SOMALIA’S MISSING MILLION: THE SOMALI DIASPORA AND ITS ROLE IN DEVELOPMENT

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A report for UNDP by Hassan Sheikh and Sally Healy on the Role of the Diaspora in Somali Development.

“The views expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of UNDP.”
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Executive Summary

1. The Somali Diaspora makes a major contribution to the Somali economy and livelihoods through remittances, humanitarian assistance and participation in recovery and reconstruction efforts. This study seeks to highlight where and how the Diaspora’s development efforts are currently focused so that the UN/UNDP can better understand and support their significant humanitarian and development activities.

2. With 14% of its population outside, Somalia is a globalised nation. At least one million Somalis live in the Diaspora, concentrated in three main areas: the Horn of Africa and Yemen; the Gulf States; and Western Europe and North America.

3. Kenya and Yemen have most refugees. In Europe, the UK has the largest Somali community and attracts Somali migrants from elsewhere in the same continent. The next largest are Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Italy. The US and Canada have big Somali communities concentrated in Minneapolis, Ohio and Toronto. The Somali Diaspora is still on the move. Malaysia and Australia are new growth areas.

4. Conflict-driven mass migration from Somalia began 20 years ago but had been preceded by smaller waves of economically driven migration. Distinctions exist between the first generation, their foreign raised offspring and newer arrivals to the Diaspora. The first and third of these groups maintain the closest ties to their homeland. Second generation loyalties are still evolving but will be vital for future dependence on Diaspora support.

5. In conflict and peace building, the Diaspora is a double-edged sword, contributing significantly to both. Financial obligations to support the clan in times of conflict have endured. Yet Diaspora intervention in support of local reconciliation and state building has been a key ingredient for success, notably in Somaliland and Puntland.

6. Since 2000, the Diaspora has been highly visible in the state institutions of Somalia, including Somaliland and Puntland, occupying top leadership positions of the state, political parties, cabinet, parliament and civil service. Some question the prominent role of the Diaspora in Somali politics.

7. Remittances to family members inside the country are a well-established practice. Remittance flows were estimated at up to $1 billion in 2004 but could be as high as $1.6 bn to Somalia and $700 m to Somaliland. Remittances represent 23% of household income with up to 40% of households receiving some assistance.

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1 Somaliland reference is to the unilateral self-declared Northwest regions of Somalia - since 1991
2 Puntland reference is to the Puntland State of Federal Somalia, which represents parts of Northeast regions of Somalia – since 1998
8. The Somali Diaspora is the major investor in the country and provided 80% of the start-up capital for small and medium enterprises (SMEs). For-profit activities contribute to economic recovery and improving livelihoods. Returnees establish businesses individually or as a group and pool resources or manage business at the executive level. Investment is spread over various sub-sectors such as small-scale industries, telecommunication, remittances and trade.

9. Another form of intervention, often linked to business networks, is the provision of emergency relief in times of natural or man-made crises. The Diaspora has proven capacity to send immediate cash and supplies to address the emergency needs of the victims. Funds are often mobilized by and distributed through the private media. Contributions of this kind stretch beyond local affiliation and are given from a sense of patriotism or religious obligation towards the affected.

10. The Somali Diaspora makes its most sustained and direct contribution to development and service delivery by establishing and supporting local institutions in the home region, district or village. Long-term, systematic support typically involves paying salaries for teachers and health workers and support for orphanages. The scale of this activity is hard to quantify because it involves hundreds (probably thousands) of small fund-raising networks operating across the globe. It appears that the practice of supporting facilities in the home area within Somalia is becoming part of the traditional culture of obligation towards those who are left behind.

11. Finally, Diaspora members contribute to development through their work for international development agencies. Returnees contribute their skills and technical know-how, where they teach in the local universities and provide technical support to government departments. The UNDP Qualified Expatriate Somali Technical Support (QUESTS) project has helped to promote this activity in areas of stability.

12. Overall, the activities of the Diaspora in the political and economic spheres tend to be mutually supportive of each other and are resulting in an ever-strengthening Diaspora network that plays an increasingly significant part in the life of the country.

13. Following a workshop at which the study was discussed, a number of recommendations have been put forward with a view to forging a stronger development partnership between the United Nations/UN Development Programme for Somalia, international community and Diaspora, and the Somalis working to enhance development in the country.
SOMALIA’S MISSING MILLION: THE SOMALI DIASPORA AND ITS ROLE IN DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

The Somali Diaspora makes a major contribution to the Somali economy and livelihoods through remittances, humanitarian assistance and participation in recovery and reconstruction efforts. Without this support, the economy of the country would have collapsed long ago. Nevertheless, the scale of assistance from the Somali Diaspora and the manner in which their support is delivered on the ground is little understood by the international development community. For the purpose of improving humanitarian and development planning, UNDP commissioned this study to improve its understanding of the role of the Diaspora with a view to establishing better channels of communication with them and with the development and humanitarian communities they sustain inside Somalia.

This study seeks to highlight where and how the Diaspora’s efforts are currently focused and to maximize the valuable contribution that the Diaspora can make to humanitarian, recovery and development efforts. A partial survey of organized Diaspora networks formed part of the study. Based on the findings of the study, a workshop explored possible mechanisms for engagement between the Diaspora and development partners, and made recommendations to enhance the achievement of their common developmental goals.

Locating the Somali Diaspora – in Search of the Missing Million

Somalia’s population is commonly estimated at 7.4 million, of who more than one million are thought to live abroad. This estimate implies that some 14% of Somalia’s population is now living outside the country as a Diaspora community, a proportion so large as to justify describing Somalia as “a truly globalised nation” (Menkhaus, 2009). The greater part of this exodus has occurred during the last twenty years, coinciding with
years of conflict and prolonged state collapse. To give a sense of the enormous scale of this outward migration, the equivalent for the US would be the loss of 42 million people, or 4 million Canadians, 5 million Kenyans or 8 million British citizens. Perhaps the closest historical parallel is that of the Great Irish Famine in the mid-19th century that resulted in the Irish population dropping from over 8 million to less than 6 million within a decade.

Unlike the Irish migrants of the 19th century, Somalis have not left their homes permanently to start a new life elsewhere. In an age of globalization, characterized by accessible transportation and rapid communication, the Somali Diaspora has remained very intimately connected with the homeland. Many members of the Somali Diaspora with right of abode elsewhere continue to live, work and invest in Somalia. There are estimated to be 15,000 Canadian citizens in Somaliland alone.

There are considerable difficulties in collecting reliable and statistically comparable data about the migratory movements that have produced the Somali Diaspora. The following are sets of data that tell just parts of the total story.

The largest concentration of Somali people outside Somalia is to be found in neighbouring countries and within the wider region. Reliable enumeration, even if it were to be attempted, would be made much harder on account of the sizeable communities of Somali Kenyan, Ethiopian and Djibouti citizens, from whom the Somali migrants are not readily distinguishable. UNHCR figures for registered refugees are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>224,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>17,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>8,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>91,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another large community of Somalis resides in several of the Gulf States and is equally hard to enumerate. A 2003 estimate (Perouse de Monclos) suggested 20,000 in Saudi Arabia and 25,000 in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). More recent estimates suggest a figure as high as 100,000 (Menkhaus). A relatively new target of Somali migration is Malaysia, where over 1,000 Somali students are currently enrolled in higher education (Malaysia Student Association). There are thought to be large student communities in Sudan and Egypt but it has not been possible to ascertain student numbers in these countries.

