



Resilience in Somalia and Opportunities for Measurement Innovation for the Resilience Population-level Measurement Activity

April 2022

ABOUT THE RESILIENCE POPULATION-LEVEL MEASUREMENT ACTIVITY (RPM)

The Somalia Resilience Population-Level Measurement Activity (RPM) is a Mercy Corps and ACDI/VOCA-implemented five year, USAID-funded \$9 million USD 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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Front Cover Photo Credit

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INTRODUCTION

The Somalia Resilience Population Measurement (RPM) Activity is a five-year USAID-funded project implemented by Mercy Corps in coordination with ACIDI/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 this change.

OBJECTIVES OF FORMATIVE RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

In its inception phase, RPM is conducting formative research in order to inform its survey and recurrent monitoring survey designs. More specifically, this formative research activities are meant to facilitate RPM's:

1. Understanding of the resilience capacities that 'matter' in Somalia, based on the current state of evidence;
2. Learning from previous efforts to measure resilience in Somalia, and;
3. Identification of concrete and discrete opportunities for RPM to continue building on the evidence base and lessons learned.

Through these insights, Mercy Corps aims to build on current approaches to resilience measurement through RPM in an effort to ensure its utility and relevance for resilience stakeholders operating in the USAID Focal Zone in Somalia. This brief synthesizes the insights from these three data sources. The formative research identified six capacities that are critical to resilience in Somalia as well as key considerations for RPM's approach to resilience measurement in the Focal Zone.

The formative research was comprised of the following three components:

LITERATURE REVIEW	<p>A protocol was developed in order to ensure the quality and robustness of the literature review, tailored for three specific types of studies: quasi-experimental, observational and mixed methods, and qualitative research. An initial pool of 44 studies was collected, with results restricted to those studies published between 2010 and 2021 based on a number of pre-identified search terms, including resilience, community resilience, shocks, adaptive strategies, among others. Each study was screened to ensure that it met minimum standards for review (e.g. adequately explained study methods, used appropriate statistical methods for analysis, studied an adequate sample size). The review excluded literature that examined short-term interventions that only included direct delivery of humanitarian aid to meet the most immediate needs, as well as anecdotal internal case studies, policy papers not based on empirical evidence. In total, 17 pieces of literature were evaluated using the protocol and another 5 were referenced to provide background/context for studies' findings.</p>
KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS & FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS	<p>Interviews with key informants addressed a combination of the following three themes: understanding how resilience is understood by stakeholders in Somalia and challenges in the uptake of evidence; unpacking and exploring variations in resilience coping strategies; and resilience measurement approaches. Literature review findings were used to inform and develop guiding questions with key informants. Notes from these interviews were then reviewed and analyzed, with findings distilled into overarching themes that informed interviews and discussions with key informants. Ultimately, a total of 18 key informant interviews and three focus group discussions were conducted.</p>
DATA INVENTORY	<p>Using insights from the KIs, a data inventory was conducted to scan the literature to take stock of current approaches, instruments, and design of resilience research and evaluation in the Horn of Africa/East Africa region. Materials reviewed include articles published in peer reviewed journals, gray literature including measurement guides, and case studies presenting previous resilience measurements conducted in the region. A special interest was paid to survey instruments that were conducted via mobile phone and SMS, given current conflict and pandemic restrictions on movement and access in Somalia, as well as RPM's likely reliance on remote data collection approaches (e.g. through call centers).</p>

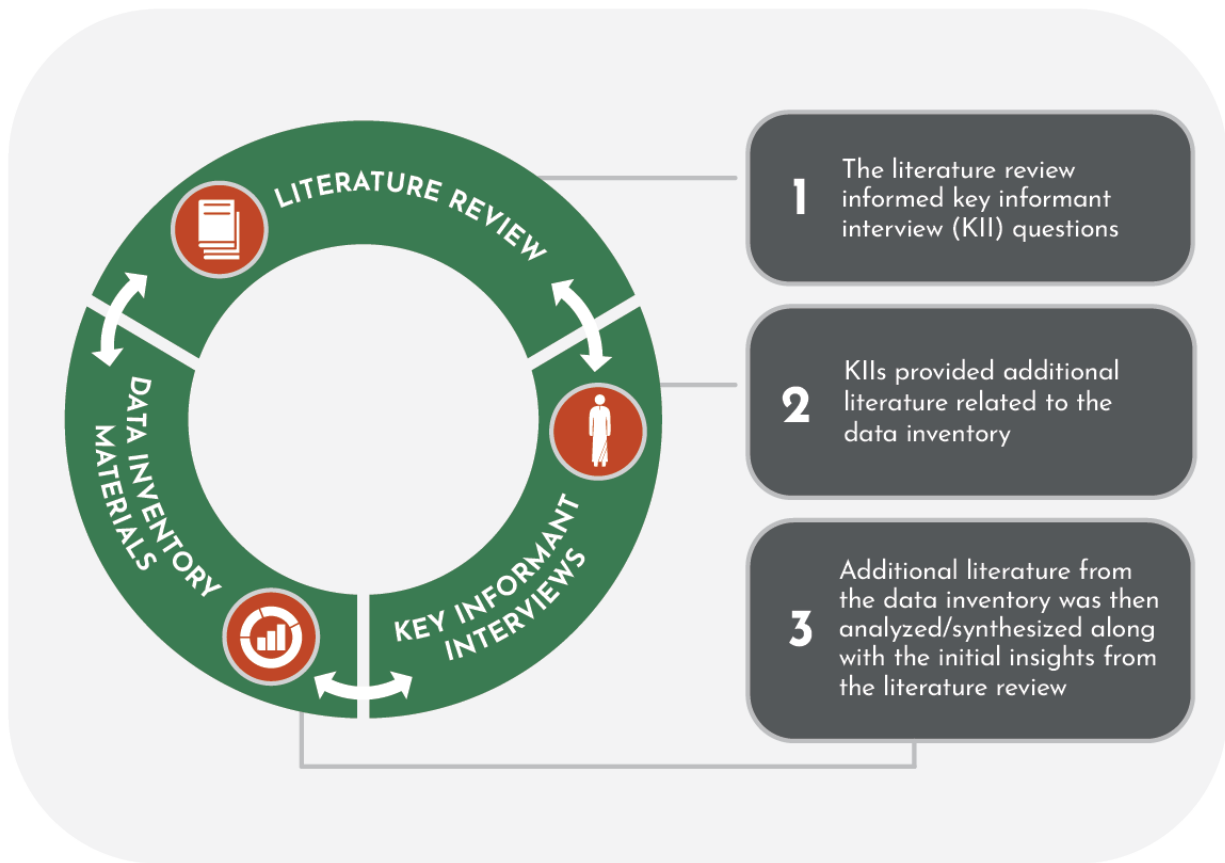


Figure 1: Data Sources & Research Questions

DEFINING RESILIENCE:

As the concept of resilience took root following the 2011/12 drought in the Horn of Africa, agencies and donors have developed and adopted the resilience framework as a response in shock-prone and multi-shock contexts. While at their core these agencies have viewed resilience as people's ability to cope with, adapt to, and bounce back from a shock, their perspectives differed on the outcomes that resilience programming could achieve as well as their scales of engagement. For example, USAID has defined resilience as "the ability of people, households, communities, countries and systems to mitigate, adapt to, and recover from shocks and stresses in a manner that reduces chronic vulnerability and facilitates inclusive growth."¹ Like most other agencies, it has shifted from understanding shocks as exceptions in the environments many aid actors work in to viewing them as endemic to many development as well as humanitarian contexts.

Similarly, CARE has defined resilience programming as one that "strengthens poor people's capacity to anticipate, absorb and adapt to shocks, manage growing risks, address underlying causes of vulnerability and transform their lives in response to new hazards and opportunities."² Oxfam's definition goes one step further, adding a justice lens to its framework. Describing resilience as "the ability of women and men to realize their rights and improve their well-being despite shocks, stresses and uncertainty"³, it has infused a rights-based perspective in its efforts. Many agencies recognize that shocks occur in a complex system of vulnerabilities, compounding upon pre-existing stresses and creating new challenges as they arise. Mercy Corps' own definition appreciates this complexity, emphasizing that "resilience [is] the capacity of communities in complex socio-ecological systems to learn, cope, adapt and transform in the face of shocks and

¹USAID, p. 7 (2018)

² CARE International (n.d.)

³ Oxfam, p. 6 (2016)

stresses.”⁴ While these definitions converge more often than they diverge, these nuances in definition create opportunities for variable approaches to and scale of program design and implementation.

4 Mercy Corps, p.35 (2019)

Competing definitions of resilience among agencies and aid actors complicates efforts to operationalize resilience (callout box, definition on resilience). Despite these challenges, the literature and interviews with key informants alike highlighted six resilience capacities that contribute to the resilience of Somali households and communities. The strength of evidence underpinning each of the six capacities vary, ranging from high to low, but each of the six capacities presented in this section emerged as central to resilience in Somalia (Figure 2). The six capacities are summarized in Table 1, and described in greater detail below.

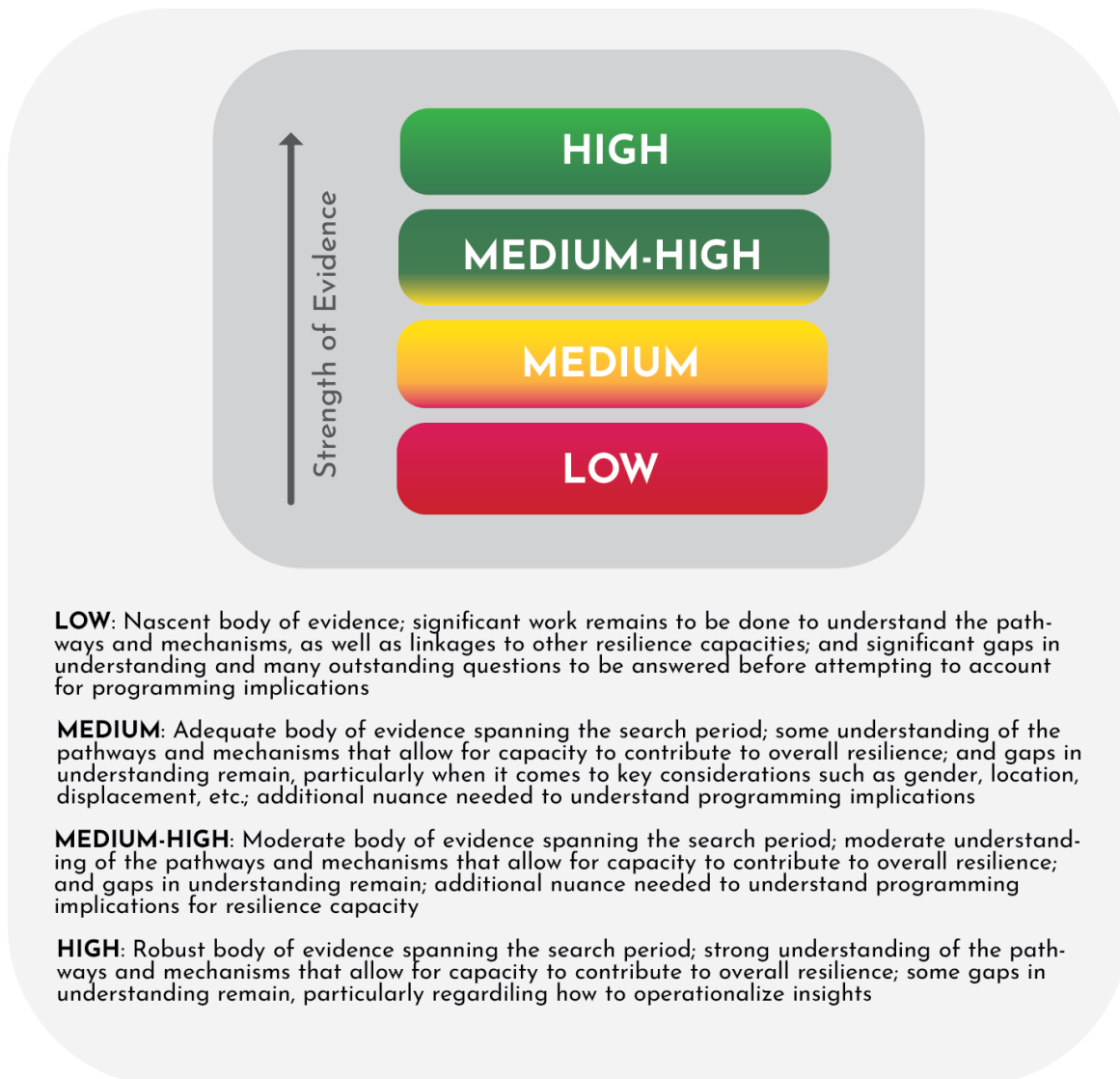


Figure 2: Strength of Evidence Legend

In a setting where shocks are frequent and compounding, these capacities (used in various combinations by households) have been key to households coping 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. For example, households rely on their social connections across all shock types, turning to their connections during periods of resource scarcity due to crop infestations and market disruptions and price increases due to conflict. In contrast, access to services (particularly water and sanitation services, as well as veterinary services) were crucial when households experienced water shortages, crop infestations, and livestock diseases.

