow makes it easier to transport the water because it can carry more than the operator could carry on her own. Thus, it eliminates the necessity of women having to make several trips to collect water.

The design for the wheelbarrow was developed with advice from women's organizations in the country. The women's association of Burkina Faso attended a seminar on the Hydraulic Year (1984) and presented their conclusion that several hundred wheelbarrows would be desirable. It is the responsibility of the women's organizations to construct and distribute the wheelbarrows amongst the women in greatest need. Specifically, they are to be given to women in remote water-shortage areas far from water points.

The long-term objective is to make available more and better quality water to families and to reduce the time women spend carrying water - in order to free them to be involved in income-generating activities. Similar models of the wheelbarrow are being developed in Niger and Mali.

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F. DATABASE DEVELOPMENT

SWDO needs to develop and use a database that will enable the organization to better assist the Government of Somalia and donors to develop projects that will address the needs of women more effectively. The database should be designed professionally, although SWDO could begin on its own by collecting information about its members. Aside from demographic data, economic information about women's activities could also be collected.

The information gathered for input into the database would allow SWDO to formulate plans for new projects. For example, it is currently assumed that most families are headed by men. If the data gathering revealed that many women are in polygamous marriages, SWDO would know that these women operate as de facto heads of households at least part of the time, and could adjust the design of projects accordingly.

Information gathering and research can also occur at the village and local levels. The village and zone committees are well placed to gather information about their communities, i.e., data on health, education, economic activities, and perceived needs of local women, because of their familiarity with the subjects. The information could be used by SWDO HQ project staff to propose specific projects for specific communities, as opposed to of the very general, national

projects now being proposed. In addition, SWDO could show the donors how to assist in project implementation and complement the efforts of specialists, such as public health officers or teachers. The donor could compensate SWDO for its service whether it be at the regional or district level, depending upon the scope of the project.

In addition to community level data, SWDO should also collect information at the HQ level. In Mogadishu, the project's staff should liase with the donor community, tracking projects from the idea stage to the implementation stage. In this way, SWDO can assure that the needs and interests of women are addressed.

APPENDIX G

Plate 1
The building owned
by SWDO that
Headquarters
uses to generate
income

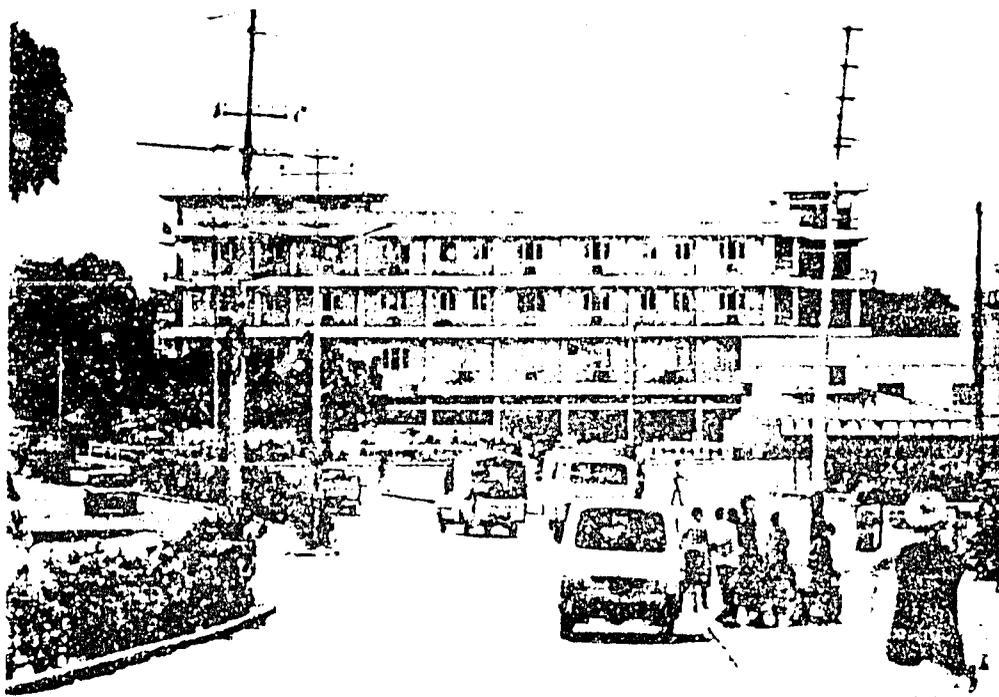


Plate 2
Vehicles in the
courtyard of the
Handicraft Training
Center.