The third section of the Somali Diaspora is that dispersed among the Western countries, defined here for convenience as the members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Although statistical data is more readily available for these countries, population survey information is collected and aggregated in different ways. This makes it difficult to calculate with any certainty the size of Somali communities that are dynamic and still very much on the move. Asylum-seeker figures and census data on “foreign born” populations tell part of the story. However, as growing numbers of the Somali Diaspora are born abroad and others acquire new passports and nationalities, information on the size of Somali communities in the West becomes harder to distinguish clearly.

OECD (rounded) figures on asylum seekers from Somalia, aggregated by country for the period 1997-2005, show the destination of Somali refugees in the following priority:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>13,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures are indicative of preferences since 1997, but it needs to be remembered that most of the asylum seekers will have been refused asylum or permission to remain.

The asylum figures are not a reliable guide to the size of Somali communities established in OECD countries. Migration occurs in many other forms (family reunion programmes, illegal immigration and movement from third countries) and much Somali migration had already occurred before 1997, when these statistics begin. Finland, for example, at the lower end of the asylum table, had received 4,500 Somali refugees from the Soviet Union by 2002 and could count 9,000 Somali speakers in its population in 2004. Italy is thought to have a Somali community in excess of 10,000 and Norway has a Somali population of 20,000, half of whom arrived in the country during the last five years (Horst 2008).

Census data for parts of the “population born in Somalia” is available for only some of the OECD countries. The following figures show major Somali Diaspora communities as follows:

- **UK** 93,000 (2008)
- **USA** 36,000 (2000 census)
- **Canada** 34,000 (2001 census)
- **Netherlands** 14,000 (2005 OECD)
- **Denmark** 11,000 (2005 OECD)

These figures can quickly become out of date. US Somali refugee resettlement figures for the ten years 1983-2004 reached 55,000 and 13,000 Somalis entered the US in 2004 alone. Some authorities put the US figure as high as 150,000 (Lehman & Eno 2003, Menkhaus 2009). Sweden, Italy and Norway census data records “foreign population by nationality”, a figure that tends to decline over time as migrants or refugees acquire
citizenship. OECD collated figures of Somali populations in these countries in 2005 are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>11,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two final observations to be made about the location of the Somali Diaspora in OECD countries before moving away from the statistics. The first is that Somali Diaspora communities are often heavily concentrated in certain towns and cities. The second is that Somali migration can sometimes occurs on a large scale in a very short timeframe.

To illustrate the first point, press reports claim there are 40,000 Somalis living in Toronto, 70,000 in Minneapolis (with 20,000 in St Paul alone), 75,000 in Columbus, Ohio. These estimates clearly outstrip the official statistics noted above. In the UK, Somali communities are concentrated in various parts of London (33,000 in 2001 census) and other major cities including Bristol (20,000) and Manchester (10,000). Liverpool’s 9,000 strong Somalis community has deep roots and Cardiff’s 7,000 residents of Somali descent represent one of the oldest migrant communities in Britain dating from the 1880s.

At the other extreme, the city of Leicester has gained a Somali community of 13-15,000 within the last ten years. The majority of them are Dutch, Danish and Swedish passport holders who decided to move to the UK. Leicester is a major city of over 250,000 where Somalis now form some 5% of the population. A similar movement has been observed in the rather different context of Lewiston (Maine). Between 2001 and 2007, this small American town of 36,000 people gained 3,500 Somali migrants, constituting 10% of the population (Kusow, 2007).
Waves of Migration

“Transnational Nomads” a term coined by Cindy Horst in 2006 to describe Somali refugees in Kenya.

Cindy Horst’s book, Transnational Nomads, showed how Somali refugees were able to adapt their "nomadic" heritage to life in refugee camps, including a high degree of mobility and strong social networks that reached beyond the confines of the camp, as far as the US and Europe. The traditional Somali society is rooted in nomadic pastoralism in which mobility is an essential feature of the culture and way of life. Movement in search of pasture and water for the livestock is an economic necessity to maintain the quality of production in the pastoral economy. In previous times mobility was based on the search for peace and better economic opportunities. At times of violent conflict, nomads were forced to migrate temporarily to the neighboring clan territory. Such migration was reversed as soon as the conflict ended and people returned voluntarily to their original territory. Drought was another factor that caused migration in search of water and pasture for the livestock, the lifeline of the economy and the foundation of pastoral livelihoods. This type of migration would last until water and pasture became available in the original territory.

Besides such temporary migration inside Somalia, the footprints of early Somali migrants are visible in different parts of the world, particularly the Arabian Gulf and the homelands of western colonial powers that occupied Somalia in the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries. Early Somalis travelled in the Gulf region for business and religious purposes and went to the west for economic reasons and in search of a better life. The first Somali migrants settled in the UK in the 1880s, laying the foundations for the Somali communities that grew up and still flourish in the UK’s major port cities (Liverpool, Cardiff and London). Further waves of migration began in the 1970s, bringing Somalis to Norway and elsewhere in Europe. These early Somali migrants were actively linked to Somalia through remittances and frequent visits. Seamen from
Northern Somalia remitted money back through Yemeni traders who had representatives inside Somalia.

Since Somalia’s independence in 1960, there have been further waves of Somali migration to the outside world. The first was in the early 1970s, following a long drought season (*dabadheer*) in most of the northern and central regions, which devastated the local economy. This wave of migration was prompted by major loss of livestock in the 1973/4 drought and the lack of employment opportunities in the local economy to aid recovery. At the same time, there was demand for labour in the Gulf, particularly Saudi Arabia, as the oil boom took off. The lifting of certain travel restrictions by the Somali government helped to facilitate migration. The Somali labour force in the Gulf became an important source of hard currency for Somalia at a time when the economy was ailing due to a combination of factors, arising from the transition from a socialist to a market economy, the aftermath of the war with Ethiopia in 1977 and political turmoil inside Somalia.

The Diaspora in the Gulf sent money back to Somalia using the *franco-valuta* system (Gundel 2002). This system resulted from a government policy that lifted import/export restrictions. The *franco-valuta* system enabled Somalia to receive estimated revenue of $370 million (Menkhaus 2008). After 1990, many of the migrants remaining in the Gulf went to Europe and North America as asylum seekers. The main reason for this was that employment opportunities in the Gulf were drying up because of the first Gulf war, while return to Somalia was unattractive due to state collapse and the subsequent civil wars.

The third wave of migration from Somalia has been much the largest and is still continuing. From the late 1980s and early 1990s there has been a continuous exodus of refugees from Somalia to the neighbouring countries. Many of these refugees and their relatives later ended up in Europe, North America and Australia. As they became more established there, they started to feed the Somali economy and support Somali livelihoods with hard currency through remittances. The Diaspora saved the Somali people inside Somalia and throughout the Greater Horn region from economic collapse.
and extreme impoverishment (Menkhaus 2008) at a time of state collapse and widespread insecurity over two consecutive decades.

Some Characteristics of the Somali Diaspora

The three waves of migrants from Somalia can be categorized into the following five categories: The first and oldest group was the seamen from the port cities of the Red Sea, who left Somalia long before independence. These were men with limited formal education and skills. The second group comprised remnants of the Somali labour force that established itself in the Gulf countries during the 1970s and 1980s but were unable to return to Somalia due to political instability. A third, relatively privileged, group comprised those Somalis who had been studying outside Somalia, the diplomatic corps of the Somali state and their families and other Somalis who happened to be outside the country in 1990 at the time of the state collapse.

