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COPING WITH THE DROUGHT CRISIS IN SOMALIA: FORMATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS FROM THE RESILIENCE POPULATION MEASUREMENT (RPM) PROJECT

May 2023

ABOUT THE RESILIENCE POPULATION-LEVEL MEASUREMENT ACTIVITY (RPM)

The Somalia Resilience Population-Level Measurement Activity (RPM) is a Mercy Corps and ACIDI/VOCA-implemented five year, USAID-funded program designed to collaboratively explore and test solutions for user-centered resilience measurement in USAID's focal zone. The program will use population level resilience measurement and a participatory approach to facilitate the use of resilience-oriented results frameworks as a common entry point to unpack resilience learning questions. RPM will help aid stakeholders better align their interventions in a shared resilience vision, strengthening the foundations for collective impact in Somalia's recurrent and protracted crisis context.

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Disclaimer

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Front Cover Photo Credit

Ezra Millstein/Mercy Corps, 2022.

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ACRONYMS

ACDI/VOCA	Agricultural Cooperative Development International/ Volunteers in Overseas Cooperative Assistance
CATI	Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing
CCCM	Camp Coordination and Camp Management
CDCS	Country Development Cooperation Strategy
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
IDI	In-Depth Interview
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
IPC	Integrated Phase Classification
KII	Key Informant Interview
LNGO	Local Non-Governmental Organization
ODK	Open Data Kit
PD	Positive Deviant
PSS	Psychosocial Support
RMS	Recurrent Monitoring Survey
RPM	Somalia Resilience Population Measurement
SRP	Somalia Resilience Partnership
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USD	United States Dollar
VSLA	Village Savings and Loan Association

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

While famine in Somalia has been averted during the first quarter of 2023, 6.5 million people are still in need of humanitarian assistance.¹ Throughout the drought, the Somalia Resilience Population Measurement (RPM) Activity has conducted qualitative and quantitative data collection in response to the ongoing drought to better understand if and how households are coping during the crisis. A five-year USAID-funded project implemented by Mercy Corps in coordination with Agricultural Cooperative Development International/Volunteers in Overseas Cooperative Assistance (ACDI/VOCA), RPM seeks to improve upon current approaches to resilience measurement in order to inform program adaptation and decision-making among implementers, donors, and government representatives. RPM research activities consist of two intertwined components: 1) a panel survey that will trace a diverse set of livelihood groups over five years, and 2) a recurrent monitoring survey, with alternative periods of qualitative and quantitative data collection. Through the RPM activities, Mercy Corps and its partners will explore the extent to which resilience capacities and wellbeing outcomes change over time and probe how resilience stakeholders in the USAID Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) Focal Zone (comprised of Banadir and most of the Southwest State) may or may not be contributing to this change.

RPM began in 2021 with a formative phase of research, and this formative round of the recurring monitoring survey (RMS) aimed to answer three overarching questions:

1. What does effective coping mean in the context of the current drought?

¹ FEWS NET (2023).

2. How are households relying on social networks to cope with the current drought?
3. What are some of the main psychosocial determinants of household resilience against shocks?

KEY FINDINGS & RECOMMENDATIONS

What does effective coping mean in the context of the current drought?

- The failed rainy seasons have produced acute impacts on households' livelihoods, food security, and health outcomes. Interviews with key informants also highlighted early evidence of the drought's downstream effects, including the rise in divorce, child marriage, and intimate partner violence.
- Looking to positive deviant² households, the research found that while they were equally impacted by the severity of the drought, their effective use of coping and resilience strategies allowed them to withstand its ramifications for much longer. For example, positive deviant households exhibited higher levels of food security relative to typical households, with adults and children being more likely to have eaten at least two meals a day.
- Positive deviant households rated access to credit and borrowing and having multiple sources of income—including access to casual labor opportunities—as the most important capacities when it came to coping.
- Two factors were decisive when it came accessing credit: 1) individuals that were well-known or well-established in their community were more likely to receive credit versus those that were not, and; 2) households that were selected to receive external assistance, which they often used to repay debts, found it easier to access credit from local business owners.
- Many households that received external assistance reported using it to repay their debts in a timely fashion, which helped to establish their creditworthiness among local businesses and shop owners and ensure future access to credit.
- For those who primarily engaged in agro-pastoral livelihoods, having multiple sources of income helped households meet some needs and access some basic necessities. These individuals often engaged in casual labor activities—such as collecting and selling firewood and selling easy to harvest leafy vegetables. Those that engaged in more skilled labor activities, such as teaching, tailoring, and construction, fared even better when it came to coping. These livelihood activities were less vulnerable to climate shocks, were in higher demand, and provided higher wages.
- Based on previous experiences with the 2011/12 famine and 2016/17 drought, some households made the choice to diversify their livelihood activities, establishing small businesses because they had fared better during previous crises. Moreover, participation in savings groups and Village Savings and Loan Association (VSLA) programs helped them develop small nest eggs that later became crucial to supporting their households and livelihood activities during the drought.

Recommendations:

- **Invest in vocational training, VSLAs and savings groups, and other long-term resilience-focused activities.** Resilience activities must support households' capacity to diversify their livelihoods in the face of emergent shocks and protracted crises. One of the most critical capacities to emerge during the study was the capacity to diversify livelihoods, particularly among those for whom agro-pastoral activities were their primary source of income. Among households that reported faring better during the drought, access to vocational training and VSLAs and/or savings groups had a decisive impact on their livelihoods and resilience.

² Positive deviance is the "behavioral and social change approach which is premised on the observation that in any context, certain individuals confronting similar challenges, constraints, and resource deprivations to their peers, will nonetheless employ uncommon but successful behaviors or strategies which enable them to find better solutions." For more information on positive deviance see [BetterEvaluation](#).

- **Monitor household debt cycles and patterns to ensure the effectiveness of cash and cash plus activities, and to take advantage of opportunities to bolster local markets.** Access to credit has been critical to households' capacity to survive and access basic resources during the drought, with external assistance often used to not only repay debts in a timely manner but establish creditworthiness among local businesses. Monitoring household debt cycles and repayment patterns alongside routine market monitoring, including among local traders and vendors, may also enable aid actors to identify opportunities to further reinforce local markets through intentional assistance to small businesses. As a result, aid actors may be better able to time activities and allocate assistance amounts (particularly cash assistance) to ensure they achieve programmatic outcomes.

How are households relying on social networks to cope with the current drought?

- Households provide one another a range of support, from the tangible to the intangible, including cash, food, information, and emotional support. The more connected a household was, the easier it was for them to access support from their community. Those with more social connections, particularly connections in urban areas and the diaspora, leveraged their networks to share and secure support for the more vulnerable and less-connected households in their communities.
- Given widespread high levels of need, these informal support networks and the (re)distribution of resources within them ensure that the most vulnerable—and often more socially isolated—households are able to survive the drought. However, these networks have become increasingly exhausted as the drought has continued and households' capacity to share has declined.
- More than half of the sampled households reported having no support sources, likely a result of the protracted nature of the drought which has eroded households' capacity to extend support to their connections. Among those who had support, the most frequently reported sources were family, friends, and neighbors, followed by international and local NGOs. The most common types of support received included food donations and cash contributions.
- More than half of the sampled households reported not being able to access support in the past 12 months, with the inability to communicate with connections and lacking wide networks as the main barriers to accessing informal support.

Recommendations:

- **Monitor and improve targeting approaches to help minimize social exclusion and mitigate increasing tensions.** Given the critical role that informal and local groups, including private sector actors and diaspora groups, have played in the humanitarian response, local and external actors must effectively partner and coordinate with one another to ensure that their efforts do not overlap and undermine one another. Aid actors can complement these efforts by working with community leaders to develop people-centered communication strategies that help with the dissemination of timely and accurate information among households, particularly during the early design and implementation phases of activities.
- **Strengthen informal support networks by partnering and working with local community actors, who are deeply embedded in their communities and pre-positioned to reach vulnerable households.** Local leaders and community actors are a critical source of knowledge and access, often organizing and leveraging their own informal support networks to meet their communities needs, making them vital partners in aid actors' efforts. Aid actors can work with community partners to monitor the strength of informal support networks, remain vigilant for signs of exhaustion, and identify key program entry points.

What are some of the main psychosocial determinants of household resilience against shocks?

- Optimism, commitment to hard work (e.g. a sense of self-efficacy and future-oriented thinking), social connections, and seeking comfort in religion and spirituality were all highlighted as key psychosocial factors that contrib-

uted to individuals' resilience. Through these capacities, participants described developing a sense of purpose and engaging in meaning making during difficult circumstances, which helped reinforce the role of community and social connections as well as their internal locus of control.

- Community and religious leaders were a key source of emotional support for many. Their in-depth knowledge of their communities and capacity to mobilize resources and social support often meant that these leaders were decisive when it came to a households' ability to cope.
- However, households reported that feelings of sadness, being overwhelmed and constantly worrying, as well as an inability to cope with stressful events have worsened since the onset of the drought. The main perceived sources of available mental health support across the sample were from doctors/counselors (59%), family or friends (44%) and NGOs (27%).

Recommendations:

- **Invest in and develop locally-relevant MHPSS interventions that are focused on reinforcing key sources of support within communities, such as local and religious leaders.** Given the acute nature of the current crisis, aid actors should identify and partner with key sources of psychosocial support within communities. This can include partnering with local and religious leaders and community health workers to invest and train them in evidence-based approaches, and work with them to adapt and refine such approaches to ensure that they are contextually relevant to the needs of communities.
- **Design resilience activities to include components that bolster the psychosocial factors contributing to resilience, including informal support networks and social connections.** Activities that establish and support group-based forums, such as self-help groups or VSLAs, provide an entry point and opportunity for aid actors to maximize on the psychosocial benefits they provide.



Ezra Millstein/Mercy Corps 2022.

I. BACKGROUND

Climate change and conflict are colliding to produce perhaps unprecedented levels of hunger worldwide.¹ More than six months of conflict in Ukraine—one of the biggest providers of the world’s wheat supply—have left approximately 60 countries struggling to afford food imports.² One of them is Somalia. By August 2022, more than 90% of Somalia was experiencing severe to extreme drought conditions.³ In combination with inflation and road blockages by Al Shabab, food prices have skyrocketed as a result. Since July 2021, some regions of Somalia have seen the minimum food basket expenditure rise to over 160%, with the price of sorghum alone increasing to more than 240% the five year average.⁴ This rapid increase in the price of staple goods has been aggravated by Russia’s invasion of Ukraine—both of which were Somalia’s primary supplier of wheat.⁵ These economic shocks come after several years of widespread shocks, including climate change,⁶ Covid-19,⁷ and locust infestations.⁸ Current projections suggest that as many as 8.3 million people across Somalia will face Crisis (Integrated Phase Classification (IPC) IPC Phase 3) or worse food insecurity outcomes between April and June 2023.⁹ With aid actors stretched thin by multiple humanitarian crises,

1 Edwards (2022).

2 Wax (2022).

3 Severe to extreme drought conditions are marked by major crop and land pasture losses and/or widespread water shortages or restrictions (See Cornell 2018); Somalia Food Security Cluster Partners Meeting (2022).

4 Oxfam International (2022).

5 Raghavan (2022).

6 Brown, Farhan, & Hodder (2021).

7 Randa et al. (2020).

8 International Committee of the Red Cross (2020).

9 FEWS NET (2022).

Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs and Emergency Relief Coordinator Martin Griffiths urged donors to heed the signs of widespread food insecurity in Somalia, remarking that “famine is at the door, and today we are receiving a final warning.”¹⁰

2. RESILIENCE IN SOMALIA

Resilience is frequently understood as an individual’s, a household’s, and/or a community’s capacity to not only maintain their wellbeing but to thrive in spite of widespread shocks and stresses, including conflict, drought, economic shocks, and global pandemics. Resilience is informed and strengthened by both objective and subjective factors. **Objective** factors include food security, livelihood strategies, and assets. **Subjective** factors include psychosocial factors such as aspiration and self-efficacy, self-confidence, social norms, and social cohesion. It is through a combination of these factors that individuals, households, and communities are better prepared to cope, adapt, and thrive in the face of new and protracted crises.

The resilience agenda quickly gained steam during the 2011-12 drought and famine in the Horn of Africa, as aid actors, donors, and agencies called for a shift in approach when working with crisis-affected communities. With aid actors looking to protect hard-won development gains, this new agenda pivoted “the conversation from a focus on vulnerabilities to one focused on strengthening sources of resilience - or the capacities of households, markets and institutions to mitigate shocks and secure well-being among crisis-affected groups.”¹¹ Shock-prone Somalia, which has been navigating multiple complex crises for several decades, is one context where the sector’s resilience approach has taken root. Often navigating multiple shocks and stresses, households rely on a number of resilience capacities (used in various combinations) to cope with the most predominant shocks in Somalia, including drought, conflict and insecurity, flooding, crop and livestock disease, and famine. The degree to which a resilience capacity is utilized to address the effects of different shocks varies.

To better understand the resilience capacities utilized by households in Somalia, the Somalia Resilience Population Measurement (RPM) study team conducted a literature review and identified six key capacities: social connections, informal social safety nets, access to services, livelihood adaptation, income diversification, and psychosocial factors.¹² The combination and degree to which a household can cope using a particular capacity depends on a variety of factors, including ethnic and clan affiliations¹³; displacement status¹⁴; gender and age¹⁵; access to remittances¹⁶; and location.¹⁷ For example, households rely on their social connections during many types of shocks, turning to their connections during periods of resource scarcity due to crop infestations, market disruptions and price increases due to conflict. In contrast, access to services (particularly water and sanitation services, as well as veterinary services) can be crucial when households experienced water shortages, crop infestations, and livestock diseases. Ultimately, households are strategic in if, how, and when they rely on specific resilience capacities.

¹⁰ UNOCHA (2022).

¹¹ Petryniak, Proctor, & Kurtz (2020)

¹² Elsamahi, Kim, & Scantlan (2022).

¹³ Majid & McDowell (2012); Maxwell et al. (2016).

¹⁴ Pape & Karamba (2019).

¹⁵ Ochiltree & Toma (2021).

¹⁶ Majid & McDowell (2012); Maxwell et al. (2016); Lwanga-Ntale & Owino (2020).

¹⁷ Pape & Karamba (2019); Lwanga-Ntale & Owino (2020).

3. PROJECT BACKGROUND & CONTEXT

The RPM Activity is a five-year USAID-funded project implemented by Mercy Corps in coordination with Agricultural Cooperative Development International/Volunteers in Overseas Cooperative Assistance (ACDI/VOCA). It seeks to improve upon current approaches to resilience measurement in order to inform program adaptation and decision-making among implementers, donors, and government representatives. Ultimately, it aims to develop and lead a resilience measurement system on the collective resilience outcomes at a population level and build the capacity of participating stakeholders to estimate individual contributions to collective resilience outcomes in the USAID Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) Focal Zone, which includes Banadir, most of Southwest State, and extends to limited areas in Hirshabelle State and Jubaland State. Through the RPM activities, Mercy Corps and its partners will explore the extent to which resilience capacities and wellbeing outcomes change over time and probe how resilience stakeholders in the Focal Zone may or may not be contributing to resilience capacities that matter most for populations in the target zone.

4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on a previous literature review regarding the resilience capacities most important in Somalia¹⁸ and consultations within the RPM team, the study team identified three areas for further inquiry. First, the study team sought to examine the drought's impacts and the effectiveness of households' response strategies. Previous research has found that households are strategic when it comes to identifying and utilizing different coping strategies at different stages of a crisis. By understanding the coping strategies households' rely on throughout a crisis, aid actors may be more effective at identifying and sequencing their interventions depending on the coping strategies being utilized by households. Second, the study team looked to unpack the role of social connections among drought-affected communities. Research has shown that social connections and social networks play a critical role in household resilience, especially during crises.¹⁹ Somalia is no different, with social connections being a crucial source of survival and resilience during previous periods of drought and famine.²⁰ Finally, the study team looked to the rounds of data collection to better understand the role of psychosocial wellbeing in household resilience and coping. Early evidence has stressed the important contribution of psychosocial factors, such as aspiration, self-efficacy, and the confidence to adapt, to household resilience.²¹ Given the nascent yet promising nature of this area of research, this formative round of data collection provided an opportunity to better understand how psychosocial factors are helping households cope and adapt, as well as the crisis's impact on households' overall psychosocial wellbeing.

RESEARCH THEMES	STUDY QUESTIONS
1) <i>Drought Impacts and Coping Strategies</i>	1) What does effective coping mean in the context of the current drought?
	2) How have coping strategies evolved during the different stages of the drought?
	3) In what ways are resilience-building interventions aiding shock-affected households in accessing critical coping strategies?

¹⁸ Elsamahi, Kim, & Scantlan (2022).

¹⁹ Kim et al. (2020); Kim et al. (2022); Greene et al. (2021);

²⁰ Maxwell et al. (2016).

²¹ Jones & Tanne (2017); USAID (2018).

2) Social Connections	4) How are households relying on social networks to cope with the current drought?
	5) In what ways are locally led initiatives supporting shock-affected households?
	6) What are some of the main risks and opportunities for aid actors to build social connections during this crisis?
3) Psychosocial Support²²	7) What are some of the main psychosocial determinants of household resilience against shocks?
	8) In what ways is the current crisis affecting the mental health and psychosocial well-being of shock-affected households?
	9) What are some of the main barriers towards mental health and psychosocial support (MHPSS) services in Somalia? In what ways can MHPSS activities be incorporated into resilience and drought-response activities?

5. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

RPM consists of two intertwined research components, a panel survey and a mixed-methods recurrent monitoring survey (RMS), which aim to inform the scope of future resilience-building activities in the region. The panel survey will trace a diverse set of livelihood groups over five years with a focus on understanding the types of resilience capacities that households employ to prepare for recurring shocks and stresses. The mixed-methods RMS, with its alternating periods of qualitative and quantitative data collection, is delving into how certain livelihood groups employ these capacities as shocks occur. Through an iterative approach, the qualitative and quantitative rounds will inform and build upon one another, using learnings from the previous round to inform future rounds of data collection. The qualitative data collection aims to illuminate positive deviant (PD)²³ strategies that are considered effective, while the quantitative phases look to determine the prevalence of this behavior within the chosen subpopulation. RPM began its formative research in late 2021, using the first round of RMS—both quantitative and qualitative approaches—to capture insights as humanitarian conditions continued to deteriorate (Figure 1). This report contains findings from the initial rounds of qualitative and quantitative data collection.