Households are strategic in if, how, and when they rely on specific coping strategies.⁵ The combination and degree to which a household can cope using a particular strategy depends on a variety of factors, including ethnic and clan affiliations,⁶ displacement status,⁷ gender and age,⁸ access to remittances,⁹ and location.¹⁰ While three of the six resilience capacities functioned at the individual and household level, three of the resilience capacities had a community dimension. For example, informal social safety nets are largely developed and leveraged through social connections, keeping households connected to one another during times of plenty and need. This underscores the importance of understanding the relational nature of resilience, particularly in a protracted crisis like in Somalia.

The findings discussed in the following sections were drawn in part from literature that examined the contributions of aid activities to resilience at the household level (Table 1 and Figure 3). Insights from long-term and/or ongoing programming, such as those implemented by FCDO/DFID and the Somalia Resilience Program (SomReP), helped to provide some understanding of the ways in which programming supported and addressed new challenges to resilience. However, the level of insight provided by such literature varied. For example, there was significant programming concerning livelihood adaptations and the diversification of incomes compared to programming that addresses the psychosocial factors of resilience. As a result, there remains ample opportunity to generate additional evidence that helps in aid actors' understanding of if and how programming can contribute to specific resilience capacities.



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5 While it is well-understood that households are making strategic decisions about their coping strategies, there is a limited understanding of such decision-making processes. For example, how do households determine which coping strategy to exercise first, then second, or in combination? What are the factors that mitigate or facilitate their decision-making processes? Are there patterns that aid actors can follow that may signal a deterioration of coping strategies in the context? Etc.

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

7 World Bank (2019)

8 Ochiltree & Toma (2021)

9 Majid & McDowell (2012); Maxwell et al. (2016); Lwanga-Ntale & Owino (2020); Much of the literature described access to remittances as a function of one's social connections (and, by extension, determined by those connections' history of migration, education, urbanization, etc.). Bearing this in mind, access to remittances in this synthesis is discussed not as a resilience capacity but as a key factor that helps inform which capacities households rely on and how they utilize them.

10 World Bank (2019); Lwanga-Ntale & Owino (2019)

Table 1: Summary of key resilience capacities in Somalia

CAPACITY ¹¹	UNIT OF ANALYSIS	DESCRIPTION	KEY CONSIDERATIONS	STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE	GAPS/ OUTSTANDING QUESTIONS
SOCIAL CONNECTEDNESS	Household/ Community	Connections to other households, including those that are kinship and non-kinship based, allow for the exchange of resources that can be crucial to meeting immediate needs during times of crisis.	Exclusion/ Inclusion; Gender; Age; Clan ¹² /Ethnic Group; Displacement Status	Large body of evidence that highlights the critical role of social networks and social connections in coping with crises. In particular, the literature emphasizes the role of social networks in helping households survive the 2011 famine and recover following the 2016/17 drought.	Unclear if external actors can play a role in buttressing/ strengthening social connectedness. Measurement considerations, specifically measuring social connectedness in times of crisis vs. periods of stability
INFORMAL SOCIAL SAFETY NETS	Household/ Community	Social safety nets that exist outside of formal institutions, and that are largely developed and leveraged through social networks. These include group savings schemes, VSLAs, women's groups, youth civic groups, etc.	Gender; Age	Literature emphasizes the importance of specific, distinct types of informal assistance/support; however, little of the research speaks to the broader importance/role of informal social safety nets as a whole.	Pathways/mechanisms Capacity to withstand shocks/ crisis and what happens when households are no longer able to participate in these informal safety nets What factors determine access/participation

¹¹ The six capacities outlined in this report reflect the body of evidence regarding resilience as it currently stands. Additional capacities related to access to markets, justice and conflict mitigation, and more may also play a role in household resilience, but require further investigation. Their absence from this synthesis does not negate the critical role they may play, but rather points to potential areas of further research to help practitioners understand which capacities matter most in response to different types of shocks.

¹² In Somalia, the topic of clans is particularly sensitive, with some pointing towards clan dynamics as the source of much of the insecurity that has gripped the country for the past 15 years. As a result, aid actors should be cognizant of such perceptions and attitudes when attempting to understand the relationship between clans and social connectedness.

CAPACITY	UNIT OF ANALYSIS	DESCRIPTION	KEY CONSIDERATIONS	STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE	GAPS/ OUTSTANDING QUESTIONS
ACCESS TO SERVICES	Community	This includes access to services provided by both state and external actors. Key services include water and sanitation and veterinary services.	Access to water/Water security; Information; Displacement Status; Linking Social Capital	Literature emphasizes the key role access to services (particularly water and sanitation, electricity (in urban areas), health, justice and veterinary services) has in strengthening households' ability to cope in the face of shocks. In particular, access to services can be crucial to livelihood adaptations. However, pathways and mechanisms need further research.	What services matter when (seasonality considerations) Urban vs. rural considerations
LIVELIHOOD ADAPTATION	Household/ Individual	The capacity to plan for and adapt one's livelihood activities in the face of evolving shocks and stresses. This also includes the capacity to take on additional livelihood activities in tandem with traditional livelihood practices that may be associated with one's clan, ethnic group, etc.	Urban; Gender; Age; Climate/Climate Change; Natural resource access; Access to humanitarian assistance/ programming	The capacity to adapt one's livelihood emerged as a key resilience capacity in the literature, particularly as it relates to climate vulnerable/climate-sensitive livelihoods. However, evidence is almost exclusively focused on rural livelihoods, which makes it difficult to generalize findings to urban contexts. Also not clear what livelihood adaptations are more effective than others; literature mostly emphasizes that reducing/limiting climate-sensitivity is key.	What is needed in the short-, medium-, and long-term to facilitate livelihood adaptation Urban vs. rural considerations -- largely focused on rural livelihoods, not clear if capacities vary in urban contexts.
INCOME DIVERSIFICATION	Household/ Individual	The capacity of a household or individual to have multiple sources of income from a variety of livelihood activities.	Gender; Migration; Access to Remittances; Access to humanitarian assistance/ programming	Diversified incomes is a salient theme across the literature, but not clear what factors enable households or individuals to take on multiple income generating activities. Additionally, not all income diversification strategies are equal; for example, migration is a salient strategy to help facilitate income diversity but can also weaken social connections.	What livelihood activities may be crucial in the face of insecurity and eroding natural resources. Urban vs. rural considerations -- largely focused on how rural households take on additional sources of income. Further research needed on urban and/ or IDP households.

CAPACITY	UNIT OF ANALYSIS	DESCRIPTION	KEY CONSIDERATIONS	STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE	GAPS/ OUTSTANDING QUESTIONS
PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS	Household/ Individual	These are subjective aspects of resilience that include (but are not limited to) self-efficacy, aspiration, confidence, and well-being.	Gender; Exclusion/Inclusion; Vulnerable Groups	Scant literature that dives deep into the factors and sources of subjective resilience. Not clear if the literature does enough to differentiate between psychosocial/subjective factors of resilience as an outcome vs. a capacity.	<p>To what extent are these psychosocial factors/subjective aspects of resilience defined through a western lens? E.g. to what extent are these externally identified and defined factors that may not have much bearing in context?</p> <p>Context: Self-efficacy, confidence, etc. are universally understood among resilience practitioners as key psychosocial factors for resilience. What are some factors that may not be as large in scope, but are still important in this context?</p> <p>Link between psychosocial factors and other "objective capacities" (e.g. food security). Unclear/unknown how when combined they ladder up to resilience.</p>

FINDINGS

I. What are the evidence-based resilience capacities that ‘matter’ in Somalia and the region?

Capacity #1: Social Connectedness

Strength of evidence rating: HIGH

The ability to turn to one’s connections during a crisis plays a pivotal role in households’ capacity to cope and manage the impact of shocks and stresses. Through its social connections, a household is able to leverage key tangible and intangible resources that both meet immediate needs and offset the long-term ramifications of a protracted crisis. In Somalia, social connections and social networks played a central role for many households during the 2011 famine, helping them access the material resources that were critical to coping and surviving throughout the crisis.¹³ However, the ability and extent to which people could call upon their connections depended on several factors, including a clan or social groups’ history of migration; education; urbanization; and emigration. A review comparing the coping strategies of 2011 versus the 2016 droughts found social connectedness (combined with effective use of remittances) allowed for communities to develop effective mechanisms for risk sharing and was a key factor enabling communities to survive recurrent shocks.¹⁴ Social connections played a role in households’ coping strategies regardless of shock types. In livelihood zones within the CDCS focal zone, households turned to their connections during periods of flooding, crop failures, and upticks in insecurity for support in the form of cash loans, labor, livestock, and credit.¹⁵ Ultimately, the research emphasizes that the more flexible and diverse a household’s social networks were, the better able they were to survive and recover from the famine.¹⁶

“FACING FAMINE: SOMALI EXPERIENCES IN THE FAMINE OF 2011”:

An examination of how households in Somalia coped during the 2011 famine, Maxwell et al. explored the role of social connectedness in particular as a key coping strategy. The study revealed that social connectedness, the extent of people’s social networks, and the ability of said networks to mobilize resources determined how well people were able to cope in the face of the famine. Households that could rely upon connections in the diaspora were likely to survive the famine, regardless of the short-term impacts on their livelihoods. One pastoralist underscored the importance of having access to support from connections, noting that “People who have nobody to cry to, that is who don’t have kinsmen to help, don’t have a son or a daughter in the towns or out of the country to help...all such people have no coping capacity.”¹⁷ In contrast, the social groups most dependent on the rural economy with the fewest connections to relatives and clan-members outside of these areas were the most vulnerable. Moreover, the ability and extent to which people could call upon extended family and clan members outside of the country emerged as a key theme, but depended on a number of factors. Those whose social group or clans had longer histories of migration, education, urbanization, and emigration and, therefore, had more members outside of the rural economy. For example, those from the Rahanweyen and Bantu/Jarer ethnic groups occupy lower rungs on the social ladder and in many instances had lower access to social networks, underscoring that social connectedness is “as much about exclusion and exploitation as about inclusion and mutual coping.”¹⁷ Ultimately, the more flexible and diverse a household’s social networks were, the better able they were to survive and recover from the 2011 famine.

13 Maxwell et al. (2016)

14 Lwanga-Ntale & Owino (2020)

15 FEWSNet (2016)












16 Ibid.

17 Maxwell et al., p. 67 (2016)

Similarly, an evaluation of FCDO-funded BRCiS programming suggests that social networks played an equally important role during the 2016/17 drought—particularly in areas that humanitarian actors had been unable to access for decades thanks to continued insecurity.¹⁸ Households that had not participated in BRCiS programming were found to have recovered from the drought relatively well in comparison with their BRCiS counterparts. Authors of the evaluation attributed this largely to household’s social networks and the informal support leveraged through these connections.

While most households have the capacity to leverage their social networks for support, the outcomes of this support is also mediated by wealth and social status. Overall, within the CDCS focal zone, households reported turning to family, friends, and neighbors for material and immaterial support, ranging from cash to labor.¹⁹ The most vulnerable households often sought out support from more well off households and took out credit to purchase livestock in order to meet immediate needs.²⁰ More well off households, however, were able to turn to their extended network, seeking out an increase in remittances (both in frequency and amount) and credit to purchase livestock to increase income generated by their livelihoods.²¹

Despite the robust evidence regarding the role of social networks in household resilience, several gaps in our understanding remain. Primarily, the role and extent to which external aid can play in supporting social networks remains unclear. At minimum, a do-no-harm approach is required to ensure that aid actors do not disrupt these critical sources of resilience. Further, while the evidence on social connections does cover a broad swath of groups, it does not fully capture the gender and age dimensions of social connections. Additional research is needed to understand how social connectedness and inclusion in social networks may differ among women and youth. Finally, a number of questions remain regarding the measurement of social connections. There is much work to be done to better understand, for example, how social networks can be assessed in a contextualized manner and monitored in a manner that effectively accounts for how metrics of social networks may shift in times of crises vs. periods of stability.

		CAPACITY TYPE					
		 Social Connections	 Access to Services	 Informal Social Safety Nets	 Livelihood Adaptation	 Diversified Incomes	 Psychosocial Factors
SHOCK TYPE	 Conflict/Insecurity	X		X			X
	 Crop/Pest Infestation	X	X	X	X	X	
	 Drought/Water Shortage	X	X	X	X	X	
	 Flooding	X		X	X		
	 Livestock Loss	X	X	X	X	X	

*The categorization of the relationship between shock types and the six emerging capacities is based off of the current body of literature. This does not mean, for example, that diversification of incomes as a response to conflict and insecurity may not be an effective coping strategy. Rather, it demonstrates an opportunity for further research in this context. Similarly, psychosocial factors have been shown to be important to coping with setbacks--such as crop and/or livestock loss--but the nascent nature of research in this area means that its role when it comes to responding to such shock types remains unclear.

Figure 3: Summary of key capacities by shock type

18 LaGuardia & Pinne (2019)
 19 FEWSNet (2016)
 20 Ibid.
 21 Ibid.

Capacity #2: Informal Social Safety Nets

Strength of evidence rating: MEDIUM-HIGH

The local and informal structures that allow for households to access, receive, and extend support, informal social safety nets overlap but are also distinct from a household's social networks. These safety nets can take the form of 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. A businesswoman in Odweyne in one SomReP underscored the role participation in savings groups played during the drought: "As I'm a member of a Savings Group, I had savings during the drought. I had lost half of my livestock animals, so I thought about other strategies to sustain my family...I took a loan from my group and [started] a shop in the village [that] now covers all basic needs of my family and is a good replacement for losing my animals. This action has allowed me to cope during and after the drought."²² Such local and informal structures provide households with access to the necessary resources to cope with and adapt to shocks as they arise.