Plate 3
Silk screen, a
piece of printed
cloth, and an
example of a tie
dye dress at the
Handicraft Train-
ing Center. The
screens were made
prior to 1984.
The cloth has
random dye stains.



Plate 4
A woman demonstrates
the use of the silk
screen blocks at
SWCO's Handicraft
Training Center.



Plate 5
An urban woman with a sequened
and woolen wall-hanging. The
markets for these items are
limited.



Plate 6
A piece of cloth from SWDO's
Handicraft Training Center
displayed at the retail outlet
in the SWDO building. Designs
tend to be rudimentary and
unchanging.



Plate 7
Women at the Lido Market in
Mogadishu make and sell
baskets for the tourist trade.



Plate 8
Women in urban areas make and
sell mats and baskets woven
by themselves and others. This
is not the tourist trade.



Plate 9

This woman is in the main market in Merka on a daily basis selling camel milk that comes from her family's herds. She also has many women who bring milk for her to sell. Her income is good, but it is low for the other women.



Plate 10

Many women sell small amounts of their own produce in local markets. Income generated is low. Other women are traders who purchase from individual producers and sell in greater volume.



Plate 11
Some villages are known for their pottery and many women carry out the craft; some also are farmers. Traders come to the village to purchase the wares or they may sell the pottery at the market, earning small incomes (because so many of the women in the area do the same thing). It might be possible to develop new products (such as roof tiles) and to assist these women with appropriate technologies such as carts for carrying clay and pottery.



Plate 12
By contrast, commercial businesses that are well capitalized would generate significant income for women as this one does for its owner.



Plate 13

A few women are involved in the manufacture of shoes as part of a family business. These women are unpaid, but receive clothes and jewelry from their father who heads the business.



Plate 14

Women who have been resettled because of the drought work on fish drying regularly, but do crafts such as basketry and rugs (from scrap plastic) in their spare time. Fish drying yields a more substantial income than the "pin-money" from crafts.





Plate 15

Women's real work is in farming and herding. Women cultivate both major field and minor crops. They herd cattle and small ruminants.

