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World Food Programme
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Women's Empowerment In Agriculture Index (WEAI)

KOICA

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global agriculture & food security program

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DEUTSCHE ZUSAMMENARBEIT

This study was conducted by Bhodhi Global on behalf of WFP Somalia to assess and enhance women's role in agricultural development by measuring their empowerment, inclusion, and decision-making capabilities in the agricultural sector.

BODHI
GLOBAL ANALYSIS

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Foreword from the Country Director

It is with great pride and a deep sense of purpose that I present the findings of the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) Study for Somalia. This groundbreaking research serves as a critical step in understanding the role of women in agriculture and their contributions to household and community resilience. In a country where agriculture forms the backbone of the economy, women's empowerment is not just a matter of equity but a key driver of sustainable development and food security.

The WEAI Study offers a data-driven examination of the multifaceted barriers that women in Somalia face—ranging from limited access to productive resources and decision-making opportunities to cultural norms that often curtail their agency. These challenges are compounded by the impacts of climate change, persistent insecurity, and economic instability, which disproportionately affect women. Yet, the study also highlights the remarkable resilience, skills and contributions of Somali women in agricultural settings.

This report provides evidence to guide policymakers, development practitioners, and local communities in implementing strategies that empower women as equal stakeholders in agricultural development and economic growth. By addressing the critical gaps identified in the study—such as unequal access to credit, land ownership, and decision-making in agricultural production—we can ensure that women are not only participants but leaders in building a more equitable and sustainable future.

Empowering women in agriculture is not just a moral imperative; it is an economic necessity. The WEAI Study underscores the positive ripple effects of women's empowerment, from improved household nutrition and income to enhanced community resilience and productivity. These findings challenge us to act collectively and urgently, with a commitment to placing women at the heart of our agricultural and rural/resilience development programs.

I extend my deepest gratitude to my WFP Somalia team, partners, researchers from BODHI, and communities who contributed to this study. Their dedication ensures that the voices and experiences of Somali women are heard and amplified. Together, let us turn these insights into action and create an environment where every woman can thrive, lead, and contribute to Somalia's progress.

Sincerely,

El-Khidir Daloum
Representative and Country Director
WFP Somalia

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Acronyms

CIP	International Potato Center
CPRP	Country Preparedness and Response Plan
EA	Enumeration Area
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IEDs	Improvised Explosive Devices
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPC	Integrated Food Security System Classification
IRRI	International Rice Research Institute
KIIs	Key Informant Interviews
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PII	Personally Identifiable Information
PSEA	Prevention of Sexual Exploitation and Abuse
RAI	Relative Autonomy Index
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
SGBV	Sexual and Gender-Based Violence
SSE	Social and Solidarity Economy
VSLA	Village Savings and Loaning Associations
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Programme
WEAI	Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index
WG_SS	Washington Group Short Set on Functioning
5DE	Five Domains of Empowerment

Executive Summary

Project Background

In Somalia, the World Food Programme (WFP) has adjusted its efforts to better support local food systems and align with the government's development priorities. The WFP Somalia Climate-smart Food Systems Strategic Outcome focuses on improving food security, nutrition, resilience, and sustainability. A key part of this strategy is promoting gender equality and addressing the challenges women face in the food systems, particularly those that contribute to food insecurity. To address this, WFP seeks to develop a Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) to measure the empowerment levels of women involved in agriculture across Somalia, recognizing the essential role gender equality plays in building a resilient and thriving agricultural sector.

Project Purpose and Use

Bodhi Global Analysis was contracted by WFP in September 2024 to conduct a study on the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) in Somalia. Overall, the study to assess women's empowerment levels in agriculture in Somalia and to inform the design and implementation of WFP's gender-transformative Climate smart Food Systems Strategy. The study provided comprehensive results, including analysis of the five domains (production, resources, income, leadership, and time allocation), Gender Parity Index (GPI) scores, and the WEAI score.

Project Methodology

The pilot test was conducted using the WEAI framework. It was based on the original WEAI developed by IFPRI and included the conceptual framework, indicators, and data collection tools specific to the WEAI.

To carry out this study, the team employed a mixed-methods approach, combining both primary and secondary data collection, including:

1. **Quantitative survey** - 1,469 survey respondents across 6 states in Somalia. The survey included two types of households: dual-adult households and female-headed households.
2. **Key Informant Interviews (KIIs)** - 8 interviews with government ministries and agencies responsible for agriculture, gender, and climate change, UN agencies and international organisations working on agriculture, food security, and gender equality, local civil society and women's rights organisations, private sector actors in the agriculture sector and academia and research institutions.
3. **Focus Group Discussions** - 12 FGDs were conducted with women and men farmers and agricultural workers across different regions and livelihood zones.
4. **Desk review** - 27 documents were reviewed including documents provided by WFP, as well as reports from international organisations, related surveys, and other project-related reports.

Key Findings and Conclusions

Five domains of empowerment

The five-domain empowerment (5DE) score for Somalia was 0.667. 24.0 per cent of women and 25.4 per cent of men demonstrated empowerment in agriculture, reporting an empowerment gap of 1.4 per cent between men and women. This indicates that both men and women in Somalia face significant challenges in achieving empowerment in the agricultural sector, with 76 per cent of women and 74.6 per cent of men being classified as not empowered. Factors such as limited access to assets and resources, socio-cultural norms and traditional practices, low economic status and lack of access to education and training on agricultural productivity were identified as key contributing barriers to empowerment of men and women in agriculture. Puntland recorded the highest empowerment level across the five domains (0.763), while Jubaland had the lowest (0.5597). Other regions exhibited similar trends with 0.6957 reported in Somaliland, 0.683 in South West State, 0.6406 in Hirshabelle, and 0.6271 in Galmudug.

Production: Women and men have a similar level of decision-making, around 75 per cent of adequacy, in production activities indicating high empowerment. However, their level of empowerment is shaped by their roles in agriculture, which are defined by traditional and cultural norms that define what men are supposed to participate in and what women are in charge of in the production chain. Women primarily engage in crop production which many consider to be of low economic value, while men take part in livestock management, trading, marketing, and labour-intensive tasks such as land preparation, along with making decisions about production activities. Some of these tasks are resource intensive therefore men take the lead on deciding how resources are utilised. While decision-making about low-value assets is often left to women, decisions regarding livestock, such as goats, sheep, cattle and camels which are considered high-value assets, are reserved for men. Both women and men have limited autonomy in decision-making based on the economic value of the activity, which impacts their understanding of their own production activities. Men have exclusive rights to make decisions on high economic value activities while women are left to make decisions on low economic value ones. As a result, men and women experience different levels of empowerment based on the different roles they play in each value chain, but there exists a stark difference in the economic values of activities each of them have decision making authority over.

Resources: More than 80 per cent of both women and men reported sole or joint ownership of land and assets. However, survey respondents indicated that women are disadvantaged in resource ownership compared to men. Women lack the resources to purchase land and other assets, while often they are disinherited because cultural and traditional norms dictate that men should be owning those assets. 61 per cent of interviewed men reported they had rights in making decisions to buy, sell, or transfer assets, provided the household owned them, compared to 55.4 per cent of interviewed women. Despite women's significant contributions to agricultural production, various factors, including cultural and societal norms, limited legal rights, and economic dependence, hinder their ability to participate in or independently decide on the use of resources. In decision-making about credit, such as whether to obtain it and how to use it, 35.1 per cent of women were classified as empowered, compared to 27.8 per cent of men. However, this finding contradicts qualitative findings which reported that men were the primary decision-makers when it comes to credit acquisition.

Income: In decision-making regarding income use, both men and women exhibited high levels of empowerment at 87 per cent each. Women in Somalia play a crucial role in generating household income by selling both crop produce and livestock at markets, ensuring the household secures the best price for their agricultural products. However, women involved in agricultural production often have limited influence over how their income is utilised. Survey participants indicated that women's income and expenditure decisions are primarily focused on securing the well-being of their families. This finding implies that while women may participate in income-related decision-making and contribute to household income, their decisions are often constrained to fulfilling household needs.

Leadership: Both women and men in Somalia demonstrated low levels of group participation, with each sex reporting 44 per cent active involvement in at least one community group. 78 per cent of men and 70 per cent of women also demonstrated moderate levels of empowerment when it came to speaking up in public. Key informants highlighted that women's participation in agricultural and livestock committees remains limited. While women are actively involved in livestock management and farming, leadership and decision-making positions within these committees are predominantly held by men. Survey participants further noted that women face additional barriers, including low confidence and a lack of knowledge and skills needed to engage effectively in discussions on production, sales, and income. To address the low participation of women in decision-making, women-focused farmers' cooperatives and associations have been established to encourage their participation in leadership roles. Men, on the other hand, face challenges in participating actively in community groups due to their demanding and time-consuming economic activities, which limit their availability for group engagement.

Time allocation: The individual workload, including both productive and domestic tasks, showed an adequacy level of around 50 per cent for both men and women. This suggests that approximately half of people spend more than 10.5 hours per day on these tasks. Key informants reported that women are more struggling with a heavy workload. In addition to participating in agricultural production, they are responsible for caring for the family, including children, and managing housework. Regarding respondents' satisfaction with the time available for leisure activities, 70 per cent of women reported at least moderate satisfaction compared to 63.3 per cent of men. Women work for long hours undertaking domestic and agricultural activities. Although women were more satisfied with their leisure activities, such as visiting neighbours, watching TV, listening to the radio, watching films, or participating in sports, survey participants indicated that financial constraints often prevent women from accessing leisure and other productive activities. In addition, women's time is often spent on domestic and duty of care responsibilities. As a result, they do not feel the impact of limited finances for leisure activities because they barely have sufficient time to take up or engage in hobbies. Men engaged in rearing livestock spend most of their time on pastoralism and therefore also have limited time for leisure activities.

Gender Parity Index

The gender parity index (GPI) score in Somalia was 0.943, indicating there is no significant gender disparity in empowerment within agriculture. The overall average empowerment gap was 0.121. Despite the high GPI score, it is important to note that the empowerment levels for both men and women in agriculture are very low across Somalia. This indicates that the high GPI score reflects that both genders are equally unempowered in the five domains of agriculture.

Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index

Somalia's WEAI score was 0.695, indicating a moderate level of women's empowerment in agriculture. The WEAI scores varied across the six states, with Puntland having the highest score and Jubaland the lowest, as outlined above. Similarly, the WEAI scores differed among age groups. The '55-64' age group had the highest WEAI score, followed by the '45-54' group, while the '65 and over' group had the lowest score. However, compared to other countries such as Rwanda, Ghana, Kenya, and Uganda, Somalia's WEAI score of 0.695 was low. Somalia had the lowest WEAI scores and the highest disempowerment score among these countries. This suggests that although Somalia's WEAI score of 0.695 can be considered moderate, it still falls short compared to other countries. This study outlines the reasons for this shortfall across the 5 domains covered by the WEAI, as outlined above. Therefore, comprehensive efforts are needed to improve women's empowerment in agriculture in Somalia.

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Recommendations

Recommendation 1: WFP should create partnerships with private sector actors to increase access to tools and resources needed in agricultural production. To address women's dependence on men for resources, WFP should create partnerships with private sector actors who can provide tools and resources on credit to enable women to take part in agricultural activities. This will also help increase women's autonomy in decision making.

Recommendation 2: WFP should provide training and capacity building to women on best agricultural practices. Low levels of education among women reduce their ability to independently consume information shared across mass media or social media, particularly that relating to the best agronomic practices and climate smart agriculture. A skills development and capacity building intervention by WFP will remove information access barriers, empowering women with knowledge and skills needed to actively participate in agricultural activities.

Recommendation 3: WFP should support access to credit for women by working with providers of interest free loans or with financial institutions to provide loan guarantee funds. Women neither have access to finances to implement agricultural activities due to high poverty levels, nor do they have assets that can be used as collateral to enable them to get financing for agricultural activities. Having such interventions to address access to finance would provide women with autonomy in decision making and encourage women to take part in agricultural activities based on what they prefer to do in the value chain.

Recommendation 4: WFP and its partners should negotiate with men in the community for women's inclusion in decision-making within the households. This could take the form of social behaviour change interventions aiming to change men's perceptions about which roles women do, and should, play in society.

Recommendation 5: A multi-sectoral approach is required to address the different barriers women face in agriculture. WFP should capacitate government agencies to ensure the government streamlines the work done by different agencies to increase the effectiveness of interventions among community members.

Recommendation 6: WFP should partner with farmers to maximise value addition on agricultural produce, and then create market linkages with agricultural product offtakers and stockists to negotiate for better pricing of agricultural produce.

Recommendation 7: WFP should help women farmers increase their resilience to climatic shocks by promoting climate smart agriculture.

1.0 Introduction

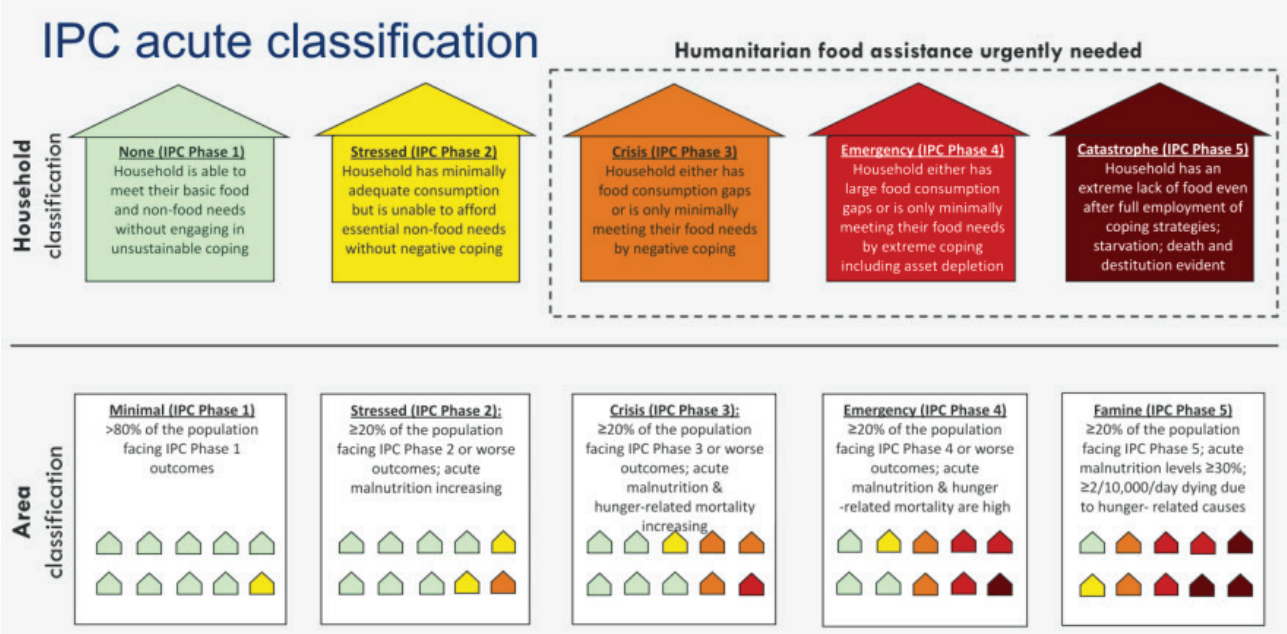
1.1. Context

Food Security

Unrelenting climatic shocks greatly contribute to food insecurity in Somalia. Episodes of heavy rainfall and flooding and prolonged drought contribute to farmers' inability to produce sufficient food to meet demand. According to the Integrated Food Security System Classification (IPC), 4 million people in Somalia (21 per cent of the population), faced acute food insecurity between January and March 2024.[1] Both IPC and the World Food Programme (WFP) projected that the population at risk of acute food insecurity would drop to 3.4 million people during the *Gu* rainy season (between the months of April and June 2024), which is about 18 per cent of the total population.[2][3] In addition, IPC expects that around 1.7 million children face acute malnutrition between January and December 2024, including approximately 430,000 who are likely to suffer from severe malnutrition.[4] In 2023, CARE conducted the "IPC & Rapid Gender Analysis Pilot" in Somalia, targeting two livelihood zones (LZ): Hawd Pastoral and Addun Pastoral. According to the report, there were notable gender-based discrepancies, especially in the Hawd LZ. In this area, data showed that men are facing a higher level of acute food insecurity compared to women. Most women were dealing with conditions that correspond to IPC phase 3 (Crisis) or worse, while men were mainly experiencing challenges consistent with IPC phase 4 (Emergency).[5] In contrast, in the Addun LZ, both groups were facing similar levels of acute food insecurity, classified as IPC phase 4 (Emergency).[6] Both male and female survey participants consistently reported reducing food consumption as a coping strategy due to rising food insecurity.[7] However, respondents were aware of the differential vulnerability within households, indicating that certain members, such as children, the elderly, individuals with disabilities, and pregnant or lactating women, are typically prioritised during mealtime.[8] Male respondents reported a higher incidence of skipping meals than running out of food, whereas women were more likely to report the opposite.[9] The IPC acute classification is illustrated in Figure 1.