As well as leveraging tangible resources to help households meet immediate needs, they contribute to improved well-being outcomes²³ and facilitate access to critical intangible resources—most notably, psychosocial support and information. Along with strengthening individual psychosocial factors within program participants (such as confidence and self-esteem), the literature underscored how informal safety nets provide the physical space and connections for community members to meet and talk in order to relieve psychological stress.²⁴ Similarly, informal social safety nets and the social networks they facilitate/ allow for the spread of information, particularly in communities where access to mobile phones is constricted and irregular. One study exploring the role of and access to information among Somali IDP youth found that information traveled via a "hubs-and-spokes" system via key "hubs", or community groups and leaders, suggesting strong social structures within the community.²⁵ However, access to information may be impacted by age and gender. A gender analysis conducted in the Puntland state found that, among host communities, while women reported that radio, phone calls, and hotlines were important for receiving information, they did not have the same access as men did.²⁶ Of those surveyed, 88% of women between the ages of 15-49 did not have access to newspapers, radio, or television at least once per week.²⁷

While the literature emphasizes the importance of specific, distinct types of informal assistance/support, very little of it speaks to the broader importance of informal social safety nets as a whole. The current body of research fails to extensively explore what factors determine access to and participation in these safety nets, and their capacity to withstand shocks. Moreover, further research is needed to understand the repercussions or setbacks a household may face when they are no longer able to contribute to these safety nets, either due to disruptions to social networks such as displacement or resource constraints. Finally, there remains ample opportunity for further research that explores how informal social safety nets can be best complemented by formal social safety nets implemented by government institutions and/or the role humanitarian assistance could play. Such research may help aid actors understand how to complement these informal efforts so that they may help households and communities at scale.

²² SomReP, p. 14 (2018)

²³ Somalia RMS

²⁴ SomRep (2018)

²⁵ BRCIS (2019)

²⁶ Ochiltree & Toma (2021)

²⁷ Ibid.

INFORMAL SOCIAL SAFETY NETS, URBAN YOUTH, AND ACCESS TO INFORMATION

Through informal social safety nets, households often are able to access key life and livelihood saving resources, particularly information. In Somalia, mobile phone usage has increased annually, with 86% of adults and youth ages 15 to 25 years old reporting having access to these devices.²⁸ Yet, despite the increasingly important role mobile phones are playing in Somalis' day-to-day social and business interactions, humanitarian and development actors have not kept pace, with much work to be done to understand the information landscape and needs of communities. A study by the BRCiS consortium in Somalia found that information among displaced communities was accessed and disseminated via a system of "hubs-and-spokes."²⁹ Within this system, information is often injected through key hubs, such as sheikhs and imams, camp leaders, community meetings and community disaster management committees. Among surveyed youth, teachers, religious leaders, and NGO staff were ranked as some of the most trustworthy sources of information, along with friends, family, and radio. Information from these hubs then passes through their immediate vicinity, dispensed further out among social connections via in-person communication and mobile phones.

In particular, early warning mechanisms existed in most camps and were found to be well aligned with the hubs-and-spokes system. While it suggests strong social support structures, those who are not as well-connected may be left behind, compounding existing vulnerabilities. For displaced and isolated communities, information from sources of authority took on particular importance in the absence of connections via people's social networks and access to regular mobile phone service. One female member of a focus group stressed the impact of this isolation from broader information sources: "We trust everyone because we are a poor community living here in this camp. We have no other choice except to trust everyone, although we trust the radio, traditional elders, and religious leaders most."³⁰ Displaced communities in Mudug often lacked electricity, connection to radio and/or mobile networks, and had little access to local labor markets, leaving them socially isolated from their broader host community and cut off from important means of information. Additionally, phone-based systems may have certain limitations. During floods in Beledweyne, among the casualties were community members who had turned their phones off at night to conserve battery and mitigate energy costs could not be contacted. This underscores that for many communities, "communications systems lack accountability structures and do not assure that all parts of communities are reached."³¹ Authors of the BRCiS study suggest supporting phone usage by subsidizing costs; investing in small-scale local renewable energy sources that lower charging costs; and engaging in community committees in the dissemination of information.

28 BRCiS (2019b)

29 Ibid.

30 BRCiS, p. 20 (2019b)

31 Ibid p.2

Capacity #3: Access to Services

Strength of evidence rating: MEDIUM-HIGH

Access to services plays a key role in determining a household's resilience to shocks, with access largely mediated by location and displacement status. Key services highlighted by the literature and interviews include water and sanitation; veterinary services (particularly in rural areas); health; education. While access emerged as a critical capacity regardless of shock type, it may play an important role in households' capacity to adapt to shocks that have a significant impact on their livelihood activities. Water services and access to animal health workers were particularly critical to households engaged in agriculture and pastoral activity. Households reported that access to water was especially critical to enhancing their resilience, particularly during dry seasons when poor rainfall and lack of water have a significant impact on livelihood activities.³² Moreover, households also identified early warning mechanisms and systems—whether formal or informal—as key to their adaptive capacities.³³

Nonetheless, access to services is largely determined by location, with those living in Mogadishu and cities in the northeast and northwest possessing better access compared to rural and nomadic households.³⁴ Gaps in access are particularly pronounced in the health, education, and water and sanitation sectors. A demographic survey conducted by the Somali Directorate for Statistics in 2020 found that among urban households 76% had access to improved water sources compared to 55% and 35% of rural and nomadic households respectively.³⁵

While access to services plays a key role in household resilience to shocks, several gaps in our understanding remain. These include seasonality considerations, e.g. what services are most critical throughout pastoral and agro-pastoral calendars. Moreover, research is largely focused on rural livelihoods, with comparatively less focus on services necessary for buttressing livelihoods and livelihood adaptations in urban settings. Further research to address these gaps may help clarify the pathways between access to key services and the resilience outcomes that program implementers hope to achieve.



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32 SomRep (2017a); SomRep (2017b)

33 SomRep (2018); SomRep (2017a)

34 World Bank (2019)

35 Directorate of National Statistics (2020)

LOCATION, ACCESS TO SERVICES, & DEPRIVATION: WORLD BANK SOMALIA VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT

From 2017 to 2018, the World Bank implemented the second wave of its Somali high frequency survey (SHFS), providing a snapshot of poverty and vulnerability in Somalia following the 2016 drought. Somali households are vulnerable to large covariate shocks such as natural disasters and epidemics, as well as idiosyncratic shocks such as injury, death, and unemployment. This vulnerability is compounded by low education, dependence on agriculture, unemployment, low wealth, and large household size. Among the households surveyed, 66% had reported experiencing at least one type of shock in the prior 12 months. Nearly all households that experienced a shock reported a negative impact on their income, assets, and/or food resources.

Overall, the SHFS found that nearly 9 in 10 households struggled with at least one kind of deprivation, with most contending with nonmonetary deprivations including a lack of regular access to electricity, education, and/or water and sanitation services. Nearly 7 in 10 households struggled with at least two or more types of deprivation. The degree to which a household has access to these key services is largely dependent on its location and/or displacement status. Nomadic populations, rural populations, and those living in rural IDP settlements are the most vulnerable to deprivation and lack of access services, largely due to their distance from urban centers where service provision is more readily available. However, while urban areas generally have higher standards of living and better access to services for rural areas, access to land and housing remain the exception. Nonetheless, urban IDP and non-IDP households have similar poverty profiles and access to services, underscoring that distance proves to be a barrier to mitigating the impacts of deprivation and vulnerability.

Capacity #4 & 5: Livelihood Adaptations & Income Diversification³⁶

Strength of evidence rating: **MEDIUM**

In the face of frequent and significant climate shocks, the capacity to adapt one's livelihood emerged as a key source of resilience within the literature. Livelihood adaptation³⁷ played a significant role among those engaged in pastoral and agro-pastoral livelihoods, which operate on a seasonal calendar and therefore are far more climate vulnerable. One annual resilience measurement found that livelihoods not correlated with seasonality and/or climate-sensitivity were more likely to fulfill a protective function.³⁸ The study suggested that households that are able to identify a combination of income sources and livelihood activities less dependent on climate and seasonality may be more resilient to climate shocks and risks.

Along with adaptations to existing livelihoods, some research suggests that diversifying sources of income can also play a critical role in protecting against shocks and stresses, in both urban and rural contexts. Diversified incomes³⁹ played a particularly important role for households' whose primary livelihood activity was climate vulnerable and, therefore, sensitive to natural hazards and other climate shocks.⁴⁰ However, not all income diversification strategies

36 While they are separate capacities in many ways, livelihood adaptations and diversified incomes were combined in this section because of significant overlap in the research and similarities in the ways in which households utilized these capacities. For example, livelihood adaptations often meant taking on additional activities or expanding existing activities in such a way that these adaptations essentially diversified households' sources of income. This meant that households were able to draw their income from multiple related livelihood activities. As a result, and for the sake of brevity, the two adaptations are discussed together in this section.

37 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.

38 SomRep (2017)

39 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 by households that engage in livelihood activities that are vulnerable to the impacts of sudden shocks.

40 Ibid; SomRep (2018)

are equal. Migration, for example, emerged as an especially salient strategy that facilitates income diversity⁴¹ but may also weaken social connections as household members migrate to towns and urban centers where they are less connected overall.

Although livelihood adaptations and diversified incomes strategies are an important tool in a households' resilience toolbox, further research is needed to understand what is needed in the short-, medium-, and long-term to facilitate a households' capacity to adapt. In the face of conflict-related insecurity and eroding natural resources, there remains significant gaps in understanding what livelihood activities may help offset the impacts of such shocks and stresses. Finally, much of the livelihoods research conducted in Somalia has focused on rural livelihood activities with far less attention paid to the challenges faced by urban and IDP households.

LIVELIHOOD ADAPTATION & DIVERSIFICATION IN THE CDCS FOCAL ZONE

Within the focal zone, livelihood adaptation and diversification strategies are largely mediated by a number of factors—particularly a household's socioeconomic status. Profiles of each livelihood zone in Somalia compiled by FEWSNet highlight the different approaches used by poor and very poor households versus their better off counterparts.⁴² For example, during periods of resource constraint, better off households are likely to increase crop and livestock sales, with the most well off having the capacity to strategize and wait to sell stocks until prices are highest. Moreover, these households may also be able to turn to their social networks to take out loans and credit that allow them to replace or purchase additional livestock. In contrast, poorer households may supplement crop production and livestock sales by engaging in local seasonal labor and self-employment activities, such as the sale of firewood and charcoal, for additional cash income. During periods of drought and/or reduced land pasture due to insecurity, they may increase their reliance on labor, sending male household members to cities and towns in pursuit of work. However, movement restrictions during periods of insecurity may limit labor opportunities. While livelihood adaptation and diversification emerged as a key strategy in the literature, the degree to and ways in which households employ these strategies is determined by key factors, such as socioeconomic status, proximity to urban areas, and the breadth of one's social connections.

Capacity #6: Psychosocial Factors

Strength of evidence rating: **LOW**

There is a growing recognition of the critical role that psychosocial factors play in households' capacity to respond and recover from shocks. In taking stock of the latest evidence on resilience and its implications for policy and programming, a 2018 USAID evidence review finds that a range of psychosocial factors are a strong predictor of whether an individual or household is able to cope with a shock, uses negative coping strategies, their ability to recover from a shock, and ability to escape and remain out of poverty.⁴³ The review cites social capital, aspirations, self-efficacy, confidence to adapt, women's empowerment and supportive social norms as important determinants of resilience. However, prolonged conflict and numerous compounding shocks and stresses have undermined the mental health and well-being of many households.⁴⁴ This suggests an urgent need for activities that seek to support and buttress the psychosocial factors of resilience among Somali households.

41 FEWSNet (2016)

42 FEWSNet (2016)

43 USAID (2018)

44 Mumin & Rhodes (2019)

DEFINING PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS OF RESILIENCE

The psychosocial factors of resilience are the individual psychological and/or social factors that may influence an individual's capacity to cope, respond, and adapt to shocks and stresses. These refer to the 'subjective' aspects of resilience that may be more difficult to observe-when compared to other well-being indicators such as food security-but nonetheless have a tangible impact on an individual or household's coping strategies. There are a number of factors that contribute to a household's resilience, including self-efficacy, aspiration, self-esteem and confidence, and optimism. These factors are defined as follows:

Self-efficacy refers to the "belief in one's own ability to perform a task and to manage prospective situations."⁴⁵ In a response to a shock or stress, individuals will assess not their own ability to respond, but the probability that their actions will result in a desired outcome, the limitations of their actions, and the costs and benefits of responding.⁴⁶

Aspirations are the "beliefs, preferences, and capacities relevant to the future and future-oriented behavior."⁴⁷ Some evidence demonstrates that individuals with aspirations and confidence may be less likely to turn to negative coping mechanisms following a shock.⁴⁸ There are a number of concepts that can be used in measurement models of aspirations, including locus of control, depression scales, fatalism, and self-efficacy; however, they may be limited in their insight because of differences in nuances across these concepts.⁴⁹

While researchers have developed some understanding of self-efficacy and aspirations in development contexts, there has been comparatively less time spent defining self-esteem and optimism in relation to resilience. As a result, we borrow definitions of these concepts from the fields of development and positive psychology. *Self-esteem* can be defined as "the sum of an individual's beliefs and knowledge about [their] personal attributes and qualities."⁵⁰ *Optimism*, more outward looking in its scope, is the "tendency to expect good things in the future"⁵¹ and "reflects individuals' positive attitude towards adverse situations."⁵² Recognizing the central role such psychosocial factors may play in contributing to resilience, further efforts are needed to fully define and understand their suitability and contextual relevance in settings like Somalia.