The fourth group was the refugees who escaped from civil conflict and fled to refugee camps in the neighbouring countries. The first such exodus was out of Somaliland into Ethiopia at the time of the destruction of Hargeisa in 1988. Mass movement of Somali refugees into Kenya occurred in the early 1990s, during the period of intense conflict in Mogadishu and in response to widespread pillage and famine in Southern Somalia. The fifth group was the relatives left behind who later benefited from family reunion programmes and joined their relatives who had settled in the western countries. Still, more came through different channels facilitated by those established outside the country.

Somali migrant groups have different characteristics in terms of age, qualification and level of integration into the host societies. Depending on the reasons for migration, Somali migrants can be broadly classified into three main groupings. The first is the generation of fathers and mothers who settled in the host countries as refugees, often having spent time in refugee camps in neighbouring counties. The second category is the children of these families who either accompanied their parents or were born in the host country. The third category is latest arrivals, the young generation, with or without skills
and educational qualifications, who went to the west for economic reasons, through family reunion programmes or any other means. Of these three groups, the first and the third are most strongly attached to Somalia. They are steadfast in providing help to the relatives left behind by either arranging sponsorship to bring them to the west or sending money back to support them in Somalia. This group is the centripetal force that constantly maintains and reinforces the bonds with the homeland through marriage, philanthropy and business undertakings.

The attitude of the second group, those born or largely raised abroad, is very crucial for the role that Somali migrants might play in the long-term future of Somalia. Their role could be highly significant in the post-conflict transition to peace and development. Detailed empirical research on the attitudes of this group remains to be done. For some, their relationship with Somalia is minimal and they may never have returned to visit the country. Compared to the other groups, they have the highest level of integration with the host communities culturally and in their perceptions. They have limited understanding of the concept of the culturally bound duty to support the extended families left behind and might be resistant to the idea of sending money to Somalia.

On the other hand, there is abundant evidence that Somali Diaspora families who have the necessary means often return to Somalia. Many Somali families residing in Europe opt to spend the summer holidays there, renewing their bonds with their families. Estimates of summer visitors to Somaliland from the UK are as high as 10,000 per annum. The key determining factors appear to be security and affordability. In zones and times of relative security, Diaspora families return, creating a seasonal economy that injects significant amounts of money into local service industry (Menkhaus 2008). Insecurity and displacement caused by the conflicts in 2007/8 interrupted the summer economy in Mogadishu.

The loyalty of the old established Somali community in Cardiff, UK, to their homeland of Somaliland is just one illustration of the resilience of Somali identity in a complex globalised world. By the same token, many second generation Somalis in the Diaspora
are taking a serious interest in the politics of the region and are actively engaged in lobbying and advocacy, as well as promoting philanthropic and development programmes. Such activities are consistent with trends observed in other (non-Somali) Diaspora groups in which nationalist sentiment and a homeland project helps to deal with physical and existential displacement and sustains what sociologists call “an alternative imagined community”. The Somali Diaspora is in this sense a dynamic and evolving community with potential of many kinds.

**Political Engagement**

For close on two decades, the Somali political crisis has represented the most complete and intractable case of state collapse to confront both the Somali people and the international community. Consequently, a number of reconciliation conferences were organized and held outside Somalia. The case of Somaliland in the early 1990s was different and unique due to the collaboration between the Diaspora and the local communities led by a strong and committed traditional leadership inside. Somaliland’s business people largely funded the lengthy reconciliation processes that laid the foundations for its future stability. The collaboration between the different actors inside and outside the country achieved remarkable success in building peace and restoring law and order.

The Somaliland Diaspora has always been an active element in the equation of state building and the restructuring of the political system of the country. A clear illustration of this is the number of Somalis from the Diaspora holding leadership positions in the political institutions of the country. Ten Ministers in a cabinet of 29 are returnees. Two of the three political parties in Somaliland are also led by returnees. The head of one of the two legislative chambers – the Guurti – is a Diaspora returnee, along with 30 members of the 82-member House of Representatives.

Elsewhere in the Somali republic, Puntland differed from the Southern regions. As in Somaliland, the collaboration between the Diaspora, local civic actors and the traditional
leadership succeeded in establishing relative stability and the growth of their own governance structures. Puntland leaders nonetheless attended all the national reconciliation conferences for restoring the Somali state. During the 1990s, these conferences had been dominated by armed faction leaders and space for civilians, including Diaspora representation, was limited. The Arta process of 2000 provided the first real opportunity for the Diaspora from Puntland and the Southern regions to play a meaningful role in Somali national politics. At the same time, civic actors began to assert their role in the political discourse of the country.

The civic actors in general and the Diaspora in particular were highly visible in the parliament, cabinet and top leadership of the state. The first Prime Minister of the Transitional National Government (TNG) was a Diaspora politician and so were several members in the parliament and cabinet. The Diaspora appeared to be a driving force in steering the country’s politics away from the monopoly of the armed groups and helping to empower the unarmed civic actors.

During the Kenyan-led peace process (2002-4), the trend increased for two reasons. The first was the increase in the number of MPs. The Transitional National Parliament had 175 MPs, a figure that rose to 275 for the Transitional Federal Parliament. The figure has now risen to 550 MPs. The second major reason is the growing interest and involvement of the Diaspora in politics, reinforced by the perception within the clans that they deserve recognition for their role in supporting the clan at times of crisis.

The proportion of Diaspora representatives in the TFG continues to grow. In January 2008, the Prime Minister and two-thirds of the cabinet (10 out of 15 Ministers) were Diaspora members. In the cabinet appointed in February 2009, the Prime Minister and half of the cabinet (18 out of 37 Ministers) are Diaspora returnees. In addition to the Ministerial positions, most of the senior civil servants were also from Diaspora. The Diaspora members in national politics have national character in which all Somali clans are represented. An assessment of the contribution of these Diaspora members to the reconstruction of the political system of Somalia is beyond the scope of this report.
However, national-level political involvement has undoubtedly become one of the most significant arenas of Diaspora re-engagement in the country.

In matters of peace and conflict, the Diaspora has proved to be a double-edged sword. At times, it has contributed to fuelling the conflicts that destroy, while at other times it has acted as a lifeline and safety net for millions who would otherwise have perished. In the early 90s, during internecine clan conflicts, the Diaspora was a powerful engine that drove the conflict into unimaginable proportion of social, political and economic destruction. Indeed Cindy Horst has observed that “the most likely source of financial income for clan disputes comes from clan members in the Diaspora, and committees are set up in Somalia, occasionally combined with initiatives outside Somalia, to tap this source in a structured way.” Evidence collected in Norway indicates that during 1994, payment of individual monthly sums of $300 were not uncommon. In some cases, funds were being raised from opposing clans in conflict living alongside each other in Norway.” Aggregate figures are harder to obtain, but sums between $500,000 and $5 million have reportedly been raised in support of clan conflicts (Horst 2008).