To inform the development of and provide a contextual basis for the interview guides, the project began its formative research activities between September and December 2021, which included: 1) a review of the literature on resilience in Somalia between 2010 and 2021; 2) a data inventory reviewing best practices for conducting quantitative data collection in Somalia and other similar contexts, and; 3) key informant interviews with global and local aid actors.²⁴

Through these activities, the study team identified six emerging capacities that contribute to household resilience in Somalia. **These include social connections, informal social safety nets, access to services, livelihood adaptation, livelihood diversification, and psychosocial well-being.**²⁵

While some of the six resilience capacities—such as livelihood adaptations and income diversification and informal social safety net and social connections—overlap and are interrelated, they are also distinct capacities that households individually leverage. **Income diversification** refers to the additional income-generating activities a household may take on in addition to their primary livelihood. Diversifying one’s sources of income is often a protective measure, used

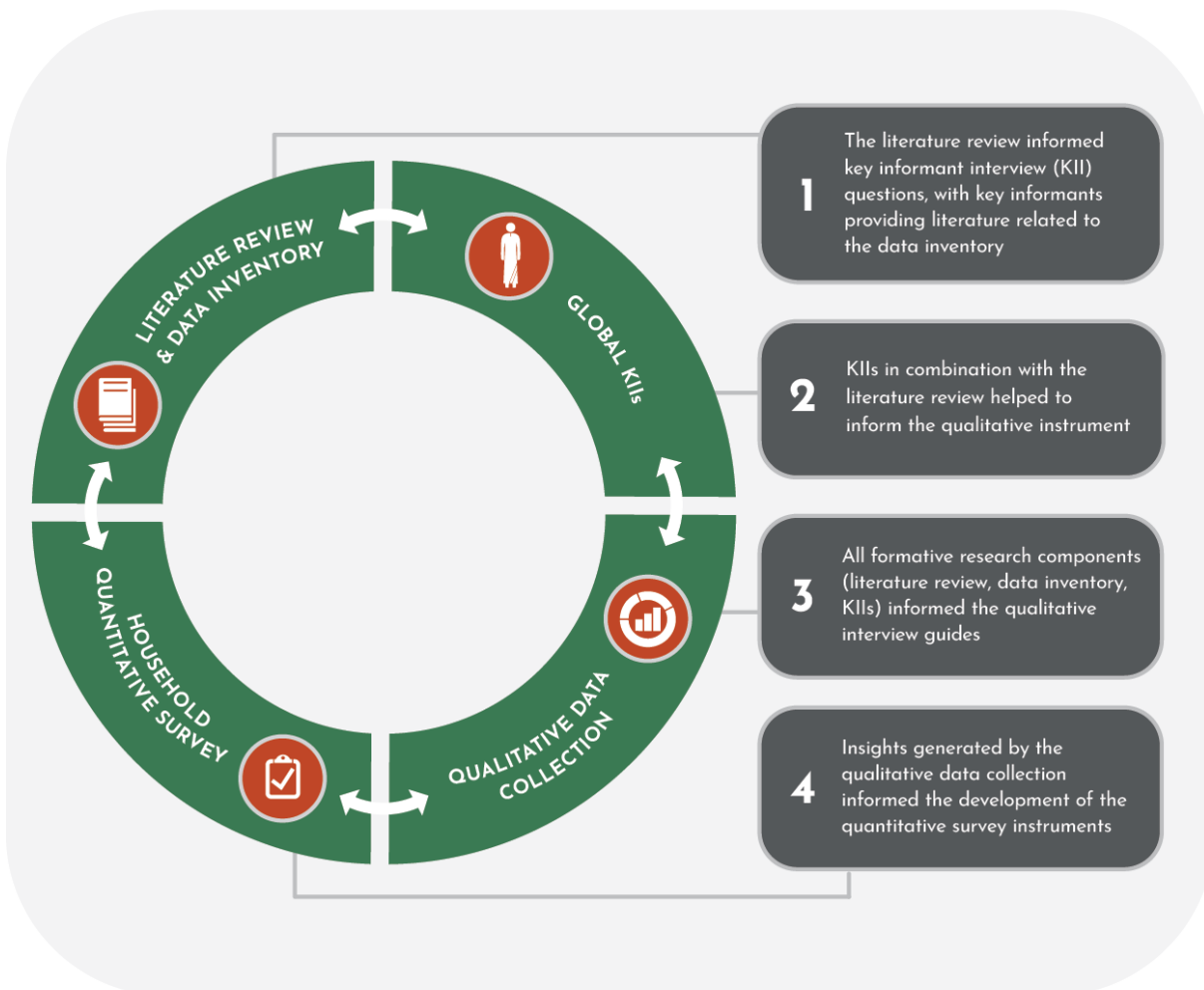
²² The sector uses both psychosocial support (PSS) and mental health and psychosocial support (MHPSS) relatively interchangeably. Given the focus on the specific psychosocial factors that contribute to resilience, we have decided to use the former.

²³ Positive deviance is the “behavioral and social change approach which is premised on the observation that in any context, certain individuals confronting similar challenges, constraints, and resource deprivations to their peers, will nonetheless employ uncommon but successful behaviors or strategies which enable them to find better solutions.” For more information on positive deviance see [BetterEvaluation](#).

²⁴ Key stakeholders include USAID Somalia mission staff and other bilateral donors such as FCDO.

²⁵ For more in-depth exploration of these capacities and the formative research process, see Elsamahi, Kim, & Scantlan (2022).

Figure 1: Research methods and study process



by households that engage in livelihood activities that are vulnerable to the impacts of sudden shocks—particularly those engaging in climate-sensitive activities such as agriculture. **Livelihood adaptation** refers to the actions taken to modify one’s livelihood activities in response to or in anticipation of stresses and/or shocks. For example, households may pivot to farming less water-intensive crops during periods of water shortages. **Informal social safety nets**²⁶ overlap but are also distinct from a household’s social networks, referring to the local and informal structures that allow for households to access, receive, and extend support.

Building on these preliminary findings, the RPM project is conducting a drought-responsive formative research to better understand how the livelihood groups most severely affected by the ongoing drought are relying on these capacities, and to explore what other resilience capacities might be of relevance to the population at large. Based on consultations with project stakeholders, including RPM and USAID staff, key informant interviews with global and local aid actors and experts on the Somalia context, and a review of the resilience literature, the RPM team identified the three lines of inquiry described in Table 1. The aim was to deepen understanding of the resilience capacities that Somali households have long relied upon, as well as understand the trajectory of coping strategies employed by households over the course of the crisis thus far.

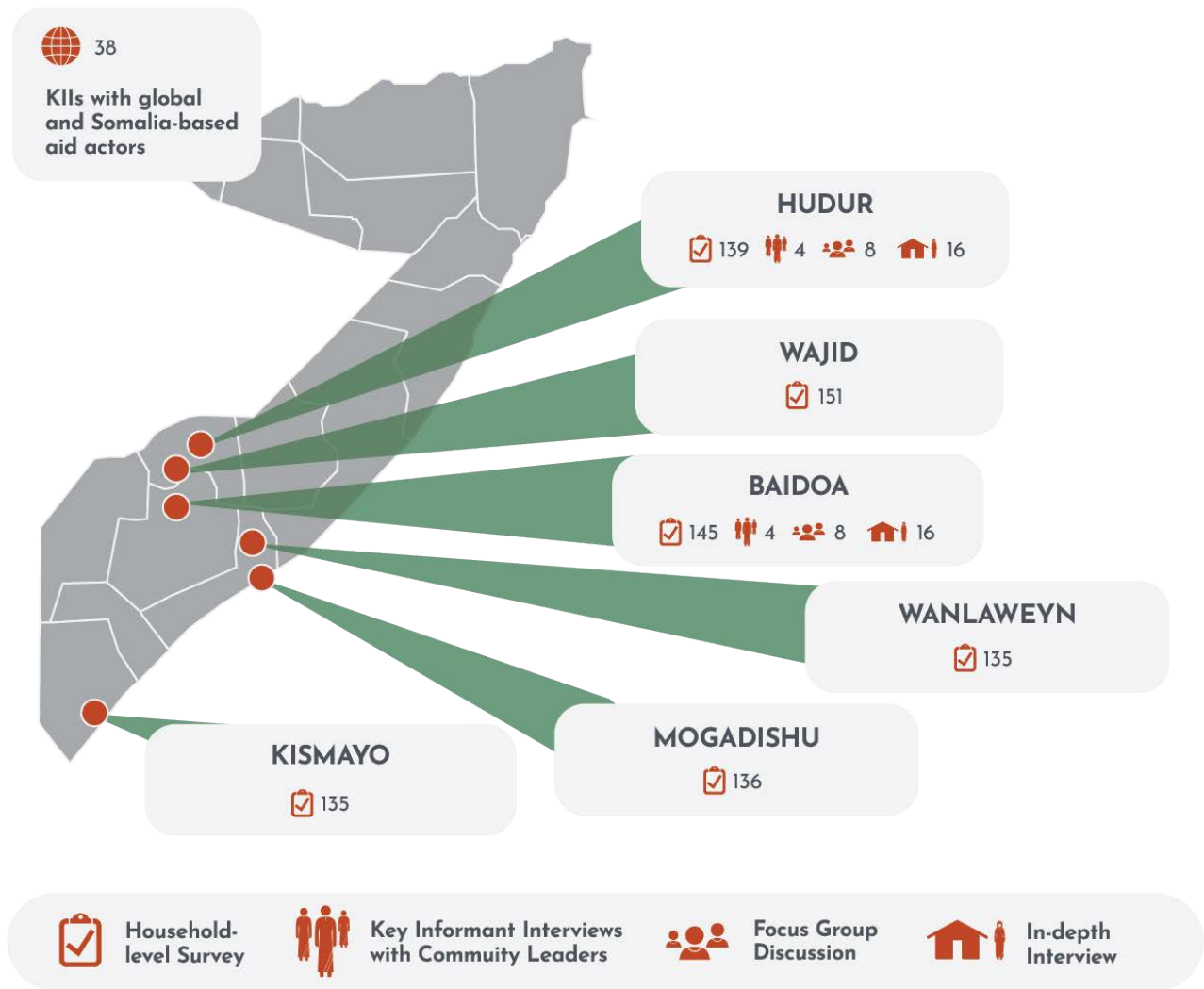
²⁶ Informal Social Safety Nets: These are Village Savings and Loans Associations (VSLAs) and other local savings schemes; youth and civic groups; and local committees, such as early warning and drought management committees.

5.1 Study sites

Qualitative data collection sites

The qualitative data collection focused on agro-pastoralist groups in the Bay and Bakool areas, covering the Sorghum High Potential Agropastoral (LH15) and the Bay Bakool Low Potential Agricultural (LH16) livelihood zones, along with internally displaced households in these areas (Table 2). Site selection was informed by FSNAU’s latest IPC and Risk Famine Analysis, which lists agro-pastoral groups within these localities as one of the groups most severely affected by the drought.²⁷ Two districts were selected from these livelihood zones: Hudur and Baidoa. In both of these districts, four different sites were identified and selected for the data collection process, for a total of eight sites. In each district, two agropastoral villages and two IDP settlements were selected. Sites were selected based on whether or not they had received external assistance during the drought in the six months prior to the data collection, as well as the accessibility and safety of the locations.

Figure 2: Map of study sites and types of data collection conducted



27 Ibid.

Table 2: Districts selected/identified for qualitative data collection

LIVELIHOOD ZONE	DISTRICT	STUDY SITES
Sorghum High Potential Agropastoral (LH15)	Baidoa	Abal 5 (IDP) Hanano 2 (IDP) Ismodnoy (agro-pastoral) Raydabaale (agro-pastoral)
Bay Bakool Low Potential Agricultural (LH16)	Hudur	Dondardiri (IDP) Morshinle (IDP) Madaxwaraba (agro-pastoral) Tuboy (agro-pastoral)

Quantitative data collection sites

The quantitative survey was implemented in six pre-selected districts (Mogadishu, Kismayo, Baidoa, Wanlaweyne, Hudur, and Wajid), selected based on FSNAU²⁸ projections of districts that faced crisis- or emergency-level food insecurity (IPC 5) in the CDCS focal zone (Table 3). Every district was allocated nine clusters (four urban clusters, three rural clusters, and two IDP clusters). Within each district, three strata were targeted: urban, rural and IDP settlements. The urban, rural and IDP settlements were selected based on their accessibility and the livelihood zones. The final sample of sites covered seven livelihood zones namely the agro-pastoral, pastoral, riverine, coastal fishery, urban, and IDP settlements. While several of the districts contained more than one rural livelihood zone, upon review of the security conditions, the accessible rural area lay within a single livelihood zone for each district resulting in the allocation of all rural clusters for each district to a single livelihood zone.

Table 3: Districts selected/identified for qualitative data collection

LIVELIHOOD ZONE	DISTRICT	STUDY SITES
Agro-pastoral, pastoral, urban, and IDP livelihood zones	Baidoa	Towfiq, Horseed, Howl-wadaag village, Wadajir
Agro-pastoral, pastoral, urban, and IDP livelihood zones	Hudur	Moragabey, Horseed, Shiidle, Bullow
Coastal fisheries, IDP, and Urban	Mogadishu	Wadajir district, Waberi, Abdiaziz, Boondheere
Agro-pastoral, pastoral, riverine, coastal fishery, urban, and IDP livelihood zones	Walanweyne	Hudur weyne, Maynuun, Caanoole, Malable
Agro-pastoral, pastoral, urban, and IDP livelihood zones	Wajid	Howl wadaag, Horseed, Hidig, K/galbeed, Galbeed
Agro-pastoral, pastoral, riverine, coastal fishery, urban, and IDP livelihood zones	Kismayu	Farjano, Alanley, Shaqalaha, Fanole

5.2 Sampling techniques

Given continuing insecurity, the safety of field research colleagues and access constraints were key sampling considerations. Access to settlement sites was largely facilitated by peer agencies, including the Somalia Resilience Partnership (SRP) which is working in Baidoa, Hudur, Wajid, Wanlaweyne, Kismayu, and Mogadishu. Where the SRP was not present, the RPM staff consulted the Camp Coordination Camp Management (CCCM),²⁹ an IDP platform, to gain access. RPM employed a mixed methods approach to collect data from the target districts.

Qualitative data collection

The research team employed a purposive sampling approach in order to identify and select key informants, resilience actors and communities who could provide rich insights into the coping strategies of positive deviant households and role of social connections and psychosocial factors in household resilience during the current drought. Respondents were selected based on projections shared by FSNAU³⁰ of districts that faced crisis- or emergency-level food insecurity (IPC 5) in the CDCS focal zone, as well as recommendations made by local key informants and government representatives to help reach beyond the SRP network. A snowball sampling technique was employed to help identify PD households (who were targeted for in-depth interviews), who are often more difficult to identify without referrals by community contacts. PD households were identified through KII with community leaders and FGD participants, who were asked to identify those they thought were coping with the drought impacts better than the average household in their community.

Quantitative data collection

A cluster sampling approach was used to select respondents within each district. Every cluster contained 15 surveys solicited from respondents residing within the same area or neighborhood. Every district was allocated nine clusters (four urban clusters, three rural clusters, and two IDP clusters) bringing the target to 135 surveys per district and 810 surveys in total. Within the district, the sample was divided between three strata: urban, rural and IDP settlements. The RPM team chose this approach given the expectation that the target population in these strata would rely on a different set of capacities to mitigate shocks related to drought. The rural and IDP clusters were selected randomly from a list of accessible villages and IDP camps categorized by district and livelihood zone. Further, livelihood zones were also considered during the sample allocation. Urban clusters were selected from internal town clan mappings and selected neighborhoods to maximize the diversity of the clan composition and ensure that all major clans present in the city were included in the sample. This approach was favored to ensure inclusion of diverse clans in the sample. The final sample covers the agro-pastoral, pastoral, riverine, coastal fishery, urban, and IDP livelihood zones.

A random walk procedure was used to select households within each cluster. Each cluster was associated with a cluster center point selected by our fieldwork manager - a major junction in a rural or urban neighborhood or a central point in an IDP camp. These crossroad points served as starting points for the random walk procedure to select households to participate in the survey. With their back to the crossroad, research assistants walked in the opposite directions away from the center point. The researchers visited every third household on the left side of the road. When they encountered a junction, the researchers first turned right at each intersection to continue if they could not go straight, then alternated left and right turns at subsequent intersections. In the case of a dead-end, researchers continued sampling in reverse direction on the adjacent side of the same road. When respondents were not home or refused to be interviewed, researchers recorded basic geographic information and, if applicable, reasons for refusal, which can be used to analyze non-response rates by district. They then continued to skip to the next household and sample until reaching the desired number of households (15 per cluster). In urban settings, if a selected building was a multi-story apartment complex,³¹ the researchers entered the number of floors into the Open Data Kit (ODK), and the application randomly selected the floor number and showed it on the screen. The researchers went to the selected floor and knocked on the apartment door closest to the staircase or entrance to the floor. Within each household, a respondent was randomly chosen among all eligible adults who were present at home and willing to take part in the survey using weighted probabilities of selection for different demographic groups. Eligible adults were defined as any individual

²⁹ A coordination platform for humanitarian actors, local authorities, and community representatives to provide life-saving services to displaced populations (IDPs) in Somalia.

³⁰ FEWS NET & FSNAU (2022).

³¹ Non-residential buildings were not counted in the random walk.

aged 18 years or older. In order to select the respondent, the researchers entered into the ODK the name and gender of all eligible household members who were available at the time. Using this list, the ODK ran an automated program to randomly select a respondent and displayed their name on the screen. The sample was expected to be heavily skewed towards female respondents who are more likely to be home during the data collection. To counter this bias, the selection probability was weighted towards men in proportion of 7:3 during the initial days of data collection. Based on this data, the weights were then adjusted to 9:1.

It is worth noting that the lack of population estimates for the rural and urban strata and widely different IDP and total district estimates were the primary reasons for deciding against the allocation of respondents proportionally to the strata population sizes. As a result, one may consider applying sampling weights at the analysis stage in order to draw conclusions about the district populations. A potential issue with developing sampling weights is the lack of population estimates for the rural and urban strata in all project districts.