45 Brown and Westway (2011) as cited in Béné, Frankenberger, Langworthy, Mueller & Martin, p. 5 (2016)

46 Béné et al. (2016).

47 Ibid p. 5.

48 USAID (2018)

49 Béné et al. (2016)

50 Mann, Hosman, Schaalma, & de Vries (2004)

51 Conversano, Rotondo, Lensi, Della Vista, Arpone, & Reda (2010)

52 Souri & Hasanirad (2011)

In Somalia, confidence, self-esteem, and optimism were all found to be key capacities in one study examining positively deviant households in Somalia. In other instances, certain resilience capacities were a pathway to key psychosocial and well-being outcomes. For example, informal social safety nets such as VSLAs and women's groups provided key spaces for participants to seek out and receive psychosocial support that they reported was crucial to coping.⁵³ Despite early evidence suggesting the critical role of psychosocial factors in households' resilience, the literature fails to fully differentiate between psychosocial factors of resilience as a programmatic outcome versus as a capacity for coping. The literature at times underscored the psychosocial benefits of some types of programming (such as the social connections established through VSLAs), but did not fully explore (or, indeed, explore at all) psychosocial factors as a key resilience capacity. As a result, the literature at times conflates the psychosocial factors of resilience as an added benefit of programmatic outcomes and not as a capacity in and of itself that may require specific programming.



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There is also a limited understanding of the link between psychosocial factors and other more “objective” capacities such as food security. Further research is needed to understand how, when such interventions are combined, they build upon each other to synergistically contribute to a household's overall resilience. This may prove to be a challenge given the nascent nature of our understanding of the research and the limited understanding of how to effectively measure the impact of psychosocial factors on resilience. Further work is needed to develop measurement methods that can

⁵³ SomRep (2018)

⁵⁴ In social science research, positive deviance refers to individuals or households within a community who are “confronting similar challenges, constraints, and resource deprivations to their peers, [but] will nonetheless employ uncommon but successful behaviors or strategies which enable them to find better solutions.” (Better Evaluation, n.d.)

⁵⁵ SomRep, p.13 (2018)

capture the more subjective factors that contribute to resilience. Finally, much of the evidence base relies on measures of psychosocial factors that are externally defined, with limited accounting and contextualization of measures to reflect Somali conceptualization and experience. Interviews with key informants emphasized that this externally defined understanding can at times overestimate certain factors, such as confidence, and underestimate others, such as spirituality, that may play a larger role in Somalia.

PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS AMONG POSITIVE DEVIANT HOUSEHOLDS

In a study exploring positive deviance⁵⁴ among households in 40 communities, psychosocial factors played an important role among those that were found to be particularly resilient. Along with diversified livelihoods, savings, and early warning information committees, these households emphasized the importance of optimism; entrepreneurialism; not being discouraged when assets were lost; strong community and familial social networks; and the importance of preparedness and savings. As one participant in the study described it, resilient households “are optimistic, informed and think proactively and are well prepared for crisis. They tend to have better strateg[ies] to deal with crises and are not resistant to change.”⁵⁵

Access to aid programming in particular, especially VSLAs, helped to strengthen some of these psychosocial factors that underpin resilience. Participants reported that VSLAs helped to build social capital, self-esteem, and empowerment, as well as providing opportunities for self-help through the exchange of ideas and expertise. Along with their newfound credit-worthiness, the ability to provide help to the most vulnerable households in their communities via social welfare funds that had been established through the VSLAs helped elevate their self-esteem. However, only those who were able to afford to save sought membership in these savings schemes, suggesting that such interventions do not necessarily reach the most vulnerable households in the targeted communities.

What are lessons learned from previous efforts to measure resilience in Somalia?

The following section lays out some considerations for measuring resilience, as highlighted in key informant interviews and discussed in the broader literature. These considerations fall into three broad categories, including contextualization, community trust-building, and timely data collection and response fatigue. There have been a number of initiatives and efforts during the past decade to measure and monitor resilience, including the resilience recurrent monitoring survey (RMS) conducted by USAID and SomReP’s annual resilience measurement surveys. These surveys have largely taken place at the household and activity level, measuring the impacts of medium- and long-term programming. In almost all instances, they have occurred during and in the aftermath of the 2016 drought to capture and understand the strategies that households relied on to cope with the widespread impacts of a shock.

Contextualization

Context plays an important role in measurement considerations, particularly when attempting to capture information about sensitive or taboo topics such as social capital or psychosocial wellbeing. Key informants emphasized that questions regarding social capital or a respondent’s social networks must be phrased carefully and contextualized appropriately, otherwise they may fail to capture their full impact. Contextualization challenges can be addressed by investing in quality qualitative preparatory analysis at the outset of a measurement which can support the design of more effective questions.

Further, as discussed in previous sections, understanding of resilience capacities have largely focused on rural livelihoods and communities. As a result, tools and instruments for measurement are developed to capture the impacts of

shocks in rural contexts and often are not suitable for urban and peri urban settings. For example, in urban areas, IDP households are more likely to occupy a cluster of shelters rather than a single unit.⁵⁶ Measurement tools and practices must therefore be adapted to the realities of urban households and identify best practices for collecting data, such as the use of satellite or geospatial data vs. random walk approaches, etc.

Moreover, cultural norms, livelihood and social practices may dictate who is present in the household and therefore available to take part in surveys at various times of the day and across seasons.⁵⁷ Women may be busier during the day with household duties, in agro-pastoral regions, but they are also more likely to be present when youth or male household members are away at town centers when trade flows are open. Accounting for and intentionally sampling diverse household members in data collection efforts will facilitate more representative insights. It is critical to account for such factors when designing survey methods, in work planning data collection phases, and analysis to mitigate sampling and response bias.

Identifying and investing in community contacts and trust-building

Mapping movements and accounting for seasonal considerations can help ensure the inclusion of nomadic populations during sampling. Persisting insecurity and research fatigue as a result of decades of surveys by international researchers has several key implications for access and trust when conducting research in Somalia. Decades of conflict and insecurity have heightened suspicion of phone calls from unknown numbers for community members, with many fearing calls from Al Shabaab or other extremist groups. Moreover, intermittent access to electricity and high costs means that mobile phones may not always be charged. Effective resilience measurement design requires knowledgeable enumerators, community consultations and buy-in, and the establishment of good information-sharing practices with communities.

Community buy-in may be especially important to mitigating survey burden and response fatigue among respondents. When combined with long and frequent survey rounds, researchers may unintentionally increase the burden on households—particularly when participants may pause key livelihood activities and tasks to participate. Survey design should prioritize shorter modules, targeting appropriate respondents, and create optional modules to capture data that is less urgent to answering the questions at hand but may be informative to the overall research agenda.⁵⁸ Surveys can be shortened by randomizing certain modules that target a randomly selected sub-population, allowing researchers to avoid conducting sub-group analysis but facilitating the extraction of general population-level trends.⁵⁹

The access and subsequent trust necessary to fruitful research requires knowledgeable local enumerators who are trained well in zoning beneficiary lists that may serve as the roster for data collection.⁶⁰ Knowledgeable enumerators will be essential to mapping movements and accounting for seasonal considerations, which can help ensure the inclusion of nomadic populations during sampling and ensure representativeness in measurement design.

Timely data collection and response fatigue

While there are many design considerations to factor when designing surveys, shock-triggered measurements may be especially effective in shock-prone environments like Somalia.⁶¹ Such survey design mechanisms can allow researchers to be responsive to local conditions and realities, while also allowing households to report impacts and coping strategies as they happen. Other approaches highlighted by key informants include crowd-sourcing/crowd-seeding experiences when shocks occur by providing cell phones to key leaders in the community who respond to surveys via phone or SMS.⁶²

⁵⁶ Driscoll & Lidow (2014)

⁵⁷ KII02

⁵⁸ Gourlay et al. (2021); Pape (2021)

⁵⁹ KII02

⁶⁰ KII02, 04

⁶¹ KII05

⁶² Ibid

However, while these collection methods allow for researchers to capture data in real-time, survey designers should also account for survey burden and response fatigue when deciding to utilize such methods. Some research suggests response fatigue can be especially prevalent among more vulnerable populations, particularly women with less education who are likely to have more significant time constraints.⁶³ Counteracting response fatigue can be done by shortening survey lengths and placing questions with higher cognitive burdens at the start of interviews. Some researchers have found it effective to leave modules on household demographics at the end of the survey, allowing for researchers and respondents to address more cognitively-demanding questions at the beginning.⁶⁴ Moreover, the period immediately following a shock is a particularly vulnerable time for households as they seek to respond, cope, and adapt to its impacts, and participating in such surveys may only compound the strain of a shock.

Recognizing the burden of surveys, the use of airtime as compensation has become increasingly common among researchers conducting phone surveys. Low-cost and effective, small amounts of airtime as compensation has been found to be well-suited in this context. To avoid bias and data distortion, airtime is typically offered at the end of the survey and its use has been found to increase cooperation and response rates.⁶⁵ While the amounts of airtime offered may be subject to ethical considerations, larger amounts of airtime incentives do not necessarily encourage higher rates of survey completion.⁶⁶

3. What are concrete and discrete opportunities for RPM to build on the evidence base and lessons?

Collectively, the insights generated through the formative research highlight several opportunities for RPM to build on the evidence base and previous efforts to examine resilience dynamics in the context. Such opportunities can be organized as 1) priority areas of investigation and 2) design and implementation, and are described in Table 2.



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63 Abay, Berhane, Hoddinott, & Tafere (2021)

64 Ibid; KII02

65 Gibson et al (2019)

66 Demombynes, Gubbins, & Romeo (2013)

Table 2: Follow-up opportunities for RPM

	DESCRIPTION	FOLLOW-UP OPPORTUNITY FOR RPM
PRIORITY AREAS OF INVESTIGATION		
DEFINING RESILIENCE	<p>Definitions of resilience vary between agencies, in some instances lacking clarity about how it is operationalized, which can complicate the process of stakeholder buy-in. Resilience measurement efforts thus far account for a wide range of resilience capacities that may not be fit for context or stakeholder areas of investment. While RPM’s approach will remain dynamic enough to ensure contextualization and adaptation to new insights, the six capacities which were identified in the formative research will help RPM focus its measurement breadth and form the basis for its instrument and follow-up inquiry.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross-check how the six capacities align with stakeholders’ understanding of which resilience capacities matter in the CDCS Focal Zone and their mandates • Use six capacities and related enabling factors to inform quantitative and qualitative instruments and analytical approaches, including use of objective and subjective measures • Investigate Go-Deep stakeholders’ contributions to the six capacities (relying on Results Framework, drafted during Resilience Learning Journeys)
SOCIAL CONNECTEDNESS	<p>Several studies highlight the critical role that social connectedness plays in households’ ability to cope, adapt, and survive in face of shocks in Somalia. However, there remains a limited understanding of how external actors can work to buttress social networks in the context. There is also ample opportunity for measurement efforts to become more nuanced in their measurement and monitoring of social connectedness in the context, especially during times of crises.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investigate the norms and mechanism underlying households’ social networks and their contributions to resilience in face of shocks • Examine opportunities for aid actors to bolster - and at least not undermine - households’ informal support networks in CDCS focal zone, including an exploration of if/how current investments in context may be contributing to households’ social connectedness
URBAN VS. RURAL CONSIDERATIONS	<p>Our understanding of resilience capacities in the CDCS Focal Zone have largely focused on rural livelihoods and communities. There remains a limited understanding of how such capacities may be applied to urban or peri urban settings. For nearly all capacities identified through the formative research process, households’ place of residence and geographic location emerged as a critical consideration.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure urban, peri-urban, and rural representation in sampling strategy and analysis • Tailor measurement tools and measures to be reflective of experiences in each context

<p>PSYCHOSOCIAL CAPACITY AND WELL-BEING</p>	<p>Despite a growing recognition of the important role that psychosocial factors play in households' capacity to respond and recover from shocks, there is a limited understanding of their contributions to resilience in the Focal Zone (and globally). There is an urgent need to ensure that measures and investigations of psychosocial capacities and well-being are contextualized, and reflect Somalia conceptualization and experiences.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investigate how psychosocial capacities are contributing to household's resilience, relying heavily on qualitative methods (and whether psychosocial factors should be measured as well-being outcomes and/or contributing capacities) • Identify and test contextualized quantitative measures of psychosocial factors
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DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION CONSIDERATIONS