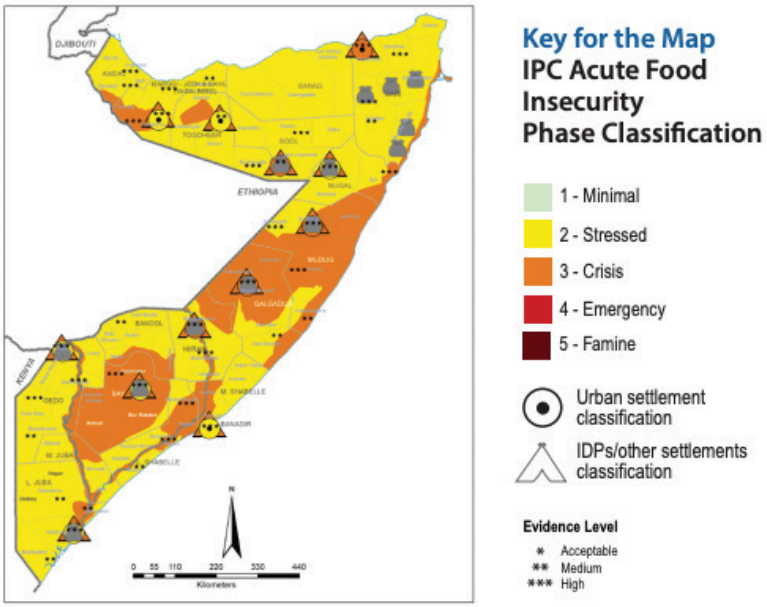
1 Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). IPC Acute Food Insecurity and Acute Malnutrition Analysis January to June 2024. Available at Link.
2 WFP (2024). Emergency, Somalia. Available at Link.
3 Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). IPC Acute Food Insecurity and Acute Malnutrition Analysis January to June 2024. Available at Link.
4 Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). Somalia: Acute Malnutrition Situation for October 2023 - February 2024 and Projection for March - June 2024. Available at Link.
5 CARE (2023). IPC & Rapid Gender Analysis Pilot - Somalia. Available at Link.
6 CARE (2023). IPC & Rapid Gender Analysis Pilot - Somalia. Available at Link.
7 CARE (2023). IPC & Rapid Gender Analysis Pilot - Somalia. Available at Link.
8 CARE (2023). IPC & Rapid Gender Analysis Pilot - Somalia. Available at Link.
9 CARE (2023). IPC & Rapid Gender Analysis Pilot - Somalia. Available at Link.

Figure 1: IPC Acute Food Insecurity Classification System



Food insecurity is exacerbated by ongoing conflict in the country and global politics. Acute food insecurity is particularly dire in rural areas, and some farmers have relocated to displacement camps near urban areas because they lost their crops and livestock to drought.[10][11] Food security disparities also exist between women and men in Somalia, with women being systematically more malnourished and less food secure than men.[12]

Figure 2: Acute food insecurity current map (January to March 2024)[13]



10 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link

11 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment of Opportunities for Climate Smart Agriculture and Livelihood Opportunities for Crisis-affected and At-risk Women in Somalia. Horn of Africa Consultants Firm. Available at Link

12 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.

13 Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). IPC Acute Food Insecurity and Acute Malnutrition Analysis January to June 2024. Available at Link.

Drivers of Food Insecurity

Extreme Climatic Conditions: Somalia has faced multiple seasons of failed rains during the rainy seasons and prolonged drought during the dry seasons. Somalia recorded its longest drought between 2020 and 2023. The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) reported that while Somalia has made strides towards averting a famine that was caused by the longest drought in its history, it recorded the worst flooding on record in 2023.[14] During some rainy seasons, excessive rains have resulted in floods that carried away animals and destroyed farmland.[15] Households also lost their grain stock from previous seasons to the flood, further diminishing available food supplies.[16] In the dry seasons, prolonged drought has led to failed crops and the death of animals. Drought has also dried up water sources that can be used for irrigation, making it difficult for farmers to access water for domestic and agricultural use. These extreme climatic conditions have contributed to food insecurity in the country.[17] WFP reports that the unrelenting climatic shocks have prolonged the hunger crisis in Somalia, especially at a time when they are facing funding shortfalls. WFP can only provide assistance to less than half of those most in need of assistance.[18] While extreme climatic conditions have a profound impact on the livelihoods of both men and women, women and girls are particularly vulnerable to drought, as they face a triple burden of survival, family caregiving, and an increased risk of sexual violence.[19] According to UN Women, food insecurity and poverty exacerbate the prevalence of gender-based violence (GBV), alongside the effects of conflict and harmful gender norms and stereotypes.[20] Food insecurity in Somalia, intensified by these extreme climatic conditions, is expected to adversely affect the livelihoods of women and girls.

Conflict and Insecurity: The ongoing conflict in Somalia has made some of the arable land in rural areas inhabitable. Due to insecurity, rural communities are unable to live and make use of farmland for fear of their safety and well-being. For example, Al-Shabaab used the deliberate destruction of water infrastructure with improvised explosive devices (IEDs) as a strategic weaponisation of access to water in 2022, coinciding with a period of drought, to force payments from local communities.[21] This has further limited food production in most parts of the country, leading to widespread poverty and hunger.[22] Conflicts have also resulted in disruption of market systems and livelihood opportunities, increasing food insecurity in households.[23] According to Insecurity Insight, attacks at markets occurred frequently, affecting food prices as well as the quality and quantity of food available. 62 reported airstrikes, which included recorded information on their harm, had a direct impact on food insecurity, accounting for approximately 10 per cent of all recorded airstrikes in Somalia between 2017 and 2022.[24] These airstrikes directly contributed to food insecurity in Somalia through the

14 FAO (2024). Somalia Humanitarian Needs and Response Plan. Available at Link
15 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link
16 FAO (2024). Somalia Humanitarian Needs and Response Plan. Available at Link
17 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link
18 WFP (2024). Emergency, Somalia. Available at Link.
19 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment. Available at Link.
20 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment. Available at Link.
21 Insecurity Insight (2023). The Links between Conflict and Hunger in Somalia. Available at: Link.
22 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link
23 Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). IPC Acute Food Insecurity and Acute Malnutrition Analysis January to June 2024. Available at Link.
24 Insecurity Insight (2023). The Links between Conflict and Hunger in Somalia. Available at: Link.

collateral damage they caused and their undermining of long-term food production.[25] Conflict and insecurity is also making it hard for humanitarian organisations to provide services in the region, further exacerbating existing food insecurity.[26] The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) estimated that around 2.9 million people have been displaced in Somalia due to conflict, insecurity, and harsh climate conditions, and are living in IDP sites.[27] These sites are substandard and lack basic amenities, and inconsistent service provision has led to the exclusion of IDPs from accessing humanitarian support.[28] Women are suffering the heaviest burden of conflict and insecurity in Somalia.[29] According to UNDP, the majority of people living in IDP sites and settlements are women and children, many of whom have lost their husbands or male relatives to death or recruitment by armed groups during the ongoing conflict.[30] UN Women indicated that displacement resulting from conflict and insecurity increases the vulnerability of women and girls to sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV).[31]

High Food Prices: The drought, combined with broader geopolitical instability, has led to price volatility, rising unemployment, and high food and fuel prices.[32] These impacts disproportionately affect women and girls, largely due to cultural and social traditions that restrict their mobility, limit access to financial services,[33] and result in lower ownership of capital and assets, such as land and large livestock.[34] Besides, farmers' inability to produce food sufficient for the local population in Somalia has resulted in high food prices as demand for food increases. While humanitarian actors have played a key role in addressing this constraint among the most vulnerable through provision of assistance, they are equally faced by limited resources and disruptions in their operations due to extreme climatic conditions and conflict.[3536] IPC reported that while prices of maize and sorghum declined in December 2023 compared to the same period the previous year, the prices were still higher than the 5 year average (2018-2022).[37]

Desert Locusts: Somalia has faced locust swarms which invade farms and destroy crops. In favourable seasons, farmers who managed to tend to their crops were also faced with crop destruction from the locust invasions.[38]

25 Insecurity Insight (2023). The Links between Conflict and Hunger in Somalia. Available at: Link.
26 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link
27 UNHCR (2022). CCCM Cluster, Somalia. Available at Link.
28 UNHCR (2020). CCCM Cluster Somalia Strategy (April 2020). Available at Link.
29 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment. Available at Link.
30 UNDP (2014). Gender in Somalia, Brief II. Available at: Link.
31 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment. Available at Link.
32 FAO (2022). GIEWS Special Alert No. 350: East Africa. Available at Link.
33 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment. Available at Link.
34 OCHA (2023). Somalia Humanitarian Needs Overview 2023. Available at Link.
35 Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). IPC Acute Food Insecurity and Acute Malnutrition Analysis January to June 2024. Available at Link.
36 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link
37 Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). IPC Acute Food Insecurity and Acute Malnutrition Analysis January to June 2024. Available at Link.
38 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link

Global Politics: According to the National Economic Council of Somalia, approximately 9 per cent of Somalia's key export products were grains, seeds, fruits, and dried limes.[39] Although Somalia produced and exported some grains, over 90 per cent of its grain supply was imported from Russia and Ukraine.[40] When war broke out between Russia and Ukraine, global supply chains were affected and Somalia could not get sufficient grain supply to meet the demand.[41]

Gender Inequality: Somalia ranked fourth from the bottom on the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Gender Inequality Index in 2022, with a score of 0.776 (where a score of 1 represents complete inequality). Similarly, Somalia's gender gap index was 0.56 in 2021, indicating that women in Somalia only have access to close to half the opportunities available to men.[42] Somalia has long been a patriarchal society, where men hold most of the power and women face widespread discrimination and GBV.[43] According to the UN Somalia Gender Equality Strategy 2021-2025, the implications of COVID-19 and climate change on gender equality are substantial. The Country Preparedness and Response Plan (CPRP), launched by the UN and its partners, recognised the increase of GBV due to COVID-19 responses.[44] Furthermore, at least 25 per cent of Somali women have experienced GBV as a result of conflict and displacement due to the climate emergency.[45] The National Economic Council of Somalia demonstrated that gender inequality directly restricts economic growth by inhibiting women's participation in the economy, reducing their access to education and health services, and limiting their opportunities for full and productive employment.[46] The result is a significant loss of potential human capital, a key driver of economic development, societal well-being, and food security.[47]

Women in Food Systems

Women play a pivotal role in Somalia's agriculture, which is central to the country's economy. Women make up most smallholder farmers in Somalia. Women actively participate in various agricultural value chains, from production to sale and end-use of the products. They are particularly involved in value chains that require less land, skills, and capital, where production cycles are short and profits are low but recurring, such as in vegetables, milk, and some nodes of the meat value chains, while the more capital or land-intensive value chains mostly involve men.[48] For example, in South Central Somalia, onions, vegetables, and peppers have the potential to benefit women, as these cash crops are in high demand and provide a direct source of income for Somali women.[49] Although women can make decisions on how to sell their farm products, men are the primary decision-makers regarding the use of the proceeds. In addition, gender roles influence livestock management in various ways. Women generally own small livestock, such as goats, sheep, and chickens, while men tend to own larger animals such as camels and cows.[50] Regarding day-to-day livestock care, both women and men tend to the animals they own. Women primarily care for the animals kept around the household, while men manage the larger

39 National Economic Council of Somalia (2023). State of The Economy Report. Available at Link.
40 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link
41 Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link
42 Save Somali Women and Children (SSWC) (2021). Gender Gap Assessment: South Central Somalia and Puntland. Available at Link.
43 UNDP (2021). Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment. Available at Link.
44 United Nation. (2022). UN Somalia Gender Equality Strategy 2021-2025. Available at Link.
45 United Nation. (2022). UN Somalia Gender Equality Strategy 2021-2025. Available at Link.
46 National Economic Council of Somalia. (2024). Empowering Women: Fuelling Economic Prosperity. Available at Link.
47 National Economic Council of Somalia. (2024). Empowering Women: Fuelling Economic Prosperity. Available at Link.
48 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.
49 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.
50 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.

animals that are kept outside the household.[51] The sale of livestock is predominantly controlled by men, although a few women are also involved in selling small livestock.[52]

Their agricultural productivity is impeded by several factors including traditional, social and cultural norms and access to key resources like land and credit. Although women are active in agricultural value chains, managing small livestock, crop production, and accessing some agricultural resources through their spouses or their ownership, they generally lack opportunities to participate in decision-making and have limited access to training.[53] This situation limits women to actively participate in agriculture and increase food security within their households and communities.[54] Besides, women spend four more hours than men each day on household and agricultural work. As a result, women in Somalia face long working days and experience significant time poverty.[55]