5.3 Interview methods

Qualitative interviews

The first qualitative interviews took place between May and June 2022. These included key informant interviews (KIIs) with global and local aid actors to help illustrate the current aid landscape, as well as provide an overview of the predominant coping strategies employed by households, role of social connections, and psychosocial support during the current drought. They also helped illustrate some of the opportunities and challenges when it came to operationalizing resilience in the humanitarian response. Key informant interviews, in total 51 (39 male, 12 female), were conducted with aid actors, community leaders, households, and community members (Table 4). The study team worked to ensure diversity among its key informants--both in terms of the type of and gender. However, despite best efforts, we were unable to achieve parity when it came to our KIIs. This is a result of a number of factors and ultimately a reflection of who occupies positions of power within many of these institutions. Where possible, the RPM team tried its best to include the perspectives of female key informants at all levels of society. The team continues to remain committed to prioritizing better representation of women participants in RPM research.

Table 4: Number of key informants consulted and their characteristics

RESEARCH THEMES	TYPE	INTERVIEWS CONDUCTED	GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION	GENDER
<i>Drought Impacts and Coping Strategies</i>	Government	3	Baidoa, Hudur, Wajid	All male
	Local Universities	2	Baidoa	All male
	Private Sector Actors	3	Baidoa	All male
	International NGOs	5	Baidoa, Hudur, Wajid	All male
	Donors	5	International	1 male, 4 female
	SUB-TOTAL		18	

Social Connections	Government	3	Baidoa, Hudur, Wajid	All male
	Private Sector Actors	5	Baidoa	All male
	Local Universities	2	Baidoa	All male
	Civil Society Associations	6	Baidoa, Wajid	5 male, 1 female
	International NGOs	5	Baidoa, Hudur, Wajid	All male
	SUB-TOTAL	21		
Psychosocial Support	MHPSS Service Providers	5	Baidoa, Mogadishu	4 male, 1 female
	MHPSS researchers	3	International	1 male, 2 female
	Government	1	Mogadishu	Female
	Donors	3	Baidoa	All female
	SUB-TOTAL	12		
TOTAL	51			

Between July and September 2022, RPM researchers conducted a second round of interviews in the Hudur and Baidoa districts. This included KIIs with community leaders, focus groups discussions (FGDs) with community members, and in-depth interviews (IDIs) with PD households (Table 5).³² The KIIs with community leaders helped to identify the main challenges their communities were facing, as well as identify PD households for the IDIs. FGDs illustrated the ways in which participants' communities were coping with challenges related to the drought. These discussions included 8 to 12 participants, representing different age groups within the community and across households. The in-depth interviews with PD households were conducted to understand what strategies and resources they were utilizing that helped them fare better compared to others in their community. These participants also identified other households who they believed were coping well to be interviewed by the research team. In total, 54 in-depth interviews, key informant discussions, and focus groups were conducted with 120 male and 98 female participants.

Table 5: Number of interviews conducted and their characteristics

METHOD	TYPE	INTEIIEWS CONDUCTED	TOTAL # OF PARTICIPANTS	GENDER	LOCATION
FGD	Community members	16	162	88 Male 74 Female	Baidoa, Hudur
IDI	Households	29	29	16 Male 13 Female	Baidoa, Hudur
KII	Community leaders	9	27	16 Male 11 Female	Baidoa, Hudur

³² Key informant and individual household interviews took approximately 45 minutes to an hour. FGDs typically ran 90 minutes to two hours.

	SUB-TOTAL	54	218	120 Male 98 Female	
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Quantitative interviews

Following the qualitative rounds of interviews, RPM researchers conducted a drought focused formative assessment with 841 (397 male, 444 female) households in six districts (Hudur, Wajid, Mogadishu, Wanlaweyne, Kismayo and Baidoa) of the CDCS focal zones between 24th August and 12th September 2022 (Table 6).³³

Table 6: Achieved sample by district and livelihood zone

DISTRICT (N= 841)	LIVELIHOOD ZONES				
	AGRO- PASTORAL	RIVERINE	COASTAL FISHERY	URBAN	IDP
Wajid	130	-	-	91	30
Hudur	15	-	-	63	61
Baidoa	45	-	-	65	35
Mogadishu	46	-	46	60	30
Wanlaweyne	45	-	-	60	30
Kismayo	-	45	-	60	30
TOTAL	135	45	46	399	216

³³ In addition to the in-person data collection, a call center was used to collect data from Wajid district through Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI) procedures between the 3rd and 11th September 2022.

Household demographic characteristics

District population

The survey was implemented in six pre-selected locations namely Mogadishu, Kismayo, Baidoa, Wanlaweyne, Hudur and Wajid. A total of 841 households were interviewed, of whom 53% were female and 47% were male. Of these respondents, 16.2% came from Mogadishu, 16.1% from Kismayo, 17.2% from Baidoa, 16.1% from Wanlaweyne, 16.5% from Hudur and 18.5% were from Wajid. The sample was equally divided between the six districts despite the differences in the overall population sizes in order to allow a representative sample for the smaller yet severely affected by drought locations, such as Wajid and Hudur, that face unique challenges, due in part to their remoteness and insecurity, that are likely to impact the drought coping available to the population.

Livelihood zone

Livelihood zone sample populations range from 5.4% in Riverine communities to 47.4% in urban zones. Furthermore, riverine and coastal communities are located in rural areas that faced access issues, and they were not present in all the target districts. For these reasons, there is a low sample from these districts. While several of the districts contained more than one rural livelihood zone, upon review of the security conditions, the accessible rural area lay within a single livelihood zone for each district resulting in the allocation of all rural clusters for each district to "urban livelihood zone." This was due to security limitations rather than by design.

Residence status of the households

Across the full sample, 53% of households reside in their host communities (i.e., long-term places of residence); 28% of households are internally displaced by the necessity of dire circumstances; 15% are recent voluntary migrants; and 5% were formerly displaced and have since returned to their former residence. About half of household heads are women (53%), with riverine and coastal fishery zones having the most female heads of household (76-80%) and agro-pastoral having the least (42%).

Marital status of the households

The majority of household heads interviewed are married (81%), 10% are widowed, 7% are divorced, and the remaining are single or widowed (2% and 1% respectively). These rates are similar across livelihood zones, apart from Coastal Fisheries where 70% are married and 17% are divorced. About half of household heads are women (53%), with riverine and coastal fishery zones being majority women-led (76-80%) and agro-pastoral being minority women-led (42%).

Level of education by livelihood zone

Approximately one-quarter of household heads (27%) have received some form of primary, secondary, or post-secondary education regardless of completion while the remaining 73% have not. In terms of livelihood zones, 33% of the coastal, 32% of the urban, 20% of the agro-pastoral, and 20% of the riverine household heads had received some formal education regardless of completion.

5.5 Training and data cleaning

The qualitative tools were translated to the Mahathir dialect and then rigorously reviewed by Somalia-based RPM team members. They were then further tested and refined during a two-day training with field researchers. Training was broken into two sessions, with the first focused on familiarizing the field researchers with the study tools, qualitative techniques, and best practices, including a focus on probing and effectively compiling interview notes. The second day of training was focused on the application of these techniques, allowing the researchers to gain familiarity with the tools and techniques they would be utilizing. Field researchers reviewed the study tools in both English and Somali and were briefed on the ethical considerations that come with qualitative data collection. Training materials and the sessions were developed and led by a consultant with extensive experience in leading qualitative, quantitative, and

mixed methods studies in Somalia. Field researchers were selected based on their previous experience conducting qualitative data collection and their experience with facilitating discussions with vulnerable populations. Ahead of data collection, the RPM study team worked with contacts in the study communities to notify and raise awareness among community members that a study was in progress. Given conflict-related insecurity and concerns regarding Al Shabab, the study team took these steps to generate buy-in among local leaders and alleviate any potential concerns among community members. Locally based RPM research team members continuously monitored and assisted field researchers during the data collection process and conducted interviews with community leaders. After data collection was completed, field researchers transcribed and filed their field notes, which then went through a review and quality check process by the RPM team.

5.6 Data analysis approach

After the qualitative data were cleaned and translated, the research team identified several areas of interest based on the study's research questions and utilized a content analysis approach to review the data. In particular, the research team reviewed the interviews for narratives regarding the impact of the drought, food insecurity, coping strategies that were most effective, sources of resilience, the impact of external assistance, any anticipatory activities conducted in the lead up to the drought, and psychosocial factors. The research team reviewed all the interview notes, extracting insights and identifying areas requiring further probing. The study team then engaged in several analytical discussions with field researchers and coordinators to corroborate the insights distilled from the analysis process.

The quantitative data were analyzed according to the three areas of enquiry: positive deviants, social connections and psychosocial well-being. Descriptive statistics are used to provide an overview of the geographic and household characteristics of responses. Summary statistics are used to examine 1) what unique capacities have been effectively employed by PD communities in anticipation and response to the current drought, 2) how dynamics of social connections and collective action play out in the context of the unfolding drought, and 3) how communities cope with the adverse impacts of drought on their mental health. It is important to note that the summary analyses are unweighted due to lack of settlement population data, so the findings may not be fully reflective of the population of inaccessible settlements in the CDCS zone.

The RPM team conducted validation workshops in Mogadishu and Nairobi to disseminate and discuss key findings with stakeholders from this formative round of research, as well as to solicit input on the findings, conclusions, and recommendations. The first validation workshop was held in Mogadishu in January 2023 with 33 implementing partner representatives. The second validation workshop was conducted later that month in Nairobi where high-level stakeholders attended and provided recommendations. The feedback and recommendations from these sessions have been folded into the report.³⁴

5.7 Study limitations

While rigorous protocols and methods were developed and applied to the data collection process, there remain several limitations. First, the qualitative insights gathered through field consultations should not be used to generalize beyond the context of the selected study sites. Rather, they should serve as illustrations demonstrating how certain capacities are used and provide more insight on the lived experiences of drought-affected households. Second, limited access as a result of insecurity made it increasingly difficult for the study team to interview households across a number of villages and districts. Similarly, the quantitative data collection focused on the accessible regions of the selected districts. As a result, some of the findings presented here may not be representative of trends in all parts of the districts, and other districts and regions across Somalia. Finally, there remains the issue of representation within our study sample. While the research team took a number of steps to ensure demographic diversity in the study population, the background of the participants has skewed "older" and more female because women were more likely to be at home. All these limitations will be taken into consideration during future rounds of data collection, with the goal of improving the representativeness in our samples.

³⁴ See Annex 2 for further breakdown of the insights from these workshops.

5.8 Ethics & data security

Given the involvement of human subjects, RPM research methods and procedures were reviewed by the Southwest State's Ministry of Planning in late November 2021. In line with the approved protocol, all interview participants—including global and local key informants—were briefed of their rights as participants and informed consent was requested from all. All responses have been anonymized and are stored in a repository that is only accessible by the RPM team. Where necessary, the names of participants have been changed to protect their identities.

To protect the emotional well-being of participants and recognizing it may not always be contextually appropriate to discuss mental health or psychosocial well-being, the qualitative interviews did not include questions related to this during individual household interviews. Instead, insights were generated through KIs with local and global aid actors and community leaders from each study site. Through these conversations, the research team was able to inquire about the main factors that inform psychosocial support and trends in mental health outcomes, both across Somalia and in the respective study sites. These interviews revealed an urgent need for more data regarding mental health and psychosocial wellbeing, and as a result questions on this topic were added to the quantitative survey. The research team worked with RPM country staff and consultants to ensure the sensitivity and rigor of these questions.

Finally, while the timing of the study has generated a rich collection of insights into households' resilience strategies and the trajectory of their wellbeing, the research team recognizes the undue burden that may occur as a result of taking part in this study during rapidly changing and precarious conditions. Great care was taken by the research team, particularly field researchers who conducted the interviews, to minimize the research burden on participants whenever possible. This included reminding participants of their right to skip or refuse to answer any of our questions, limiting household interviews to 45 minutes or less, and requesting feedback from participants at the end of interviews. However, there remains ample opportunity to continue refining our methods and training the research team in approaches that further minimize the research burden and encourage the psychological safety of our participants. This continues to be a key priority as humanitarian conditions are likely to deteriorate over the coming weeks and months.



Ezra Millstein/Mercy Corps 2022.

6. FINDINGS: DROUGHT IMPACTS AND COPING STRATEGIES

Through 105 qualitative interviews and 841 household surveys, several crucial takeaways emerged during analysis. The following four subsections explore: 1) the compounded impacts of the current drought; 2) the resilience capacities employed by positive deviant households and communities and the role they play in helping cope with the drought's impacts; 3) the role of social connections when it comes to households' resilience, and; 4) the psychosocial sources of resilience. The findings from both qualitative and quantitative data collection demonstrate that while these resilience capacities are crucial in helping households survive, the protracted nature of the drought is exhausting these sources of resilience and the local systems that sustain them. Some of the strategies utilized by households and highlighted here provide crucial entry points for aid actors to leverage and strengthen these sources of resilience – both in response to the current drought, and to proactively reduce risks to future crises in Somalia.³⁵

6.1 The compounded impacts of the current drought

6.1.1 Drought timeline

For many of those interviewed, the first failed rainy season during the last quarter of 2020 did not undermine their overall capacity to cope with shocks and stresses.³⁶ As many key informants highlighted, those that had engaged in preparatory or preventive strategies stood a better chance of coping with the first two failed seasons. Such strategies included building up and relying on grain reserves, increasing contributions to household savings, and improving access to water sources and investing in their infrastructure. Indeed, many households noted that they had the neces-

³⁵ Given the descriptive nature of the presented figures and to facilitate their readability, the report does not provide information on statistical significance. Refer to the accompanying narrative. Annex A of this report provides further breakdown of the findings contained in the graphs.

³⁶ There are two rainy seasons in Somalia: the gu, from March through May, and the deyr, from October through December.

sary grain stores, water sources, and/or livestock to cope with the challenges they faced during the initial months of the drought.

“It became harder to [cope] with the drought after our food was finished and we lost our animals. Then it forced us to leave our beloved location to areas where we hoped to get support. Now we are vulnerable with no support, and we are unable to cope with the current drought.” - Male FGD participant, Dondardir IDP

However, the protracted nature of the drought combined with pre-existing stresses such as road blockages, conflict-related insecurity, and the secondary impacts of Covid-19, quickly eroded the effectiveness of their coping strategies. By the third failed rainy season—between October to December 2021—most had begun borrowing from local businesses, engaging in casual labor, and/or turning to their social connections for support.³⁷ For example, household surveys found that the proportion of households engaging in casual labor increased from 50% pre-drought to 65% currently (Figure 3). Those that were able migrated to urban centers and IDP camps where they could better access casual labor opportunities and humanitarian assistance. Key informants noted that households often migrated to nearby districts where they had social connections and were more likely to be able to get support from their networks.³⁸ Some participants described waiting as long as possible before splitting their households or leaving their communities, stating that “it became harder to [cope] with the drought after our food was finished and we lost our animals. Then it forced us to leave our beloved location to areas where we hoped to get support. Now we are vulnerable with no support, and we are unable to cope with the current drought.”³⁹ As the fourth failed rainy season has come and gone—March through May 2022—conditions have been characterized by widespread food insecurity and an increased reliance on external assistance for survival.⁴⁰

A global crisis: Abdirahman’s story⁴¹



In the wake of Covid-19, the Russian invasion of Ukraine, and global uncertainty, food prices have skyrocketed worldwide as markets and supply chains reckon with rapidly evolving challenges. Abdirahman—who was born and raised in Ismodnoy, just several kilometers north of Baidoa—spoke of the increasing challenges his household was experiencing as a result of soaring prices. He notes that “life was simple before the drought, I had a granary full of grains in my farm for family use only. I never thought of food insecurity.” As the drought has continued, his livelihood has come to a halt as his farm—which was also his family’s main source of food—has failed to produce a harvest after four failed rainy seasons. Now the price for a kilo of grains has more than doubled, rising from 7000 Somali Shillings (approx. 12 USD) to more than 18000 Somali Shillings (nearly 32 USD). With the drought set to continue, Abdirahman described feeling “anxiety about securing basic needs for my family with no harvest on track.” With the global economy under increasing pressure⁴², millions of Somali households like Abdirahman’s will continue to grapple with rising food and cooking gas prices.

37 Németh (2022).

38 Németh (2022); Households that were better off used public transport or donkey carts to migrate. Households that were financially worse off, however, often undertook the perilous journey on foot in extreme heat. Key informants noted that this resulted in numerous deaths, which mostly affected the most vulnerable members of a household—including children and the elderly.

39 Male focus group participant, Dondardir IDP, July 2022.

40 Németh (2022).

41 Name changed to maintain anonymity; In-depth interview with male agro-pastoralist, Ismodnoy, July 2022.

42 Stackpole (2022).

6.1.2 Drought impact

Five consecutive seasons of below-average or failed rainy seasons have impacted almost all aspects of life across Somalia, especially agro-pastoral households in the Baidoa and Buurhakaba districts as well as displaced households in Baidoa town in the Bay region.⁴³ These failed rainy seasons have produced acute impacts on households' livelihoods⁴⁴, food security⁴⁵, and health outcomes.⁴⁶ Key informants also highlighted early evidence of the drought's downstream effects, including the rise in divorce, child marriage, and intimate partner violence.⁴⁷ In most cases, households have experienced total or near total loss of livestock herds, along with significant interruption to their agricultural activities. This is illustrated by findings from the household survey which showed how farming income fell in prominence across most livelihood zones from 40% of households pre-drought to 12% of households currently (Figure 3). The sale of productive assets, such as livestock, also notably plummeted across all zones, from 16% pre-drought to 3% currently.⁴⁸

The impacts of nearly two years of below average rainfall have reverberated across key local systems—including local markets, environmental systems, and broader informal social protection structures—eroding their strength and durability. Reduced household purchasing power and increases in prices, drought-induced migration to camps and urban areas, and the increasing use of distress coping strategies have weakened many of these systems that would have otherwise helped buttress household resilience in the face of compounding shocks.

Food consumption has largely reduced across study sites, with households consuming an average of two meals per day; however, in more isolated districts like the agro-pastoral areas of Baidoa, households report eating one meal or less per day. The households that described more dire conditions—such as high rates of severe malnutrition among children and pregnant and lactating mothers—were often more geographically isolated, located further away from urban towns where resources and services are more readily available. At most sites where interviews were conducted, surrounding water sources have largely dried up, leaving many to rely on water trucking services provided by external actors. For some, the depletion of potable water sources drove them to leave their communities for IDP camps, breaking up communities and households and disrupting important informal support networks. Further, cramped conditions and poor infrastructure have led to the spread of water-borne and communicable diseases, aggravating malnutrition especially among children.