<p>CONTEXTUALIZATION</p>	<p>Tools and instruments must be tested and revised to ensure contextual appropriateness and relevance.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow for ample time to test, revise study instruments and measures • Invest in and allow time for iterative and sequential study design. Rely on qualitative insights to inform the development of measures, questions, and nature of inquiry in quantitative efforts
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<p>SAMPLING CONSIDERATIONS</p>	<p>Mapping movements and accounting for seasonal considerations can help ensure the inclusion of under-represented populations during sampling, such as women, IDPs, and nomadic populations. This requires knowledgeable enumerators, community consultations, and establishing good information-sharing practices and relationships.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue stakeholder consultations on key communities of interest for RPM sampling frame • Allow new sampling approaches to emerge based on iterative data collection and analyses/shifting context
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<p>RESPONSE FATIGUE AND RESEARCH BURDEN</p>	<p>Survey timing, length, and content can induce research fatigue in respondents if not approached thoughtfully, and further contribute to significant measurement errors. In a heavily researched context like the Focal Zone, RPM has a responsibility to ensure that research burden is minimized to the extent possible.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shorten survey lengths, focus on priority questions which emerge from previous data collection/analysis, secondary analysis, or formative research • Place questions with higher cognitive burden at start of the interview, explore optional modules for data less central to RPM at time of data collection • Strategically select respondents for data collection. Drawing from in-person survey respondents for remote data collection opportunities may help offset non-response. • Seriously consider incentives (e.g. airtime) to offset burden
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<p>ENUMERATOR TRAINING</p>	<p>Success of data collection opportunities will depend on the capacity of local enumerators. Given multiple data collection points in-person or through remote means, RPM will need to work closely with the hired local data collection firm to ensure that enumerators are well-recruited and have a deep understanding of RPM objectives, study instruments, and overall protocol. Training will need to be accompanied by frequent and thorough data checks and quality feedback.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Invest significant time identifying knowledgeable enumerators and in their training of RPM objectives, study instruments, and protocol • Account for likely high turnover, allocate time for re-training • Develop quality control processes and workflow during data collection periods.
<p>TRUST-BUILDING</p>	<p>Investing in community buy-in at the beginning can help with response rates and ensuring there is a large enough sample. This can include identifying community leaders and village development committees to help with awareness raising and socialization of the project among communities. In particular, community leaders also need to explain that the enumerators will use tablets or phones so community members know that these devices are not being used to spy on them, but as part of the data collection and survey process.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquire necessary approvals and authorizations for all data collection efforts • At the community level, RPM staff will regularly engage with local leadership to build trust, connection, and establish ongoing lines of communication • RPM leadership or their proxies must invest time at the outset of data collection opportunities to meet with appropriate community leaders and village development committees • Recognizing the importance of face-to-face communication and engagement in this context, staff and enumerators will communicate RPM's mandate to local leaders and communities

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ANNEX 1: LITERATURE REVIEW PROTOCOL AND QUALITY APPRAISAL APPROACH

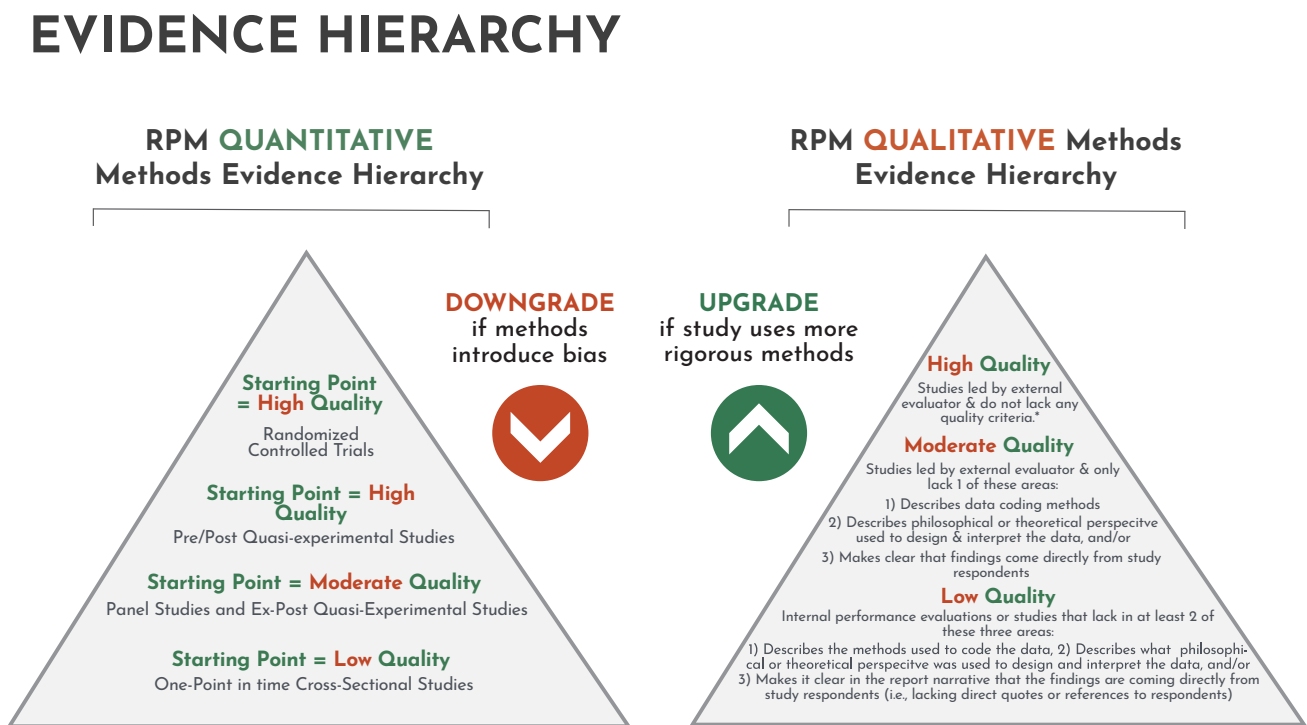
I. Literature Review Protocol

The initial protocol was developed to allow the researchers to cast as wide a net as possible. The initial scan was conducted via Google Scholar; JSTOR and other large databases; systematic reviews produced by other organizations, including the International Initiative for Impact Evaluation (3ie); and pulling from researchers' own previous literature reviews on similar subjects. As part of the protocol design, several criteria for study inclusion were identified, including a publication date of no more than 10 years prior; literature focused on food security, peace, and livelihood/income outcomes; and development interventions focused on long-term gains. Additionally, the protocol highlighted four types of studies that were critical to the literature review: 1) systematic reviews of experimental, quasi-experimental and observational studies; 2) Individual primary studies (including experimental, quasi-experimental and observational studies); 3) analysis of secondary data, and external project evaluations (quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods) and 4) high quality qualitative studies. Studies that looked at short-term interventions focused on meeting immediate needs, focused on urban populations with high socioeconomic status, and anecdotal case studies or policy papers not based on empirical evidence were excluded.

2. Quality Appraisal Approach

It is important to evaluate the quality of research studies to determine how much confidence you should have in the results. RPM developed criteria to evaluate each included study's quality for three different types of study design: quasi-experimental, observational and qualitative research. The quality appraisal approach was adapted from the GRADE (Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations) methodology¹ and the Joanna Briggs Institute's (JBI) critical appraisal tools.² Figure 1 summarizes the evidence hierarchy for quantitative and qualitative studies.

Figure 1: RPM Quality Appraisal Evidence Hierarchy



¹ GRADE Working Group. <https://www.gradeworkinggroup.org/>

² JBI Critical Appraisal Tools. (n.d.). Joanna Briggs Institute; University of Adelaide. <https://jbi.global/critical-appraisal-tools>

Guidance for evaluating each criteria in the quasi-experimental study critical appraisal tool

Were the methods of the study adequately explained and reported?

Methods sections should include, at minimum: a description of the sample population (demographics, location, and time period), an explanation of how the treatment and comparison groups were selected, how the sample size was determined (i.e., was there a power calculation?), what analysis techniques were used (including specifying any regression models) and what potential limitations/bias may exist in the study. If any of these are not reported, downgrade the study.

Are participants in the comparison group similar to the treatment group in most ways except their exposure to the intervention?

The reviewer should consider whether the treatment and comparison groups are similar across: sociodemographic characteristics, access and use of resilience capacities of interest, and any other potential confounding variables. If this is not reported, then downgrade the study. If propensity score matching was used, the reviewer should also see if the groups are well balanced. If they are unbalanced or this is not reported, downgrade the study.

Is there high potential for contamination between comparison and treatment groups that would affect the results?

The reviewer should consider whether there is high potential for “spillover” effects between the treatment and comparison groups due to geographic proximity (i.e., both groups are living in the same community or are interacting with the same program partners). It is also important to consider whether the comparison group receiving similar interventions as the treatment group from other organizations (or if this is even known).

Were the primary variables of interest measured both pre and post the intervention/exposure?

Studies that have both pre and post data should be considered to have greater strength of evidence than just ex-post studies. If the study just has ex-post measurement, downgrade the study.

Was exposure to the different program intervention(s) adequately measured and described?

The intervention or package of interventions should be well defined in the study. This should include information on the intensity and duration of exposure to different interventions. If this information is not included, downgrade the study. It should also be clear how exposure to interventions was determined among the treatment participants (i.e., the participant tracking methods are clear). If only participant self-reporting is used or if this information is not clear/known then downgrade the study.

Were appropriate statistical techniques used in the design and analysis?

Was propensity score matching used? If so, were appropriate variables used to match participants (i.e., are variables that influence participation and the outcome variable included as estimators)? Was an instrumental variable used in the analysis? If none of these methods are used, downgrade the study. If only ex-post single difference analysis was used, downgrade the study. Did any regression modeling include all of the appropriate control variables? If any key variables were not included (or this is not reported), downgrade the study.

B. Guidance for evaluating each criteria in the observational study critical appraisal tool

Were the methods of the study adequately explained and reported?

Methods sections should include, at minimum: a description of the sample population (demographics, location, and time period) and an explanation of how the sample was selected, how the sample size was determined (i.e., was there a power calculation?), what analysis techniques were used (including specifying any regression models) and what potential limitations/bias may exist in the study. If any of these are not reported, downgrade the study.

Did the study follow the same group of participants over time and include multiple measurements (i.e., panel/longitudinal data)?

Panel data contains more information, more variability, and more efficiency than pure time series data or cross-sectional data. Panel data can also detect and measure statistical effects that pure time series or cross-sectional data can't. If the study follows the same group of participants over time and includes multiple measurements, upgrade the study. If this study just looks at one point in time, the study should be rated as "poor quality".

Was there significant attrition in the sample population that resulted in decreases in the study's power or introduced bias?

If this is not a longitudinal study, report "N/A". If it is a longitudinal study and is not reported at all, downgrade the study. Also downgrade the study if attrition was observed only in specific subgroups (i.e., more vulnerable populations).

Were appropriate statistical techniques used in the design and analysis?

Did any regression modeling include all of the appropriate control variables? If any key variables were not included (or this is not reported), downgrade the study.

Upgrade the study if they did any of the following:

- Cross-sectional analysis that controlled for the baseline values of the outcomes of interest (only applicable for longitudinal studies)
- Used Statistical modeling techniques that leverages the repeated measures over time (e.g., fixed or random-effects or growth models)

C. Guidance for evaluating each criteria in the qualitative study critical appraisal tool

Were the methods of the study adequately explained and reported?

At the very minimum, the study should state how they came up with the codes used to group data into themes. For example, did the researcher(s) develop codes deductively from interview and focus group guides or inductively from field notes. If this is the only information stated, the study is of moderate quality. If the study also clearly states the philosophical or theoretical premises on which the study is based on (e.g., critical perspective) and/or goes into the methodological approach that the study is based on (e.g., participatory action research) it is a high-quality qualitative study. The data collection methods should also be appropriate for addressing the research questions. For example, qualitative studies should not be answering questions concerned with establishing causality between an intervention and program outcomes. The data should be analyzed and represented in ways that are congruent with the methodological position (if stated). If the study also addresses these things, it is a high-quality qualitative study. If the study provides no information on the methodology used it is a low quality study.

Is there a statement locating the researcher culturally or theoretically and explaining any influence the researcher may have on the research?

Are the beliefs and values, and their potential influence on the study declared? Is the potential for the researcher to influence the study and for the potential of the research process itself to influence the researcher and her/his interpretations acknowledged and addressed? If the study addresses these things, it is a high-quality qualitative study. If it does not address either or both of these it is not automatically a low-quality study, but should be taken into consideration along with the other criteria for downgrading a study.

Do the conclusions drawn in the research report flow from the analysis, or interpretation, of the data?

This criterion concerns the relationship between the findings reported and the views or words of study participants. In appraising a paper, appraisers seek to satisfy themselves that the conclusions drawn by the research are based

on the data collected; data being the text generated through observation, interviews or other processes. Also, reports should provide illustrations from the data to show the basis of their conclusions and to ensure that participants are represented in the report. If the report does these things, it is a high-quality qualitative study. If it does not, downgrade the study.