In addition, community members, including women, have access to limited information on the impact of climate change and possible adaptation mechanisms. Generally, men are afforded more educational opportunities and are more literate than women. 49.8 per cent of men were reported to be literate, compared to 37.8 per cent of women.[56] The lack of knowledge, in addition to resource constraints inhibits women from using more adaptive and climate smart agricultural practices, despite the unpredictable climatic conditions.[57] Women report that they are often disadvantaged compared to their male counterparts when seeking loans from financial institutions to improve their businesses, including agriculture-based businesses. Women interviewed for a World Bank (WB) blog reported that financial institutions often deny them financing even when they have the same application documents and assets.[58] At times, they are also required to have male signatories to their applications before the loans are processed.[59] The blog also reported that women lack basic training equipment, which affects their productivity.[60]

Furthermore, a lack of access to and control over land and other economic resources is a key source of inequity, food insecurity, and vulnerability for women and girls.[61] In the Sahel and the Horn of Africa, women rely heavily on natural resources, such as land, for their work, including agricultural production, animal rearing, and building homes. However, despite women's central role in land use, they often do not have equal rights to land ownership and economic resources.[62] For agricultural technologies, FAO revealed that both women and men were unaware of most modern farming technologies, with crop rotation being the only farming method they mentioned in the field study.[63]

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51 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.
52 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.
53 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.
54 FAO (2023). Cultivating climate resilience among women's cooperatives in Somalia. Available at Link
55 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.
56 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment of Opportunities for Climate Smart Agriculture and Livelihood Opportunities for Crisis-affected and At-risk Women in Somalia. Horn of Africa Consultants Firm. Available at Link
57 UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment of Opportunities for Climate Smart Agriculture and Livelihood Opportunities for Crisis-affected and At-risk Women in Somalia. Horn of Africa Consultants Firm. Available at Link
58 World Bank Blogs (2022). Changing patriarchal Somali culture, one business at a time. Available at Link.
59 Said, A.H. (2022) Changing patriarchal Somali culture, one business at a time. World Bank Blogs, Available at Link.
60 Said, A.H. (2022) Changing patriarchal Somali culture, one business at a time. World Bank Blogs, Available at Link.
61 OCHA (2023). OCHA Discussion Paper: Gendered drivers, risks and impacts of food insecurity in the Sahel and the Horn of Africa. Available at Link.
62 OCHA (2023). OCHA Discussion Paper: Gendered drivers, risks and impacts of food insecurity in the Sahel and the Horn of Africa. Available at Link.
63 FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link.

To enhance the food systems in Somalia, FAO Somalia and the Federal Government of Somalia conducted the National Food System Summit dialogues in preparation for the United Nations Food Systems Summit, convened by the Secretary-General in September 2021. These dialogues facilitated a country-led process to outline national pathways toward sustainable, resilient, and equitable food systems, aligning with the vision of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.[64] Notably, these included creating an enabling environment to support women's access to productive resources and encouraging women's active engagement in leadership positions to promote gender-sensitive decision-making.[65]

In response to these challenges, the World Food Programme (WFP) has adjusted its efforts in Somalia to better support local food systems and align with the government's development priorities. The WFP Somalia Climate-smart Food Systems Strategic Outcome focuses on improving food security, nutrition, resilience, and sustainability. A key part of this strategy is promoting gender equality and addressing the challenges women face in the food system, particularly those that contribute to food insecurity. To address this, WFP seeks to develop a Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) to measure the empowerment levels of women involved in agriculture across Somalia, recognizing the essential role gender equality plays in building a resilient and thriving agricultural sector.

WFP/Utaama Mahamud

64 Food Systems Summit Dialogues. (2021). Towards Sustainable and Resilient Food Systems in Somalia. Available at: Link.
65 Food Systems Summit Dialogues. (2021). Towards Sustainable and Resilient Food Systems in Somalia. Available at: Link

2.0 Purpose and Objectives

Bodhi Global Analysis was contracted by WFP in September 2024, to undertake the provision of consultancy services for conducting a study on the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) in Somalia. This study has sought to develop a comprehensive Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) for Somalia. The WEAI aimed to assess women's empowerment levels in agricultural activities across Somalia to inform the design and implementation of WFP's gender-transformative Climate-smart Food Systems Strategy.

The objectives of the study were:

- Assess women's empowerment across five domains:
  1. decisions about agricultural production
  2. access to and decision-making power over productive resources
  3. control over the use of income
  4. leadership in the community
  5. time allocation
- Determine the Gender Parity Index (GPI) to reflect the percentage of women who are as empowered as men in their households.
- Develop empowerment scores and qualitative and quantitative data on women's agricultural engagement to provide recommendations for gender-transformative programming.

WFP/Geneva Costopulos

3.0 Methodology

3.1. Overview

The team employed a mixed methods approach (using both qualitative and quantitative methods) to gather information from primary and secondary data sources to develop the WEAI framework to measure women's empowerment, the GPI, and to understand barriers to the participation of women in agriculture.

To achieve this, a WEAI framework was developed and used to implement the WEAI survey in Somalia. The framework is a comprehensive document outlining the conceptual framework, indicators, and data collection tools for the WEAI. Data used to measure indicators outlined in the framework was collected through a quantitative survey. In addition, focus group discussions (FGDs) and (3) key informant interviews (KIIs) were conducted to provide qualitative data and triangulate findings from the quantitative survey. Further details of the data collection methods and sample sizes have been included in subsequent sections.

3.2. Desk Review

A desk review was conducted during the inception phase. 27 documents were consulted during the desk review, which were used to define the research questions used in the study. This review included seven documents provided by WFP, as well as 20 reports from international organisations, related surveys, and other project-related reports. A full list of the reviewed documents can be found in Annex 3.

3.2.1. WEAI Framework

The evaluation team used the "Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI)" developed by the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). There are three types of WEAI. The evaluation team used the original WEAI instead of A-WEAI or Pro-WEAI.

WEAI and A-WEAI cover five domains: production, resources, income, leadership, and time allocation. A-WEAI includes these five domains of empowerment; it consists of only six composite indicators, with adjusted weights for each. In contrast, WEAI comprises ten composite indicators, enabling the capture of more comprehensive data than A-WEAI. The six composite indicators from A-WEAI are also included in WEAI.

Pro-WEAI is composed of ten indicators (plus two optional indicators) that measure three types of agencies: intrinsic agency (power within), instrumental agency (power to), and collective agency (power with). However, unlike WEAI, Pro-WEAI does not directly target the main five domains of this study. Therefore, even though it includes empowerment dimensions, it is less suitable for this study.

The evaluation team utilised the WEAI questionnaire[66] from IFPRI to conduct a quantitative survey during the pilot test. In addition, qualitative guides for focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews (KIIs) were developed. The evaluation team examined the qualitative aspects of the five domains, including gender norms and women's role in decision-making over household resources and agricultural production. These questionnaires addressed the five domains and each of the sub-indicators described in Table 1.

66 IFPRI (2012). Feed the Future WEAI module. Available at: Link.

Table 1: WEAI domains and indicators[67]

Domain	Indicator
1. **Production:** This domain is related to decision-making in agricultural activities, encompassing both individual and joint decisions regarding food and cash crop farming, livestock management, and fisheries. It also includes autonomy in agricultural production, without assigning value to whether individual or joint decision-making is more empowering.	• Indicator 1.1. Input in production decisions: This indicator assesses whether an individual participates in making decisions regarding at least two types of production activities. • Indicator 1.2. Autonomy in production: This indicator captures the individual's personal understanding of their production activities, allowing them to explain the different motivations influencing their actions and decisions.
2. **Resources:** This domain represents ownership, access, and decision-making power over productive assets, including land, livestock, agricultural equipment, consumer durables, and access to credit.	• Indicator 2.1. Ownership of assets: This indicator examines whether an individual has sole or joint ownership of land and assets, based on a comprehensive list of assets such as agricultural land, large and small livestock, fish ponds, farm equipment, houses, large and small household durables, cell phone, non-agricultural land, and means of transportation. • Indicator 2.2. Purchase, sale, or transfer of assets: If the household owns any of those assets and if he or she participates in decisions to buy, sell, or transfer the asset, conditional on the household owning it, respondents will be considered adequacy in this indicator. • Indicator 2.3. Access to and decisions about credit: This indicator evaluates decision making about credit whether to obtain credit and how to use the credit obtained from various sources including non-government organisations, formal and informal lenders, friends or relatives, and so on)
3. **Income:** This domain addresses the extent of control, whether individual or joint, over the use of income and decision-making regarding expenditures.	• Indicator 3.1. Control over the use of income: This indicator reflects the individual's role in decision-making regarding the use of income.

67 IFPRI (2013). WEAI instructional guide. Available at: Link

4. **Leadership:** This domain examines leadership within the community, measured through participation in economic or social groups, as well as confidence and comfort in public speaking.	• Indicator 4.1. Group membership: This indicator measures the importance of social capital and measures whether an individual actively participates in at least one group. These groups include agriculture producers' or marketing groups, water users' groups, forest users' groups, credit or micro-finance groups, mutual help or insurance groups (such as burial societies), trade and business associations, civic or charitable groups, local government groups, religious groups, and other women's groups. • Indicator 4.2. Speaking in public: This indicator assesses an individual's comfort with speaking up in public, based on responses to questions about their ease in speaking out in three situations: helping to decide on infrastructure projects (e.g., small wells, roads), ensuring fair wage payments for public works or similar programs, and protesting against misconduct by authorities or elected officials.
5. **Time allocation:** This domain concerns the distribution of time between productive and domestic activities, along with the individual's satisfaction with the amount of time available for leisure activities.	• Indicator 5.1. Workload: This indicator measures the total time an individual spends on both productive and domestic tasks. Respondents are asked to recall the time spent on primary and secondary activities in the 24 hours on the day before the interview. • Indicator 5.2. Leisure: Respondents are asked to rate their level of satisfaction with the time available for leisure activities, such as visiting neighbours, watching TV, listening to the radio, watching movies, or participating in sports, on a scale from 1 (not satisfied) to 10 (very satisfied). The indicator considers a respondent's satisfaction level as adequate if they rate their satisfaction at 5 or higher, meaning they are either indifferent to or satisfied with the amount of time available for leisure activities.

The final WEAi framework has been integrated into the draft WEAI framework. The results of the pilot test have been added to the framework and annexed to this report (Annex 4).

3.3. Primary Data Collection

3.3.1. Tool Pilot Test

The evaluation team conducted two sets of tool pilot tests to confirm the validity and reliability of the data collection tools and analysis framework. The initial pilot was conducted by Bodhi staff using secondary data. Feedback from this pilot was used to adapt and contextualise the tools and framework.

The second pilot test was conducted in selected agricultural communities near Mogadishu, immediately following the enumerator training. The pilot was conducted on 11th and 12th of November 2024 and a total of 52 responses were received. The pilot allowed the enumerators to become acquainted with the survey and its methodology in a real-setting, working out any remaining ambiguities or misunderstandings in the implementation procedure. Second, it provided a high volume of "live" data, to conduct any tests not replicable with manual script checking or dummy data checking. A debrief session was conducted with all regional coordinators to review their experience conducting the pilot, challenges experienced and any adaptations they needed to be made to make the data collection successful.

Following the completion of piloting, the evaluation team implemented primary data collection for the WEAI pilot study, as outlined below.

3.3.2. Data Collection

Primary data collection consisted of quantitative and qualitative approaches, including Participatory FGDs and KIIs were used to gather qualitative data. To collect quantitative data, the evaluation team used the questionnaires in the WEAI framework. The quantitative WEAI questionnaire has been annexed to this report (Annex 8.4). Data collection commenced on the 16th of November 2024 and was finalised on the 29th of November 2024. During the data collection process, the evaluation team tracked daily progress and recorded updates on the monitoring sheet.

Quantitative Survey

The evaluation team implemented a quantitative survey through face-to-face interviews at the household level. The survey targeted 1) female headed households and 2) dual-adult households across six states including twelve regions in Somalia, as outlined below.

Table 2: Survey implementation target states

Federal Member State	Region	Location
Puntland	Nugaal	Garowe
		Burtinle
	Bari	Qardho
		Bosaso
Jubaland	Gedo	Bardera
		Luuq
		Dolow
	Lower Juba	Kismayo

South West State	Bay	Baidoa
	Lower Shabelle	Afgoye
		Janale (Genale)
		Qoryoley
		Marka (Merca)
Hirshabelle	Hiran	Bulaburte
		Beledweyne
	Middle Shabelle	Jowhar
		Balad
Galmudug	Mudug	Galkayo
	Galgaduud	Adado
Somaliland	Awdal	Borama
	Woqooyi Galbeed	Galbiley
		Hargeisa

The survey instrument was modular in design, with a set of core items for all respondents. The questionnaire was programmed into a mobile data collection platform, **KoBo** Collect.

The evaluation team used a **multi-stage cluster sampling** approach. The team systematically targeted 1,152 respondents to measure the five main domain indicators, with an individual unit of analysis. The sample size was arrived at using Cochran's formula, as follows;

Equation 1: Sampling formula

$$N = \frac{Z^2 p(1-p)}{e^2} \times d \qquad n_0 = \frac{1.96^2(.5)(1-.5)}{0.05^2} \times 3 = 1{,}152$$

where N refers to the sample size, Z represents the z-score at 95% CI (1.96), p refers to sample proportion (.5), e represents 5% Margin of error (.05), and d refers to the design effect (3)

The sample universe consisted of 8,343,607 people across the six states in Somalia. The projected population of regions within each state is detailed in Table 4. Households within each enumeration area (EA) were identified using systematic random sampling at an interval of 5 households. Within each EA convenience was used to identify the starting point for data collection.

Quantitative interviews targeted both male and female respondents. If the household type was a dual-adult household, the team conducted surveys to both the primary and secondary respondents. The primary and secondary respondents were those who self-identified as the primary members responsible for decision-making, both social and economic, within the household. They were usually husband and wife; however, they were also other members as long as there was one male and one female aged 18 and over.[68] If the primary respondent, the household head, did not consent to participate in the survey, the household was considered ineligible for the sample.

If a household was declared ineligible (due to there not being a respondent of the appropriate gender, age or the household declining to participate) the immediately next household along the travel route was sampled instead. Once the next eligible household was identified and interviewed, the enumerator continued implementing the interval sampling strategy for household identification. The interval sampling continued until the desired quota was reached.

The team aimed to interview 1,152 individuals. The team oversampled to provide a 10 per cent survey buffer per internal quality reviews, to ensure that the target sample is achieved after data review and monitoring. In each location, the female headed and dual-adult households samples were split with a 50:50 ratio. The evaluation team collected two data samples from each dual-adult household. Therefore, the sample size was adjusted to ensure an even number of samples was assigned to dual-adult households.