Yasir's Story⁴⁹



Like many in his community, Yasir's family has been practicing agro-pastoralism for generations. Animal herding, farming, and other agricultural work have long been his family's main source of income, sometimes supplemented by engaging in casual labor such as shoemaking and water collection. Having grown up in a family of 12, the cereals, sesame, beans, and other crops grown on his land have nourished his family and community for as long as he can remember. For him and many others in his community, harvesting crops and selling livestock products have been their primary source of income, keeping their households fed and running.

The drought, however, is testing the sustainability of his life's work. Successive seasons of poor or no rainfall have decimated his livestock herds, leaving the collection and sale of wood for fuel as one of his household's main sources of income. Every day his wife travels three to five km (about a three to five hour trip) to collect and carry back firewood that's then sold the next day in a nearby town, earning them about 5 to 10 USD.

43 Ibid.

44 Ibid.

45 REACH (2022b).

46 REACH (2022a).

47 Németh (2022).

48 Causal Design (2022).

49 Names have been changed to maintain anonymity; In-depth interview with male agro-pastoralist, Tuboy, July 2022.

With more women engaging in this type of work, his wife is now traveling further and further out from the community to collect and sell firewood, even with the risks to her safety. This prolonged drought is starting to strain life in his community. As he describes it, “drought and conflict are major factors that are pushing pastoralists to drop out of the agro-pastoral livelihood system. Conflict in the area is caused by a combination of diminishing grazing areas and population growth (both human and animal), contributing to land degradation, competition for pasture and water, and inter- and intra-ethnic conflict.” While these challenges pre-existed the drought, its protracted nature has magnified their impact.

“Drought and conflict are major factors that are pushing pastoralists to drop out of the agro-pastoral livelihood system. Conflict in the area is caused by a combination of diminishing grazing areas and population growth (both human and animal), contributing to land degradation, competition for pasture and water, and inter- and intra-ethnic conflict.” -Yassir

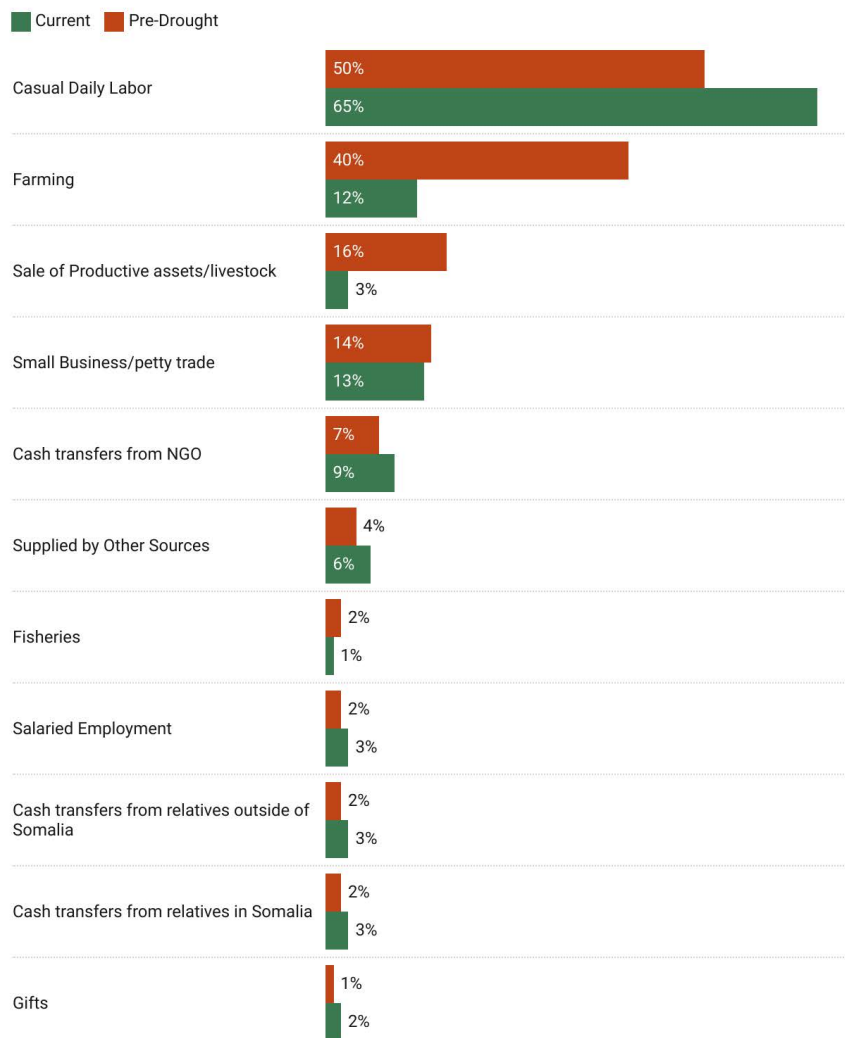
Despite these challenges, Yasir considers himself to be managing the impacts of the drought well. Unlike others in his community, his household remains together and goat rearing and firewood collection provide his household with two—relatively stable—sources of income. He is still able to provide support to others in his community, sharing food, water, and other goods with his neighbors. He credits his planning and coping strategies as the main source of his psychosocial resilience, noting that because of them “I and my family are less worried [compared to others in the community] and are hoping for a better future.”

6.1.2 Household income sources

The overall number of income sources pre-drought fell from 1.39 to 1.22. This decrease is reflected across most livelihood zones, but Riverine zone respondents reported an increase from 1.43 pre-drought to 1.60, the highest number of income sources among the livelihood zones. The main current source of income was casual daily labor at 65% of households, and this grew from 50% of households pre-drought. As an exception, the proportion of Riverine zone households reporting casual daily labor as an income source remained the same at 33% both currently and pre-drought. The panel survey will further investigate the reasons behind this. Farming income fell in prominence across most livelihood zones since the beginning of the drought - from 40% on average to 12% currently. However, farming income increased among Riverine respondents, from 53% to 62%, also an area to investigate in further rounds. Finally, the sale of productive assets notably plummeted across all zones, from 16% on average pre-drought to 3% currently. Income from other sources such as cash transfers from relatives, diaspora remittance, cash transfers from INGOs, salaried employment, fisheries remained extremely low both for current and pre-drought.⁵⁰

⁵⁰ See Annex 1, Table 12 and 13.

Figure 3: Pre-drought and current income sources overall (n=841)



6.2 Resilience capacities employed by positive deviant households & communities

In each community, positive deviant households were identified through consultations with local leaders. The RPM team requested referrals to households who were able to cope longer than others during the drought. This distinction drew from the qualitative interviews which found that by the end of the third failed rainy season (or the drought's 6-month mark), there was a divergence between those who were managing to cope with drought conditions and those who could not cope. Therefore, an indicator was constructed for Positive Deviance based on whether they reported being able to cope longer than or equal to 6 months. Using this indicator, 28% of sampled households were classified as positive deviants. The majority of PD households come from urban areas (58%) while a majority of non-PD households also come from urban areas, though to a lesser extent (44%). A greater proportion of non-PD households reside in IDP settlements (29%) relative to PD households (16%).

The average number of shocks experienced by households is 4.1. The main shocks experienced by households were drought (80% of all households), rising prices (57%), unemployment (56%) and hunger/malnutrition (41%) (Figure 4).

Drought was overwhelmingly experienced with a slightly lower proportion of PD households (72%) reporting drought as a shock compared to non-PD households (84%). Of interest, a great proportion of PD households (68%) reported rising food prices as a shock compared to non-PD households (53%), though this could partly be explained by the greater proportion of PD households in urban areas (see Table 14 in Annex).

Qualitative interviews with positive deviant households were carried out to better understand the strategies and capacities they were utilizing that allowed them to fare better compared to others in their communities. In addition to faring better or coping with the drought, these households often had, among other things, better food security outcomes and sustained sources of income. For example, PD households were more food secure, and were more likely to have two or more meals per day than non-PD households.⁵¹ As one participant explained, "[Positive deviant households] have no worries about the current drought because of their long-lasting plan for maintaining their lives. They have different income generating activities like, poultry raising, small business, small vegetable gardens, money exchange and being part of community savings that they put aside a small amount of each month."⁵² While PD households were equally as impacted by the severity of the drought, their effective use of their resilience capacities allowed them to withstand the impacts for much longer and continue to fare better than the average household.

51 Causal (2022); see Annex 1, Table 20.

52 Male casual laborer, KII with community leaders, Morshinile IDP camp, July 2022.

Figure 5 shows coping strategies employed by households to cope with the drought. The main positive coping strategies employed were access to credit/borrowing (16%), engaging in casual labor both in and out of town (13%) and relying on social networks (family, clan, local government and NGO) for support (9%). Reducing food consumption was another coping strategy used by households (12%) to cope with drought.

Figure 4: Shocks experienced by households (n=841)

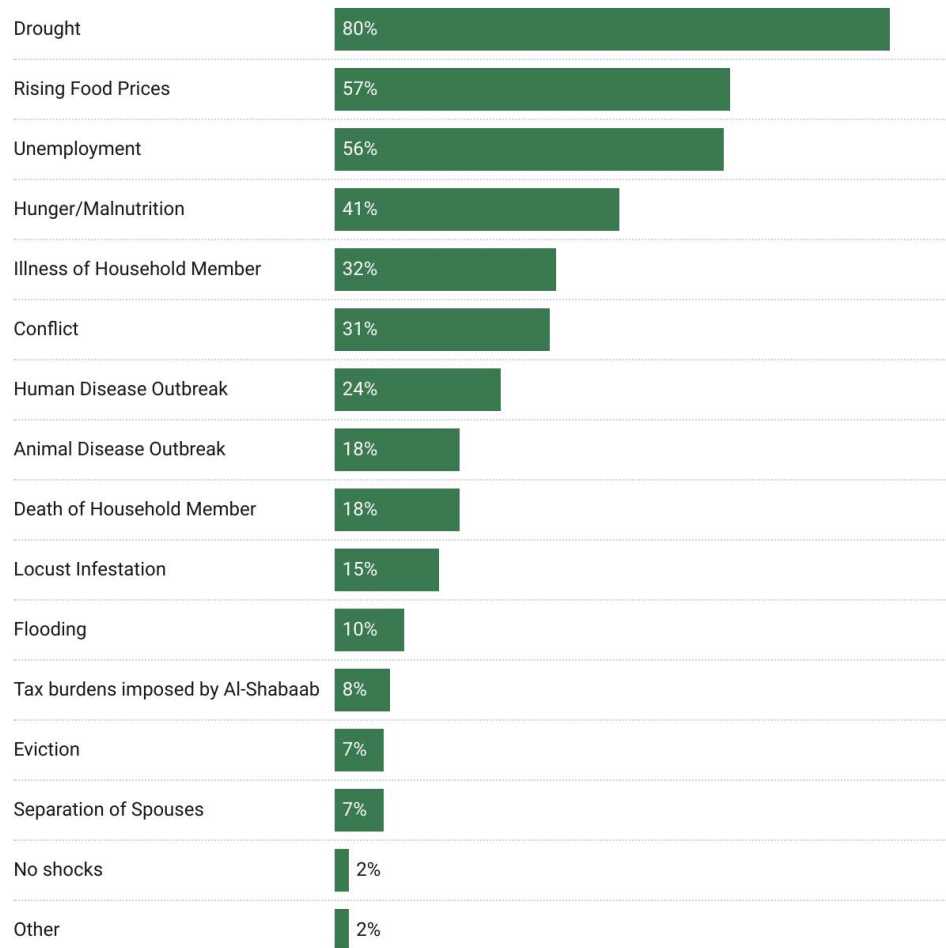
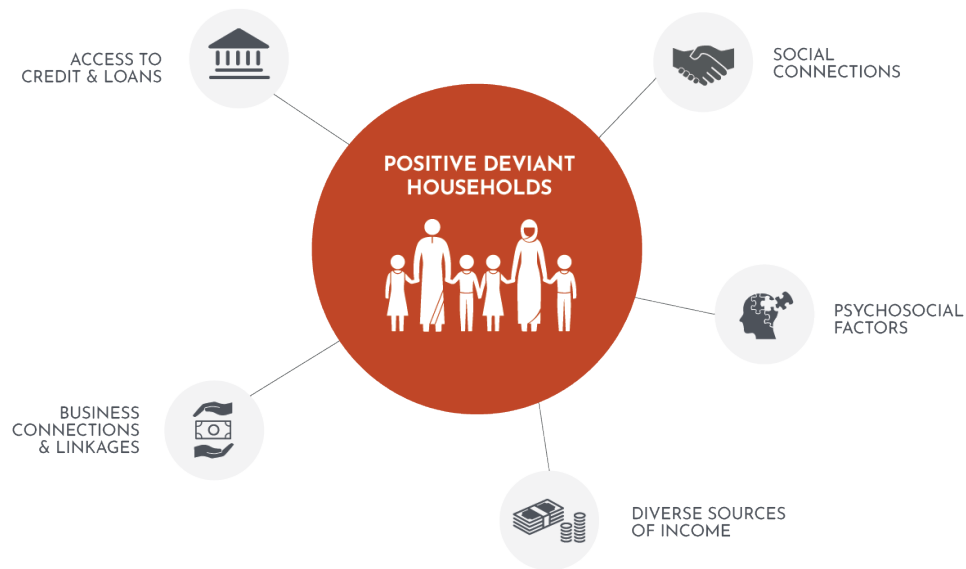


Figure 5: Resilience capacities employed by positive deviant households



Further, PD-households made greater use of all resilience capacities for coping with drought compared to non-PD households. Key resilience capacities for PD-households included access to credit and borrowing (37% PD vs 8% non-PD households) and casual labor opportunities in town (25% PD vs 4% non-PD households).⁵³ The following sections expand on the key resilience capacities of positive deviant households that emerged from the qualitative and quantitative data.

Validating households' positive deviance status with household hunger scores:

In order to validate positive deviance status of a household status, household hunger scores were compared (see table 20 in the Annex). PD households exhibit higher levels of food security (i.e. higher household hunger scores).⁵⁴ On average, PD households have a score of 2.59 compared to non-PD households' score of 3.11. These scores both fall within the "moderate household hunger" category and have a modest but statistically significant 0.5 score difference ($p < 0.01$). Moreover, cross-referencing with other food security measures suggest that positive deviant households may be coping better with drought conditions. For example, 48% of PD households and 59% of non-PD households sometimes or often went to bed hungry in the past month, and 40% of PD households and 54% of non-PD households sometimes or often went a day without food over the past 30 days. Finally, fewer PD households (81% of adults and 69% of children) reported having 2 meals a day or less, compared to non-PD households (89% of adults and 78% of children). These results suggest that, on average, the PD-identified group fares better in their food consumption across the sample.

⁵³ Although PD households were found to be more food secure (i.e. they were more likely to have three meals per day), they also reported reducing food consumption as a key resilience strategy (See table 20 in the Annex), a seeming contradiction in findings. Although it is likely that most households in Somalia are struggling with food security to some degree, the RPM team will look to better understand such patterns concerning food security and overall household food consumption.

⁵⁴ [The indicator is constructed from a summation of scores from three food security questions.](#) The scale ranges from 0-6, with subcategories 0-1 "Little to no household hunger," 2-3 "Moderate household hunger," and 4-6 "Severe hunger."

Figure 6: Capacities for coping with the current drought (n=841)

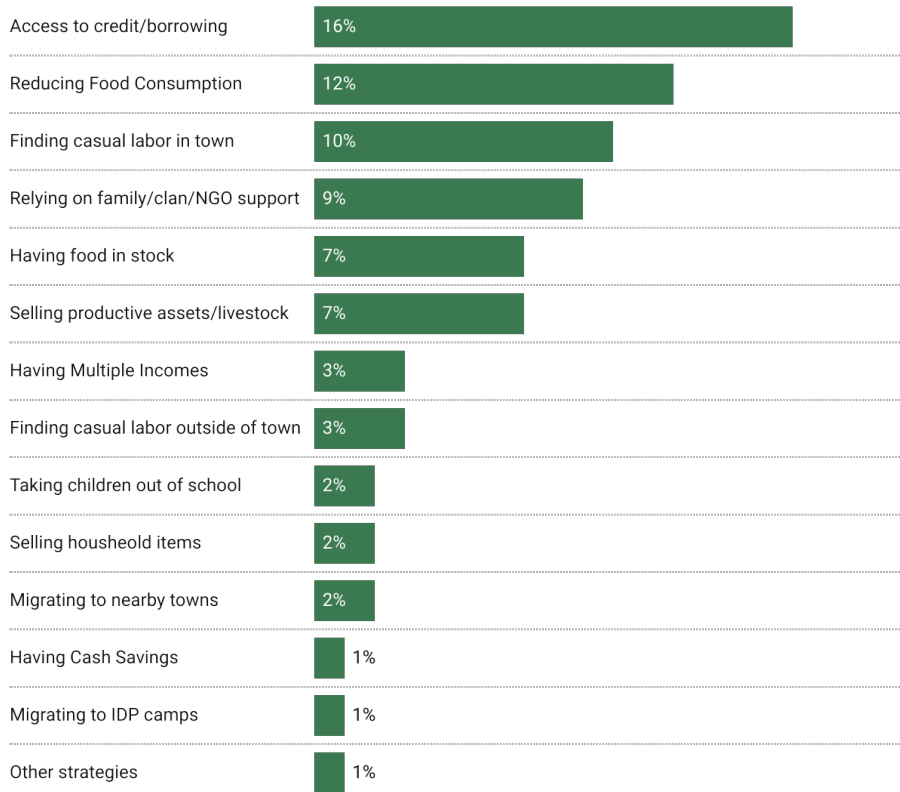
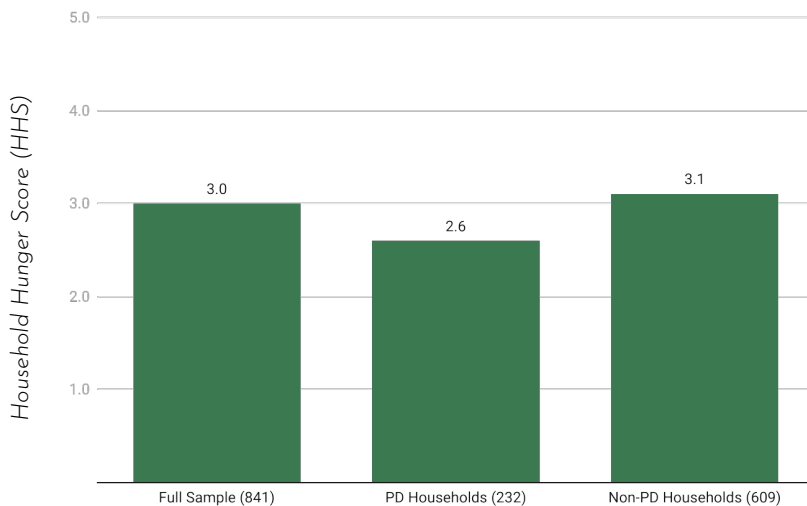