3. List of Studies

AUTHOR (YEAR)	TITLE	STUDY DESIGN	QUALITY RATING
Oxfam (2015)	Livelihoods in Somalia: Impact evaluation of community driven livelihood and food security initiatives in Lower and Middle Juba Regions	Quasi- Experimental	High
LaGuardia & Pinne (2019)	Shocks & Hard Knocks: The Impact of Resilience Programming in Somalia	Quasi- Experimental	Moderate
Kipchumba, Taylor & Arays (2019)	Lumped or Big: Effects of unconditional cash transfer fade out two years later in Urban Hiran, Somalia	Quasi- Experimental	High
Martin (2019)	Somalia Resilience Recurrent Monitoring Survey (RMS) Report	Observational	Moderate
BRCiS (2019a)	Information Ecosystem for Resilience: Access, Use & Needs of Somali Urban Youth	Observational + Qualitative	Qualitative: Poor Quantitative: Poor
Oxfam (2021)	Gender Analysis of the Impact of Recent Humanitarian Crises on Women, Men, Girls, and Boys in Puntland State in Somalia	Observational + Qualitative	Qualitative: Poor Quantitative: Poor
Thulstrup (2020)	Uncovering the challenges of domestic energy access in the context of weather and climate extremes in Somalia	Observational + Qualitative	Qualitative: Poor Quantitative: Poor
Wanyoike (2015)	Knowledge of Livestock Grading and Market Participation among Small Ruminant Producers in Northern Somalia	Observational + Qualitative	Qualitative: Poor Quantitative: Poor
SomReP (2017a)	SomReP Annual Resilience Measurement Report: Endline Survey Results	Observational	Poor
SomReP (2018)	Positive Deviance in Somalia: Why are some households more resilient than others?	Observational + Qualitative	Qualitative: High Quantitative: Moderate
SomReP (2017b)	Livelihood Recovery Assessment for targeted districts in Somalia	Observational + Qualitative	Qualitative: Poor Quantitative: Poor
IRC (2015)	Evaluation of Hogaan Iyo Nabad: The Governance and Peace-Building Program in Somalia	Observational + Qualitative	Quantitative: Poor Qualitative: Moderate
Link (2020)	Link Nutrition Causal Analysis	Observational + Qualitative	Quantitative: Poor Qualitative: High

Lwanga-Ntale & Owino (2020)	Understanding vulnerability and resilience in Somalia	Qualitative	Moderate
BRCiS (2019b)	BRCiS Endline Evaluation 2019	Qualitative	Poor
Maxwell et al. (2016)	Facing famine: Somali experiences in the famine of 2011	Qualitative	High
Development Initiatives (2019)	Towards an improved understanding of vulnerability and resilience in Somalia	Qualitative	Moderate

ANNEX 2: SUMMARY OF STUDIES INCLUDED IN THE RPM EVIDENCE REVIEW

Qualitative Studies

CITATION	SUMMARY
<p>Lwanga-Ntale, C., & Owino, B. O. (2020). Understanding vulnerability and resilience in Somalia. <i>Jamba</i> (Potchefstroom, South Africa), 12(1), 856. https://doi.org/10.4102/jamba.v12i1.856</p>	<p>Study explores how different populations managed and responded to recurrent shocks, the drivers of marginalization, and the role of external stakeholders. In particular, authors looked at household's experience in the 2011 crisis versus 2016. Authors found that choice of coping strategies was determined by household's resource endowments, with many relying on social and organizational coping strategies, the divestment of non-essential domestic assets, and the diversification of income generation and food production strategies. Recurrent droughts exacerbated food insecurity; however, hazards were addressed differently in 2016 vs. 2011, with increased investments in drought mitigation and planning efforts--especially at the national and regional levels. Following the 2011 famine, households kept dry rations in case of difficult times as well as diversified their sources of income. NGOs and development agencies worked to scale up small business support and vocational training since insecurity in 2011 complicated access to assistance. Moreover, in 2016, the Somali government had stronger, better-coordinated leadership that helped to address key drivers of hazards and stresses, such as deforestation related to charcoal production. Overall, three broad factors enabled communities to survive recurrent shocks: 1) social connectedness along with effective use of remittances allowed for communities to develop effective mechanisms for risk sharing; 2) households diversified income sources, as well as developed new livelihood skills; 3) investments in social protection mechanisms leading up to 2016 paid off and cash transfer instruments were better utilized thanks to improved coordination and provision of complementary services.</p>

Forcier Consulting. (2019). Endline Evaluation of the BRCiS RESTORE Programme in Puntland and Somaliland. Unpublished.

BRCiS conducted their own internal evaluation of their programming in order to learn more about their impact on resilience in Somalia and to determine ways to improve for future BRCiS projects. BRCiS facilitated creation of Community Action Plan (CAP) and/or Disaster Risk Reduction (DDR) committees. Seven communities (Marreerey, Gaawido, Malkaa-riyey, Gaawiido, Jabuti, Bitaale, and Bandar qaali) were found to have enduring, active community participation in CAP or DRR committees. In the remaining communities in which community engagement processes did not work as well, it was found that those locations engaged in minimal community mobilization or engagement activities, had passive leadership roles, or committees which had personal interests in the projects being implemented. **Previous program assessments have suggested that by incorporating existing government or clan structures, actively engaging in community mobilization and awareness building, and careful composition of committees all contribute to program success.**

Financial services interventions were found to be some of the most effective interventions. In communities where small business grants were implemented, CBDM committees, community leaders, and beneficiary groups reported that these grants were successful. Furthermore, all beneficiaries reported increased access to credit from local suppliers. As a result of the VSLA/SHG groups, numerous beneficiaries, especially women, reported increased savings. These savings play an important role in the ability of people to start or expand their business ventures or invest in other assets, pay for school fees for children, and pay for health-related expenses.

Other programs which focused on income generation such as helping beneficiaries produce fodder grass, providing fishermen with cool boxes, boats, nets/equipment, and rehabilitation of fish market infrastructure, and provisioning of donkey carts were also quite successful. These projects resulted in increased yields and profitability helping these producers to generate more income and invest in increasing their business capacity.

This evaluation found that restocking projects were largely unsuccessful as respondents reported selling or eating the livestock they received, and therefore was unlikely to contribute to long-term resilience. Animal health service projects were also largely unhelpful as it was found that access to pasture lands, water, and husbandry practices were the limiting factors to maintaining livestock productivity, not animal health. WASH projects, including building of latrines, were reported to be unsuccessful. The latrines that were built were filled and collapsed in just a few months as the pits were too shallow to accommodate the high traffic they were receiving. While these programs included hygiene promotion activities, they do not seem to have been effective at spurring change within the communities.

<p>Maxwell, D., Majid, N., Adan, G., Abdirahman, K., & Kim, J. J. (2016). Facing famine: Somali experiences in the famine of 2011. <i>Food Policy</i>, 65, 63-73. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2016.11.001</p>	<p>Explores the role of social connectedness during the 2011 famine. Authors found that social connectedness, the extent of people’s social networks, and the ability of networks to mobilize resources determined how well people were able to cope in the face of the famine. Found that social groups most dependent on the rural economy with the fewest connections to relatives and clan-members outside of these areas were the most vulnerable. Households that could rely upon connections in the diaspora were likely to survive the famine, regardless of the short-term impacts on their livelihoods. The ability and extent to which people could call upon extended family and clan members depended on the clan/social groups history of migration, education, urbanization, and emigration; those with longer histories had more members outside of the rural economy. Rahanweyen and Bantu/Jarer occupy lower rungs on the social ladder and in many instances had lower access to social networks. Found that these informal support networks could be as exclusive as they were inclusive. Ultimately, the more flexible and diverse a household’s social networks were, the better able they were to survive and recover from the 2011 famine</p>
<p>Development Initiatives (2019)Towards an improved understanding of vulnerability and resilience in Somalia.</p>	<p>The paper examines how different households responded to and survived shocks during the 2011-2016 period; drivers of marginalization and exclusion; the influence of external actors on coping strategies; and the effectiveness of those coping strategies. It found that many Somalis became more vulnerable - particularly during the 2011 famine - but some already powerful groups became even more powerful. Through access and control of humanitarian assistance and the limited availability of natural resources (such as grazing land or water), which they access by leveraging their influence and connections to various armed actors.</p> <p>Although people were displaced for shorter periods of time in 2016 vs. 2011, IDPs struggled through the loss of social networks during the famine. As a result IDPs relied on three types of coping strategies, including psychological and attitudinal, behavioral, and social and organizational strategies. Coping strategies varied depending on age and gender. Younger women engaged in more income generating activities; younger men, on the other hand, migrated to urban areas/ other countries or joined armed groups. Strong social connections and participation in clan activities was also found to strongly influence resilience. These connections allowed for the sharing of critical tangible resources--particularly food--during and after each crisis. Social networks also allowed for asset-sharing between families, helping them to protect themselves against attacks.</p> <p>Remittances were also found to play a critical role in sustaining families and communities, helping them to recover via asset-building. Found that women who received remittances invested in nutrition, health, and education, leading to more diversified skills and education and increased employment opportunities. Overall, households employed a mix of strategies at different stages of the crises or for different situations. Different combinations of strategies, depending on whether they lived in urban or rural areas as well as on their livelihood content, were being utilized in the short- or long-term. Found that coping strategies that fall in the category of social connectedness were most efficient for households and communities during both the 2011 and 2016 crises. In particular, people relied on borrowing food and relying on help from friends and depended on remittances from people in urban areas or the diaspora.</p>

CITATION	SUMMARY
<p>Oxfam (2015) Livelihoods in Somalia: Impact evaluation of community driven livelihood and food security initiatives in Lower and Middle Juba Regions</p>	<p>Evaluates the effectiveness of an income generation and food security program implemented in South Somalia. Program included cash grants for household businesses, agriculture/livestock inputs support, rehabilitation of irrigation systems, and cash for work. One measure of if programming worked was looking at the number of livestock owned by households and the number sold over the previous 12 months. Found that households participating in the program owned two more goats and 50% more sheep compared to those in comparison areas. Also examined whether participation in local community groups for both male and female household members and found a 20% difference between study sites. However, did not find that cash grants translated into increased income for household businesses, suggesting that the money was instead used to meet other needs.</p> <p>Since the project first began in 2009, evaluators examined households' use of coping strategies to respond to the 2011 drought, including reducing food consumption, loaning/selling livestock, internal migration, etc. Found that households in participant and comparison groups used these strategies to cope with drought, with a portion also utilizing these strategies regularly in the years since 2011.</p>
<p>LaGuardia & Pinney (2019) Shocks & Hard Knocks: The Impact of Resilience Programming in Somalia</p>	<p>Impact evaluation of DFID 2013-2017 Somalia humanitarian program. Found that the program had been largely successful, especially when it came to preventing famine in 2017 and enabling communities to recover to pre-crisis levels within the year following the height of the crisis. Primarily, there was little change in food security outcome indicators over three years despite numerous repeated shocks and the food security crisis of 2017--a significant result considering high rates of vulnerability and repeated shocks.</p> <p>BRCiS households in particular showed that despite a slight decline in food consumption scores during the third round of surveys at the beginning of 2017, they bounced back to levels above baseline by the time of the fourth survey. Results suggest that BRCiS supported households and communities may cope with shocks differently, resorting to fewer negative coping strategies and a greater sense of positivity regarding how they were dealing with the crisis.</p>

	<p>Ultimately, evaluation found that BRCiS households had more choices and more ways to cope. Despite eating less during the 2017 crisis, households trended generally positive when it came to well-being/self-concept, resorting to fewer negative coping strategies. Report suggests that this largely had to do with a household's ability to strategize and make choices, supporting perceptions of their own strength in the face of shocks and well-being. BRCiS households also reported the ability to rely on family and community much more than comparison sites.</p> <p>Surprisingly, the report found that counterfactual households also recovered well thanks to informal social support and social capital networks. Found that there are many communities that have not been reached by aid actors in decades or had never received assistance at all; yet informal support mechanisms and social capital networks have helped buttress their resilience despite this exclusion.</p> <p>Multi-year programming was found to be key to more innovative approaches to building resilience and they may need to be adapted/refined over time.</p> <p>Considerations for measurement: the evaluation showed that these interventions worked and were effective, but provided less information about the how and why. Suggest that future evals must develop and include new proxy indicators that assess resilience more broadly and how a combination of different interventions lead to different outcomes. These new indicators could draw from issues associated with how aid enables more positive choices in the face of shocks and links between resilience programming and the humanitarian-development nexus.</p>
<p>Kipchumba, Taylor & Arays (2019) Lumped or Big: Effects of unconditional cash transfer fade out two years later in Urban Hiran, Somalia</p>	<p>Study evaluates the impact of lumped or installment cash transfers on households over the course of two years. Participants were broken into four groups: 1) \$100 payment in two monthly transfers (control); 2) \$100 lump sum (control); 3) \$500 lump sum (treatment); 4) \$1000 lump sum (control). Study found that UCT programming overall helped to provide a cushion for small enterprises, preventing shrinking as a result of drought. However, the protective effects of these transfers declined within two years, regardless of the type and sum of the cash transfers. Households responded to drought impacts by engaging in more wage employment; however, there were less wage opportunities overall as many of the surviving businesses were small, family-run operations.</p> <p>The micro-enterprises that did survive after two years had a higher net worth and made larger profits, thanks to both business skills training and the large cash transfers. However, those that received the \$500 UCT made almost the same amount of profits as those who received the larger \$1000 grant. While households that received the larger UCT saved part of the initial grant, drought conditions meant they had to withdraw from their savings with household expenditure dwindling over the next two years. However, lumping and increasing the size of cash transfers did decrease the likelihood of negative food security-related coping strategies in the immediate term.</p>

CITATION	SUMMARY
<p>Martin, S. (2019). Somalia Resilience Recurrent Monitoring Survey (RMS) Report. Washington, DC: The Resilience Evaluation, Analysis and Learning (REAL) Associate Award. https://www.fsnnetwork.org/resource/somalia-resilience-recurrent-monitoring-survey-rms-report</p>	<p>Presents findings from an RMS conducted during a severe drought in Somalia, as well as discusses factors that contributed to household resilience. Analysis found that higher baselines of absorptive capacity were associated with lower likelihood of moderate to severe hunger during the second round of RMS and higher likelihood of recovery in the first and second round of RMS. Informal safety nets improved well-being outcomes, w/ VSLAs being the most important element. Few households reported cash savings and savings depleted quickly during the drought. Access to information helped to increase resilience and improve well-being outcomes, but the share of households receiving information was very low, food/cash assistance and development programming helped improve well-being outcomes.</p>
<p>BRCiS (2019) Information Ecosystem for Resilience: Access, Use & Needs of Somali Urban Youth</p>	<p>Explores the information ecosystem of vulnerable youth living in IDP camps in Somalia, where 86% of adults have access to mobile phones. Respondents reported that health and education were the most important and sufficiently addressed topics, but information concerning evictions was equally important yet less covered. Moreover, study found that messages of hope that projected a sense of opportunity and future support were also reported to be important. Additionally, found that information was accessed and disseminated via a “hubs-and-spokes system”, in which information is injected through key hubs (e.g. sheikhs/imams, camp leaders, community meetings, etc.) then passed through their immediate vicinity and dispensed further out among social networks. Teachers, religious leaders, and NGO staff were ranked as some of the most trustworthy sources of information, along with friends, family, and radio. In particular, radio has been used by NGOs to target youth to support and address peacebuilding and resilience capacities.</p> <p>Early warning mechanisms existed in most camps, but were limited and aligned with the hubs-and-spokes system. While it suggests strong social support structures, those who are not well-connected may be left behind, compounding existing vulnerabilities. During floods in Beledweyne, those who had turned their phones off at night to conserve battery/energy costs could not be contacted and were among the casualties. Report recommends support of phone usage by subsidizing costs and/or investing in small-scale local renewable energy sources that lower charging costs.</p>

Oxfam (2021) [Gender Analysis of the Impact of Recent Humanitarian Crises on Women, Men, Girls, and Boys in Puntland State in Somalia](#)

Examines gender impacts of recent humanitarian crises on populations in Puntland State. Women bear the greater burden of household responsibilities, but some shifts in the division of labor were observed in IDP communities. Among IDPs, all members of the household engage in labor activities within the camp, with men working in fishing, pottery, and hard labor and women engaged in cleaning services, garbage collection for money, and selling products in local markets. Number of barriers remain to women achieving economic empowerment, including traditional beliefs about who should have access to job opportunities and obstacles to wider leadership roles.