As a result, the team collected 1,469 samples as detailed in the table below:

Table 3: Quantitative surveys distribution

Federal Member State	Region	Location	Female Headed Households Sample	Dual-Adult Households Sample	Total Sample
Puntland	Nugaal	Garowe	14	16	30
		Burtinle	10	20	30
	Bari	Qardho	29	29	58
		Bosaso	30	26	56
Jubaland	Gedo	Bardera	12	14	26
		Luuq	12	14	26
		Dolow	12	18	30
	Lower Juba	Kismayo	36	51	87
South West State	Bay	Baidoa	60	60	120
	Lower Shabelle	Afgoye	22	28	50
		Janale (Genale)	23	23	46
		Qoryoley	22	25	47
		Marka (Merca)	24	23	47

68 IFPRI (2013). WEAI instructional guide. Available at: Link

Federal Member State	Region	Location	Female Headed Households Sample	Dual-Adult Households Sample	Total Sample
Hirshabelle	Hiran	Bulaburte	20	20	40
		Beledweyne	20	37	57
	Middle Shabelle	Jowhar	25	46	71
		Balad	30	30	60
Galmudug	Mudug	Galkayo	56	69	125
	Galgaduud	Adado	44	52	96
Somaliland	Awdal	Borama	58	81	139
	Woqooyi Galbeed	Galbiley	47	58	105
		Hargeisa	52	71	123
Total			**658**	**811**	**1,469**

Key Informant Interviews (KIIs)

A total of 8 KIIs were conducted to explore perceptions of women's roles in agriculture, barriers and enablers to empowerment, successful interventions and remaining gaps. The team probed into each stakeholder's levels of knowledge and perceptions around the five domains of the WEAI. This data complemented the quantitative findings by adding depth, highlighting gaps and triangulating results.

Respondents included government ministries and agencies responsible for agriculture, gender, and climate change, UN agencies and international organisations working on agriculture, food security, and gender equality, local civil society and women's rights organisations, private sector actors in the agriculture sector and academia and research institutions. A KII guide has also been annexed to this report.

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

The evaluation team facilitated 12 FGDs with women and men farmers and agricultural workers across different regions and livelihood zones, aiming for 6-8 participants per group. Separate discussions were held with women and} men where culturally appropriate. FGDs explored gender roles and relations, women's participation in household and community decision-making, access to training, inputs and markets, and perceptions of empowerment. The FGDs provided context to quantitative indicator values. A FGD guide has been annexed to this report.

3.4. Data Analysis

Quantitative Analysis

The evaluation team used Python to analyse the quantitative data and identify the indicator values for the five domains. The data analysis tools were included in the WEAI framework. The team used Pandas,[69] Numpy,[70] Matplotlib,[71] and Openpyxl[72] for data analysis. These tools conducted data preprocessing, analysis and visualisation. The source code (without the data) is available on GitHub[73].

To complete this analysis, the team will take the following approach:

- **Code development**
  - The evaluation team developed data preprocessing and analysis code using Python. The data was analysed with this code which generated the required tables, charts, and statistics.
- **Data preprocessing**
  - The team employed data cleaning procedures. Data was anonymised, checked for duplicated, missing values, and created a corresponding codebook for each column.
  - The evaluation team produced a clean and analysis-ready dataset in Excel format with labelled variables and values.
- **Data analysis**
  - The team measured the values of the 5DE sub-index, GPI score, and each respondent's empowerment scores. Using this data, the WEAI score was calculated. The 5DE sub-index represents the extent of women's empowerment in the five domains.
  - The results of data analysis were included in the final WEAI framework as well as the final report.

Qualitative Analysis

A robust qualitative analysis was conducted. The team started with a fieldwork debrief, where the evaluation team debriefed field moderators following each KII and FGD not conducted directly by the evaluation team. This provided an opportunity to capture impressions around the sense and flow of conversations. Overall, the debriefs reflected Bodhi's broader approach of integrating insights from multiple relevant parties, in order to maximise understanding. The team then produced a topline analysis, which reflected the initial patterns emerging from the fieldwork debriefs.

Once translation and transcription were complete, the team used NVivo to produce an in-depth analysis of the qualitative data following a pre-defined analysis plan. The evaluation team prioritised gender-sensitive themes in the qualitative analysis. A codebook was generated and shared across different team members to reduce bias in coding of the results. Peer reviews of coded findings against the codebook and data analysis plan were also done to ensure team members involved in coding used the right code to reduce potential perception bias during coding.

69 Pandas (2024). Available at: Link
70 Numpy (2024). Available at: Link
71 Matplotlib (2024). Available at: Link
72 Openpyxl (2024). Latest stable release. Available at: Link
73 GitHub - Bodhi (2024). Conducting a Study on the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI). Available at: Link

Preliminary findings from the analysis were reviewed by the national researcher and selected regional coordinators to ensure the analysis was consistent with their experiences in the field. Findings from FGDs were triangulated with those from KIIs and other secondary sources to reduce dependency on one single source, reducing the extent to which bias can influence the findings. Findings were synthesised into larger thematic 'baskets' for the initial findings, conclusions and recommendations.

3.5. Study Limitations

Response bias: Survey participants may have formed their responses based on personal motivation rather than the most accurate information. Certain respondents may have been incentivised to offer positive responses, expecting benefits from future projects. The team mitigated the risk of response bias through the triangulation of different sources of data and by maintaining strict confidentiality so that respondents could feel free to respond candidly. During the participant consenting process, the data collection team ensured they made it clear to participants that they would not receive any direct benefits or face any risks for taking part in the survey. Their participation in the survey will be kept confidential and will not affect their relationship with the future project and its partners, whether they responded positively or negatively to any of the questions.

Low response rates from high-level key informants: The team attempted to conduct ten high-level key informants, but seven were unresponsive, and one declined to participate. As a result, only two high-level KIIs were conducted. To address this low response rate, the team mitigated its impact by triangulating the responses from other types of KIIs, as well as primary and secondary data sources. This approach helped to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the subject matter despite the limited input from high-level key informants. For future studies, WFP could consider sending out introduction letters to potential high profile key informants, in an attempt to sensitise them to the study and ensure higher participation among senior stakeholders.

3.6. Quality Assurance

Quality Assurance

Bodhi undertook measures to ensure the research was ethically sound before data collection began. Upon completion of the study design and tools that were included in the inception report, the inception report was internally reviewed by Bodhi's quality assurance team. Upon approval, the inception report was submitted to WFP who provided their input into the design, approach and tools. Bodhi addressed the raised concerns, after which Bodhi was cleared to conduct data collection.

Ethical Considerations

Data collection, and the management and research approach, was grounded in Bodhi's core values of intellectual rigour, research objectivity and integrity. At every stage, research participants were informed of the purpose of the WEAI study and informed that they may end their participation at any time. Informed consent was obtained from all participants. In the case of those aged under 18 years, informed assent was obtained along with, and the informed consent of a responsible adult. The research adhered to 'do no harm' principles, and the enumerator training included elements of Prevention of Sexual Exploitation and Abuse (PSEA).

All enumerators undertaking the data collection were trained on ethical considerations, gender sensitivity and child safeguarding, including what to do if a participant became distressed (including reporting to the team; no such reports were received). The data collection supervisory team also ensured that all interviews took place in a confidential space (behind closed doors or in a wide open space where no one could stand close by to overhear). This served to assure confidentiality of the interviews and discussions to participants and their close kin.

Data Protection

Bodhi securely managed and transferred respondents' data ensuring that no data breach occurred. The assessment team used the mobile data collection platform "KoBoCollect" for this study.[74] Utilising mobile data collection methods for the quantitative elements of data collection helped to ensure that no loose hard copies of surveys exist. As a result, single completed surveys could not be duplicated, misplaced, or shared with unauthorised individuals. During data collection only password-protected Android devices were used. The software used prevents its end users from accessing past surveys after a time limit. Completed interviews were cached locally and then automatically wiped following upload to a central server. Surveys were uploaded at the end of every day (where feasible). Data cannot be exported locally from the device itself (e.g., through a USB device). The central servers are based in the United States and are hosted by Amazon AWS. All network traffic was encrypted with TLS.

Accessing data stored on these surveys is possible only through the data collection management platform. This platform employs rigorous security permissions and for this project the assessment team also limited access to the data to only one team member.

Qualitative data were similarly tightly controlled. Interview transcripts were only disseminated, in full, to the core team members. Permissions to review qualitative data were restricted to the team so no one without permission could view or access the data. In addition, personally identifiable information (PII) has been cleaned from all raw data prior to sharing with WFP.

74 Kobo Toolbox, 2024. Available at: Link

4.0 Findings

4.1. Social Demographics

Table 4: Survey Respondents (by State and Age Group)

State	Total	18 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 - 64	65 and over
Overall	**1,469**	**116 (7.9%)**	**354 (24.1%)**	**444 (30.2%)**	**406 (27.6%)**	**120 (8.2%)**	**29 (2.0%)**
Puntland	**174 (11.8%)**	4 (2.3%)	31 (17.8%)	61 (35.1%)	57 (32.8%)	19 (10.9%)	2 (1.2%)
Jubaland	**169 (11.5%)**	2 (1.2%)	29 (17.2%)	58 34.3%)	56 (33.1%)	17 (10.1%)	7 (4.1%)
South West State	**310 (21.1%)**	32 (10.3%)	94 (30.3%)	97 (31.3%)	65 (21.0%)	19 (6.1%)	3 (1.0%)
Hirshabelle	**228 (15.5%)**	23 (10.1%)	62 (27.2%)	69 (30.3%)	52 (22.8%)	18 (7.9%)	4 (1.8%)
Galmudug	**221 (15.0%)**	35 (15.8%)	85 (38.5%)	48 (21.7%)	38 (17.2%)	12 (5.4%)	3 (1.4%)
Somaliland	**367 (25.0%)**	20 (5.5%)	53 (14.4%)	111(30.3%)	138 (37.6%)	35 (9.5%)	10 (2.7%)

This pilot test was conducted with a total of 1,469 people across six states in Somalia. The team made an effort to collect data evenly across all regions. Even in Jubaland, where the fewest data points were collected, 169 data points were gathered, representing over 11 per cent of the total sample.

The age distribution of survey respondents varied across different groups. The '35-44' group made up the largest proportion at 30.2 per cent, followed by the '45-54' group at 27.6 per cent and the '25-34' group at 24.1 per cent. The smallest group was the '65 and over' group, which made up only 2.0 per cent. This trend was consistent across all regions. In each of the six regions, the largest proportion of respondents belonged to one of the '25-34', '35-44', or '45-54' groups. Except for Jubaland, the '65 and over' group consistently had the smallest.

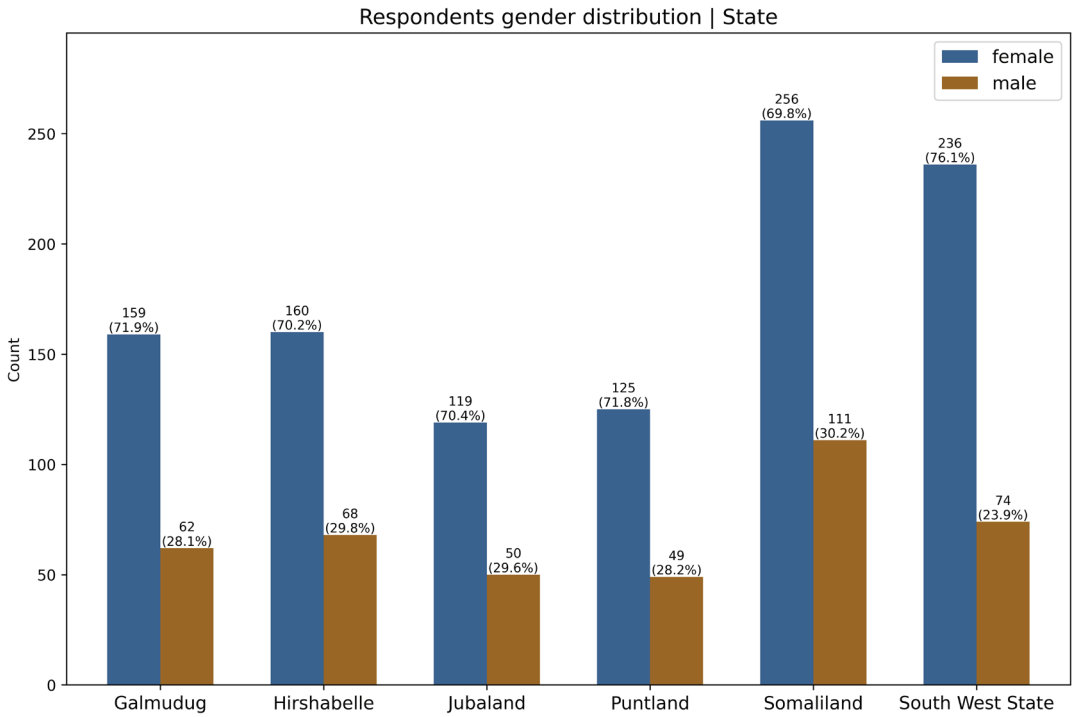
Table 5: Respondents disability status

State	Total	Non-disability	Disability
Overall	**1,469**	**1,357 (92.4%)**	**112 (7.6%)**
Puntland	**174**	166 (12.2%)	8 (7.1%)
Jubaland	**169**	167 (12.3%)	2 (1.8%)
South West State	**310**	297 (21.9%)	13 (11.6%)
Hirshabelle	**228**	193 (14.2%)	35 (31.3%)
Galmudug	**221**	217 (16.0%)	4 (3.6%)
Somaliland	**357**	317 (23.4%)	50 (44.6%)

Among the 1,469 survey respondents, only 7.6 per cent were identified as having a disability through the WG-SS scale[75]. Of the 112 respondents with disabilities, approximately 75.9 per cent were distributed across two states: Hirshabelle and Somaliland.