Figure 7: Household Hunger Score (HHS) by PD status (previous 30 days)



6.2.1 Access to loans and credit and cash assistance

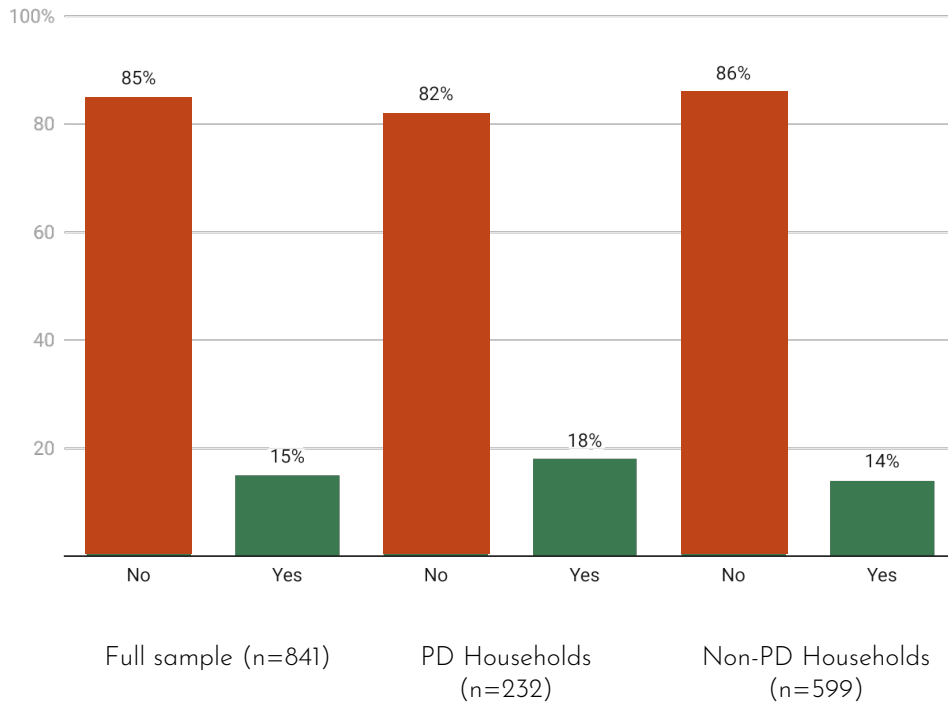
Participants described access to loans and access credit as pivotal to their ability to survive, particularly between distribution periods of external assistance. In many cases, households borrowed goods from local businesses to secure necessities for their households, including basic foods such as sorghum, wheat, pasta, and rice. As one female FGD participant described it, “Borrowing is what we live for. We are full of debts. Especially during the current drought, people mainly consume what they have borrowed. It is a hard time for people to survive without borrowing.”⁵⁵

Access to credit and borrowing was a key resilience capacity reported by 37% of the PD households and 8% of non-PD households (see Table 15 in Annex). However, the majority of households (85%) reported they struggled to access credit during the last 12 months when they needed it (Figure 7). While both PD households (82%) and non-PD households (86%) struggled to access credit at times in the past 12 months, PD households were better able to find local informal sources (shopkeepers, family and/or friends, and community groups) of credit to cope with the drought (see Table 16 in Annex). PD households reported substantially higher levels of access to informal sources of credit such as borrowing from local shopkeepers (24% vs. 5%), borrowing from shopkeepers in nearby markets outside of town (19% vs. 3%), and borrowing from family and friends (7% vs. 2%). This indicates that despite similar percentages of PD and non-PD households struggling to access credit in the past 12 months, PD households were better able to find local informal sources of credit to cope with the drought. This does

55 Female small business owner, Female FGD in Hanano 2 IDP camp, July 2022.

not necessarily imply that informal credit access influenced a household's ability to cope after 6 months of drought conditions. However, the existing distinction between PD and non-PD credit access signals that it may be useful to explore if PDs saw credit access as a critical strategy for coping with the drought. Notably, few to no households from either group reported borrowing from formal institutions of credit.

Figure 8: Access to formal and informal sources of credit during the last 12 months, by PD status



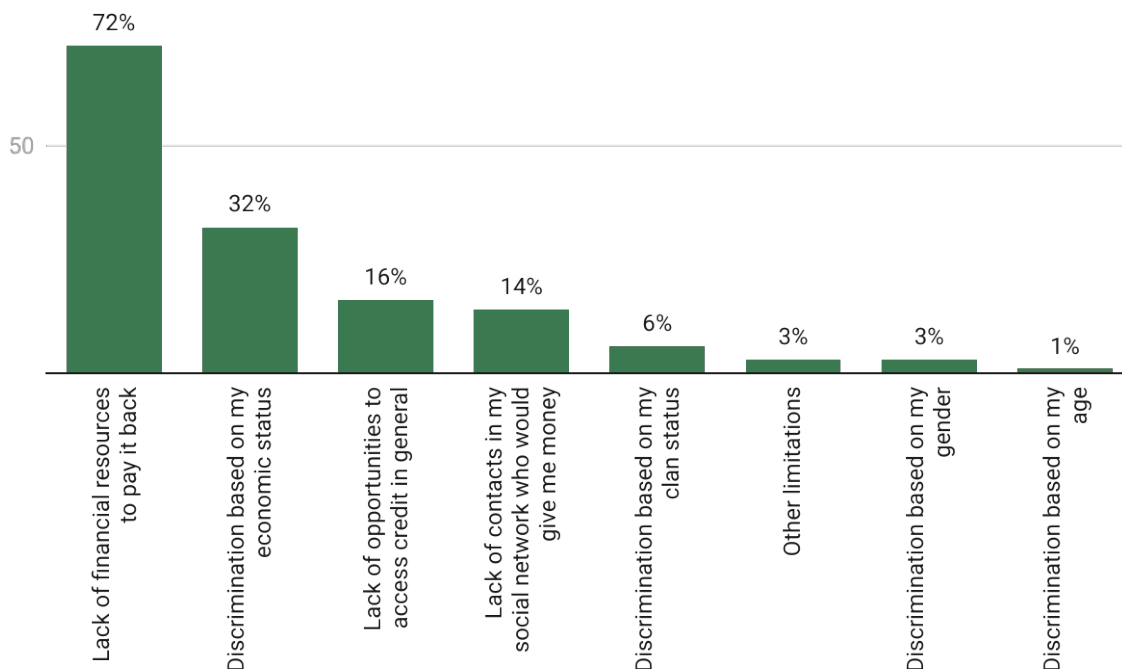
There are two factors that may be decisive when it comes to a household's access to credit. First, participants noted that people who were more well-known or well-established in their community were more likely to receive credit versus those that were not. This may pose some challenges for recently displaced households who may not possess the same depth and/or breadth of connections in IDP camps or in the new towns or cities to which they've relocated. Evidence from other contexts has shown that people who are displaced in the aftermath of a shock are more likely to struggle to access goods on credit—a capacity vital to their survival and recovery—because they lack the necessary connections with local traders and enterprises.⁵⁶ Although most report that they try to relocate to camps or towns where they have pre-existing social connections, the rapid deterioration in humanitarian conditions and the urgent need to access life-saving external assistance in some cases means that households have at times prioritized migrating to camps or areas where they know aid actors are present and providing support. In some instances, this choice may come at the cost of relying on or remaining connected to their broader social networks. Second, participants explained that sometimes shopkeepers and local business owners were more likely to extend credit if they knew that a household had received or been selected to receive external assistance. Many emphasized that cash assistance was critical to their capacity to pay back debts to local businesses—and by extension, underwrite their perceived 'creditworthiness' when they attempt to borrow again in the future.

Further enquiry into a household's ability to access credit, found that a lack of financial resources to pay it back was the major barrier (72% of all households), with fairly similar rates across livelihood zones with the exception of the Riverine zone, of which only 62% of households reported this (Figure 8). Perceived discrimination on the basis of economic status was the second most common reason, reported by 32% of the full sample, with nearly 50% of Riverine and Coastal Fishery zone respondents and only 24% of Agro-pastoral zone respondents (see Table 17 in Annex). Perceived gender, age, and clan status discrimination was very low across livelihood zones except in coastal fishery where gender, age, and clan status were perceived barriers to respondents. This may be related to the fact most

⁵⁶ Mercy Corps (2017).

coastal fishery communities hail from minority clans.⁵⁷

Figure 9: Barriers to credit access during the last 12 months (n=841)



6.2.2 Multiple sources of income, including higher wage sources

Interviews with key informants and households underscored the importance of having diverse sources of income—particularly among those who primarily engaged in agro-pastoral livelihoods and chose to engage in non-agricultural or livestock related livelihood activities. Households reported having an average of 1.39 income sources pre-drought, but this fell to 1.22 currently, with little difference between PD and non-PD households (see [Tables 18 and 19](#) in Annex). Across the sample, there was also a decline in the proportion of households reporting income from the sale of productive assets/livestock (16% to 3% of households) and from farming (40% to 12% of households) from pre-drought levels to now, with larger declines for non-PD households (see [Figure 3](#)). This illustrates how these livelihood activities became more constrained during the drought.

When possible, households would seek out casual labor opportunities, such as collecting and selling firewood, selling easy to harvest leafy vegetables, masonry, and more. The proportion of households reporting income from casual daily labor increased from 50% pre-drought to 65% currently (see [Tables 18 and 19](#) in Annex).

Some participants noted an increase in both male and female heads of household engaging in casual labor. Women in particular were increasingly forced to engage in risky livelihood activities, such as traveling several kilometers from their homes to collect and sell firewood. Nearby natural resources have dwindled as drought-affected households have increasingly relied on them, forcing women to travel further and further from their communities despite greater risks to their safety from conflict-related insecurity.

For agro-pastoral households located in more remote areas, proximity to nearby towns and villages where they could access markets and seek out casual labor opportunities was a determining factor in their ability to generate additional income. This was highlighted above, where finding casual labor opportunities in town was a key resilience capacity to cope with drought, particularly for PD households (see [Table 15](#) in Annex). While it may not be enough to make up for income lost as a result of the drought or pay off debts, this income did help households meet some needs and access

⁵⁷ Riverine communities have been historically marginalized, largely because of their weaker clan connections. See [Majid & McDowell \(2012\)](#).

some basic necessities. Among those living in IDP camps, casual labor was often the only source of income for some households, but participants noted that even these opportunities were no longer paying as well as they did before the drought. This is likely due to the secondary impacts of Covid-19 on local markets and economies, as well as the skyrocketing prices of basic necessities as a result of widespread economic shocks following the global pandemic and outbreak of war in Ukraine. Despite the wide-ranging challenges facing households, a local key informant explained that these additional sources of income were especially helpful during the early phases of the drought, “The other [capacity] that helped households cope during the first and second phase [of the drought] was unskilled labor, such as the collection of firewood and washing clothes for families that are better off. Through that [households] were able to make ends meet.”⁵⁸

Others noted that those who were able to engage in more skilled activities, such as teaching, tailoring, and construction, fared even better thanks to the higher demand for and higher wages provided by these opportunities. Because skilled opportunities were considered less vulnerable to the impacts of shocks, many participants emphasized the importance of investing in vocational training that would allow them to continue building upon these skills. However, for many of those interviewed in agro-pastoral areas, households did not want to completely drop out of their livelihoods in favor of skilled labor opportunities. All had been engaging in agro-pastoral activities for generations, and further underscored the need to ensure that their livelihoods were more sustainable and climate-resilient—especially as the likelihood of more widespread climate shocks has increased. Research from other contexts, especially within the horn of Africa, demonstrates effective approaches to preserving agro-pastoral livelihoods during crises. These include working with pastoralists to find ways their livestock can be used as collateral to meet short-term cash needs, providing credit to animal health service and livestock feed providers to extend their services closer to one another, and encouraging the production of fodder and crops in riverine areas to help reduce drought-related mortalities.⁵⁹ Some programs in Somalia found that programs with community-based animal health workers had good outcomes, particularly when livestock herders trusted and felt that these providers were accessible at the village level.⁶⁰ Among the needs outlined by participants, improving water infrastructure, distributing drought-resilient crop seedlings, restocking efforts, and increasing access to animal health services all emerged as opportunities for strengthening agro-pastoral livelihoods.

6.2.3 Business connections and linkages

For those households with the means or savings, small side businesses were highlighted as an important source of additional income—particularly among women and those living in IDP camps. Small business owners leveraged their social connections to businesses and wholesalers in nearby towns and urban areas to access goods on credit, which they then repaid using the profits from their businesses or cash assistance. Interviews with those living in the Morshinile and Dondardiri camps revealed that households that had established small businesses perceived themselves to be faring better and/or more resilient compared to others in their community. Some participants indicated that the decision to establish a small business was an intentional one, based on their previous experiences with the 2016/17 drought. They noted that those who had small businesses, particularly in IDP camps, were faring better in the aftermath and recognized that these businesses were more sustainable in comparison to their previous, shock-sensitive agro-pastoral livelihoods. While the increase in the current percent of households depending on small businesses compared to pre-drought levels was negligible, 18% of sampled PD households engaged in business as a source of income compared to 12% of sampled non-PD households. As part of their livelihood diversification activities, these households were often thinking of new ways to scale up and sustain their businesses in the face of future shocks. Moreover, they had frequently participated in savings groups and VSLA programs, through which they were able to develop small nest eggs that later became crucial to supporting their livelihood activities during the drought.

58 Male casual laborer, KII with community leaders in Dondardir IDP camp, July 2022.

59 Aklilu et al. (2013).

60 Wiggins et al. (2021).

RECOMMENDATIONS:

Conversations with global and local aid actors, community leaders, and participants emphasized the need for a combination of both short-term strategies that address the immediate impacts of the drought, as well as long-term programming that is concerned with strengthening household resilience. These include activities that support and strengthen households' capacity to adapt their livelihoods, ensuring that these interventions can be refined to meet shock-affected communities' needs.

1. Invest in vocational training, VSLAs and savings groups, and other long-term resilience-focused activities. In particular, resilience activities must support households' capacity to diversify their livelihoods in the face of emergent shocks and protracted crises.

Many recognized that the protracted nature of the drought and the worsening impacts of climate change put the sustainability of their livelihoods into question. Among positive deviant households, one of most critical capacities for resilience was the capacity to diversify their livelihoods, particularly among those whose primary source of income was agro-pastoral activities. During the early stages of the drought, households were able to seek out casual labor opportunities that allowed them to make up for lost income and resources. These opportunities were often low skilled, risky, and paid lower wages but were easy to seek out at local markets in nearby towns. However, as drought conditions have worsened, the capacity for these labor opportunities to buttress households' resilience and help them cope has dwindled. Most interviews highlighted the need for interventions that supported households' capacity to diversify their livelihood activities given the growing number of covariate climate shocks, while also addressing systems-level challenges related to shared resources, access to markets, and agricultural value chains. Participants pointed to savings groups and VSLA as an important resource, through which they were able to amass enough assets to establish additional livelihood activities such as small businesses. Looking forward, participants also call for the provision of more drought-resistant crops and training in new climate-smart agriculture practices and technologies.

2. Monitor household debt cycles and patterns to ensure the effectiveness of cash and cash plus activities, and to take advantage of opportunities to bolster local markets.

Access to credit has been critical to households' capacity to survive and access basic resources during the drought, with external assistance often used to not only repay debts in a timely manner but establish creditworthiness among local businesses. With the compounding impacts of the drought and ongoing food price crisis, aid actors should pay attention to how debt and credit contribute to household resilience and the resilience of local markets, as well as their potential impacts on the effectiveness of aid activities. Evidence from other contexts found that households were often caught in some form of food-related debt and, when it came to using external assistance, households often prioritized repayment over meeting household needs.⁶¹ By prioritizing repayment, they were able to abide by reciprocity norms and better ensure future access to loans and credit from their social connections. By not accounting for the importance debt repayment plays in household spending in their program design, aid actors failed to achieve the outcomes they set out to attain (in this case, increased dietary diversity).⁶² Moreover, debt repayment can help ensure that small shops and local businesses continue to function during crises, thereby maintaining their role in supporting household food needs and supporting local economies. By monitoring debt cycles as part of their programmatic activities, aid actors may better understand how the combination of their assistance's timing and frequency and reciprocity demands may diminish their impact in the immediate term, as well as how it may help households secure future reciprocal support. Monitoring household debt cycles and repayment patterns alongside routine market monitoring, including among local traders and vendors, may also enable aid actors to identify opportunities to further reinforce local markets through intentional assistance to small businesses. As a result, aid actors may be better able to time activities and allocate assistance amounts (particularly cash assistance) to ensure they achieve programmatic outcomes.

⁶¹ ACAPS (2022).

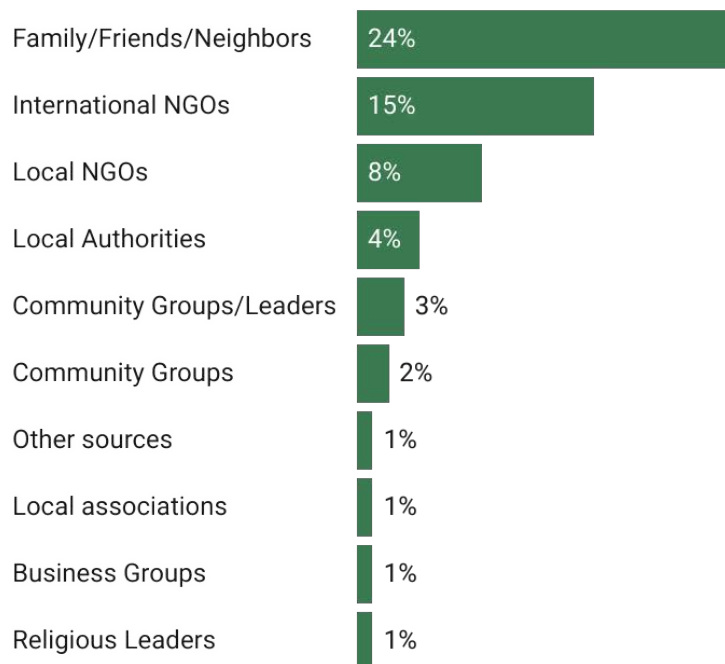
⁶² Ibid.