Contributing to conflicts in the home country is a common characteristic of the global Diaspora. Less well recognized has been the financial role of the Somali Diaspora in conflict resolution and peace building. This has not been limited to shutting off the resources that fuel conflict, but has also involved pooled tangible funds to invest in local reconciliation. The experience of the Centre for Research and Dialogue (CRD) in local reconciliation attests to the strong participation of the Diaspora in defusing tensions and providing finance to support elders resolving clan conflicts (CRD 2007). CRD reports Diaspora delegations of clans in conflict visited the areas as one team, facilitated local reconciliation by injecting financial incentives in Diya payments, and promised to rehabilitate local facilities such as schools and health clinics as incentives to sustain the peace. The Diaspora role in local peace building extends to supporting local actors to establish administrations at local, regional and national levels.
Finally, it should be noted that not everyone welcomes Diaspora involvement in politics. Many people criticize the role of the Diaspora and their impact on the reconstruction of state institutions. The returning Diaspora are criticised at times as opportunists who return in peacetime but have the chance to run away when a problem arises, instead of assisting its resolution. However, the Diaspora politicians argue the expectation and the demand from their intervention is very high, while political change is a time-consuming phenomenon in which the impact can only be felt long after engagement. The question of Diaspora intervention and the return of Diaspora in general are not free from controversy.

**Economic Support to Somalia**

“Few countries in the world possess Diasporas with as much economic and political importance to their homeland as does Somalia” Ken Menkhaus

(i) **Remittances**

Whatever their demographic, gender and qualification differences, the Somali Diaspora is a major contributor to the livelihoods of Somalis and to recovery and development in general. In 2004, the worldwide Somali Diaspora was estimated to send remittances worth between $750 million and $1 billion to Somalia each year (UNDP, 2002), making the country the fourth most remittance dependent country in the world. The amount includes support given to individual families and other relatives and friends, contributions to aid and development and investment in small and medium enterprises.

Like the Diaspora population statistics, reliable estimates of the aggregate volume of remittances to Somalia are difficult to obtain. Estimates from the remittance companies involve access to commercially sensitive information and it is not easy to disaggregate transfers of funds within the Diaspora from the amounts sent in to the country. It is not possible to distinguish between funds transferred for livelihood support and investments in land property and business either. Recent research reports Diaspora remittance transfers of $1.6 bn to Somalia and $700 million to Somaliland (Lindley 2007). The other
way of measuring remittances is through surveys of household income, but people tend to under report their income. A 2002 household survey indicated incomes of just US$360 million (Quoted by Lindley).

The remittances from the Diaspora represent about 23% of the Somali household income (UNDP/World Bank 2003) but are unevenly distributed across the country. People living in towns are more likely to have relatives living abroad and benefit disproportionately from Diaspora assistance. A household survey in Hargeisa found up to 25% of households claiming remittances as their sole source of income. They were used to cover living expenses and to pay for education and health services (Lindley 2007). Another study found that 40% of Somali households benefited from the money sent by the Diaspora. In addition, 80% of the start-up capital for the SMEs in Somalia benefit from this money (Chalmers and Hassan, 2008).

Remittance transfer used to be the preserve of men but there is evidence from Norway that women are increasingly important contributors. The benefits of sending money back home are not limited to the economic well-being of those left behind, but also have important social significance. Besides being a lifeline, the remittances are the glue that binds together families separated by physical distances. Laura Hammond argues “Remittance results in strengthening of this transnational community that exists in multiple localities. … inability or failure to remit can weaken the social ties, sow the seeds of conflict and alienation of the sender”. (Hammond 2007).

Although it is outside the scope of this report, it should be observed that the substantial support from the Diaspora is not without its own social cost. The perceived obligation to send money to the family and relatives left behind poses economic and social stresses and strains for members of a community that also face major challenges in their country of residence. These include limited employability due to lack of skills, lack of transferability of qualifications gained elsewhere in the world, race factors and a sense of alienation.
There is little evidence as yet of “remittance fatigue”. As Somali communities become more established and economically successful in the Diaspora, the trend could even be to increase. There are however a number of factors that could lead to a reduction in remittances in the future. The first is the phenomenon of an aging Diaspora with less employment opportunity. But on the whole the Somali demographic suggests a youthful profile (The US 2001 census calculated a median of just 26 years). Age and cultural difference among the old and the young generations could lead to lessening of bonds to Somalia, but there is no real evidence that this has occurred. Dissatisfaction with the way that money is used could cause a loss of interest, but evidence from the UK indicates that the Somali Diaspora believes that their own assistance is properly used and that they have achieved much better levels of accountability, both social and financial, than international donors. A final factor to be considered is the economic crisis in the west and the prospect that this could reduce the resources available to send back home.

(ii) Economic Recovery

The Somali Diaspora has a visible role as a motor of change in the nascent market economy and the recovery process in general. A good example is how Somaliland has succeeded in attracting its Diaspora to contribute money, skills and professional expertise despite the lack of formal diplomatic recognition from the international community (Cassanelli 2007). However big the Diaspora contribution might be it cannot be a panacea for development problems in the homeland, although the literature suggests that if properly tapped, such assistance can contribute to development and the reduction of poverty (House of Commons 2004).

The Somali Diaspora has brought significant investment into the local economies. Establishing small and medium enterprises is another quantum leap for the informal local economy. Investment usually takes the form of either establishing a new business individually or as a group from the Diaspora or part investment and part leading the business at executive level. Most of the major companies in the country fall into one of these categories. A top manager of a big telecommunication company informed the writer
that 30% – 40% of their shareholders are from the Diaspora. Besides investment, most of these major companies are also managed and led by Diaspora.

The business intervention of the Diaspora is spread over a wide range of sub-sectors, such as small-scale industries, telecommunication, construction, remittances and trade. The scope, level of investment and geographical distribution of the products or services delivered from these business sub-sectors are different. However, these investments have all created employment opportunities, which improve the livelihoods of many families, and also provide affordable services, gave revenue to the government and introduced new ways of doing business as a culture of good practices for the local businesses.

Examples include modern real estate facilities in the cities of Somalia, the Coca Cola factory in Mogadishu and the burgeoning Information Communication and Technology (ICT) industry managed by the telecommunication companies operating throughout Somalia. The Somali Diaspora investment in the economy is particularly important, since they alone have been willing to risk investment in a climate of great uncertainty and economic risk. The role of the Diaspora in economic recovery has provided a foundation for political reconstruction in many regions of Somalia (Cassanelli 2007).

HornAfrik, the first FM radio established in Mogadishu, was a Diaspora undertaking. This was followed by successive creations of new outlets. The positive contribution of the FM radios in Mogadishu is another example of the Diaspora acting as change agents. The early media outlets opened political space for the public through talk shows, direct interviews and teleconferencing of Somalis inside Somalia, the Diaspora, and sometimes the internationals who follow Somali affairs and the diplomatic corps of other countries. This media space enabled people to express their views freely. The media outlets portray not only the suffering of the Somali people but also the good side of Somali life, including the beauty of the landscape and the potential investment opportunities of the local economy. They present the success stories in both for profit and for not for profit undertakings.
In Somaliland, the contribution of the Diaspora in business is very high. Most of the visible business in Hargeisa is either owned or managed by returnees. Peter Hansen has described the expatriate returnees as “a transnational aristocracy” (Quoted by Lindley). These Diaspora men and women took enormous risks to invest their lifetime savings in a place where uncertainty remains very high. As Hassan Ahmed Bulbul, a Diaspora owner of a hotel and restaurant in Hargeisa, explained, “There was no guidance and support available at the time I came back with very limited Diaspora returnees on the ground who could give guidance and support regarding the pitfalls to avoid and locally appropriate approaches to use when starting business in Hargeisa”.