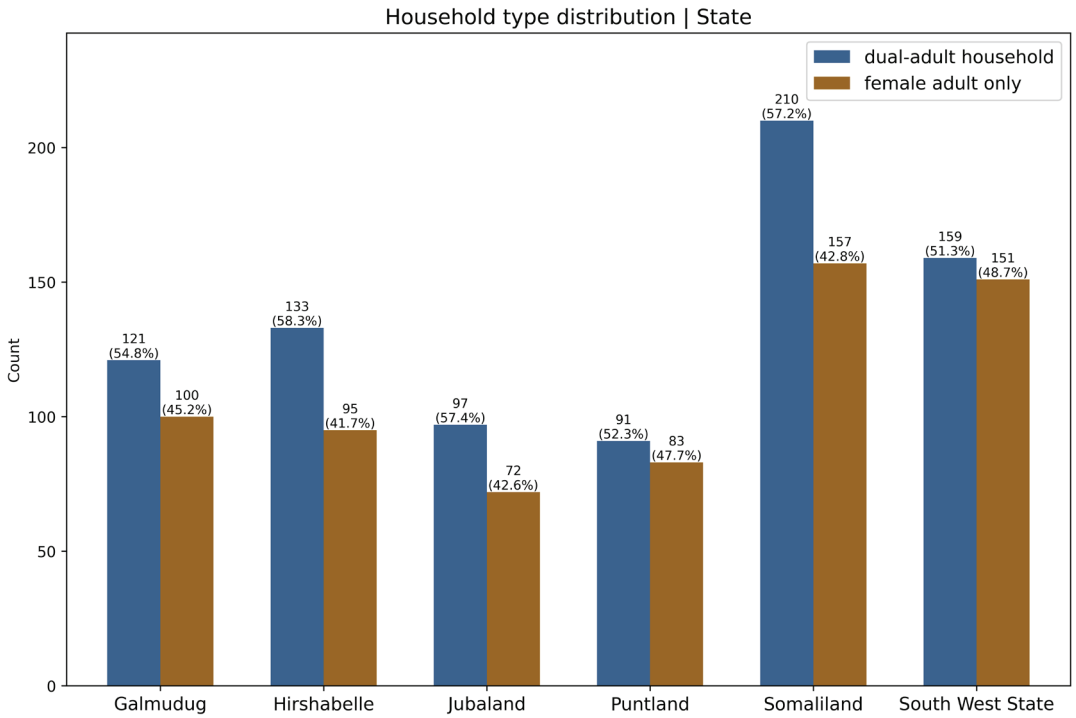
75 The Washington Group. (2022). WG Short Set on Functioning (WG-SS). Available at: Link

Figure 3: Respondents gender distribution



Overall, 71.8 per cent of respondents were women, while 28.2 per cent were men. This trend was consistent across all states. The distribution is due to the pilot test's focus on collecting data from two types of households: female-headed households and dual-adult households. The samples for female-headed and dual-adult households were split evenly with a 50:50 ratio. As a result, the number of female respondents was higher than male respondents.

Figure 4: Household type distribution



The number of dual-adult household samples was 811, accounting for 55.2 per cent of the total sample, while female-headed households made up 44.8 per cent with 658 women. Across all six states, the dual-adult household samples consistently accounted for around 50 per cent, while female-headed households made up around 40 per cent.

The sampling framework evenly distributed the total sample into these two types of households. After data collection, although the total sample size for dual-adult households was larger, the number of female-headed household samples also exceeded the intended target of 621.

4.2. Overall Findings

Table 6: WEAI and Sub-Indicators Score

Indicator	Female	Male
5DE	**0.667**	**0.675**
Disempowerment Score	0.333	0.324
N	1,055	414
Average % of disempowered people's inadequate achievements	43.8%	43.4%
% of achieving empowerment	24.0%	25.4%
% of not achieving empowerment	76.0%	74.6%
GPI Score	**0.943**	
N2	811	
% of women achieving gender parity	52.6%	
% of women not achieving gender parity	47.4%	
Average empowerment gap	0.121	
WEAI Score	**0.695**	

The pilot test assessed participants' empowerment status based on their individual empowerment scores calculated across the five domains: production, resources, income, leadership, and time allocation. Participants were considered empowered if their score was 0.80 or higher. Among the 1,055 female respondents, only 24 per cent were identified as empowered, while 76 per cent were identified as not empowered. A similar trend was captured among male respondents: of the 414 male respondents, 25.4 per cent were empowered, and 74.6 per cent were classified as not empowered. For disempowered female respondents, the average inadequate achievement across the five domains was 43.8 per cent. Based on these findings, women had a disempowerment score of 0.333, while men had 0.324.

Overall, men showed a slightly better 5DE score, but the difference is minimal. This result suggests that both men and women in Somalia are moderately empowered in agriculture. Several factors have contributed to this outcome including limited access to assets and resources, socio-cultural norms and traditional practices, low economic status and lack of access to education and training on agricultural productivity, as discussed under each domain below. Only 24.0 per cent of women and 25.4 per cent of men were empowered in agriculture and this result further supports this conclusion.

For this reason, the GPI score in Somalia was measured to be high at 0.943. When comparing the individual empowerment scores of men and women within the same dual-adult households, 52.6 per cent of women had an individual empowerment score equal to or greater than that of the men in the same household. While 47.4 per cent of women had a lower score than the men, the overall average gap was relatively small at 0.121. These results align with the 5DE score and its context.

As a result, the WEAI score in Somalia for 2024 was 0.695, derived from a 5DE score of 0.667 and a GPI score of 0.943. Given that the WEAI score ranges from 0 to 1, this result suggests a moderate level of women's empowerment in agriculture in Somalia. However, when examining the specific indicators of the five domains, it is evident that women's empowerment remains significantly insufficient, with men's empowerment also at a low level.

4.3. Domain Analysis

Table 7: Domain analysis result

Domain	Indicator	Female		Male	
		Adequacy	Inadequacy	Adequacy	Inadequacy
1. Production	1.1: Input in productive decisions	79.1%	20.9%	75.6%	24.4%
	1.2: Autonomy in production	52.0%	48.0%	51.7%	48.3%
2. Resources	2.1: Ownership of assets	81.4%	18.6%	83.3%	16.7%
	2.2: Purchase, sale, or transfer of assets	55.4%	44.6%	62.1%	37.9%
	2.3: Access to and decisions on credit	35.1%	64.9%	27.8%	72.2%
3. Income	3.1: Control over the use of income	88.6%	11.4%	87.4%	12.6%
4. Leadership	4.1: Group membership	44.7%	55.3%	44.4%	55.6%
	4.2: Speaking in public	70.0%	30.0%	78.0%	22.0%
5. Time allocation	5.1: Workload	52.9%	47.1%	58.2%	41.8%
	5.2: Leisure	70.0%	30.0%	63.3%	36.7%

Production

Among women across six states in Somalia, 79.1 per cent were involved in decision-making for at least two types of agricultural production activities, while 75.6 per cent of men participated in decision-making. In agricultural production, only about 52 per cent of both men and women were found to have autonomy. This suggests that both genders have a similar level of decision-making in their production activities. However, limited autonomy was observed, leading to a lack of understanding of their production activities. This constrained their ability to explain the various motivations behind their actions and decisions.

The roles of men and women in agriculture are shaped by traditional and cultural norms and beliefs. Survey participants reported that women are actively engaged in crop production. During crop production they participate in preparation of farmland, planting, weeding, harvesting and post-

harvest activities for crops such as maize, sorghum and sesame.[76] Most of the time, women also bear responsibility for irrigating crops. They are charged with going to fetch water from rivers and other water sources to irrigate the crops, ensuring that they grow to maturity.[77]

Men are engaged in livestock management (of livestock such as camels, goats, and cattle) trading, marketing, land preparation if the activity is labour-intensive, and decision making regarding production activities.[78] 38 per cent of key informants and 25 per cent of FGDs reported that men are often involved in more labor-intensive activities like ploughing, especially when they involve use of oxen or tractors, clearing bushes and land preparation.[79] Men in some instances also make the decisions on season planning which includes which crops should be planted in the next season, or on crop rotation for the next season.[80]

Due to low education and skill levels among women in most regions in Somalia, they are unable to optimise and adopt modern crop production techniques. The majority of women in Somalia have not completed formal education, therefore they are unable to autonomously consume and implement information related to best agricultural practices. Organisations like World Vision have organised women in groups to provide them with training and capacity building to enable them to use modern techniques in production, as well as empower them to make decisions about production. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and the Ministry of Agriculture & Irrigation have also partnered to conduct training programs for female farmers, focusing on improving productivity, quality, and sustainable agricultural practices in South West State.[81] Other local and international organisations also provide seeds and training on best agricultural practices. However, the numbers of such interventions are not sufficient to address the training and capacity building needs of the many women in the production value chain, as only a few can be admitted for limited periods. Among those admitted to these training programmes, some also face resistance from men in their communities, who say women should prioritise tending to their domestic responsibilities.[82] Women are burdened with domestic and duty of care responsibilities, which constricts their time available to take part in training and capacity building initiatives by such organisations. In addition to taking part in agricultural production around their homes, they are also charged with taking care of children and overseeing other domestic responsibilities such as cooking, cleaning and fetching water.[83]

Women's ability to participate in decision-making regarding the daily management of agricultural production activities is dependent upon the perceived economic value of the activity. The majority of decision-making regarding day-to-day management of crop farming is often left to women as crop farming is viewed as a subsistence activity rather than an income generating venture. These are often low-cost activities which require limited capital or inputs, and returns are also not considered economically significant. Decision-making regarding livestock and camels is reserved for the men as these are considered high-value assets that are likely to generate high levels of income. FGD participants reported that women are at times included in the conversations to offer their opinion, but the final decision-making rests with the men in the household.[84]

76 KII (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) FGD (1, 3, 11, 12)
77 KII (1, 3, 4, 6), FGD 3
78 FGD (1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 12)
79 KII (4, 5, 8), FGD (1, 2, 12)
80 FGD (11, 12)
81 KII (3, 5, 6, 8), FGD 3
82 KII 4
83 KII 2, FGD (3, 5, 7)
84 FGD (2, 3)

Resources

81.4 per cent of women had sole or joint ownership of land and assets, including agricultural land, large and small livestock, fish ponds, farm equipment, houses, and household durables. Men had a slightly higher percentage, with 83.3 per cent having sole or joint ownership of these assets. Among male respondents, 62.1 per cent had experience or rights in making decisions to buy, sell, or transfer assets, provided the household owned them. In comparison, 55.4 per cent of female respondents identified having similar rights, indicating that men have more authority in this area than women. In decision-making about credit, including whether to obtain credit and how to use the credit obtained from various sources, women were classified as more adequate at 35.1 per cent, compared to 27.8 per cent of men. This finding however contradicts qualitative findings outlined below, where key informants and FGD participants reported that men were the key decision-makers when it comes to obtaining credit. However, both sexes showed overall low levels of empowerment, with both falling within the 20-30 per cent range.

Survey respondents, however, reported that women are disadvantaged in resource ownership compared to their male counterparts, particularly in terms of land and other agricultural resources. Women are disadvantaged in land ownership rights, despite them being the main users of family agricultural land for crop production, as men are out in the fields with grazing livestock. Culturally, women face obstacles to inheritance of land and assets, with most assets being designated to male family members. In the inheritance process, women are often left out, and society does not actively advocate for their inclusion in asset inheritance discussions as capital assets are perceived to belong to men.[85] Women are also less educated and have limited or no access to technology, making it harder for them to independently access information, and learn and adapt to new technologies.[86]

> *"In our village, cultural and societal barriers often prevent women from owning land, even though we contribute significantly to farming. Without formal ownership or control over the land we work on, it limits our ability to make decisions or access resources like loans."* - KII, Agricultural cooperative member.

Women are disadvantaged because conflict and poverty have a greater impact on them compared to men. The women are left with the burden of care for the household, therefore, in instances where they have access to resources, they spend more of it in fulfilling their duty of care role, limiting what will be available for agricultural production.[87] Higher poverty levels among women reduce their ability to generate substantial income that can enable them to purchase or acquire land and other resources.

Women are disadvantaged when it comes to accessing resources like credit. Key informants reported that women often face more stringent guidelines than men when they go to access credit from financial institutions. Without addressing key barriers like land ownership, access to credit and affordable farming tools, women participation in agriculture and autonomy will always be a great challenge.[88] Most assets, like land, that can be used as collateral are also predominantly owned by men.[89]

85 KII (1, 4, 5, 6), FGD (2, 12)
86 KII (5, 7)
87 KII 2, FGD (3, 5, 7)
88 KII (1, 4, 5), FGD (4,5,7 9)
89 FGD (11, 12)

> *"**Respondent 5:** No, women typically do not make their own decisions to purchase, sell, or transfer agricultural assets in my community. Instead, these decisions often involve discussions with their husbands or male family members*
>
> ***Respondent 6:** Women may express their views and preferences, but the final decision usually rests with the men, reflecting the traditional gender roles that influence economic activities in the community."*[90] FGD with women in Galmudug

Despite the key roles women play in agricultural production, multiple factors such as culture and societal norms, limited legal rights and economic dependence impede their ability to participate in, or make independent decisions about, use of resources. They cannot independently make decisions about purchases, sales or transfer of agricultural assets without involving male figures.[91] FGD participants reported that while women may be in charge of sales of some crop agricultural produce, in most cases they have to agree with their husbands on what price they should be sold at because men are considered the heads of the household.[92]

> "*In our community men are seen as the decision-maker, women's opinion are looked down upon particularly on farming and household issues, even though we do most of the work."*[93]- FGD with women in -South West Baidoa

Women are also financially constrained. They do not have the assets to use as collateral to get loans. For those working, their skills are undervalued and they are also underpaid, limiting their access to financial resources.[94] A key informant reported that markets are flooded by male gatekeepers who purchase produce at very low prices. This affects the amount of resources available, especially to women who most of the time are not provided the opportunity to negotiate for better prices.[95] Non-profit organisations like Himilo Relief and Development Association (HIRDA) which have been working to address barriers to women's inclusion in agriculture for over two decades through implementing capacity building and access to finance interventions. In addition to capacity building women, the organisation provides interest free loans of between USD 1,000 and USD 1,500 to women to advance their agricultural activities.[96] A key informant reported that women have been mobilised into Village Savings and Loaning Associations (VSLA) to enable them to mobilise financial resources through savings and small loans to enable them to meet their needs. However, when it comes to decision making they still rely on their husbands or male figures.[97]

However, participants in an FGD attended by men and women reported that despite women being undervalued in the past, most women are speaking up about inequalities relating to payments for skills and services they offer. Women are advocating for better pay based on their experience.[98] However, similar efforts have not been widespread therefore the net effect is still negligible. In addition, the assessment noted that while women are being empowered to speak up, men are not engaged in these conversations therefore they are inclined to retain their traditional and cultural perceptions that sustain inequalities despite the complaints.

90 FGD 2
91 KII (1, 3, 5), FGD (2, 5, 7, 8)
92 FGD 7
93 FGD 11
94 KII (1, 5, 7), FGD 4
95 KII 2
96 KII 2
97 KII (3, 6, 7)
98 FGD (1, 5, 11, 12)

Income

In terms of decision-making regarding the use of income, both men and women exhibited high levels of empowerment, with approximately 87 per cent for each gender. This indicates that in Somalia's agricultural sector, there is a high level of autonomy in terms of control over the use of income.