6.3 The role of social connections

6.3.1 Sources of social support

In Somalia, social connections have been a long-established source of resilience, helping households access what they need to survive during previous droughts and crises.⁶³ They have continued to play a crucial role during the current drought. Of households who reported having sources of support, the most frequently reported were family, friends, and neighbors (24%), followed by international NGOs (15%) and local NGOs (8%) (Figure 10).⁶⁴ There were few differences in the sources of social support between PD households and non-PD households, aside from slightly higher rates of support from local and international NGOs for non-PD households. However, 56% of all surveyed households reported having no sources of support. As the drought has continued, it has eroded households' capacity to extend support to social connections, which may explain the high number of households who reported having no sources of support. Among those who reported receiving support, 20% percent ranked family, friends, and neighbors as one of the most important sources (Figure 11).

Figure 10: Sources of social support during the past 12 months (n= 841)



Households have provided one another a range of support, from the tangible to the intangible, including cash, food, information, and emotional support. As one participant described it, "there is no one who can survive without sharing. The more you share, the more help you get."⁶⁵

"There is no one who can survive without sharing. The more you share, the more help you get." - Male FGD participant, Madaxwarabe

Participants underscored that the more connected a household was, the easier it was for them to access support from their social networks. In some instances, those that had connections in urban centers and the larger diaspora were able

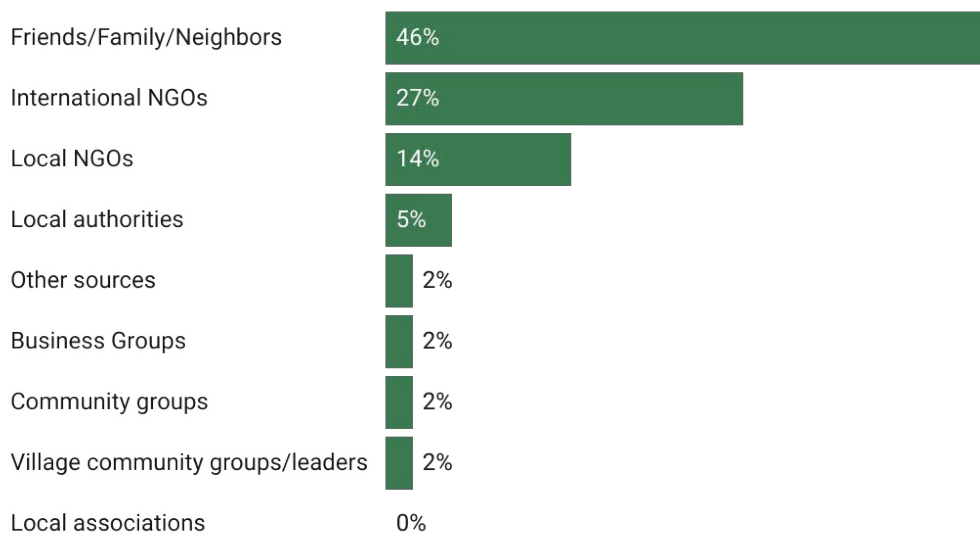
⁶³ For more on the role of social connections during previous droughts in Somalia, see [Maxwell et. al \(2016\)](#) and [Lwanga-Ntale & Owino \(2020\)](#).

⁶⁴ The main types of assistance received included cash transfers, water trucking, food distribution and the provision of basic health services. None of the households reported livelihood-building and savings/self-help groups as a type of support from the INGOs. The use of humanitarian assistance was mostly used to meet immediate needs, pay back loans or credit, and extend support to social connections.

⁶⁵ Male agropastoralist and casual laborer, Male FGD in Madaxwarabe, July 2022.

to receive intermittent support that helped them cover household bills, school fees, pay back debts, and/or purchase basic necessities. Given the differences in predominant livelihoods in rural versus urban towns, these households are likely experiencing the crisis in different ways, which may better enable urban households to send support to their rural connections. Previous research on social connections in Somalia found that those who experienced similar shocks (e.g. households that were both engaged in agro-pastoralism) were more likely to deplete their ability to rely on their social connections.⁶⁶ Those who had more diverse connections and experienced the shock differently were able to rely on their connections for longer periods of time.⁶⁷ This trend may already be occurring during this current drought, where Riverine and IDP zones reported a higher reliance on support from INGOs (24% and 19% respectively) compared to urban zones (12%). Because agro-pastoral areas are among the hardest hit and likely have less livelihood diversity compared to urban areas, households' capacity to extend support to one another may have been eroded, leaving households to largely rely on external assistance.

Figure 11: Important sources of social support



Although the types of connections households possessed varied, some participants noted that those with more social connections—and who, by extension, had better access to resources—often shared with less well-connected households. These connections preexisted the drought, with households leveraging them to “help less privileged members in the community by giving them zakat⁶⁸ and sharing food between households during the first season of the drought.”⁶⁹ This even extended to external assistance, with some households sharing willingly and local leaders creat-

ing community pots into which households deposited portions of the assistance they received. Community leaders reported that this practice of paying into a shared pot of money was particularly useful in mitigating tensions between households that received assistance and those that did not, as well as ensuring that vulnerable households did not fall through the cracks as a result of the targeting process. Vulnerable community members included elderly and/or disabled individuals who could no longer engage in livelihood activities, orphans, and widows. One community key informant described this process within his camp, “Our camp leader visits each household every 24 hours to assess their living situation, and he sometimes finds households who haven’t cooked food for a day and don’t have something to eat at all. Then the camp leader will swiftly gather some rice, sugar, maize, and milk and deliver them to the families in need.”⁷⁰ Given widespread and substantial levels of need, these informal support networks and the (re)distribution of resources within them ensure that the most vulnerable—and often more socially isolated—households are able to survive.

Despite strong intra-communal connections, engagement with and connections to local authorities, business groups, local and diaspora associations, NGOs, and other formal sources of assistance remains much weaker—particularly in

66 Majid et al. (2016).

67 Ibid.

68 Zakat refers to the “mandatory yearly donation of 2.5% of one’s net wealth” that is required by all practicing Muslim adults. In many instances, it is redistributed among communities and by the diaspora in support of the poorest households (See Akhtar 2021). The global value of zakat donations is estimated to be between 200 billion to 1 trillion usd per annum (See Ismail 2018).

69 Male casual laborer, KII with community leaders, Dondardir IDP camp, July 2022.

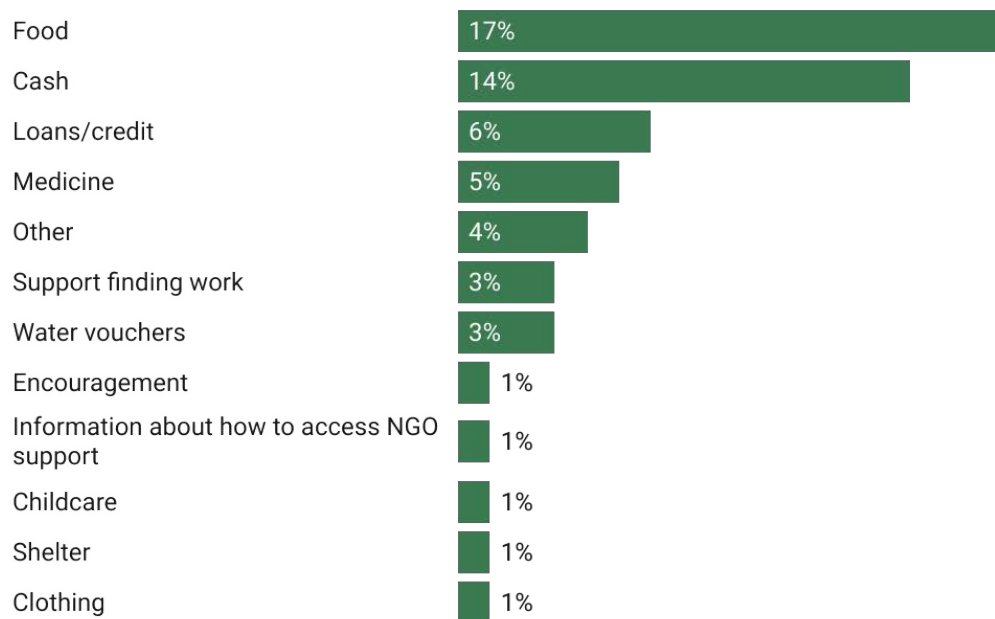
70 Female FGD participant, Morishinle IDP camp, July 2022.

hard-to-reach areas. Some households and community leaders described similar conditions, with local informal actors attempting to reach out to organizations to advocate for and secure assistance for their communities but finding little success. While many of these local actors have been active in the drought response, the lack of proper documentation, the ad hoc nature of these initiatives, and opaque targeting criteria have given rise to an, at times, chaotic response. This was found to be particularly true among private sector actors, who, as some Somalia-based key informants described, often distributed assistance on the basis of kinship rather than vulnerability. As previous research has demonstrated, these networks of support can be as exclusive as they are inclusive, prioritizing the distribution of support on the basis of clan, tribal and/or political affiliations, among other factors.⁷¹ Such dynamics can ultimately magnify vulnerability and need if not mitigated or addressed.

6.3.2 Types of social support

Of those surveyed, 64% of respondents reported having received no type of support over the last 12 months. Fewer respondents in riverine zones (36%) reported having no types of external support, compared to respondents in urban and coastal fishery zones (72% and 74% respectively) (see Table 27 in Annex). Of the types of support received, the most common across the sample were food at 16% and cash contributions at 13%. In general, the pattern holds from above: riverine respondents generally receive more types of support and urban and coastal fishery zones generally receive fewer types of support. Residents of IDP settlements received slightly higher than average food and cash contributions at 20% and 17% (see Table 27 in Annex). Respondents report that the most common sources of information about NGO support were neighbors (60%), family or friends (36%), direct NGO outreach (31%), radio (29%), and elders or religious leaders (21%). These figures were similar in urban zones and IDP settlements. In riverine zones, neighbors (85%), radio (50%) and television (41%) were more highly reported.

Figure 12: Important types of support received (n= 841)



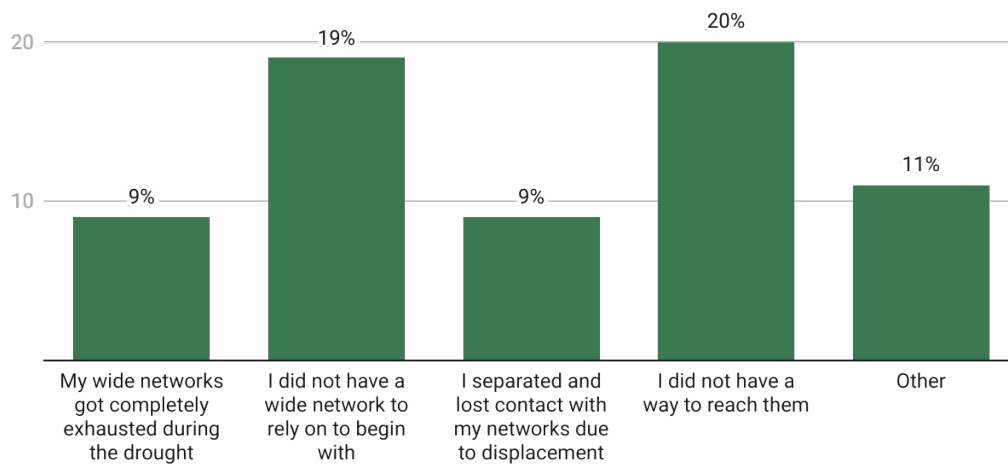
Although sharing continues, these networks of support have become increasingly exhausted as households' capacity to share has declined. One community member in Raydabale described the extent of the drought's impact, "I have a good relationship with the community, but no one can support me. [Everyone in the community] is now on the same level economically."⁷² 58% of the household respondents who needed social support at some point in the past 12 months reported not being able to access support (see Table 29 in Annex); however, the number of riverine who struggled to

71 Kim et al. (2022); Kim et al. (2020); Maxwell et al. (2016).

72 In-depth interview with male agro-pastoralist, Raydabale, July 2022.

access social support was less compared to the overall sample (42% vs 58% respectively) and the individual surveyed livelihood zones. Diminished sharing capacities among households—even positive deviant ones—in communities where informal support networks are a critical source of resilience is emblematic of the dire conditions that many are contending with. Among the reasons provided for the inability to access social support, the most common were not having a means of communication to access their support contacts (20%) and not having wide networks to begin with (19%). Some participants also reported spikes in household and/or community tensions, signaling their increasing struggle to manage and mitigate the impacts of the drought. Key informants echoed these concerns, noting tensions were on the rise as a result of conflict over shared resources, particularly pasture and water. As the drought continues without reprieve in sight, the growing number of challenges to households' social connections signals their exhaustion and an urgent need for aid actors to bolster household resilience by working through and strengthening these informal support networks.

Figure 13: Barriers to accessing social support during the past 12 months (n=841)



Answers were not mutually exclusive and respondents were able to select multiple options.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

1. Monitor and improve targeting approaches to help minimize social exclusion and mitigate increasing tensions.

Given the critical role that informal and local groups, including private sector actors and diaspora groups, have played in the humanitarian response, local and external actors must effectively partner and coordinate with one another to ensure that their efforts do not overlap and undermine one another. Community leaders have demonstrated that they have developed effective mechanisms to mitigate tensions over assistance and ensure that vulnerable households are not excluded or forgotten during the distribution process. Aid actors can complement these efforts by working with community leaders to develop people-centered communication strategies that help with the dissemination of timely and accurate information among households, particularly during the early design and implementation phases of activities.

2. Strengthen informal support networks by partnering and working with local community actors, who are deeply embedded in their communities and pre-positioned to reach vulnerable households.

Given the global food crisis and the reverberating impacts of Covid-19, aid actors must contend with a widespread crisis with limited resources. Local leaders and community actors are a critical source of knowledge and access, often organizing and leveraging their own informal support networks to meet their communities needs, making them vital partners in aid actors' efforts. Aid actors can work with community partners to monitor the strength of informal support networks, remain vigilant for signs of exhaustion, and identify key entry points to provide support, such as supporting local savings groups or VSLAs.

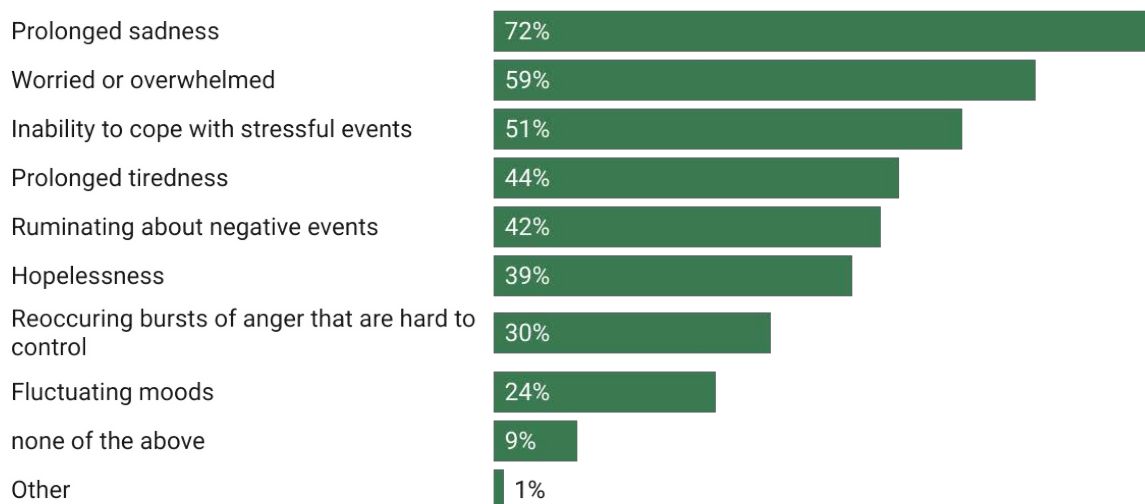
6.4 Role of psychosocial support in household resilience

6.4.1 Psychosocial factors correlated to drought coping capacities

The protracted nature of the drought combined with several decades of compounding shocks have had significant implications for the psychosocial wellbeing of households. Some estimates suggest that as many as one in three Somalis are struggling with some form of mental illness, with only three psychiatrists serving a population of nearly 16 million.⁷³ Key informants described increasing levels of sadness, depression, disturbed sleep or lack of sleep, and anxiety and worry about the future among individuals. Among those surveyed, respondents report an increase in symptoms, including sadness (72%), feelings of being overwhelmed/ worried (59%), and an inability to cope with stressful events (51%) (Figure 14). In general, non-PD households reported higher percentages across most symptoms and a lower rate of having no symptoms (7%) compared to PD households (15%).⁷⁴ One MHPSS provider described the far-reaching impacts of the drought on people's well-being, "Food, cash, water and shelter are crucial for survival but they are not enough. Some of the drought-hit communities lost all their livestock or sometimes even their household members and [as a result] suffer from great levels of trauma."⁷⁵ When asked if symptoms of anxiety and/or depression had worsened since the onset of the drought, 90% of respondents reported that they agreed or strongly agreed (Figure 15).

"Food, cash, water and shelter are crucial for survival but they are not enough. Some of the drought-hit communities lost all their livestock or sometimes even their household members and [as a result] suffer from great levels of trauma." - KII with MHPSS provider, May 2022

Figure 14: Household perceptions of changes in anxiety and depression symptoms since onset of drought (n= 841)



However, they also highlighted a number of psychosocial capacities that helped them cope, underscoring the importance of optimism, commitment to hard work (e.g. a sense of self-efficacy and future-oriented thinking), social connections, and seeking comfort in religion and spirituality. Participants repeatedly emphasized the importance of optimism, particularly when combined with strong religious beliefs that help them understand their current circumstances. One participant from the Morshinile IDP camp described the strength he derived from these qualities, "through our strong beliefs the household has managed to remain strong and energetic."⁷⁶ Through these capacities, households described developing a sense of purpose and engaged in meaning making during difficult circumstances, which helped reinforce the role of community and social connections as well as their internal locus of control.

⁷³ Mumin & Rhodes (2019).