Among the major challenges the returning Diaspora identified were the lack of any business incubator facility established by the government or organized associations for the young and mostly inexperienced returnees. Even those who had past experience from their host countries found their experience were not always appropriate for the local context. Another obvious gap is the lack of official banking and financial institutions. Self-reliance is essential in a “Do all by yourself environment” with business people having to provide their own facilities, infrastructure and training. As yet there is little common organization among the returning Diaspora. They come individually and have to face the challenges as best they can. They are not organized and lack a common voice to address the multiple challenges and give support to new returnees. As a result, every returning member has to go through the same painful path that the first returnees went through.

In partnerships with local people, mismatch in ways of doing business from the experience of the host countries and traditional Somali business practices can create confusion and sometimes conflict. Business people have found it difficult, and in many places impossible, to bring in new ideas such as franchised business due to the absence of an adequate regulatory framework. New businesses lack government protection and many small-scale industries are knocked out from the market due to the penetration of imported goods of superior quality and in many instances cheaper. In other cases, the Diaspora suspect they are treated as people with money to give and risk being unfairly
treated, overcharged or misled. The last but not the least challenge is the fast changing field of technology and workforce training requirements that the local companies have limited capacity to meet. Although there are big telecommunication companies, there is not one telecommunication school in Somalia. This imposed the companies to bear the burden of developing a workforce to operate very delicate and sophisticated technology.

Despite these many challenges, the Somali Diaspora remains the driving force behind the current informal economy. In many parts of Somalia, the Diaspora established and supported organizations are the major sources of employment for the local labour market. This represents a major contribution to the livelihoods of many Somali families. The telecommunication companies, financial sector and small industries are among the major employers. Many of these economic endeavours are cross-cutting in the Somali regions. The cross-cutting character of business has also contributed to local peace building and forged links between different communities. This applies not only inside Somalia, but also in neighbouring countries and across the wider world wherever large communities of Somalis are concentrated.

(iii) Humanitarian and Emergency Assistance

Somali business has played a key role in mobilizing humanitarian assistance at times of crisis. Somali websites, FM radios and TVs established as business operations by the Diaspora are outlets that expose and portray the suffering of the less fortunate Somalis that have no relatives or friends in the Diaspora but still need assistance. Most of the Diaspora contribution to humanitarian emergency aid came about as a result of the combined effort and influence of the local and Diaspora media outlets. The media outlets received and dispersed cash handouts sent by the Diaspora to unknown victims they had seen or heard about from the websites and radios.

The role of the Diaspora in supporting local organizations is at its peak when humanitarian crises overwhelm the resources of local organizations, for example during crises such as the droughts, floods or medical needs to help the victims of violent
conflict. There are numerous examples of interventions of this kind when Somalis step in to help other Somalis. In these interventions, the Diaspora contribution is highly visible. In the drought of 2006 in the southern regions of Somalia, a drought committee established in Mogadishu in March 2006 received US$ 600,000 after a campaign to raise awareness among Somalis of the situation of the victims in drought-affected regions. More than US$ 100,000 was raised in a four-hour fundraising programme through the radio organized by SIMAD\(^3\) and HornAfrik Media Inc in collaboration with three major telecommunication companies\(^4\) in Mogadishu.

Emergencies such as these are recognised as a national issue that transcends local particularities or affinities to the victims. The drought appeal of 2006 received contributions from Somalis inside and outside the affected regions. The ranges of contributions during that night ranged from So.Sh. 15,000 from a mother in an IDP camp in Mogadishu to $15,000 from a businessperson in Dubai. However, the majority of the contributions that night came from the Diaspora in the UK. In another example, in 2007/8, the Coalition of Grassroots Women Organizations (COGWO) raised funds in support of 23 victims suffering from rape injuries and other diseases that were incurable in Somalia and the region. COGWO successfully raised more than US $188,000, mainly from the Somali Diaspora in US, UK, Canada, South Africa and Uganda.

Another example is the recent case of the Hargeisa bombings. In response to the attack, members of the Somaliland Diaspora were able to despatch urgent specialised medical supplies to Hargeisa Hospital from Dubai within hours of the incident. According to Dr. Yasin Arab, the hospital was short of the necessary supplies and several lives would have been lost without the timely provision of the appropriate medicines for those injured in the bomb blasts.

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\(^3\) SIMAD is the acronym of Somali Institute of Management and Administration Development.

\(^4\) The three companies were Hormuud, Telecom Somalia and NationLink.
(iv) Development Assistance (Service Delivery)

In addition to emergency responses, the Somali Diaspora has played a strong positive role in seeking to address multiple development deficits of present day Somalia. Diaspora organizations have supported or established service delivery facilities and many are organised to provide regular funding flows to pay salaries in schools or hospitals. Among many examples are the support of (UK-based) Nomad International to the accident and emergency department of Hargeisa Hospital, the role of Mooragaabey in supporting education in Bay and Bakool regions and the reopening of Banadir Hospital in Mogadishu. The scale and complexity of such development assistance can vary. Bur Saalax education project in Puntland is a boarding school established by a Diaspora group, where more than 320 children are given education, shelter and food. Besides building the facility (classrooms, dormitories, offices, etc), the Diaspora spends more than US$ 9,000 every month for the maintenance of the project, in addition to contributions in kind from the UN agencies such as WFP and UNICEF.

Besides such examples, where financial inputs are the major factor that made the difference, the Somali Diaspora contributes ideas, skills and new ways of doing things. This includes establishing and running institutions that provide public services. Hayatt Hospital and Arafat Specialist Hospital in Mogadishu are good examples. The East Africa University and Dayax Islamic Bank in Bosasso and Amoud University in Somaliland are among the good examples of Diaspora established and mainly Diaspora run institutions. The Diaspora has demonstrated a sustained commitment to supporting the emerging higher education institutions. Contributing to the university libraries, university computer laboratories, and above all the capacity building of the university staff is a landmark achievement of the Diaspora.

Furthermore, the Diaspora has supported local civic organizations to tackle problems that local organizations/NGOs cannot address alone. The case of COGWO, which sponsors patients with health problems that cannot be resolved in Somalia and the region, in collaboration with Healing the Children of Minnesota is a good example of the
interaction between the Somali Diaspora and local humanitarian aid organizations. In this collaboration, a number of rape victims with consequent health complications and others with diseases such as cancers that require sophisticated medical operations have been flown into Minnesota and operated successfully.

The practice of supporting the home region/area within Somalia is becoming a culture or part of the traditional obligation of supporting the extended family left behind. Most of the humanitarian and development interventions of the Somali Diaspora take place in one of three ways. The first is the regular flow of the remittances that provide a lifeline and safety net for the Somali people inside Somalia and those scattered in the refugee countries in the neighbouring countries. The second is the regular support for an existing institution to deliver public services. There are educational and health facilities throughout the country that continuously receive support from the Diaspora. Most of the supported services are situated in the home region or district of the supporters. The third form of assistance is when there are emergencies and crises such as droughts and floods. In this case, the support is not regionalized and is mainly observed as a religious obligation to support a needy fellow Somali. In many cases, it not institutionalized. It takes place informally and through prominent individuals who the people trust due to their role in supporting and advocacy for the vulnerable in the past.