All communities reported the lack of access to clean water, with high need for borehole and water reservoirs. For IDPs especially, safety concerns regarding access to water and latrines remain. **Food shortages are regular, with families reducing daily intake. Increase in monetary inflation and reduced work opportunities contributed to the additional economic strain on households.** COVID-19 has added another layer of strain, with women reporting receiving less work and key goods have increased in price, including firewood. It also led to suspended import/export activities, disrupting key value chains like frankincense that disproportionately affected women. In Bariga Bosaaso, participants reported that there were no job opportunities or financial assistance available to help stabilize and secure basic household needs. In a number of other areas, men in host communities highlighted that natural hazards, including flooding, drought, and locusts, had destroyed farms, livestock, pastures, and water sources. **FGDs with community members reported wanting to expand their skillsets, but need access to free formal education in order to do so. Many had experience in a broad array of vocational skills, but needed further training and access to resources to capitalize on these opportunities.**

Radios and hotlines remain the key modes of information sharing among IDP communities. Among host communities, women reported that radio, phone calls, and hotlines were important for receiving information, but they did not have the same access as men did. 88% of women between the ages of 15-49 did not have access to newspapers, radio, or television at least 1x/week. **Men, women, girls, and boys all were unaware about the opportunities and ways in which to engage with humanitarian organizations to access support.**

Thulstrup (2020) [Uncovering the challenges of domestic energy access in the context of weather and climate extremes in Somalia](#)

Paper examines the risks and challenges associated with weather and climate extremes and conflict, particularly for vulnerable populations like women and IDPs. The paper looks at those who collect and use "traditional biomass" (e.g. firewood) to address their household energy needs. Authors found that competition over natural resources was a key driver of conflict-one that was further exacerbated by climate and weather extremes.

Displacement of large populations has allowed for-profit charcoal ventures to flourish, leading to the exploitation of wood and vegetative cover and land degradation, as well as energy access challenges. Many IDPs settle in remote areas that lack the vegetation cover needed to meet their households' energy needs. Stone fires are the most common energy usage approach for cooking in most households, as well as in schools and hospitals. Yet they also pose a number of health and environmental risks.

The exploitation of trees for charcoal and other commodities have aggravated environmental degradation, leading to an increase of desertification and threatening the availability of fertile land key to pastoral activities. **Participants reported that the collection of firewood caused tensions between IDP and host community households. However, when it comes to trade and doing business, relationships between the two remain strong and the flow of goods between the two continues.**

	<p>This may provide a good entrypoint for interventions that seek to improve relationships between hosts and IDPs. FGDs with agropastoralists revealed that they could not rely on drought coping mechanisms that allowed them to continue their livelihoods due to the growing demand for charcoal production. These demands have undercut traditional coping mechanisms that were disrupting community resilience. Recommend a “people-centered approach” when it comes to planning and implementing energy interventions, treating people as “end users and stakeholders rather than beneficiaries.”</p>
<p>Wanyoike (2015) Knowledge of Livestock Grading and Market Participation among Small Ruminant Producers in Northern Somalia</p>	<p>Paper examines the market participation and producers’ knowledge of indigenous livestock grading and pricing systems in small ruminant marketing in Somaliland. The grading system for small ruminants evaluates age, conformation, nutritional status, and sex in order to prescribe a grade to the livestock, with lower numbers noting higher quality and, by extension, higher prices. Authors contend that producers must be aware of the grading system in order to take advantage of it to increase their incomes. Majority of farmers of both genders reported being aware of the grading system, but there was low awareness that the breed of sheep and goat played no role in influencing the grade assigned to them.</p> <p>The size of the flock had a positive effect on the probability that a household would participate in the market, with males sold more often and females retained for breeding. In cases where the flocks were small, sales of male livestock were more likely to be lower, lowering the chance that producers would participate in the market as sellers. Moreover, households where the head was relatively younger were more likely to participate in the market. Authors suggest this is because younger parents may have younger children that are highly dependent on them and they may also have less accumulated wealth in other forms.</p> <p>Ultimately, awareness of the grading system had no significant effect on the probability of market participation. But they did find that households where men made the decisions or decisions were made collaboratively were more likely to have “intensive participation” in local markets. Moreover, they found that more sales were made in households where the decision was made by men vs. women, suggesting the need for interventions that attempt to address this imbalance.</p>
<p>SomReP (2017) SomReP Annual Resilience Measurement Report: Endline Survey Results</p>	<p>SomRep beneficiaries were found to have higher FC scores compared to non-beneficiaries, suggesting that the project activities had an impact on dietary diversity and consumption of more nutrient-dense foods. Results showed that beneficiaries tended to participate more in climate-correlated livelihoods (which have a higher risk profile) than non-beneficiaries; however, suggests that this doesn’t mean that non-beneficiaries are less vulnerable, but rather that beneficiaries are able to make more significant capital investments into agricultural/livestock inputs. Non-beneficiaries may lack the initial investments and cannot participate in any livelihood significantly.</p> <p>SomRep households owned more productive assets, which can be essential to coping with a negative shock and is correlated with resilience. The biggest differences in the types of productive assets owned between beneficiary and non-beneficiary households included ploughs and plough materials, axes, grain sacks, and granaries. Early evidence shows that food consumption scores tend to be higher in areas where VSLAs are present. Across all intervention regions, VSLAs were found to be the most significant and impactful activity. Belonging to a VSLA was found to have a positive impact on people’s livelihoods and their role in enhancing resilience.</p>

	<p>Livelihoods not correlated with seasonality and/or climate-sensitivity were more likely to fulfill a protective function. Suggests that those who are able to weaken the correlation between their livelihoods and climate-sensitivity may be more resilient to the effects of drought; however, will require further monitoring as the project continues. Moreover, the paper hypothesizes that if farmers can identify a combination and seasonality of income and livelihood sources configured in a way that provides a protective function against the risk of drought, they may become more resilient. Additionally, more household members contributing to the household income may also contribute to improved resilience.</p> <p>Overall, participants perceived savings groups and cash transfers, the presence of trained community animal health workers to prevent livestock losses, government involvement in early warning systems and contingency planning, and ensuring the provision of sustainable water sources during dry seasons as contributing towards enhanced resilience.</p>
<p>SomRep (2018)Positive Deviance in Somalia: Why are some households more resilient than others?</p>	<p>Households that were considered to be positively deviant (PD) had a good understanding of the nature of resilience and associated it with being able to successfully prepare for and manage shocks such as droughts and floods. Resilience was perceived as being able to maintain and quickly restore livelihood assets to help achieve and maintain health and well-being. Diversified livelihoods, savings, and access to water, markets, and health services were all identified as important determinants of resilience. Communities also identified early warning information committees/drought rescue or management committees were key to preparedness. In places where these committees were well informed and active, participants reported that their communities were better able to absorb the effects of drought.</p> <p>The study found that households that had better food security and coping ability were more likely to have belonged to a savings group and participated in Cash for Work in the last year through SomRep programming. The ability to communicate regularly with someone outside of the village was also significantly associated with better outcomes. Participants reported that VSLAs helped to build social capital, self-esteem, and empowerment, as well as providing an opportunity for self-help through the exchange of ideas and expertise. Moreover, VSLAs provided them a space for psychosocial support, where they could share and relieve psychological stress. The ability to provide help to the needies in their communities--through social welfare funds part of the VSLA--helped elevate their self-esteem, along with their newfound credit-worthiness.</p> <p>Community perceptions of PD were associated with well-being measures, including socio-economic and food security outcomes. However, survey data suggests that households that were PD were only somewhat more socio-economically advantaged, but not by much. Households that were identified as PDs also highlighted the psychosocial aspects of resilience, emphasizing the importance of optimism; entrepreneurialism; not being discouraged by the loss of assets; strong community and familial social networks; and awareness of/ability to access humanitarian programming.</p> <p>Found that the more high impact interventions were implemented in villages, the higher the food security status among households. While VSLAs were reported to be a source of resilience for PD households, these interventions did not reach the most vulnerable in the targeted communities. Only households that were able to afford to save sought membership in these savings schemes.</p>

<p>SomReP (2017) Livelihood Recovery Assessment for targeted districts in Somalia</p>	<p>Of the 25 districts surveyed, Dinsor and Wanla Weyn had the highest number of displaced households and loss of income was the most cited reason for displacement. In Baidoa, loss of livelihood income, insecurity, and taking livestock to other grazing grounds were the top 3 reasons for displacement cited by households. 80% of households in Baidoa reported receiving assistance within the previous 8 months. Most households across most districts reported that unprotected well water was the water source most available during Jilal. In Baidoa, households reported that lack of rain, pasture, and enough grazing land were the top three problems affecting pasture and grazing lands. Moreover, they reported that the lack of rain, agricultural inputs, and enough framing land prevented them from growing more crops. They reported that the effects of drought reduced crop production by 40% and resulted in a 70% and 80% loss in livestock and fodder stock respectively.</p> <p>The provision of water was needed for both agricultural and livestock activities, as well as for human consumption. Water sustainability across Jilal and other seasons remains a priority for many households as the poor rainfall and lack of water have a significant impact on key livelihood sources. Households in Baidoa reported that boreholes were their primary source of water, with the lack of rain and boreholes preventing year round water provision. Participants in focus group discussions across districts reported the need for education on better ways of water harvesting, as well as drilling more boreholes and wells.</p> <p>Across districts, households reported that emergency assistance was the immediate need (1-3 months), with cash grants as second. In the medium to long term, households reported needing interventions that would focus on supporting their ability to engage in productive agriculture. This includes livestock feed and fodder and agricultural inputs including seeds, equipment, and provision of water. All districts reported cash grants (conditional and unconditional) as the long-term priority need. In Baidoa, cash grants (conditional and unconditional), emergency food aid, and drinking water were the top 3 priority needs that needed to be addressed in the short, medium, and long term. However, focus group discussions in Baidoa further revealed that to address agricultural problems, construction of wells and irrigation canals; provision and distribution of agricultural inputs; training on good agricultural practices; and the drilling of boreholes were all key resilience activities that were needed across the immediate, medium and long term. Moreover, they reported that the provision of fodder stock, veterinary services, grass seeds, and livestock drugs were needed to address livestock problems.</p>
<p>IRC (2015) Evaluation of Hogaan Iyo Nabad: The Governance and Peace- Building Program in Somalia</p>	<p>Interviews across implementation and non-implementation villages emphasized the inclusive and participatory nature of decision-making within their villages, including regular discussions regarding village matters. Participants revealed that these meetings did not occur regularly, but rather when a large problem occurred or when planning large development projects. Survey results demonstrated that villagers in both implementation and non-implementation villages supported decisions made by customary leaders, reporting that they were often the most responsive and accessible.</p>