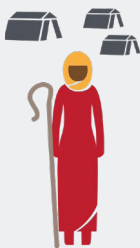
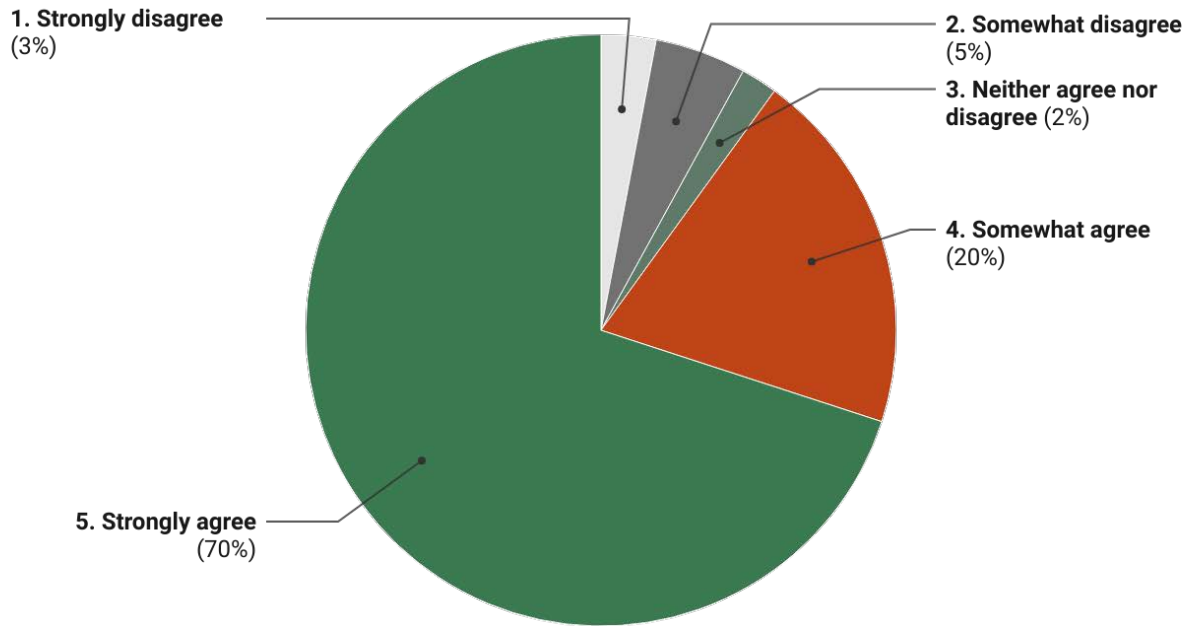
⁷⁴ Although reported rates of symptoms were relatively similar across most surveyed livelihood zones, those living in the Riverine zone fell below the sampled average and those in IDP camps often fell above.

⁷⁵ KII with MHPSS provider, Baidoa, May 2022.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

Early research suggests strong links between key psychosocial factors and resilience, including self-efficacy, optimism, confidence to adapt, supportive social norms, and aspiration.⁷⁷ However, the literature on psychosocial factors remains nascent as resilience research has often overlooked the role they may play in helping individuals cope, thrive, and adapt.⁷⁸ Indeed, some research suggests that failure to account for psychosocial factors in resilience programming may end up blunting the impact for program participants and undermine investments.⁷⁹ While many of the psychosocial factors that research has focused on are largely externally defined, they nonetheless provide a promising opportunity to develop more holistic activities that address both the objective and subjective factors that contribute to resilience.

Figure 15: Household worsening depression/anxiety symptoms since drought onset (n= 841)



Aisha's Story⁸⁰

Since leaving her village for the Dondardir camp, Aisha and her husband have had to start again. Although she grew up in a large family with 10 siblings, she described her childhood as ideal and stable, with large-scale shocks and stresses few and far between. Growing up, her family's land provided them with all they needed, during both periods of plenty and constraint. As the drought has continued, however, Aisha and her family have had to pivot their livelihoods and find new sources of income. Together, using their savings from their livestock and agricultural activities, they sat down to brainstorm small business ideas to help ease the strain on the household. Diversifying their income sources, she says, now helps to sustain them.

While Aisha notes that her circumstances are relatively better compared to others in her community, her household has not managed to escape fully unscathed. Dwindling clean water sources means that the spread of water-borne diseases have risen, impacting members of her household and others in the camp.

77 Béné et al. (2019); Béné et al. (2016); USAID (2018); Collins, Matthews, & Gottschalk (2022); Frankenberger (2017).

78 Cabot Venton, Prillaman & Kim (2021).

79 Ibid.

80 Name changed to maintain anonymity. In-depth interview with female casual laborer, Dondardir IDP camp, July 2022.

Where previously they were easily able to settle their health-related debts, increasing prices and decreasing income means that securing food is more important than addressing health issues—which she worries will be a potential source of future complications.

And as every household struggles to cope with the drought, support from social connections—a critical source of resilience during past shocks—has decreased as households struggle to meet their basic needs. As Aisha describes it, “family relations that were built on love and friendship have faded away since the drought. Families used to share and help each other with what they had...since then, life has become more difficult to manage and most have lost their sources of income due to drought. Families have nothing to share among themselves leading to poor family relations.” For many, these connections, which had long been a lifeline during periods of resource scarcity, are now reaching exhaustion.

“Without a positive mindset, no individual or human being can stand strong.”
- Aisha

Although the drought has taken its toll, Aisha remains optimistic. Her family, she says, is more ready and prepared to cope with any shock that comes their way. They will continue to diversify their income sources, a strategy that she says has helped some in her community remain more resilient than those with only one income. Most notably, she attributes her resilience to her outlook, underscoring that “without a positive mindset, no individual or human being can stand strong.”

6.4.2 Sources of psychosocial support

Across the sample, a slight majority of households (53%) know where to find mental health support, with lower levels of awareness in Coastal Fishery (44%) and Agro-pastoral zones (44%) and higher levels of awareness in Riverine zones (67%). Across all livelihood zones and regardless of PD status, respondents reported high levels of hesitation when it came to seeking help for mental health challenges (75%). Reasons included a fear of being judged (55%), fear of material consequences (e.g. negative impact on livelihoods) (38%), not knowing where to seek help (31%) and finding it difficult to admit to needing help (27%). Respondents in riverine and coastal fishery zones reported even higher rates across these outlined concerns.

Figure 16: Household perceptions of where neighbors can find psychosocial support (n= 841)

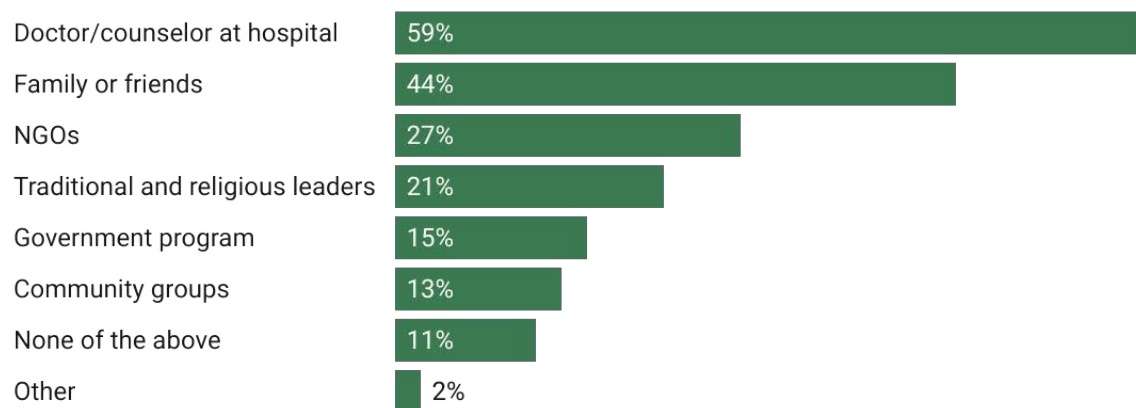
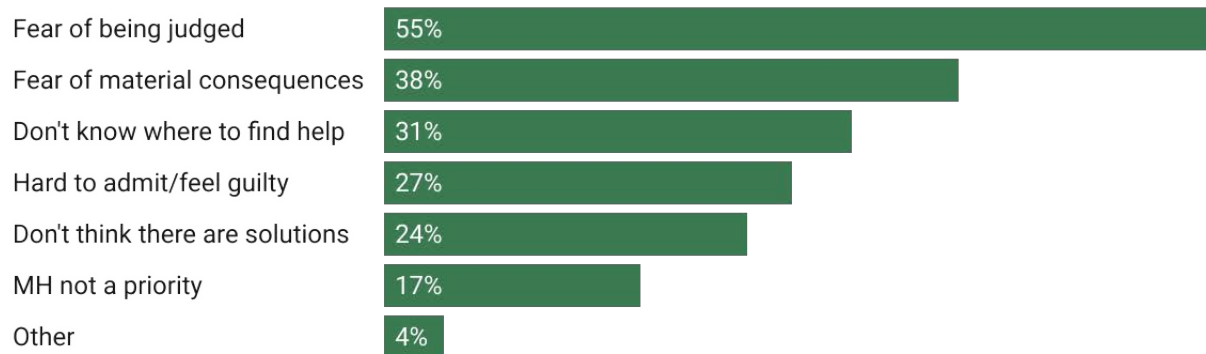


Figure 17: Household perceptions of barriers to seeking psychosocial support (n= 841)



The main perceived sources of available psychosocial support across the sample were doctors/counselors (59%), family or friends (44%) and NGOs (27%). In interviews with participants, social connections in particular proved to be an important source of emotional support and resilience, with participants describing a strong sense of solidarity within their community that extended beyond exchanging tangible support. A casual laborer residing in an IDP camp described the ways in which community members encouraged one another in their early business ventures, “It helps a lot that we care for each other. For example, when one of us begins a small business, we all buy from him/her in the camp to help motivate him/her.”⁸¹

This sense of solidarity was especially prevalent in agro-pastoral sites where households were linked by their livelihood activities and among those who had been living in IDP camps for some time and had developed strong networks. Moreover, local leaders and some households noted that religious and community leaders were frequently a crucial source of guidance and support—particularly among men. Their prominent role in their communities often means they have firsthand knowledge of each household’s circumstances, providing insight into community members’ economic and psychosocial wellbeing. A focus group participant recounted the critical support that a local leader provided, “At a time when I lacked food for my kids and lost half of my livestock and farm, I nearly went crazy because I was thinking non-stop every day. I stopped communicating with others and remained home alone. That is when the village sheikh and friends began coming to my house regularly, encouraging me to stay strong and providing me with some of the resources...From then on, it is hard for me to have a broken heart.” Their in-depth knowledge of their communities and capacity to mobilize resources and support often means that these community leaders can be decisive when it comes to a households’ ability to cope.

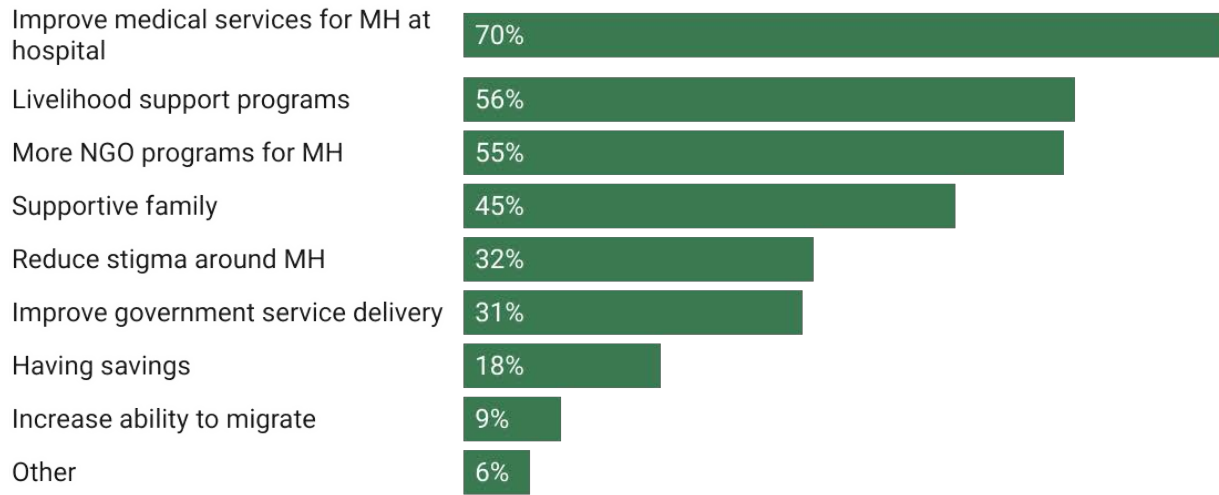
“At a time when I lacked food for my kids and lost half of my livestock and farm, I nearly went crazy because I was thinking non-stop every day. I stopped communicating with others and remained home alone. That is when the village sheikh and friends began coming to my house regularly, encouraging me to stay strong and providing me with some of the resources...From then on, it is hard for me to have a broken heart.” - Male FGD participant, Morshinile IDP Cam

6.4.3 PSS programming in Somalia (barriers, challenges, and best practices)

The highest reported reasons for hesitation around receiving psychosocial support among households are fear of judgment and/or impacts on their livelihoods and access to resources. These challenges should be considered when considering PSS programming in order to maintain good mental health in the communities. The most important factors for good community mental health identified across the sample were improved medical services (70%), livelihood support programs (56%), NGO programs (55%), and supportive family (45%). Rates were similar across livelihood zones, except for the Agro-pastoral zones which on average rated most factors lower. Additionally, riverine and coastal fishery zones were especially supportive of improved medical services and NGO presence.

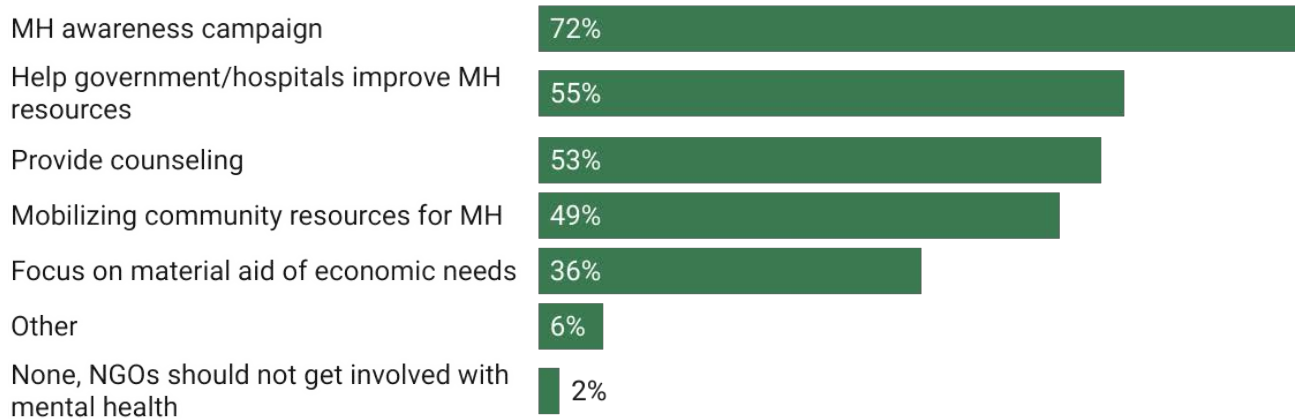
81 Male FGD participant, Morshinile IDP camp, July 2022.

Figure 18: Enabling factors for accessing psychosocial support (n= 841)



In terms of the potential for NGOs to support those struggling with mental health in the community, almost all households (98%) identified opportunities for NGOs to support those struggling with mental health. Of the given choices, mental health awareness campaigns was the most common (72%), followed by help governments/hospitals improve resources (55%), providing counseling services (53%), and mobilizing community resources (49%). Only 2% of respondents believed that NGOs should not get involved in mental health programming. Rates were similar by PD status and livelihood zones, with the exception of uniformly higher favorability in Riverine zones and lower favorability in Agro-pastoral zones, which is attributed to security and limited access.

Figure 19: Perceptions of potential NGO contributions to mental health



RECOMMENDATIONS:

- 1. Invest in and develop locally-relevant MHPSS interventions that are focused on reinforcing key sources of support within communities, such as local and religious leaders.**

The compounding crises and several decades of conflict and insecurity have taken a toll on households' psychosocial wellbeing. Given the acute nature of the current crisis, aid actors should identify and partner with key sources of psychosocial support within communities. This can include partnering with local and religious leaders and community health workers to invest and train them in psychological first aid, an evidence-based approach "designed to reduce the initial distress caused by traumatic events and to foster short- and long-term adaptive functioning and coping."⁸² Aid actors can work with local partners to adapt and refine such approaches to ensure that they are contextually relevant to the needs of communities, as well as disentangle the stigma surrounding mental health and illness.

- 2. Design resilience activities to include components that bolster the psychosocial factors contributing to resilience, including informal support networks and social connections.**

Research has underscored the role that social networks play supporting households' and individuals' psychosocial wellbeing. Activities that establish and support group-based forums, such as self-help groups or VSLAs, provide an entry point and avenue for aid actors to maximize on the psychosocial benefits they provide. Such activities can be complemented by community engagement projects that strengthen neighborhood interest groups, traditional group gatherings, or other women or youth-led groups that facilitate connections among community members.

6.5 Implications for future rounds of RPM data collection

As the RPM project continues, there remain ample opportunities for the project to generate deeper insights. In particular, subsequent rounds of data collection should continue teasing out the nuances surrounding social connectedness and the psychosocial factors of resilience. Along with this initial round of data collection, previous research conducted by RPM—and beyond—have underscored their crucial contribution to resilience, yet research has only just begun to understand how key stakeholders can effectively design and implement activities that bolster them.

6.5.1 The role of social connections

Future rounds of qualitative research should continue to unpack the dynamics surrounding social connections and informal support networks. Key informants and interview participants referenced the rise in tensions at the household and community levels; however, further probing could help RPM better understand if the ways in which community leaders are addressing these challenges are effective in the long-term when it comes to addressing the underlying drivers of tension. Moreover, much of the discussion concerning social connections has focused on its tangible benefits, including economic security, food security, and access to information. Further research is needed to help understand the intangible—aka the psychosocial—benefits that these connections yield.