(iv) Human Resources

The Diaspora is especially relevant to economies in transition on account of its potential to address shortages of key skills and resources, which can accelerate the dynamics of the transition. The QUESTS project of UNDP Somalia was an initiative intended to encourage the Somali Diaspora to serve their country with their expertise in the development and governance sectors to accelerate the recovery process of Somalia.

The Diaspora has been supported in the transfer knowledge and skills through the QUESTS project of UNDP. Through QUESTS, the Diaspora has contributed necessary expertise in both public and private local institutions. In 2007, the number of QUESTS
placements of the Diaspora experts in different institutions was 50\(^5\), while in 2008 the number increased to 82\(^6\) placements. More than 100\(^7\) institutions that support the Somali people benefited from the QUESTS project in capacity building, supporting policy formulation and institutional development in general. Besides the above benefits, the QUESTS project is a good attempt to reverse the brain drain of Somalia.

**Trends of Diaspora Activities and Interests**

The sustained engagement of the Diaspora in politics, the economy, development, service delivery and philanthropy has resulted in the growth of a strong informal relationship that cuts across the various sectors of Diaspora engagement and contributes to a mutually reinforcing network of interlinked activities. This has helped indirectly to strengthen the understanding and use of the services provided by the other civic groups. In this complementary web of engagements, the service of one group reinforces the delivery of the other. For example, businesses use the media to advertise, promote new products, new services and raise public awareness of their products. The more businesses use the media the more media airtime is available to inform about the economic and investment opportunities in different parts of Somalia. Similarly, the media exposes the sufferings of the vulnerable or victims of misfortune to well-off Somalis in the business community and abroad who raise funds for their assistance.

Symbiotic relationships of this sort can be seen across the range of Diaspora supported activities. The provision of remittances fuels the local market for Diaspora business, which in turn provides jobs and helps to reduce dependence on remittances and potentially releases more funds for investment in business and jobs for livelihoods. Successful reconciliation and peace building enhances business activity and vice versa. It also opens up further space for engagement by the Diaspora in political life or in administrative activity through QUESTS. Sustained Diaspora support to institutions that

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\(^5\) QUESTS Annual Report 2007 (unpublished)  
\(^6\) QUESTS Annual Report 2008 (unpublished)  
\(^7\) Ibid
provide public services – schools, hospitals, etc – represent a longer-term investment in home communities that also could reduce dependency on remittances.

By all these means the Diaspora can act as catalysts of change at local, regional and national levels. It is a phenomenon recognised worldwide that the Diaspora is the key actors for countries in transition, whether this transition is from conflict to peace or from dictatorship to democracy. Despite uncertainty and risk, they bring new political and economic ideas, new skills and monies and, above all, new ways of doing things in a country that needs them.

Looking back at the Somali Diaspora footprint of the last two decades, there is a positive trend in long-term political, social and economic reconstruction and recovery. Albert Hirschman (1958) noted that “Development is not so much about allocation of existing resources but rather about mobilizing resources that are hidden, scattered or badly utilized”. The characteristics of the Somali Diaspora as a major source for post-conflict recovery and development fit the above quote.

There are factors and conditions on the ground that encourage the return of the Diaspora while other factors discourage them to return. A key determinant for return is security. Since most of the Diaspora left home country because of insecurity, they put security as their top priority: “high level of security, high level of return; low level of security, low return”. Uncertainty in the local security situation hinders return and often prompts returnees to go back to their host country. The main motivator for return is affection for the home country and people. This is a highly motivating factor for older people and those who get satisfaction from working in aid delivery. The third factor returnees indicate was the stress of life in the host countries, involving long hours of work, limited opportunities to socialize, coupled with inhibitions to the Somali entrepreneurial culture which can be practiced easily in the home country.

Factors that discourage the return of the Diaspora, particularly those who want to invest heavily, include fear of a return to conflict. This uncertainty about local security keeps
many Diaspora members from returning or, even if they do return, to limit their investment and time. There is also fear of failure in business, which compounds the risks of leaving an established life in the host country and putting limited savings in a business operating under considerable risk. Lack of local information also creates uncertainty and discourages investment. The third factor that discourages return is the lack of conduciveness of the local environment, such the standard of infrastructure, hygiene and health facilities, and public law enforcement mechanisms on the ground.

Since the Somali Diaspora is new and in most places the first generation is still dominant, one cannot equate their support network with that of their better-established counterparts, such the Chinese and Tamils. The Somali Diaspora is still at an early stage of formation but is already having impact inside Somalia and in some countries it is reaching the consolidation stage. However, one of the most enduring challenges they face is the division of the Diaspora community, both inside and outside the home country. The Somali Diaspora shares all the characteristics of a post-conflict society. All the factors that divide the Somalis inside their country also divide the Diaspora. As a result, the Diaspora is organized neither in the host country nor in the home country. This division denies them a common voice, which could otherwise help to promote the changes necessary to speed the country’s political and economic recovery.

The size and strength of the Diaspora is in large part a product of the lack of functioning state institutions in Somalia that would otherwise have tapped the hidden, scattered and badly utilized resources it contains. The challenge remains whether and how the Diaspora can deploy its resources – financial, intellectual, social and political – to achieve reconciliation and a stable political and economic order in the country.

The Report entitled “Somalia’s Missing Millions: the Role of the Diaspora in Somali Development” was presented to a workshop organized by UNDP in Nairobi on 13 March 2009. The findings and recommendations of the forum are elaborated below.
Summary Findings and Recommendations of the Workshop Assessing the Diaspora’s Contribution to Somalia (Nairobi, 13 March 2009)

The workshop brought together over 40 Somali participants, including Somalis from five continents: North America, Europe, Asia, Australia and Africa. It combined scholars and researchers, fund-raising organizations in the Diaspora, organizations delivering assistance in different parts of Somalia and UN development agencies and donors. (The participant list and agenda is attached at Annexes 2 and 4 respectively).

The purpose of the workshop was to review and enrich the findings of the report and to develop recommendations about a future partnership for development between the Diaspora and UNDP. UNDP Resident Representative Mark Bowden opened the meeting and explained that UNDP recognised the vital role that the Diaspora was playing in both development and humanitarian assistance. Their assistance created a safety net for Somalis that development agencies had not been able to provide. Assistance from the Diaspora was at least as important as the help provided by the international development community. Recognising the very real challenges that the Somali Diaspora faces in trying to promote development in their home regions, UNDP was looking to understand the assistance better and facilitate it to the best of their ability.

The Remittance Economy

Presentations and discussion of the “International Perspective” focused chiefly on financial remittances and their consequences. Some doubts were cast upon the reliability of estimates used in the report (over $2bn in remittance flows) given the shortage of comprehensive data on money flows within the Hawala networks. Participants believed that much of this total might not be destined for Somalia itself but could instead be supporting Somalis in need outside the country or used in business ventures. There was evidence from Somaliland to suggest that 13% of the funds remitted were for investment.

Panelists and participants drew attention to the negative aspects of the remittance economy. It was noted that at least half a million of the estimated one million Somalis
outside the country were refugees registered with UNHCR and themselves living in great hardship. This emphasized the very considerable financial burden that was placed on those Somalis who had established themselves in more favourable environments. Research findings attested to the difficult choices and considerable sacrifices made by Somalis outside to sustain help to those within the country. A growing proportion of the remittances were coming from women in the Diaspora. The drain on resources was a possible contributing factor to US research findings of the low socio-economic status of Somalis relative to other East Africa migrants. There was evidence from London that Somalis were remitting on average 11% of their income. It was argued that the strain of providing assistance on such a scale could constitute an obstacle to successful integration and economic advancement of Somalis settled outside.