	<p>Evaluation found that Hogaan increased interaction between villagers and members of formal governance institutions. In Hogaan villages, the difference between the numbers of men and women interacting with customary and religious authorities was significantly lower in comparison to non-implementation villages. Evaluation found that women interact much less with formal and customary governance institutions than men, but they report similar rates of engagement with and accessibility of these institutions as men. While the Hogaan program did not enhance rates of participation among youth, it did have a positive impact on how they rate responsiveness of both formal and customary institutions. When compared with older people, youth were significantly more likely to believe that their viewpoints were considered by the district council, elders, and religious authorities.</p> <p>Women and youth both in Hogaan villages reported that they felt they were significantly more involved in decision-making, but the evaluation did not find that women and youth had actually significantly participated more. Moreover, minority clan members in implementation villages were more likely to report feeling more involved in planning and decision-making in their villages.</p> <p>Evaluation found that Hogaan had an impact on local level governance, with an increase in citizens' trust and confidence in the village councils' capacities. Those in Hogaan villages were more likely to attribute responsibility for service delivery and protection of rights to the local village council. It also notes a shift in responsibility from the district to the village level, but does not necessarily denote a lack of confidence or trust in district authorities. Additionally, found that village leaders preferred projects organized by formal institutions, particularly the district and government. Citizens' preferences were impacted by information about the project, with project preferences affected by the provision of financial information in particular.</p>
ACF(2020) Link Nutrition Causal Analysis	<p>Risk factors to child undernutrition varied across the four livelihood zones, Kahda (SO 19), Galdogob (SO 05), Baidoa (SO 15-16), and Beledweyne (SO 13). Across all four livelihood districts, lack of household resilience was the most identified risk factor to child undernutrition. Study suggests that low household resilience across these zones could be attributed to low household incomes, forcing households to employ negative coping mechanisms around food access. Moreover, low availability to water was another identified major risk factor. Long waits at water points as well as the high cost of water, water contamination, and destroyed water infrastructure strained household access to and availability of water.</p> <p>Women's workloads were also identified as a major risk factor, particularly for women who were engaged in casual labor to earn an income as well as bearing the burden of responsibility for household chores. These were found to reduce mothers' time for child care. In some livelihood zones this workload was seasonal (SO 15-16) and related to planning, weeding, and harvesting. In others (SO 19) the workload was year round.</p>

CITATION	SUMMARY
<p>Directorate of National Statistics (2020) The Somali Health and Demographic Survey 2020</p>	<p><i>Household characteristics:</i> 55% of household members are under the age of 15 and 42% of the population falls within the working age group. The average household size is 6.2 members, and 28% of households include a foster child and/or orphaned children. 75% of households own mobile phones. In nomadic communities, 59% own a simple mobile phone with access to fm radio.</p> <p><i>Education:</i> Younger Somalis have better access to education compared to older age groups, with those in the 15-19 age bracket having the lowest number of people with no formal education (57%). Those living in urban areas had higher education compared to those in nomadic settings. Access to education remains low overall, however.</p> <p><i>Women's empowerment:</i> Only 32% of Somali women are literate. However, 75% of women ages 15-49 own a mobile phone and 64% use their phones for financial transactions. 9 out of 10 women report deciding how their cash earnings will be spent individually or jointly with their spouse. 7 out of 10 report making individual or joint decisions based on how their husband's cash will be spent. Only 9% of ever-married women were employed at the time of the survey, 18% of whom were not paid for their work; over half of women were employed year-round. Employment varied by place of residence and wealth status. Women from wealthier households and in urban areas were more likely to be employed compared to those in rural and/or poorer households. 93% of women did not access any of the three forms of media (newspaper, radio, and television) at least once a week.</p> <p><i>Water and Sanitation:</i> Less than 42% of households reported having access to piped water coming into their dwelling, yard, or plot. Only 57% of households reported having access to an improved sanitation facility that they did not share with other households. 76% of urban households have access to improved water sources, while only 55% and 35% of rural and nomadic households have access respectively.</p>
<p>FEWSNet (various) FSNAU Livelihood Profile Reports</p>	<p>Southern Inland Pastoral (SOII): Acute water shortages are common in this zone, especially during the Jilaal dry season. Local pastoralists highly reliant on Gu rains to help replenish local water sources and regenerate local pasture. The Deyr rains help people consolidate gains made during the Gu season. Livestock production is the basis of the local economy, with households heavily relying on camels, goats, and sheep to meet food and cash needs. During periods of poor rainfall or insecurity, competition for scarce rangeland resources can lead to violent conflict. Drought is a recurrent hazard, depleting rangeland and water resources and increasing risk of disease for livestock. Population copes by migrating to areas where pasture and water can be found for livestock. Poorer pastoralists supplement income through additional self-employment activities such as selling firewood or charcoal, as well as seeking support from neighbors and relatives who are more well off. Almost all households take out credit from traders and shopkeepers; more well off households take out credit to purchase more livestock and poorer households take out loans to cover immediate food needs. Local livelihoods have been undermined by insecurity and market closures, disrupting the flow of trade, restricting movements of pastoralists, and resulting in a loss of assets. Additional stresses include environmental degradation and livestock diseases.</p>

Shabelle-Juba Gravity Irrigation (SO14): Zone frequently struggles with floods from high waters when river crest, as well as high input costs, high influx of people and animals, market disruptions, disputes over land, and poorly maintained irrigation systems. Many of these hazards have been brought on by or aggravated by insecurity. Broken irrigation infrastructure and poorly regulated water use have led to poor crop outcomes. Population is a mix of ethnic Bantu and Somali; the former has long suffered land grabs and violence. Transport, education, and health and hygiene infrastructure have been negatively affected by the conflict. Access and use of agricultural inputs varies by wealth group, with more well off farmers using seeds from their own stock and poor farmers needing to buy seeds before each cropping season. Poorer farmers also cannot afford to buy fertilizers. Land conflicts, political instability, clan-base conflict, and crop pest and insect infestations continue to affect farmers. More well off households had more cash on hand to spend on health and education, with social spending accounting for 10-15% of their annual expenditures. Comparatively, at only 4%, poor households spent very little. Coping strategies are influenced by local opportunities, with wild food and fruit and fish providing a source of food when crops fail. Proximity to large urban areas also provides opportunities for casual labor during periods of insecurity.

Bay-Shabelle High Potential Agropastoral (SO15): Crops are the main source of food for households, with livestock serving as the main source of cash income. Livestock are mainly taken to pasture-rich areas during the wet season. Poorer households supplement crop production and livestock sales with local seasonal labor, as well as self-employment activities to earn cash income. Presence of a more developed market infrastructure thanks to the sorghum trade, which links households to urban centers like Baidoa and Mogadishu. More well off households are better able to cultivate land thanks to more productive household members within the homestead and have the resources to recruit additional labor. Farmers who rely on but cannot afford additional labor often turn to family members, neighbors, and fellow clan members. Animals are also loaned or given as zakat to poorer households. Poorer households depend on cash income earned through casual labor, making up half of their annual cash supply. Drought remains the most damaging hazard in this livelihood zone, with knockon effects for agricultural/casual labor and the amount of resources available for consumption and gifts/zakat. During difficult times, households rely on war-time survival strategies, including reducing non-essential consumption, increasing sources of cash income, and changing expenditure patterns. Poor households are likely to increase reliance on labor, sending male members to urban areas to find work.

Bay Bakool Low Potential Agro-Pastoral (SO16): Local economy is largely dependent on livestock and agriculture, with households relying on crop production to meet household food needs and livestock used to cover cash and some food needs. Grazing areas are communal and shared peacefully when rainfall is adequate, but it can become a source of conflict during periods of drought when pasture is scarce. Main determinants of wealth are number of livestock and the area cultivated, and largely reliant upon the amount of labor the household has on hand or is able to mobilize. Main sources of cash income are milk/ghee sales, livestock sales, and -- for poorer households especially-- labor sales. More well off households take out credit to purchase additional livestock. Poorer households, however, take out loans to meet immediate food needs, incurring higher debt burdens during hunger seasons when trade is poor and during drought when livestock production declines. Farmers who rely on but cannot afford additional labor often turn to family members, neighbors, and fellow clan members. Animals are also loaned or given as zakat to poorer households. Drought remains the most damaging hazard in this livelihood zone, with knockon effects for agricultural/casual labor and the amount of resources available for consumption and gifts/zakat. During difficult times, households rely on war-time survival strategies, including reducing non-essential consumption, increasing sources of cash income, and changing expenditure patterns. Poor households are likely to increase reliance on labor, sending male members to urban areas to find work.

	<p>Southern Rainfed Maize, Cattle & Goats (SO17): Livelihoods in this region rely on deshek farming, which is rain fed recession-based agriculture. Population largely comprised of people from the Absaame and Rahanweyne groups, the latter of whom are agro-pastoralists who practice limited migration between wet and dry seasons. Coping mechanisms have been strained by political instability, drought, flood, and pest and disease events over the past three decades. Own-crop production is the main source of food for households, consisting almost entirely of maize. During periods of income shortfalls, more well off households sell livestock to generate cash for food purchases. Poorer households rely on selling bush products, seeking out casual labor, and collecting water lilies in riverine areas for consumption. When local economic shocks occur, poor households will turn to relatives or local “patrons” in the community for support. Typically, more well off households will seek additional remittances from family members living in Mogadishu or other major cities.</p>
<p>World Bank (2019) Somali Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment : Findings from Wave 2 of the Somali High Frequency Survey</p>	<p>Households and children that do not receive remittances are disproportionately poor. Nearly 9 in 10 households struggle with at least one kind of deprivation, including monetary, electricity, education, and/or water and sanitation. Almost 7 in 10 households struggle with at least two or more types of deprivation. Nomadic populations are the most vulnerable to deprivation, while urban households experience the least. Access to services is largely limited, especially for rural residents, IDPs in settlements, and nomadic populations. Distance rather than cost is the primary barrier to primary school enrollment.</p> <p>Urban areas generally have higher standards of living and better access to services for rural areas, with access to land and housing being the exception. Mogadishu and northeast and northwest cities provide better access to services compared to Baidoa, Kismayo, and Central urban areas. Urban IDP and non-IDP households have similar poverty profiles and access to services. Internal displacement has grown rapidly in recent years, mainly as a result of drought.</p> <p>Somali households are vulnerable to large covariate shocks such as natural disasters and epidemics, as well as idiosyncratic shocks such as injury, death, and unemployment. 66 percent of households reported experiencing at least one type of shock in the previous 12 months. Vulnerability to shocks is compounded by low education, dependence on agriculture, unemployment, low wealth, and large household size. Nearly all households that experienced a shock reported a negative impact on their income, assets, and/or food resources. Households mainly rely on “self-insurance” to cope w/ shocks, indicating inadequate risk management and mitigation systems and the absence of formal and informal safety nets. Report calls for social safety nets and social protection systems to help build risk management and the coping capacity of households.</p>
<p>Maxwell, D., & Fitzpatrick, M. (2012). The 2011 Somalia famine: Context, causes, and complications. Special Issue on the Somalia Famine of 2011-2012, 1(1), 5-12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2012.07.002</p>	<p>Describes several causal factors for the 2011 famine, including drought, rapidly rising food prices, conflict between local armed actors and national/regional military actors, as well as ongoing livelihood, governance, and environmental crises. Humanitarian response was complicated by several additional factors, including access restricted by Al Shabaab and the absence of major food agencies which left humanitarian actors scrambling despite early warning. Absence of WFP and the lack of a contingency plan by WFP or the humanitarian community to address a major food crisis hamstrung the response to rapid deterioration in early to mid-2011.</p> <p>Reduced crop production and increases in livestock mortality rates decreased local food availability and livestock sales, the two most common sources of income in Somalia. This combined with a rapid increase in global food prices led to a steep decline in entitlements for key groups, including agriculturalists, agro-pastoralists, laborers, and IDPs. Prolonged insecurity had contributed to the erosion of livelihoods and coping strategies, w/ displacement disrupting access to key services. Further, the failed deyr rains of late 2010 led to larger numbers of people moving in early 2011 in response to the drought and lost livelihoods. This was further aggravated by additional large movements of populations following the failed Gu rains in mid-2011.</p>

<p>Majid, N., & McDowell, S. (2012). Hidden dimensions of the Somalia famine. Special Issue on the Somalia Famine of 2011-2012, 1(1), 36-42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2012.07.003</p>	<p>Certain ethnic, livelihood, and wealth groups were disproportionately impacted by the 2011 famine, in particular the Reewin and Bantu ethnic groups. These two groups had also been disproportionately affected during the 1991/92 famine. Majority of those classified as being "in famine conditions were from rural areas, IDPs residing in camps, from poor or very poor wealth categories, and from riverine agro-pastoral or riverine farming areas. Many of those residing in famine affected areas were also part of the Reewin clan, who largely rely on agriculture and/or urban-based labor. Those who were riverine farmers largely identified as being Somalis of Bantu origin, who are not part of the clan system and considered a minority group.</p> <p>Poor Reewin and Bantu populations were heavily reliant on the agricultural economy, leaving them with few options when the drought struck in late 2010. Moreover, their "landlocked" position and distance from Kenya and Ethiopia where humanitarian resources were concentrated worsened their outcomes during the famine. Large groups migrated to Mogadishu as a result of restrictions imposed by Al Shabaab, with many wealthier households who had the means migrating in 2010 and leaving negative consequences for those left behind. Finally strong but limited social networks meant that these populations did not have access to global remittances networks, stretching their social support coping mechanisms to the limits. The reduced number of wealthy households also meant that there were less resources flowing within these social support networks.</p>
<p>Mercy Corps (2013) What Really Matters for Resilience: Exploratory Evidence on the Determinants of Resilience to Food Security Shocks in Southern Somalia</p>	<p>Brief presents findings on resilience to food security shocks in southern Somalia. Three key findings: women's participation in household decision-making was linked with greater dietary diversity and less use of negative coping strategies; social and economic connections across clan lines helped households maintain food security through crisis and/or recover quickly afterwards; and livelihood diversity is not strongly linked with resilience to food security shocks, rather more independent income sources which spreads risk across different types of hazards plays a larger role.</p> <p>Pastoralist households suffered less food deprivation and were less likely to rely on negative coping mechanisms. This is likely b/c they have greater reserves of physical capital to draw from during times of crisis. Additionally, households located in areas where authorities did a poorer job of handling major government functions were found to be less resilient to food shocks. Moreover, access to markets, veterinary services, mobile phones and water were all linked to a household's ability to maintain its food security during a crisis. Access to functioning markets in particular was a significant predictor of lower household hunger scores.</p>