Thus far, the research has treated it as an added benefit to engaging with and leveraging one's social connections and not necessarily a key source of resilience in and of itself. A more nuanced understanding of these dynamics may help practitioners better understand when, how, and whom households turn to for support, as well as when they do not. Finally, participants often referenced remaining in touch with connections in urban centers and in the larger diaspora, relying on them for remittances as well as information. Additional rounds of data collection should look to understand how households are remaining connected—e.g. mobile phones, social media—particularly when households are split or have migrated to IDP camps. Through this line of inquiry, RPM may have a better understanding of the geographic reach of these connections and how they can enable aid actors to access hard-to-reach areas, which are more at risk

⁸² National Child Traumatic Stress Network (n.d.).

for experiencing IPC 4 (Emergency) or 5 (Catastrophe/Famine) level food insecurity.⁸³ Such insights may prove useful to program designers and implementers who seek to work through and strengthen informal support networks.

6.5.2 Psychosocial factors

One of the long-running critiques regarding the framing and understanding of psychosocial factors is that they are largely externally defined, relying on concepts and capacities that may not be applicable across all contexts. As such, current research approaches can overestimate some factors and fail to account for others. In this context, not nearly enough attention has been granted to understanding links between spirituality and religion and its contributions to individuals' psychosocial well-being. Participants continuously stressed the importance and the meaningful role that religion played in their ability to manage the psychological stress of the drought, as well as the sense of community and connection it helped foster. Future rounds of data collection should consider unpacking the specific psychosocial factors that religion and spirituality cultivate within households and communities and possible linkages to resilience. This may also lead to a shift in our broader understanding of the links between psychosocial wellbeing and resilience, encouraging practitioners to apply a more relational rather than individual lens when designing and implementing programming. As these initial rounds of data collection and analysis and research from elsewhere have demonstrated, individual and household resilience is inextricably linked with the resilience of the broader community and informal support networks.



Ezra Millstein/Mercy Corps 2022.

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ANNEX 1: FORMATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS (TABLES)¹

Table 7: population breakdowns by district (Refer to figure 1 in the report)

	Full Sample N=841	Mogadishu N= 135	Baidoa N= 145	Kismayo N= 135	Wajid N= 151	Hudur N= 139	Wanlaweyn N= 135
Population	100%	16.2%	17.2%	16.1%	18%	16.5%	16.1%

Table 8: Population breakdowns by livelihood zone (Refer to figure 2 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Population	100%	16.1%	5.4%	5.5%	47.4%	25.7%

Table 9: residence status of households (Refer to figure 3 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 839	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 397	IDP Settlement N= 216
Outcome	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop
RESIDENCE STATUS						
Internally Displaced Household	28%	8%	16%	7%	14%	74%
Returnee	5%	2%	7%	7%	7%	3%
Host Community	53%	85%	73%	54%	63%	8%
Voluntary Migrant	15%	4%	4%	33%	17%	15%

¹ In order to facilitate presentation and as these are descriptive findings, we do not provide standard errors in the presented tables. Some apparent differences in percentages across the groups may not be statistically significant. Refer to the report's explanatory text for each table which highlights core significant differences across groups.

Table 10: Head of Household Marital Status (Refer to figure 4 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Outcome	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop
Is the Head of Household female?	53%	42%	80%	76%	52%	5%
Single HoH	2%	1%	0	4%	2%	2%
Married HoH	81%	87%	76%	70%	81%	81%
Divorced HoH	7%	4%	13%	17%	7%	7%
Widowed HoH	10%	9%	11%	9%	10%	10%

Table 11: Head Household Level of Education (Refer to figure 5 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 820	Agro-Pastoral N= 130	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 388	IDP Settlement N= 211
Outcome	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop
Received formal education regardless of completion	27%	20%	20%	33%	32%	24%

Table 12: Current Income Sources by Livelihood Zone (Refer to figure 6 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Outcome	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop
Number of current sources of income	1.22	1.30	1.60	1.24	1.18	1.15
Casual daily labor	0.65	0.62	0.33	0.70	0.67	0.70
Small business/ petty trade	0.13	0.06	0.20	0.20	0.19	0.06
Farming	0.12	0.29	0.62	0.02	0.06	0.04

Sale of productive assets/livestock	0.03	0.06	0.13	0.04	0.02	0.02
Cash transfers from relatives in Somalia	0.03	0.03	0	0	0.03	0.06
Cash transfers from relatives outside Somalia	0.03	.01	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.03
Cash transfers from NGOs	0.09	0.05	0.18	0	0.09	0.10
Gifts	0.02	0.05	0.02	0	0.01	0.04
Salaried employment	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.04	0.02
Fisheries	0.01	0	0.04	0.07	0.02	0
Supplied by other sources	0.06	0.13	0	0.11	.03	0.07

Table 13: Pre-Drought Income Sources by Livelihood Zone (Refer to figure 6 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Outcome	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop	Prop
Number of current sources of income	1.39	1.55	1.42	1.33	1.33	1.43
Casual daily labor	0.50	0.36	0.33	0.61	0.54	0.50
Small business/ petty trade	0.14	0.06	0.16	0.17	0.20	0.07
Farming	0.40	0.62	0.53	0.11	0.30	0.47
Sale of productive assets/livestock	0.16	0.21	0.20	0.04	0.11	0.22
Cash transfers from relatives in Somalia	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02
Cash transfers from relatives outside Somalia	0.02	0.01	0	0.04	0.02	0.02
Cash transfers from NGOs	0.07	0.13	0.07	0	0.07	0.07
Gifts	0.01	0.01	0	0.02	0.01	0
Salaried employment	0.02	0	0.02	0.07	0.03	0.01

Fisheries	0.02	0	0.04	0.11	0.02	0
HH income was supplied by other sources	0.04	0.11	0.02	0.13	0.02	0.04

Table 14: Shocks Experienced by PD Status (Refer to figure 7 in the report)

	Full Sample (N=841)	PD Households (N=232)	Non-PD Households (N=609)
Average Number of shocks experienced	4.1	4.2	4.06
Drought	80%	72%	84%
Conflict	31%	27%	32%
Flooding	10%	7%	2%
Eviction	7%	8%	7%
Human disease outbreaks	24%	26%	23%
Animal disease outbreaks	18%	22%	17%
Locust infestation (or other plague leading to crop failure)	15%	23%	12%
Illness of household member	32%	34%	31%
Death of household member	18%	20%	17%
Separation of spouses	8%	8%	7%
Hunger/malnutrition	42%	35%	44%
Rising food prices	57%	68%	53%
Unemployment	57%	58%	56%
Tax burdens imposed by Al-Shabaab	8%	10%	8%
No shocks	2%	3%	2%
Other shocks	2%	1%	2%

Table 15: Capacities for Coping with the Current Drought by PD Status (Refer to figure 8 in the report)

	Full Sample (N=841)	PD Households (N=232)	Non-PD Households (N=609)
Having multiple incomes	3%	7%	2%
Access to credit/ borrowing	16%	37%	8%
Having cash savings	1%	4%	1%
Having food in stock	7%	10%	6%
Reducing food consumption	12%	25%	8%
Selling productive assets/livestock	7%	16%	4%
Taking children out of school	2%	7%	1%
Selling household items	2%	5%	0%
Finding casual labor in town	10%	25%	4%
Finding casual labor outside town	3%	8%	1%
Relying on family inside Somalia	3%	8%	1%
Relying on family outside Somalia	2%	6%	0%
Relying on community/ clan support	1%	2%	0%
Relying on community groups for support	0%	0%	0%
Relying on local authorities for support	0%	0%	0%
Relying on NGOs for support	3%	9%	1%
Migrating to IDP camps	1%	3%	1%
Migrating to nearby towns	2%	4%	1%
Other strategies	3%	7%	1%

Table 16: Formal and Informal Sources of Credit by PD Status (Refer to Figure 7 in the report)

	Full Sample (N=841)	PD Households (N=232)	Non-PD Households (N=609)
Any times in the last 12 months when you needed credit but couldn't access it?	85%	82%	87%
Borrowed from local shopkeepers	10%	24%	5%
Borrowed from shopkeepers in nearby markets	8%	19%	3%
Borrowed from family and/or friends	3%	7%	2%
Borrowed from community groups	0%	1%	0%
Borrowed from guarantors	1%	1%	0%
Borrowed from formal banking institutions	0%	1%	0%
Borrowed from other sources	0%	0%	0%

Table 17: Barriers to Credit Access by Livelihood Zone (Refer to Figure 8 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Any times in the last 12 months when you needed credit but couldn't access it?	85%	90%	76%	87%	83%	88%
Lack of financial resources to pay it back	72%	75%	62%	74%	69%	77%
Lack of contacts in my social network who would give me money	14%	7%	18%	35%	13%	16%

Lack of opportunities to access credit in community in general	16%	7%	31%	9%	16%	15%
Discrimination based on my gender	3%	0%	2%	15%	3%	3%
Discrimination based on my age	1%	2%	0%	2%	1%	1%
Discrimination based on my clan status	6%	3%	4%	15%	5%	7%
Discrimination based on my economic status	32%	24%	1%	48%	31%	32%
Other limitations	3%	7%	0%	4%	2%	3%

Table 18: Current Income Sources by Positive Deviance (Refer to Figure 9 in the report)

	Full Sample (N=841)	PD Households (N=232)	Non-PD Households (N=609)
Number of current sources of income	1.22	1.25	1.20
Casual daily labor	65%	60%	67%
Small business/petty trade	13%	18%	12%
Farming	12%	12%	12%
Sale of productive assets/livestock	3%	2%	4%
Cash transfers from relatives in Somalia	3%	5%	3%
Cash transfers from relatives outside Somalia	3%	6%	2%
Cash transfers from NGOs	9%	7%	9%
Gifts	2%	1%	3%
Salaried employment	3%	7%	2%
Fisheries	1%	2%	1%
Supplied by other sources	6%	6%	6%

Table 19: Pre-Drought Income Sources by Positive Deviance (Refer to Figure 9 in the report)

	Full Sample (N=841)	PD Households (N=232)	Non-PD Households (N=609)
Number of income sources pre-drought	1.39	1.41	1.39
Casual daily labor	50%	52%	49%
Small business/petty trade	14%	20%	12%
Farming	40%	28%	44%
Sale of productive assets/ livestock	16%	13%	17%
Cash transfers from relatives in Somalia	2%	5%	2%
Cash transfers from relatives outside Somalia	2%	5%	1%
Cash transfers from NGOs	7%	7%	8%
Gifts	1%	0%	1%
Salaried employment	2%	5%	1%
Fisheries	2%	2%	2%
HH income was supplied by other sources	4%	4%	4%

Table 20: Food Security Indicators by PD status (Refer to figure 9 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 831	PD Households N= 227	Non-PD Households N= 604
Outcome	Prop	Prop	Prop
Household Hunger Scale Indicator	2.97	2.59	3.11
You or HH ate a limited variety of foods in the past 30 days			
Rarely or Never	41%	41%	41%
Sometimes or Often	59%	59%	59%

You or HH went to bed hungry in the past 30 days			
Rarely or Never	44%	52%	41%
Sometimes or Often	56%	48%	59%
You or HH had a day with no food in the past 30 days			
Rarely or Never	50%	60%	46%
Sometimes or Often	50%	40%	54%
Few daily meals			
Adults had 2 or fewer daily meals in the past week	87%	81%	89%
Children had 2 or fewer daily meals in the past week	75%	69%	78%

Table 25: Received Sources of Social Support by Livelihood Zone (Refer to Figure 10 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Family/friends/ neighbors	25%	24%	42%	24%	24%	23%
Community groups/community leaders	3%	2%	11%	2%	2%	6%
Community groups	2%	3%	9%	4%	1%	1%
Local authorities	4%	3%	18%	0%	3%	4%
Religious leaders	1%	0%	7%	0%	1%	0%
Business groups	1%	0%	4%	0%	2%	2%
Local associations	1%	1%	4%	0%	1%	0%
Local universities	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Local NGOs	8%	8%	7%	2%	8%	11%
International NGOs	15%	18%	24%	0%	12%	19%
Other sources	1%	1%	0%	0%	1%	1%
No one	56%	53%	33%	70%	59%	55%

Table 26: Important Sources of Social Support by Livelihood Zone (Refer to Figure 11 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Family/friends/ neighbors	20%	18%	36%	24%	20%	17%
Village community groups/community leaders	1%	2%	2%	2%	1%	1%
Community groups	1%	2%	2%	2%	1%	1%
Local authorities	2%	2%	2%	0%	3%	1%
Business groups	1%	0%	0%	0%	1%	1%
Local associations	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%
Local NGOs	6%	6%	4%	2%	6%	7%
International NGOs	13%	17%	18%	0%	10%	16%
Other sources	1%	1%	0%	0%	1%	1%
No one	56%	53%	33%	70%	59%	55%

Table 27: Types of Support Received by Livelihood Zone (Refer to figure 15 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
None	64%	61%	36%	74%	72%	56%
Food donations	16%	22%	33%	2%	11%	20%
Clothing	2%	1%	2%	0%	1%	5%
Cash contributions	13%	16%	16%	7%	11%	17%
Loans/credit	6%	4%	20%	9%	5%	5%
Water vouchers	2%	4%	4%	0%	2%	3%
Shelter	1%	1%	2%	0%	1%	4%
Transportation	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Support finding work	2%	0%	7%	11%	2%	1%
Child care	2%	1%	11%	2%	2%	3%
Medicine	6%	2%	18%	2%	4%	10%
Info for how to access NGOs	2%	2%	9%	4%	1%	3%
Encouragement	2%	1%	7%	9%	1%	2%
Other sources	3%	7%	2%	0%	3%	4%

Table 28: Important Types of Support Received by Livelihood Zone (Refer to Figure 12 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
None	23%	22%	0%	17%	27%	22%
Food donations	13%	19%	24%	2%	10%	17%
Clothing	1%	1%	0%	0%	0%	2%
Cash contributions	11%	13%	11%	7%	10%	13%
Loans/credit	5%	4%	13%	9%	4%	4%
Water vouchers	2%	2%	4%	0%	1%	2%
Shelter	1%	0%	2%	0%	1%	2%
Transportation	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Support finding work	2%	0%	7%	11%	1%	1%
Child care	1%	1%	7%	2%	1%	2%
Medicine	4%	1%	11%	2%	3%	6%
Info for how to access NGOs	1%	2%	0%	4%	0%	3%
Encouragement	1%	0%	0%	9%	1%	2%
Other sources	3%	7%	2%	0%	2%	3%

Table 29: Access to Social Support and Barriers by Livelihood Zone (Refer to Figure 13 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Any times you needed social support but couldn't access it in past 12 months?	58%	61%	42%	42%	57%	62%
My wide networks got completely exhausted during the drought	9%	2%	29%	9%	9%	11%
I did not have a wide network to rely on to begin with	19%	16%	20%	26%	18%	20%
I separated and lost contact with my networks due to displacement	9%	4%	11%	9%	8%	13%
I did not have a way to reach them	20%	20%	11%	20%	23%	18%
Other	11%	22%	2%	4%	10%	10%

Table 30: Household perceptions of opinions on symptoms and whether symptoms have worsened since the beginning of drought (Refer to Figure 14 & 19 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Prolonged sadness	72%	75%	53%	61%	73%	77%
Inability to cope with stressful events	51%	57%	40%	54%	50%	52%
Worried or overwhelmed	59%	64%	47%	54%	58%	62%
Hopelessness	39%	45%	36%	37%	35%	43%
Fluctuating moods	24%	27%	27%	22%	21%	27%
Ruminating about negative events	42%	42%	47%	52%	39%	45%

Prolonged tiredness	44%	38%	51%	63%	40%	47%
Reoccurring bursts of anger that are hard to control	30%	30%	27%	6%	28%	30%
Other	1%	3%	0%	0%	1%	1%
None of the above	9%	5%	27%	4%	10%	8%
SYMPTOMS HAVE WORSENEO SINCE THE START OF THE DROUGHT						
1. Strongly disagree	3%	9%	3%	0%	2%	1%
2. Somewhat disagree	5%	9%	%	5%	5%	4%
3. Neither agree nor disagree	2%	2%	6%	9%	1%	1%
4. Somewhat agree	20%	15%	18%	43%	19%	21%
5. Strongly agree	70%	65%	70%	43%	73%	74%

Table 30: Household perceptions of opinions on symptoms and whether symptoms have worsened since the beginning of drought (Refer to Figure 14 & 19 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
I KNOW WHERE TO FIND MENTAL HEALTH SUPPORT						
1. Strongly disagree	29%	39%	27%	22%	30%	24%
2. Somewhat disagree	11%	8%	2%	22%	12%	10%
3. Neither agree nor disagree	7%	9%	4%	13%	6%	7%
4. Somewhat agree	24%	23%	40%	24%	21%	26%
5. Strongly agree	30%	22%	27%	20%	32%	33%
I AM LIKELY TO HESITATE FOR HELP WHEN I AM DISTRESSED						
1. Strongly disagree	15%	24%	2%	0%	16%	15%
2. Somewhat disagree	7%	9%	9%	0%	7%	7%
3. Neither agree nor disagree	2%	2%	2%	7%	2%	2%

4. Somewhat agree	23%	16%	29%	24%	24%	26%
5. Strongly agree	52%	50%	58%	0%	52%	50%

Table 32: Household Perceptions of best practices for Community Mental Health (Refer to Figure 18 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Supportive family	45%	30%	71%	52%	44%	51%
Improve medical services for MH at hospital	70%	47%	84%	85%	73%	73%
More NGO programs for MH	55%	40%	73%	72%	56%	54%
Livelihood support programs	56%	56%	73%	70%	53%	55%
Having savings	18%	25%	18%	11%	16%	18%
Reduce stigma around MH	32%	22%	56%	65%	31%	30%
Improve government service delivery	31%	22%	56%	54%	29%	30%
Increase ability to migrate	9%	7%	16%	9%	10%	9%
Other	6%	20%	0%	4%	4%	4%

Table 33: Perceptions of Potential NGO Contributions to Mental Health (Refer to Figure 19 in the report)

	Full Sample N= 841	Agro-Pastoral N= 135	Riverine N= 45	Coastal Fishery N= 46	Urban N= 399	IDP Settlement N= 216
Provide counseling	53%	40%	71%	70%	52%	56%
MH awareness campaign	72%	54%	89%	8%	75%	72%
Mobilizing community resources for MH	49%	39%	78%	52%	47%	51%
Help government/hospitals improve MH resources	55%	39%	84%	0%	54%	54%

Focus on material aid of economic needs	36%	44%	53%	35%	31%	37%
None, NGOs should not get involved with mental health	2%	1%	0%	0%	4%	2%
Other	6%	22%	0%	2%	3%	4%