A key concern of the workshop was that reliance on a remittance economy was not sustainable. In the short term, the credit crunch could be expected to result in a sharp reduction in remittance flows. In the longer run, it was assumed that younger generations of Somalis growing up as part of communities overseas would stop remitting on this scale. Apart from fears about sustainability, other negative effects of remittances were observed. The funds were for the most part unproductive, and mainly used for consumption. Little research had been done on the impact or use of remittances but it was believed that it helped to foster attitudes of dependency inside Somalia. Another negative aspect of remittances, and especially pertinent to the development agenda, was that they failed to address the needs of the poorest, most of whom received no assistance at all.

**Social Remittances**

Professor Abdi Kusow introduced the concept of “social remittances” into the discussion, referring to the potential for skills and knowledge, or human capital, to flow from the Diaspora to Somalia. The value of social remittances depended on Somali communities establishing themselves successfully overseas and building their own skills and capability. As this occurred it could be expected that the nature of economic remittances would evolve with a shift from gifts for purely personal consumption to more community
and development-minded assistance. Such a change represented a change in Diaspora attitudes from reactive to proactive support and could entail a willingness to think of assistance “beyond the community”, including the needs of the poor and marginalised.

Panelists and participants working inside Somalia urged some caution over social remittances, noting that traditional Somali methods had proven their relevance in reconciliation and peace building in many parts of the country. Other developments, including a “Renaissance in Education” had occurred under exclusively Somali ownership and the Somali run universities inside the country were probably the most effective institutions in the country. However, there was acknowledgement that the Diaspora had more to offer than their cash and possessed management skills and institutional experience that could be better harnessed for development.

Towards Development Partnership

The key purpose of the workshop was to identify what UNDP as a development agency could do to enhance the development efforts of the Diaspora more effectively. Examples were provided of some Diaspora based or funded organizations that were working in partnership with UNDP and other UN agencies. Dr Hansen pointed out the potential for donor development agencies to develop projects with Diaspora organizations in their own countries, provided that capacity building was included and procedures for funding were not too onerous. He cautioned against development agencies disrupting the much-needed Diaspora support networks and encouraged an approach that built on existing systems that had proved their worth. UNDP also outlined the evolution of the QUESTS project for bringing suitably skilled people from the Diaspora into development programmes.

During a break-out period for discussion, workshop participants considered what kind of assistance from UNDP and the UN would help to facilitate the development activities of Diaspora groups. A list of the recommendations that were put forward is attached (Annex 1).
A number of common threads emerged. First, there were signs of a real interest in a development partnership that recognised the unique knowledge and access that the Diaspora could bring to the relationship. The first requirement to develop this was much greater communication and dialogue. Diaspora groups did not necessarily have much information about the work of UNDP or other UN agencies working in key areas of interest to them, notably the education and health sectors. Filling the knowledge gap, on both sides, would help to show where the synergies could be found. Another requirement was the need for capacity building to enable Diaspora organizations, many of them small and voluntary, to develop the tools needed to engage with donors.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The Diaspora remains politically fragmented, but a common picture emerged as to how its many components were working to support those at home. The workshop provided a rare opportunity for Diaspora participants and Somalis working inside the country to share ideas and learn from their experiences in different countries abroad and in different regions of the country. It is possible to consider ways of helping to address these common development challenges despite the absence of a common Diaspora voice.

The workshop illustrated the common interest that exists between Diaspora groups and UNDP and other development agencies to support Somali development and economic recovery. UNDP indicated its readiness to find ways to facilitate and enhance support for Diaspora led activities. Participants agreed that there was potential to build a new kind of development partnership in various sectors. UNDP will now consider developing mechanisms through which the UN and international development partners can link up with the Diaspora community and put this partnership into practice.

The participants from the workshop were divided into four groups, comprising development, business, humanitarian and peace building. The recommendations that came out from each group are summarized here, while the details are presented in Annex 1. The recommendations can be divided into two categories – one with a short time
horizon and the other long-term. Actions that need to be taken immediately as a follow up to the workshop include:

- Establish an e-network among participants of the workshop to share findings and recommendations and as a basis for future consultation.

- Share information on the workshop (report and findings) among all UN agencies and encourage use of the network to disseminate information about the full range of UN projects and programmes.

- Explore the possibility of developing separate platforms on sectors where Diaspora groups invest most heavily for development (e.g. schools, health) and means to triangulate these platforms with relevant local authorities.

- Prioritise the sector(s) in which the UN and UNDP is best equipped to facilitate Diaspora assistance, such as strengthening the social safety net, improving the business climate and continuing programmes to harness skills and knowledge for development purposes. More specifically, the interventions should target the poorest of the poor, who are currently not beneficiaries. The UN needs to explore ways in which these vulnerable groups benefit and are supported by the Diaspora, international agencies and development partners.

- Identify additional information mapping and research needs in priority sector(s) as a basis for pilot programmes in different regions.

- Make the revamped QUESTS programme more accessible and possibly involve Diaspora in design of the next phase.

The longer-term goal will be towards establishing channels for undertaking joint efforts to achieve operational effectiveness and greater coordination for humanitarian assistance and development. Here, the role of the Diaspora in promoting development, expanding business opportunities, providing humanitarian assistance and peace building is
elaborated. There was general consensus on forging a strong partnership between the UN and the international community with the Diaspora and taking a common approach to capacity development and engagement based on the institutional mandates and areas of work. A summary of the major issues that came out from the workshop are also presented below:

The participants from the development group highlighted the important role played by the Diaspora in Somalia and how it channelled its support based on local knowledge and conditions, which many times was not reflected in donor programmes and interventions. The issue that needed to be tackled here was how to draw upon local knowledge in assessments, focusing on service orientation in partnership with the Diaspora. New partnerships need to be developed for effective service delivery and the promotion of public private partnership.

The role of the Diaspora in funding start-up medium and small enterprises and in the management of business enterprises in Somalia was highlighted by the participants of the business group. This group felt it was important for the international community to support business diversity and focus on enhancing local production. The group highlighted the importance of social corporate responsibility and gender mainstreaming in the interventions, and emphasized on how the UN and the international community could come together with the Diaspora to promote this culture. The group also identified areas – infrastructure, legal frameworks and local institutional capacity – where the two parties could mobilize efforts to overcome business constraints to create a conducive environment that complies with global regulations. By way of facilitating the development of local business associations, the group suggested the international community can support the forging of Somali partnerships with global business networks.

The humanitarian group highlighted the important role the Diaspora has played as an enabler of rapid response and delivery during times of natural disasters. They have also played a key role in delivering key safety nets and this role can be expanded by strengthening their capacity to engage with UN logistical resources and make better use
of UN response capacity, with the support of the UN system. The partnership with the Diaspora can be used to strengthen the linkage with the local communities to provide more effective local response through rapid response committees and improved information management.