Plate 16



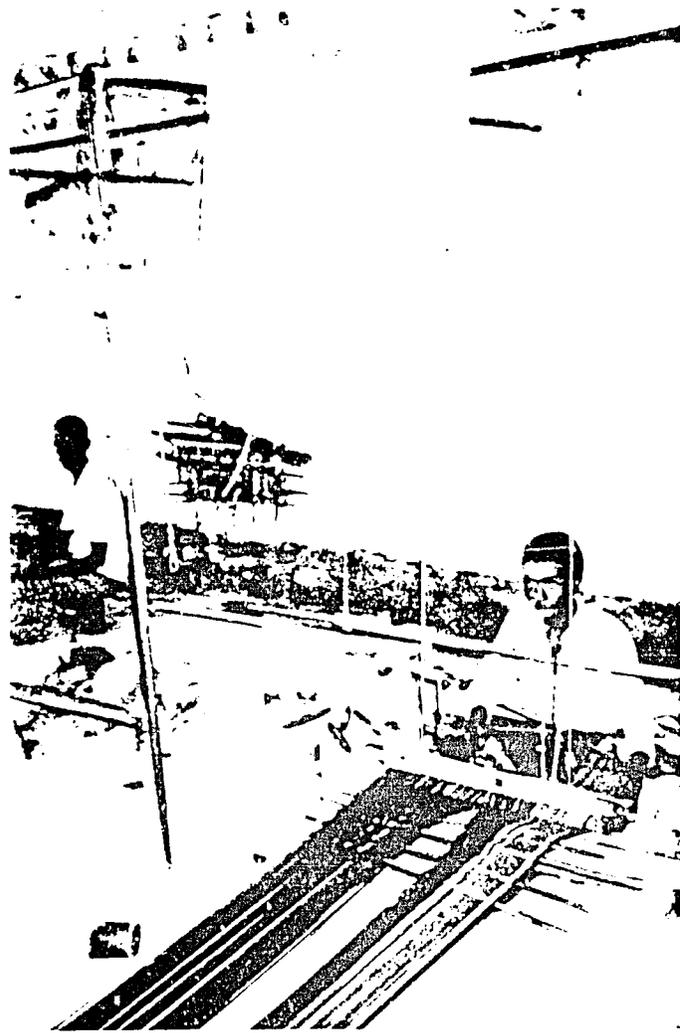


Plate 17

Men are the weavers; women assist with spinning the thread for bobbins that the men require.

Plate 18



Plate 19
Women work as
unpaid family
labor, doing
such activities
as housebuilding
and plastering.

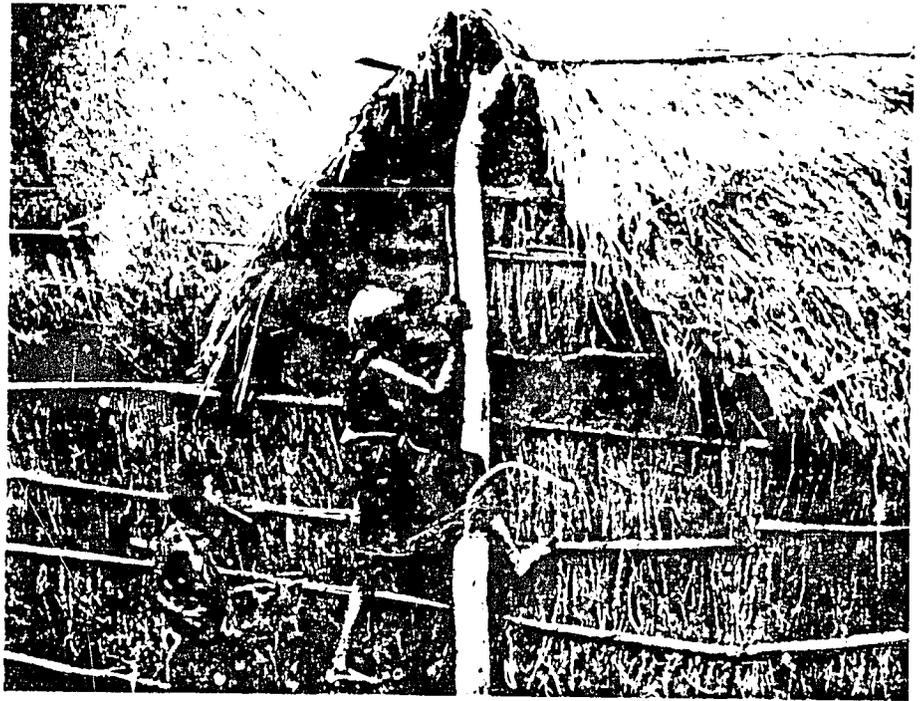


Plate 20
Women collect natural materials
such as grass and fodder, firewood,
thatch for household use and for
sale. With the exception of a few
women who are wholesalers of these
items, income earned is generally
low.

Women carry heavy loads on their
backs rather than on their heads.
They complain of headaches (from
the straps on their foreheads) and
back pain.



Plate 21
SWDO members in
the village of
Dar-es-Salaam
near Afgoi took
it upon them-
selves to keep
the village clean.



Plate 22
The SWDO women in Dar-es-Salaam near
Afgoi obtained funds for a water
pump for household water some years
ago. They have up-graded the pump
three times, and charge a monthly
users fee that they use for
maintenance.



APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H. BIBLIOGRAPHY

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