Women play a significant role in the generation of household income. They are tasked with selling both crop produce and livestock at markets, ensuring that the household gets the best price for the agricultural produce.[99] A key informant reported that women are empowered to make decisions about day-to-day activities like selling the small farm products, such as eggs, vegetables, maize chicken, and grains. However, they have to consult their husbands and male figures on assets and items that are considered of large value like land, livestock or farm equipment.[100]

Women who take part in agricultural production often have limited say in how the income is used. During an FGD with men, participants mentioned that women's income and expenditure decisions are primarily focused on securing the well-being of the family. They spend their income and make decisions on household needs such as food, clothing and healthcare.[101] A key informant reported that women mainly make decisions on day to day expenditures like food and clothing for the children.[102] Men often take the lead on making decisions pertaining to access to land, purchase of farming equipment, investment opportunities and infrastructure development.[103]

> *"Women often participate in discussions about how to use income, especially when it comes to household needs. However, the final decisions may still involve their husbands."*[104]
> FGD with women in Galmudug

Women who also have their own sources of income, from sources like VSLA and employment also take part in decision-making about how income is used as they may be a contributor.[105] However, for capital expenses like investments, savings, and purchase of farm equipment, women have no say on how it is spent.[106]

> *"Income from livestock or crops that we sell is often controlled by the men, especially when it's a significant amount of money. The men decide whether the money should be used for family needs, invested in farming equipment, or saved for the future. Although women contribute to the household and work hard to generate income, we don't always have a say in how it is used."*- KII, Agricultural cooperative member

One key factor that contributed to decision making on how income is spent is having control over the income. A key informant reported that for women to have the power to make decisions on how income is spent, more needs to be done to ensure women have control over the income in the first place. Without financial autonomy, women cannot make decisions on how income is spent.[107] These challenges outlined above do not affect female headed households, as they have full autonomy on household income generation and expenditure.[108]

99 KII (1, 5, 6)
100 KII (2, 4)
101 FGD 1
102 KII (3, 4, 7, 8)
103 FGD 1
104 FGD 2
105 KII (3, 4)
106 KII 4
107 KII 4
108 KII (5, 6)

Leadership

Both women and men in Somalia showed a low level of group participation, with around 44.0 per cent actively involved in at least one community group. On the other hand, the comfort level with speaking up in public was higher among men, with 78.0 per cent reporting confidence, while women also displayed a moderate empowerment level at 70.0 per cent.

Figure 5: Focus Group Discussion : South West State

Key informants reported that women, particularly those in male headed households, have limited opportunities to take the lead or participate in decision making at home or in their households.[109] When it comes to agricultural or livestock committees, women's participation is usually low. Much as women may be involved in looking after livestock or farming, leadership and decision making in these committees is usually left to men.[110] Women's participation in formal community level groups like village committees and local government groups still remains low.[111]

Furthermore, women are not included in decision-making processes. Due to multiple factors such as low representation in decision-making organs, low levels of education, limited access to resources and general stigmatisation for being outspoken about issues that affect them, women continue to be excluded from leadership and decision making roles.[112] FGD participants also reported that in addition to low confidence, women lack the knowledge and skills necessary to enable them to engage in discussions about production, sales and income.[113]

To address low participation of women in decision-making, farmers cooperatives and associations composed of women have been formed to encourage women's participation in leadership. In these sessions, women discuss crop production, livestock care, and market strategies. Women also take part in water user groups, especially in areas where water scarcity is an issue. In these water user groups they discuss how to manage access to water for agriculture.[114]

109 KII (1, 5, 7)
110 KII 4, FGD (2, 3)
111 KII 4
112 KII (1, 5, 7)
113 FGD (1, 2, 5)
114 KII (4, 7), FGD (2, 3, 12)

VSLA groups have also been formed to empower women to take leadership and decision-making roles in their households and societies. In addition, women are also taking part in social and networking groups and events which further improve their self-confidence, ability to articulate their issues and make decisions.[115]

A key informant reported that the Federal Government of Somalia is making strides to ensure women are included in decision-making roles in agriculture. The respondent mentioned that the government implemented a policy that requires 30 per cent of farmer cooperative membership and leadership roles be allocated to women to ensure they are included in management and decision-making roles.[116]

HIRDA, as an organisation that champions for inclusion of women in leadership, has ensured that the majority of leadership roles within the organisation are held by women.[117] The organisation has also been working closely with women in agriculture to improve their production capacity, empower them to make decisions and increase their resilience towards disasters.[118]

FGD participants also reported that women's empowerment initiatives are increasing participation of women in public activities. The participants from both male and female groups reported that women are increasingly becoming vocal and taking part in public gatherings, including speaking up and sharing their opinions.[119]

Culture, gender and societal norms still remain persistent barriers to women's inclusion and participation in decision-making processes. The majority of leadership roles have typically been male dominated and this has affected dis-empowered women's ability to believe that they can play similar roles.[120] A key informant and FGD participants attributed women's reluctance to take on leadership roles to a fear of GBV. The respondents explained that some women view taking up leadership roles as challenging the man's role and position in a patriarchal society, therefore they shy away because they have been traumatised by past experiences.[121] Lastly, being a patriarchal society, some women fear speaking up because they may face criticism or backlash due to voicing their opinions.[122]

> *"Respondent 3: In my opinion women do not feel comfortable speaking up in public gatherings because they describe that as men's role.*
>
> *Respondent 4: The majority of the women feel uncomfortable and shy in raising their own opinions to help decide on the infrastructures to be built in the community."*[123] FGD with men in South West Baidoa

Men also face challenges affecting their active participation in community groups. Men are often involved in demanding and time-consuming economic activities therefore they rarely have time to participate in community group activities.[124]

115 KII (2, 3, 4), FGD 12
116 KII 2
117 KII (2, 7)
118 KII 2
119 FGD (1,2, 3)
120 KII (1, 2, 3, 4), FGD 2
121 KII (2, 3, 5)
122 KII (4, 6, 7)
123 FGD 12
124 KII 4

Time allocation

The individual workload, particularly the total time spent on both productive and domestic tasks, showed an adequacy level of around 50 per cent for both men and women. This indicates that approximately half of the individuals are spending more than 10.5 hours per day on productive and domestic tasks. Regarding respondents' level of satisfaction with the time available for leisure activities, such as visiting neighbours, watching TV, listening to the radio, watching movies, or participating in sports, 70 per cent of women reported at least moderate satisfaction, while 63.3 per cent of men expressed the same level of satisfaction.

Key informants reported that women are burdened with domestic care responsibilities at home. In addition to taking part in agricultural production, they also take care of the family, including their children, and bear the responsibility for domestic duties. This limits women's access to information about training and development sessions that could help them to increase their knowledge and access to information, in turn increasing their levels of empowerment and autonomy. Some of the planned training and capacity building sessions facilitated by NGOs/INGOs also do not take into account women's care and domestic responsibilities. Women therefore do not participate in these activities because their timing does not allow them to tend to their other domestic responsibilities.[125]

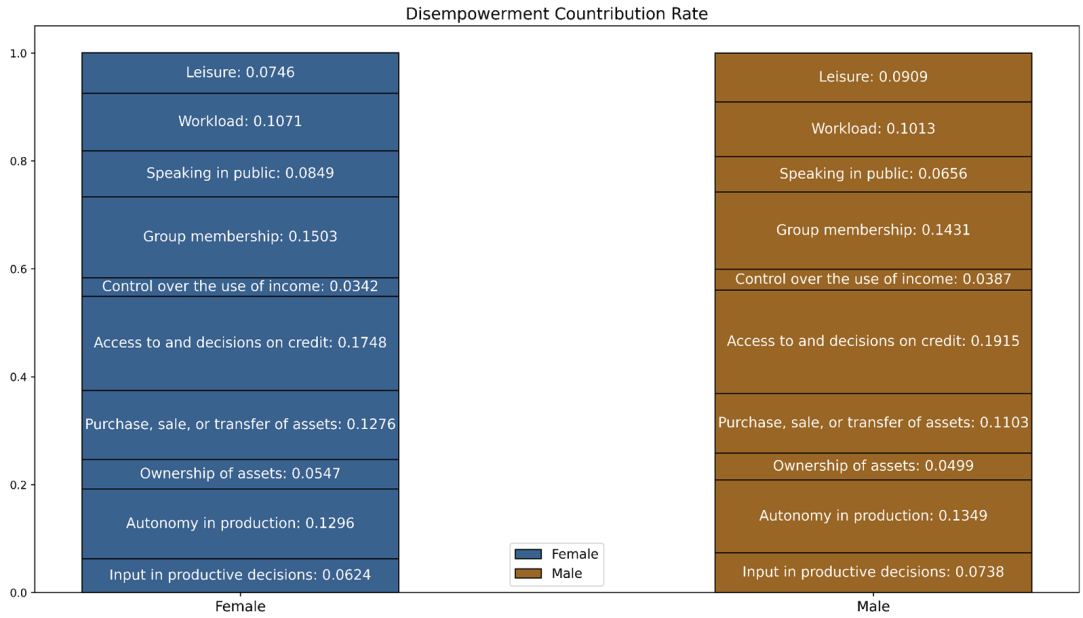
FGD participants reported that women often work longer hours and harder than men. While men are primarily in charge of livestock, trading and heavy farm work, these tasks span some of their day time and the men have time for leisure activities. Women however are burdened with domestic responsibilities, caring for children and in addition to these, farming which often have them working for longer hours each day.[126]

A key informant also noted that financial constraints among women may prevent them from accessing leisure and other income generation and leisure opportunities. Activities outside of the household require resources such as a means of transportation for them to participate. However, most women do not have sufficient financial resources to meet their household needs and also meet expenses related to these leisure activities, therefore they forgo them.[127]

Women need to be capacitated to ensure they partake in leisure activities. There are mass media messaging and communication materials that can create awareness of several productive and cultural barriers, which women can benefit from.[128]

125 KII (1, 5, 8)
126 FGD 1
127 KII 5
128 KII 5

Figure 6: Disempowerment contribution rate



The contribution rate of each domain's indicators to disempowerment can be found in Figure 7. The disempowerment contribution rates for both men and women showed similar trends. For both women and men, "2.3: Access to and decision on credit," "4:1. Group membership," and "1.2: Autonomy in production" were the three main contributing factors, highlighting the importance of empowerment in these areas.

Overall, women demonstrated empowered performance (more than 80 per cent adequacy) in indicators "2.1: Ownership of assets" and "3.1: Control over the use of income". They also showed a high level in "1.1: Input in productive decisions", with 79.1 per cent. In "4.2: Speaking in public" and "5.2: Leisure", women illustrated a moderate level of empowerment. However, in several areas, such as "autonomy in production", "decision-making", "group memberships", and "workload", women still experience inadequate empowerment, a trend that is similar for both genders. These factors also had a high contribution rate to disempowerment. This suggests that more specific intervention is required in these areas.

Table 8: 5DE Score

Category	Item	5DE	Disempowerment score	% of women achieving empowerment	% of women not achieving empowerment
Gender	Female	**0.667**	0.333	24.0%	76.0%
	Male	**0.676**	0.324	25.3%	74.6%
State	Galmudug	**0.627**	0.373	17.0%	83.0%
	Hirshabelle	**0.641**	0.359	20.0%	80.0%
	Jubaland	**0.560**	0.440	10.1%	89.9%
	Puntland	**0.763**	0.237	35.2%	64.8%
	Somaliland	**0.696**	0.304	27.7%	72.3%
	South West State	**0.683**	0.317	28.1%	71.9%

Age group	18 - 24	**0.587**	0.413	12.1%	87.9%
	25 - 34	**0.630**	0.370	17.4%	82.6%
	35 - 44	**0.687**	0.313	27.5%	72.5%
	45 - 54	**0.696**	0.304	28.3%	71.7%
	55 - 64	**0.757**	0.243	38.8%	61.2%
	65 and over	**0.573**	0.427	6.7%	93.3%

The 5DE score for Somalia in 2024 was 0.667. Women had a slightly lower score than men, who scored 0.676. Regionally, Puntland had the highest empowerment level across the five domains, with 0.763, while Jubaland had the lowest at 0.560. Other regions exhibited similar trends, ranging from 0.62 to 0.69. Among the age groups, the '55-64' group had the highest score at 0.757, while the '18-24' and '65 and over' groups had lower scores of 0.587 and 0.573, respectively.

4.4. Gender Parity Index (GPI) Analysis

Table 9: Gender Parity Index Score

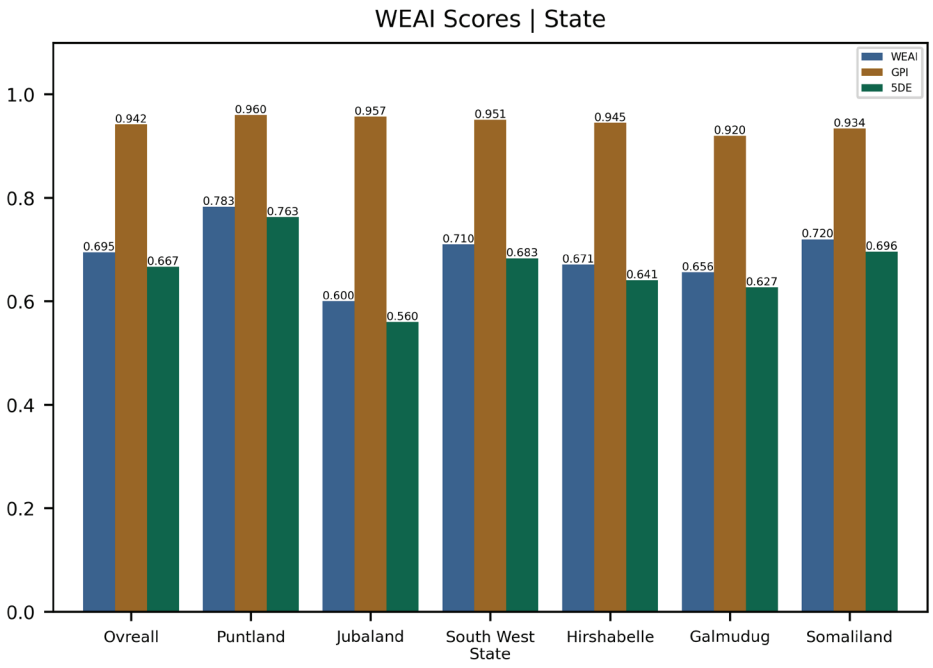
Category	Item	GPI	% of women achieving gender parity	% of women not achieving gender parity	Average empowerment gap
Overall	-	0.943	52.6%	47.4%	0.121
State	Galmudug	**0.920**	42.9%	57.1%	0.140
	Hirshabelle	**0.948**	54.8%	45.2%	0.122
	Jubaland	**0.957**	65.9%	34.1%	0.125
	Puntland	**0.960**	51.4%	48.6%	0.082
	Somaliland	**0.934**	47.7%	52.3%	0.127
	South West State	**0.951**	56.8%	43.2%	0.114
Age group	18 - 24	**0.925**	50.0%	50.0%	0.150
	25 - 34	**0.937**	47.4%	52.6%	0.119
	35 - 44	**0.948**	60.6%	39.4%	0.131
	45 - 54	**0.976**	69.7%	30.3%	0.081
	55 - 64	**0.942**	50.0%	50.0%	0.117
	65 and over	**0.867**	0%	100%	0.133