The Diaspora can play a positive role in peace building through their engagement with traditional leadership and inclusion in local national peace processes. The UN and the international community could support the Diaspora to be more systematically engaged in peace building through closer participation and involvement in international processes and effective support to traditional mechanisms. The Diaspora can also play a more effective role in promoting a culture of peace through internal dialogue within the Diaspora community in support of peaceful resolution of conflicts rather than fuelling conflict. The international community can also assist the Diaspora to strengthen their engagement at the political level, with the local political parties and institutions.
Annex 1: List of Recommendations from the Discussion Groups

Development Group

- Improve communication.
- Develop mechanisms to streamline Diaspora projects/prioritise according to need/support on basis of merit/effectiveness.
- Partner with Diaspora organizations for service delivery.
- Undertake mapping/cataloguing of Diaspora/NGO projects on the ground.
- Enhance funding for a UN/Diaspora partnership focusing on PPP and dynamic sectors.
- Consult with Diaspora on new UN/Diaspora development projects.
- Enhance Diaspora organizations’ capacity to work on equal basis with donor community/advocate for participation of Diaspora in development on an equal basis/enable Diaspora organizations to become more effective while retaining their identity.
- Develop community-based needs assessment and channel assistance through these assessments.
- Improve infrastructure building projects.
- Develop a strategic plan for prioritising service delivery, with involvement of all stakeholders.
- Integrate rural development into all development projects.

Business Group

- Encourage capacity building across the board.
- Be more developmental.
- Encourage more production than service industry.
- Encourage business diversity.
- Provide information on, support and engage in Public Private Partnerships.
- Encourage Corporate Social Responsibility e.g. stop selling out-of-date drugs.
- Find ways to build up and support remittances, and transport, telecommunications businesses.
- Develop mechanisms to encourage Somali business groups to work together, developing their capacity and facilitating their engagement with counterparts in other countries.
- Assist in the formation of Chambers of Commerce to coordinate business councils.
- Develop strategies to promote research on Somali businesses (in and outside of Somalia).

Humanitarian Group

- Build trust between UN agencies and Diaspora organizations. Help build accountability tools that work for both sides.
• Build official relationships between UNDP and Diaspora organizations.
• Create localised rapid response committees that can co-ordinate with locals at time of acute emergency need.
• Improve information sharing on UN activities and reciprocal information-sharing with Diaspora about the local situation.
• Accept role/delivery assistance from Diaspora/local organizations when security is problematic for UN agencies.

Peace Building Group

• Encourage Diaspora to help with capacity building for local NGOs, and in employment and skill training.
• Provide peace radio programmes, promoting culture of peace, peace education programmes.
• Promote respect for human rights and minority rights.
• Support use of traditional systems for peace-making.
• Consult widely on the constitution, including Diaspora views.
• Facilitate Diaspora participation in peace talks.
## Annex 2: List of Participants

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<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Organization</th>
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<tr>
<td>Abdi Jama Ghedi</td>
<td>Daryel Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abdi Kusow (Prof)</td>
<td>Oakland University, Michigan, USA</td>
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<td>Abdinur Sh. Mohamed</td>
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<td>Abdirahman Hussein</td>
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<td>Abdirahman Omar</td>
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<td>Abdirashid A. Ainanshi</td>
<td>Hormuud Telecom</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abdirazak Mohamed Ahmed</td>
<td>Puntland Diaspora Network</td>
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<td>Abduba Mollu Ido</td>
<td>CIDA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abdullahi Abdinoor</td>
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Annex 3: Note on Sources

The literature of population movement and dispersal (migration) is of two main kinds. The first puts emphasis on the relationship between the migrants and host country, and the second looks at the interaction of migrants with their country of origin, which is the focus of this study. The relationship is considered in the wider international context of globalization and associated population movement. For the purpose of this study, we will use the term Diaspora as defined by African Foundation for Development (AFFORD)... “Peoples formed through dispersal (for whatever reason) but who maintain a memory of and links with “home”, the place of origin”.

While there is an established literature on the generic subject of Diasporas and their relationships, scholarly research on the Somali Diaspora, that is research grounded on empirical findings, is still very much in its infancy. Several scholars are undertaking pioneering research work on the subject of the Somali Diaspora (leading figures include Abdi M Kusow, Anna Lindley, A.O. Farah, Joakim Gundel, Cindy Horst, Peter Hansen). Some of the leading international scholars on Somalia (Ken Menkhaus, Lee Cassanelli) are also shedding new light on the subject. However, a great deal more research will be required before the accumulation of studies begins to approximate a full picture of an extremely dynamic, fast-changing and still highly mobile Somali community. Fortunately such research can be said to be in progress.

References Cited in the Text and Sources Consulted


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Interpeace; "The Search for Peace: Community Based Peace Processes in South Central Somalia" (2008).
Annex 4: Workshop Agenda

Venue: Safari Park Hotel
Friday 13 March, 8.30 am – 5.30 pm

Session One: Introduction

08.30 Welcome and opening remarks: Mark Bowden, UNDP Resident Representative and UN Resident Coordinator, Somalia

08.40 Remarks: Mr. Charles Petrie, UN Deputy Special Representative to the Secretary General (DSRSG)/UNPOS

08.50 Introduction to the workshop: Sally Healy (Consultant), Hibo Yassin (COSPE)

Session Two: Report on the Diaspora Contribution to Somalia

09.00 – 09.40 Introducing the report “The Diaspora Contribution to Somalia”: Outline of report and key findings: Hassan Sheikh (Consultant), Sally Healy

09.40 – 10.00 Q & A

10.00 – 10.15 Refreshment/Break

Session Three: Contrasting the International and the Somali Perspective

10.15 – 11.30 The International Experience: Diaspora Perspectives
Chair: Mark Bowden

10.15 – 10.45 “Diasporic Somaliness: Transnational Migration and Social and Economic Remittance in Stateless Global Context” Professor Abdi M Kusow (USA)

10.45 – 11.15 Views from Europe: Mohamed Hassan Aden (UK), Farah Abdulsamed (Sweden)

11.15 – 11.30 Q & A

11.30 – 12.30 Somali Experience: Perspectives from Somali Communities
Chair: Professor Mohammad Jawari
Panelists: Zaynab Ayan Ahmed (Bosasso), Hassan Ahmed Hussein (Hargeisa), Maryan Sheikh Osman; Farah Sheikh Abdulkadir (Mogadishu)

12.30 – 13.45 Lunch break

Session Four: Donors, Development and the Diaspora

13.45 – 14.30 Working with the UN
Chair: Graham Farmer, Representative (FAO)
Panelists: Abdurashid Ali, Executive Director, Somali Family Services (SFS, USA), Ali Mohamed (Mooragabey, UK)

14.30 - 15.15 Possible Mechanisms for Donor/Diaspora engagement
Chair: Mark Bowden
Panelists: Dr Peter Hansen, Denmark, Barbara-Anne Krijgsman, QUESTS/Governance (UNDP)
15.15 - 15.30  
*Refreshment/break*

**Session Five: Break Out and Discussions**

15.30 - 16.30  
Break out session: Challenges and Opportunities  
Working groups on (i) business; (ii) humanitarian; (iii) peace building; (iv) development

16.30 – 17.00  
Plenary and Feedback from sessions  
Chair: Sriram Pande, Senior Economist, UNDP

**Session Six: Conclusion**

17.00 –17.30  
Wrap up and concluding recommendations: Sally Healy, Hassan Sheikh

17.30  
Closing Remarks: Charles Petrie and Graham Farmer

Facilitators: Sally Healy (Consultant), Hibo Yassin (COSPE, INGO);  
Master of ceremonies: Moe Hussein, Liaison Officer, UN