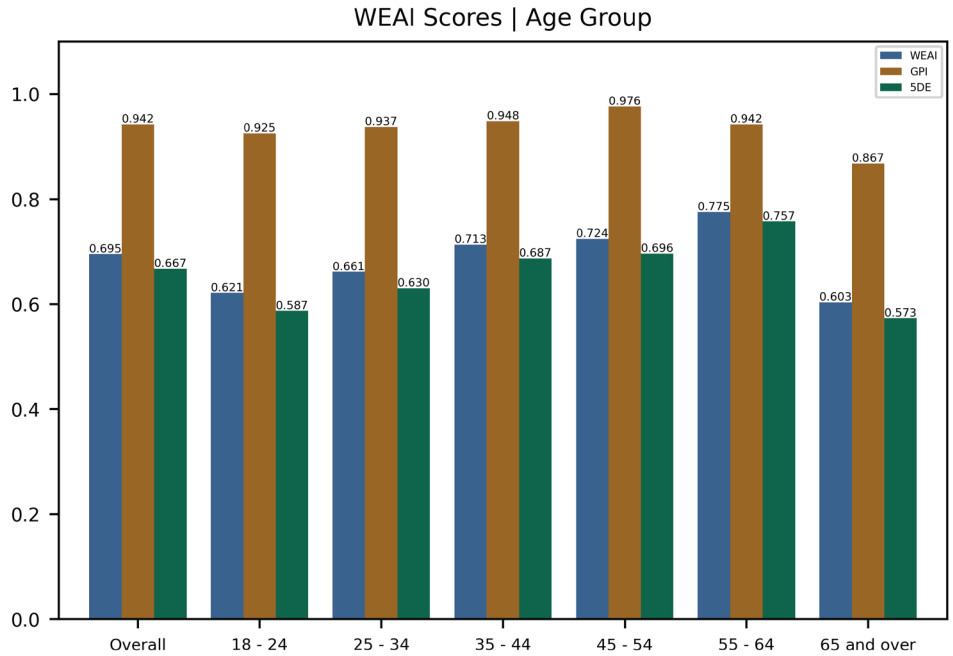
This pilot test revealed that the overall GPI score in Somalia was 0.943 in 2024. Considering that the GPI reflects the inequality in individual empowerment scores between primary adult male and female decision-makers within households, this indicates that there is no significant gender disparity in empowerment within agriculture in Somalia. Besides, 52.6 per cent of women in dual-adult households were found to have individual empowerment scores equal to or higher than those of men in the same households. The overall average empowerment gap was 0.121.

This result aligns with the domain analysis. In the 5DE, women showed slightly lower empowerment levels compared to men but were overall at a similar level. This explains the high GPI score of 0.943. While the GPI score suggests that women's gender parity in agriculture appears positive, it is important to consider that the overall empowerment levels of both men and women in agriculture across Somalia are very low.

4.5. Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) Analysis

Figure 7: WEAI Score (by State and Age group)





Somalia's WEAI score for 2024 was 0.695. Since the WEAI score ranges from 0 to 1, this indicates a moderate level of women's empowerment in agriculture. The WEAI scores varied across the six states. Puntland had the highest WEAI score at 0.783, along with the highest 5DE and GPI scores of 0.763 and 0.960, respectively. In contrast, Jubaland had the lowest WEAI score at 0.600, with its 5DE score also being the lowest at 0.560.

Similarly, the WEAI score varied across different age groups. The '55-64' age group had the highest WEAI score at 0.775, along with the highest 5DE score of 0.757. The '45-54' group followed with a WEAI score of 0.724. The '65 and over' group had the lowest WEAI score at 0.603, with the lowest GPI and 5DE scores of 0.867 and 0.573, respectively.

Table 10: WEAI Comparison by country

	Somalia	Rwanda	Ghana	Kenya	Liberia	Uganda
WEAI score	**0.69**	0.91	0.71	0.72	0.69	0.86
5DE score	**0.67**	0.90	0.70	0.71	0.67	0.85
Disempowerment Score	**0.33**	0.10	0.30	0.29	0.33	0.15
Average empowerment gap	**0.12**	0.15	0.27	0.29	N/A	0.20
GPI score	**0.94**	0.96	0.81	0.81	0.95	0.92

Table 10[129] presents the WEAI scores for six countries, including Somalia. Somalia's WEAI score of 0.69 was low compared to other countries. Among the six countries, the highest score was recorded by Rwanda at 0.91. Somalia, along with Liberia, had one of the lowest scores. The disempowerment score was the highest, showing the lowest level of empowerment, similar to Liberia. In terms of gender parity, Somalia had the smallest average empowerment gap among the six countries, with a GPI score ranking third after Rwanda (0.96) and Liberia (0.95).

This result shows that although Somalia's WEAI score of 0.69 can be considered moderate, it is low compared to other countries. The GPI score of 0.94 appeared high, but this can be interpreted as a reflection of the overall low empowerment in agriculture for both genders in Somalia. In the WEAI, the 5DE score has a larger weight than the GPI, meaning that the low level of empowerment in agriculture across the country regardless of gender is a key factor. Therefore, Somalia requires comprehensive efforts to improve women's empowerment in agriculture.

129 IFPRI (2014). Measuring Progress Toward Empowerment - Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index: Baseline Report. Available at: Link.

5.0 Conclusion

Empowerment in agriculture in Somalia was generally low for both men and women.The study revealed that Somalia's WEAI score for 2024 was 0.695, derived from 0.667 of the 5DE score and 0.943 of the GPI score. Although Somalia's WEAI score of 0.695 can be considered moderate, it is insufficient when compared to other countries. Among the survey participants, only 24 per cent of women and 25.4 per cent of men were identified as empowered. Men showed a slightly better 5DE score, but the difference was minimal. This result suggests that both men and women in Somalia are not empowered in agriculture. While the GPI score indicates a positive gender parity in agriculture, it is important to note that the overall empowerment levels for both men and women in agriculture across Somalia remain very low.

Key informants and focus group discussions provided contextual information regarding the challenges women face in agriculture. According to them, the roles of men and women in agriculture are influenced by traditional and cultural norms and beliefs. The negative social norms continue to serve as significant barriers to women's inclusion and participation in decision-making. Women are unable to optimise and adopt modern crop production skills due to low levels of education and skill levels. While decision-making about low-value assets is often left to women, decisions regarding livestock and camels, which are considered high-value assets, are reserved for men. Women are also disadvantaged in terms of resource ownership and accessing resources when compared to their male counterparts. Although both men and women face a heavy workload, women are particularly burdened as they are also responsible for family care and managing housework.

There are government-led interventions, including policies that aim to empower women and provide opportunities for them to take part in leadership and decision-making processes. On one hand cultural, religious, cultural and social norms which dictate a woman's traditional role in society continue to impede their empowerment and active participation in decision making in agriculture. On the other hand, lack of resources to leverage on and failure by government-led and NGO/INGO interventions to include men in these discussions further limit opportunities available to enhance inclusive participation of women in leadership and decision making. While several organisations have mobilised women to form VSLA groups, associations and other forms of support groups, these interventions have little influence on the general landscape and can only support a limited number of women for the duration of the interventions. There was limited insight on the sustainability of such interventions as well.

Notably, there was little evidence of gender transformative approaches being used to negotiate for women's inclusive participation in leadership and decision making processes in agriculture. While several respondents reported organisations and institutions that work with women to empower them to take up leadership roles and make decisions, there was little evidence of such initiatives being done with men to negotiate for inclusion of women in leadership and decision making roles. Without a mindset change among men currently holding leadership and decision making roles at household and community levels, inclusion of women in leadership and decision making forums will continue to face harsh resistance from men.

Addressing women's empowerment requires a multi-faced approach for it to be effective. Government policies are not being fully implemented across different communities, therefore government interventions are bearing very little results. NGOs/INGOs are also working on skills development of women and mobilisation of resources to give them leverage to negotiate for inclusive participation and autonomy in decision making. However, the geographical footprint of such efforts is still low, making their effectiveness limited to specific local communities across the country. The main gap is on behaviour change communication, which will go a long way in shifting mindsets and perceptions of community members. The assessment did not identify any significant work being done to directly address religious, cultural and social norms and values which men hold on to and in effect deny women opportunities for inclusive participation in agriculture.

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6.0 Lessons Learned

Involvements in agricultural decision-making are similar for both men and women. This study showed a similar level of involvement in decision-making for agricultural production, with 79.1 per cent for women and 75.6 per cent for men. This suggests that gender parity in agricultural decision-making is more evident than in other areas, highlighting a positive trend where both genders understand and participate in agricultural activities. However, this result may be influenced by the fact that men and women typically engage in different parts of agriculture. Therefore, these results cannot conclude the level of gender equality in agricultural decision-making.

Although the level of participation in community groups is low for both men (44.4 per cent) and women (44.7 per cent), men show higher confidence in speaking up in public with 78 per cent. This suggests that while women are slightly more empowered to speak in public, social or cultural barriers may exist that limit their active engagement in leadership and community roles compared to men. There is a need to address this by having a deeper understanding of the social or cultural barriers that affect women's active participation in leadership, and how to effectively address these barriers. For example, future interventions could include awareness-raising activities and advocacy to identify harmful social or cultural norms and promote ways to address them.

There is limited convergence in interventions implemented by different actors, which limits the extent to which they are effective. Government institutions have led on formulating policies that provide women with opportunities to actively participate in decision-making. NGOs/INGOs have worked with women to reduce their dependence on men for resources through supporting them to set up VSLA and other social capital groups that help women get the resources they need to take part in agricultural activities. While these two actions directly influence some dimensions of the WEAI, there is limited evidence showing that these stakeholders work together to formulate, implement and enforce these policies and strategies. In effect, a lot of resources are being used while there are limited results to show the impact of these activities. The government institutions and NGOs/INGOs involved would benefit more from partnering with each other, exploiting synergies between themselves and collaborating to address these multiple factors affecting women's inclusion and active participation in agriculture. For instance, in Vietnam, the Department of Agriculture and Rural Development in Tra Vinh province collaborated with the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) and the International Potato Center (CIP) under the CGIAR Initiative on Asian Mega Deltas. Together, they shared research, strategies, and initiatives to develop innovative solutions that enhance women's participation in climate change adaptation in the delta region. The collaboration highlighted the importance of joint efforts between government agencies, NGOs, and local organisations in promoting gender equality and empowering women in agriculture.[130]

Religious, cultural and social norms still play a significant role in influencing women's participation in agriculture. Despite having taken part in empowerment interventions sponsored by government and other stakeholders, some women are still reserved when it comes to implementing the practices advocated for because they contradict their religious, cultural and social norms and beliefs. In addition to interventions on leadership, access to finance and financial inclusion, it is important to address barriers related to religious, cultural and social norms and beliefs in order to encourage women to adopt practices that encourage their active participation in agriculture. Religious aspects can be sensitive within the community. Therefore, it is important to first identify the strong religious barriers through additional research and then develop tailored interventions targeting these barriers.

130 CGIAR (2024). Fostering women's empowerment in the Mekong Delta's agricultural sector. Available at: Link.

In Somalia, both men and women engaged in agriculture suffer the burden of undertaking both productive and domestic tasks. Only 58.2 per cent of men and 52.9 per cent of women spend less than 10.5 hours a day on productive or domestic work. These high workloads may negatively impact personal and family well-being. This also provides less time to partake in leisure activities or recreational activities through which they can come across information relating to skills development or economic empowerment. Any interventions relating to these focus areas may therefore be affected by low attendance and compliance rates if participant availability to attend training and capacity building sessions are not carefully thought through. Similarly, routine tasks also limit opportunities available to men and women to access information about empowerment initiatives, therefore they will continue to adhere to cultural and social beliefs and practices. To achieve this, advocacy to promote a Social and Solidarity Economy (SSE) by the ILO can be leveraged. SSE supports inclusive and sustainable economic practices by empowering cooperatives, social enterprises, and community-based organisations to reduce inequalities and improve livelihoods.[131] It can also drive improvements in practices like addressing heavy workloads and encourage the establishment of policies and protection systems related to domestic work.[132] Only about 20 countries have enacted domestic laws on SSE, and Somalia is not one of them. Therefore, it is crucial to advocate for the enactment of domestic SSE legislation and actively propose solutions to address heavy workloads within this framework.

Low empowerment in decision-making on credit was observed in both men and women. Only 35.1 per cent of women and 27.8 per cent of men were involved in credit decision-making. This suggests that both genders lack significant empowerment in financial decision-making, highlighting the need to improve access to credit and financial autonomy for both men and women. However, some challenges in decision making on credit are unique to each gender. Men are often the final decision makers on access to credit while women lack the knowledge on how to, and resources needed to secure credit. One good example of promoting rural women's access to credit is the intervention by One Acre Fund. Across East Africa, this non-profit organisation has provided trade credit inputs, such as seeds and fertilisers, to smallholder farmers, the majority of whom are women.[133] The initiative also includes specialised training on improved crop management techniques for the project participants.[134] Since 2014, One Acre Fund has enabled farmers in Kenya to make digital loan repayments through the mobile money service M-Pesa instead of cash, enhancing financial inclusion for the poorest farming communities.[135] This intervention utilised ICT for agricultural loans to improve access to credit and has shown great success. Since the introduction of the digital repayment method, repayment fraud has decreased significantly by up to 85 per cent, which has greatly benefited female project participants.[136]

131 ILO (2022). Decent work and the social and solidarity economy. Available at: Link.
132 ILO (2022). Decent work and the social and solidarity economy. Available at: Link.
133 FAO (2019). Women's access to rural finance: challenges and opportunities. Available at: Link.
134 FAO (2019). Women's access to rural finance: challenges and opportunities. Available at: Link.
135 Better Than Cash Alliance (2017). How Digitizing Agricultural Input Payments in Rural Kenya is Tackling Poverty: The Case of One Acre Fund. Available at: Link.
136 Better Than Cash Alliance (2017). How Digitizing Agricultural Input Payments in Rural Kenya is Tackling Poverty: The Case of One Acre Fund. Available at: Link.

7.0 Recommendations

Recommendations related to administering the WEAI

The team should use clearly differentiated household IDs for each region. The GPI score is calculated by comparing the empowerment levels between the primary and secondary respondents. To do this, the analysis code identifies respondents based on the household ID from the data points. Therefore, the two data points from one dual-adult household must have the same household ID, and the ID should be unique. It is recommended to create and distribute household IDs to enumerators, as detailed in Table 11.

Table 11: Household ID

State	Region	Location	Female Headed Households	Dual-Adult Households
Puntland	Nugaal	Garowe	FNG01 – FNG50	NG01 – NG50
		Burtinle	FNB01 – FNB50	NB01– NB50
	Bari	Qardho	FBQ01 – FBQ50	BQ01 – BQ50
		Bosaso	FBB01 – FBB50	BB01 – BB50
Jubaland	Gedo	Bardera	FGB01 – FGB50	GB01 – GB50
		Luuq	FGL01 – FGL50	GL01 – GL50
		Dolow	FGD01 – FGD50	GD01 – GD50
	Lower Juba	Kismayo	FLK01– FLK50	LK01– LK50
South West State	Bay	Baidoa	FSB01 – FSB50	SB01 – SB50
	Lower Shabelle	Afgoye	FLA01 – FLA50	LA01 – LA50
		Janale (Genale)	FLJ01 – FLJ50	LJ01 – LJ50
		Qoryoley	FLQ01 – FLQ50	LQ01 – LQ50
		Marka (Merca)	FLM01 – FLM50	LM01 – LM50
Hirshabelle	Hiran	Bulaburte	FHB01 – FHB50	HB01 – HB50
		Beledweyne	FHH01 – FHH50	HH01 – HH50
	Middle Shabelle	Jowhar	FMJ01 – FMJ50	MJ01 – MJ50
		Balad	FMB01 – FMB50	MB01 – MB50
Galmudug	Mudug	Galkayo	FMG01 – FMG50	MG01 – MG50
	Galgaduud	Adado	FGA01 – FGA50	GA01 – GA50
Somaliland	Awdal	Borama	FAB01 – FAB50	AB01 – AB50
	Woqooyi Galbeed	Galbiley	FWG01 – FWG50	WG01 – WG50
		Hargeisa	FWH01 – FWH50	WH01 – WH50

The team should provide a clear explanation of the 'Time Allocation Workload Tool' for question G6.01. For question G6.01, the tool should be used to record the respondent's 24-hour activities, with the time spent on each activity marked by a line. The total time for each activity should then be converted into hours or minutes for data entry. During each time period, the respondent can record up to two activities, which should be labelled as primary and secondary activities. Since this question involves more steps than others, it is recommended to provide a clear explanation of the tool with appropriate examples and to ensure thorough understanding before collecting data.

The team should conduct daily data quality control during the data collection phase. This includes verifying that enumerators assign the correct household ID to each household, accurately calculate responses for Question G6.01, and correctly classify the household type. It is essential to ensure that enumerators collect two data points from each dual-adult household to effectively compare their empowerment levels.

Recommendations focusing on implementation of interventions to improve WEAI performance

It is recommended to focus on indicators with high inadequacy levels in future interventions. The ten indicators across the five domains each had different adequacy rates, and even within the same domain, such as production, different indicators showed distinct trends. For example, Indicator 1.1 showed an adequacy rate of 79.1 per cent, while only 52.0 per cent adequacy among female respondents was adequate in Indicator 1.2. Therefore, interventions should mainly focus on areas with particularly low adequacy rates, such as access to and decision-making on credit, group membership, autonomy in production, and workload. After addressing these areas, additional projects can be designed for the other indicators.

Future interventions should include both women and men to enhance their capacity in agriculture. This study revealed that empowerment in agriculture was low for both genders. Only 24 per cent of female respondents were identified as empowered, while 25.4 per cent of male respondents were empowered. In future programmes, it is important to mainstream women while also including men, to ensure joint progress and development. This approach will lead to genuine improvements in women's empowerment in agriculture. In addition, inclusion of men in activities will also provide better opportunities for behaviour change communication, adoption of gender transformative practices and make it easier to negotiate for space for women to lead and make autonomous decisions.

Different stakeholders working on women's empowerment need to identify synergies between the different interventions and implement a multi-sectoral intervention to ensure each of their efforts translate into significant collective impact. At the moment, several stakeholders are implementing independent projects that target key dimensions of the WEAI. However, each intervention's effectiveness is also influenced by several factors that other partners and stakeholders may be addressing in different localities or using different approaches. Drawing synergies and learning from each intervention will ensure each organisation and institution working to address women's empowerment uses the right approaches to effectively address barriers within its area of implementation.

Interventions on women's empowerment should have behaviour change components addressing the influence of cultural, religious and social norms on both women and men. Key informants and FGD participants identified several organisations that work to address access to finance, skills development and resources gap among women to increase their level of empowerment. However, findings highlight that despite these efforts, cultural and societal norms still remain a significant factor in influencing perceptions of men and women regarding their roles, and how they interact with each other at the household level. There needs to be a dynamic shift in perceptions of both men and women

to accommodate traditional power imbalances that come with women's empowerment at household and community level. Addressing barriers related to religious, cultural and societal norms will aid in fast tracking acceptance of empowered women at the household level and in society.

The following action points should be taken into consideration by WFP as calls to action to address the gaps identified.

Recommendation 1: WFP should create partnerships with private sector actors to increase access to tools and resources needed in agricultural production. The majority of women do not have access to tools and resources needed in agricultural production such as hoes, certified seeds and tractors, among others. They are fully dependent on the men in their households to provide finances so they can access these resources. To increase autonomy of women in agriculture, WFP should create partnerships with private sector actors who can provide tools and resources on credit to enable women to take part in agricultural activities without being fully dependent on male figures in their households.

Recommendation 2: WFP should provide training and capacity building to women on best agricultural practices. Low levels of education among women reduce their ability to independently consume information shared across mass media or social media, particularly that relating to the best agronomic practices and climate smart agriculture. WFP, in responding to this need, should design and implement training and capacity building activities that provide skills and knowledge on best agronomic practices and climate smart agriculture. In addition, WFP should also negotiate with male figures in participant households to ensure they provide time and opportunity for women to engage in capacity building and skills development activities.

Recommendation 3: WFP should support access to credit for women through providing interest free loans or work with financial institutions to provide loan guarantee funds. Women neither have access to finances to implement agricultural activities due to high poverty levels, nor do they have assets that can be used as collateral to enable them to get financing for agricultural activities. WFP should partner with financial and micro-finance institutions to remove barriers to accessing financing, such as the high requirements needed to access loans (including provision of collateral), high repayment rates to make it easier for women in agriculture to access and repay loans.

The Ministry of Family and Human Rights, in partnership with WFP, should work together to design and implement financial programs aimed at increasing women's access to credit, savings, and insurance products within the agricultural sector. The Ministry and WFP should collaborate and advocate with local financial institutions to develop agricultural loans, grants, and savings programs specifically targeted at women farmers. Additionally, should promote financial literacy campaigns designed to enhance women's financial management capabilities, thereby strengthening their economic empowerment within agriculture.

Recommendation 4: WFP should negotiate for women inclusion in decision making within the households. Somalia is a patriarchal society where men make nearly all household decisions. This affects women's autonomy and ability to actively participate in agriculture based on the information they may have received from capacity building and skills development activities. WFP should implement social behaviour change campaigns for men that negotiate for women's inclusion in decision making at household level.

The Ministry of Family and Human Rights, alongside WFP, should collaborate in creating specialized leadership training and agricultural skill development programs tailored for women. The Ministry and WFP should jointly design capacity-building programs that empower women with the knowledge and skills necessary to assume leadership roles within the agricultural sector. This could involve training in various areas, including advanced agricultural techniques, entrepreneurship, financial management, and advocacy, with the goal of enabling women to lead agricultural initiatives within farming communities and agricultural cooperatives.

Recommendation 5: A multi-sectoral approach is required to address the different barriers women face in agriculture. WFP should capacitate government agencies to ensure the government streamlines the work done by different agencies to increase the effectiveness of interventions among community members. Currently the practice is different organisations implement their own interventions, at times within the same communities, championing for their own practices. This creates oversupply for certain interventions in some communities like provision of training and capacity building, while interventions that should help increase access to finance, assets or resources are not implemented. This affects the extent to which implemented interventions are effective, as only one of the many barriers are addressed. The government, through WFP's support in policy and intervention management, should map our areas of need and support organisations to address specific needs while avoiding duplication of efforts.

Recommendation 6: WFP should partner with farmers to do value addition on agricultural produce, and then create market linkages with agricultural product offtakers and stockists to negotiate for better pricing of agricultural produce. There are agricultural products such as vegetables, maize, beans and chicken that women have decision making power over how they are used/ consumed. However these agricultural products do not fetch high returns in the market therefore they are sold at very low rates. If value addition is done, for example grinding and packaging maize as flour or turning milk into yoghurt will help increase the income generated from agricultural produce. This will allow women to have more finances, acquire assets and be able to actively make decisions on agriculture without depending on men.

Recommendation 7: WFP should help women farmers increase their resilience to climatic shocks by promoting climate smart agriculture. The study has shown that women have more autonomy on deciding what to do with agricultural produce from the kitchen gardens, most of which are considered of low economic value by men. To safeguard women from economic loss due to climate-related effects, WFP should promote use of climate smart agricultural practices to both increase resilience in farming and increase productivity. This will enable women to increase their income from farm produce while reducing their susceptibility to shocks due to climatic changes.

Recommendation 8: WFP should address Gender-Based Violence (GBV) in Agriculture. The Ministry of Family and Human Rights, in collaboration with WFP, should prioritize the issue of gender-based violence (GBV) in agricultural communities, recognizing its detrimental impact on women's participation in agriculture. The Ministry and WFP should jointly develop initiatives aimed at raising awareness about the impacts of GBV on women's ability to fully engage in agricultural activities. Furthermore, GBV prevention and response strategies should be integrated into agricultural development programs, ensuring that women have a safe and supportive environment in which to thrive and expand their agricultural ventures.

Recommendation 9: WFP should establish women focused agricultural cooperatives and networks. The Ministry of Family and Human Rights, in partnership with WFP, should support the establishment and strengthening of women's agricultural cooperatives and networks.Both the ministry and WFP should actively facilitate the creation of women-led agricultural cooperatives and networks that foster collective solutions to challenges such as access to markets, resource management, and capacity-building. These cooperatives should be equipped with the necessary tools and support to increase their sustainability and success, providing women with greater influence in agricultural production and policy advocacy.

Recommendation 10: Strengthen and advocate for gender responsive agricultural policies and legal frameworks. Jointly, the Ministry and WFP should design and execute advocacy campaigns aimed at influencing national agricultural policies. To promote women's active participation and leadership in the agricultural sector, including revisions to land policies, enhanced access to resources, and ensuring women's equitable representation in agricultural decision-making bodies.

The Women Empowerment in Agriculture Index should be aligned with the ongoing review of the National Gender Policy to address gender disparities in decision-making, resource ownership, and leadership. Additionally, it should support the integration of gender-sensitive initiatives into the National Transformation Plan (NTP)

Legal frameworks, including the Somali Constitution, Labor Code (1972), and land laws, must be enforced to ensure equality, non-discrimination, and women's access to resources. Aligning with CEDAW, SDGs 2 and 5, and UNSCR 1325, alongside strengthening penalties for gender-based discrimination and violence, will further empower women and foster inclusive agricultural development.

Promoting climate-smart agriculture in Somalia will significantly enhance women's resilience, productivity, and income. To support this, it is essential that legal frameworks, including the Somali Constitution, the Labor Code (1972), and land laws, are effectively enforced to ensure gender equality, non-discrimination, and women's access to resources. Alignment with international agreements signed by the Somali government such as CEDAW, SDGs 2 and 5, and UNSCR 1325, coupled with strengthening penalties for gender-based discrimination and violence, will further empower women and contribute to fostering inclusive agricultural development in Somalia.

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8.0 Annexes

8.1. Terms of Reference

8.2. List of respondents interviewed

Table 12: List of Key Informant Interview Participants

KII number	Stakeholder type
KII 1	Business owner, Galmudug
KII 2	Staff - Himilo Relief and Development Association (HIRDA)
KII 3	Staff - World Vision International
KII 4	Agricultural cooperative member, Beledweyne
KII 5	Representative, Jubbaland Commission for Refugees and IDPs
KII 6	Representative, Nugaal Farmers Association- Garowe
KII 7	Manager, Bright Vision Organization
KII 8	Member, Women group, Baidoa

Table 13: List of Focus Group Discussion Participants

FGD number	Participants
FGD 1	Mixed sex participants group in Galmudug
FGD 2	Female participants group in Galmudug
FGD 3	Female participants group in Hirshabelle
FGD 4	Female participants group in Hirshabelle
FGD 5	Male participants group in Jubaland
FGD 6	Female participants group in Jubaland
FGD 7	Mixed sex participants group in Puntland
FGD 8	Mixed sex participants group in Puntland
FGD 9	Mixed sex participants group in Somaliland
FGD 10	Mixed sex participants group in Somaliland
FGD 11	Female participants group in South West State
FGD 12	Male participants group in South West State

8.3. List of documents consulted

Table 14: Desk Review Document List

Document type	Document
WFP	Climate Smart Food Systems Strategy (2023-2025) Harnessing the power of gender equality to achieve food security Somalia Country Strategic Plan (2022-2025) WFP Somalia, Seeding Growth: Empowering Smallholder Farmers WFP Gender Policy 2022 WFP Somalia, Markets and Supply Chain Updates WFP (2024). Emergency, Somalia. Available at Link.
WEAI	Feed the Future (2012). Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index. Available at: Link. IFPRI (2013). WEAI instructional guide. Available at: Link. USAID (2016). WEAI intervention guide. Available at: Link.
Surveys and Other Reports	CARE (2023). IPC & Rapid Gender Analysis Pilot - Somalia. Available at Link. FAO (2021). National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods Somalia. Available at Link. FAO (2022). GIEWS Special Alert No. 350: East Africa. Available at Link. FAO (2024). Somalia Humanitarian Needs and Response Plan. Available at Link. Integrated Food Security System Classification (2024). IPC Acute Food Insecurity and Acute Malnutrition Analysis January to June 2024. Available at Link. National Economic Council of Somalia (2023). State of The Economy Report. Available at Link. National Economic Council of Somalia (2024). Empowering Women: Fuelling Economic Prosperity. Available at Link. Norwegian Refugee Council (2023). How severe is Somalia's food crisis?. Available at Link. OCHA (2023). OCHA Discussion Paper: Gendered drivers, risks and impacts of food insecurity in the Sahel and the Horn of Africa. Available at Link. OCHA (2023). Somalia Humanitarian Needs Overview 2023. Available at Link. Said, A.H. (2022) Changing patriarchal Somali culture, one business at a time. World Bank Blogs, Available at Link. Save Somali Women and Children (SSWC) (2021). Gender Gap Assessment: South Central Somalia and Puntland. Available at Link. UN Women (2022). Gender, Climate and Conflict Analysis in Somalia and Assessment. Horn of Africa Consultants Firm. Available at Link. United Nation. (2022). UN Somalia Gender Equality Strategy 2021-2025. Available at Link. UNDP (2021). Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment. Available at Link. UNHCR (2020). CCCM Cluster Somalia Strategy (April 2020). Available at Link. UNHCR (2022). CCCM Cluster, Somalia. Available at Link.

8.4. Final WEAI Framework

- Quantitative Questionnaire
- KII Guide
- FGD Guide

8.5. Raw and clean datasets

- Raw dataset (anonymised)
- Clean dataset
- Final dataset

8.6. Data analysis matrix

- Statistics
- Disaggregated Statistics

8.7. WEAI Pilot Test Report

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