

Somalia Drought Impact & Needs Assessment

VOLUME I
Synthesis Report



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Foreword

Federal Government of Somalia

Somalia has made important progress in recent years with the establishment of permanent political institutions and significant improvement in security, paving the way towards a future with greater peace. This is yet, however, to translate into an improvement for the majority of Somali citizens' food security and nutrition, access to safe water, sanitation, health care and better protection. Following four consecutive poor rainy seasons in 2016 and 2017, the humanitarian situation has deteriorated to a point where over half of the population is in need of assistance, jeopardizing critical gains made in recent years.

In early 2017, the country was again faced with the risk of famine, only six years after a famine caused the deaths of hundreds of thousands, provoked unspeakable human suffering and put the lives of millions more at risk. While the famine was successfully averted in 2017 thanks to Somali leadership and extensive international support, the risk of famine remains, and the cyclical droughts and increasingly erratic weather patterns continue to prevent achievement of vital long-term development goals needed to lift Somalia out of poverty and insecurity.

Given the need for concerted action at this critical juncture, the Federal Government of Somalia sought the support of the World Bank, the European Union, and the United Nations in conducting a comprehensive Drought Impact Needs Assessment (DINA) and Recovery and Resilience Framework (RRF) to assess the impact of the ongoing drought on lives, livelihoods and sectors of the economy, while identifying preventative and sustainable development solutions to promote resilience to disaster risks and climate change trends and more effectively prevent the recurrence of cyclical famine risk in Somalia. The report has benefitted throughout the process from the constructive and informative engagement of the Federal Member States and the Benadir Regional Administration. Their input has been crucial, given that much of the work of the subsequent resilient recovery program will be delivered by subnational authorities.

As the report will detail, the drought has caused damages and losses across a number of sectors totaling over USD 3.25 billion, requiring recovery interventions estimated at USD 1.77 billion. Agriculture (irrigation and rain-fed crops) and urban development and municipal services have been identified as the sectors with the highest recovery needs, representing 28 percent and 17 percent of total needs, respectively.

The results of the DINA will feed into an RRF that will define a multi-sectoral approach to identifying key development policies and investment priorities to prevent the recurrence of cyclical famine risk, tied to an associated financing framework, situated within Somalia's National Development Plan (NDP). The DINA is an important building block for the future vision of Somalia. We appreciate the support of our partners in undertaking this exercise within a tight timeframe, allowing for the timely initiation of much-needed recovery and resilience-building action, and we look forward to working with them on this strategic initiative.

Gamal Mohamed Hassan
Minister of Planning, Investment and Economic Development
Federal Government of Somalia

The European Union, the United Nations, and the World Bank

When alarms were raised of famine in early 2017, the collective response by national and international partners demonstrated a clear commitment to never again let a famine unfold in Somalia. The massive scale-up of life-saving assistance throughout the country by local communities, civil society, youth groups, diaspora, private sector, local and national authorities and international partners reflects a level of solidarity and efficiency in the national and international aid system which was not a given just a few years ago. Today, we know that collectively, we can prevent famine in Somalia.

We also know that cyclical droughts in the Horn of Africa will continue to drive high levels of need in Somalia if urgent investments are not made in strengthening resilience to future disasters and effectively preventing the risk of famine in a sustainable manner. This has already been done in most other countries in the region and around the world, and we know it is feasible in Somalia. The coming years present a critical window of opportunity to build on the achievements and gains made nationally and internationally among development and humanitarian partners to effectively reduce risk and vulnerability among those most in need in Somalia.

When the Federal Government of Somalia requested the European Union, the United Nations, and the World Bank to support a comprehensive assessment of the drought, we immediately joined a team of over 80 Government staff from Federal and Member State levels who worked across 18 sectors on the Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA).

In fewer than seven weeks, the DINA team sifted through data, traveled to some of the most impacted areas, and validated findings using innovative remote sensing technology. What emerges is a DINA that goes beyond determining the damages, losses and resulting needs; it aims for a multi-sectoral, phased recovery strategy focused on strengthening resilience to future disasters and effectively preventing the cyclical risk of famine.

It is our hope that the recommendations in this DINA can inform efforts by the Government of Somalia and its many partners to enhance the collective understanding of the dynamics and drivers of recurrent climatic emergencies in the country, while strengthening national capacity and the resilience of the Somali people to break the cycle of disasters and the food insecurity that too often is the outcome.

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Deputy Special Representative of the United Nations Secretary General to Somalia

Veronique Lorenzo
EU Ambassador to Somalia

Acknowledgments

The DINA was prepared under the overall leadership of the Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development in partnership with the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs & Disaster Management of the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) and the Federal Member States and the Benadir Regional Administration. It was undertaken with strategic support from the World Bank Group, the United Nations and the European Union, within the framework of the 2008 Joint EU-UN-WB Declaration on Post-Crisis Assessments and Recovery Planning. Financial support has been provided by the European Union under the ACP-EU Natural Disaster Risk Reduction program implemented by the WB-led Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. Ipsos provided remote sensing and survey support, and Courage Services, Inc. provided remote sensing services.

More than 180 national and international experts from the FGS, Federal Member States, the Benadir Regional Administration, the World Bank Group, the United Nations and the European Union worked intensively across 18 sector/cross-cutting groups to collect, validate and analyze data, conduct field visits to consult with sub-national authorities, international and national non-governmental organizations and civil society stakeholders, to determine recovery needs and identify interventions for medium-term recovery and long-term resilience.

A complete list of contributors to the DINA can be found in Annex 2.

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List of Acronyms

ACLED	Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project
AfDB	African Development Bank
ARC	African Risk Capacity
AWD	Acute Watery Diarrhea
CAS	Comprehensive Approach to Security
CBS	Central Bank of Somalia
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency, United States of America
CPI	Consumer Price Index
CSA	Climate Smart Agriculture
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DINA	Drought Impact and Needs Assessment
DOCC	Drought Operations Coordination Centers
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
DSI	Durable Solutions Initiative
EGA	Evergreen Agriculture
ELD	Economics on Land Degradation Initiative
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FEWSNET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
FGS	Federal Government of Somalia
FISHSTAT	Fisheries and Aquaculture Department Stats, FAO
FMS	Federal Member States
FMNR	Farmer-managed Natural Regeneration
FSNAU	Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit
FTS	Financial Tracking Service, UNOCHA
GAM	Global Acute Malnutrition
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GII	Gender Inequality Index
HCF	Health Care Facility
HCT	Humanitarian Country Team
HH	Household
HRP	Humanitarian Response Plan
ICCG	Inter-Cluster Coordination Group
IFI	International Financing Institutions
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ICU	Islamic Courts Union
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPC	Integrated Food Security Phase Classification
IRC	International Rescue Committee
ISFM	Integrated soil fertility management systems

LMIS	Labor Market Information Services
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MoHADM	Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management
MoPIED	Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development
MoWHRD	Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development
MPF	Multi Partner Fund, World Bank
NDP	National Development Plan
NDVI	Normalized Difference Vegetation Index
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NWoW	New Way of Working
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OIC	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
PESS	Population Estimations Survey for Somalia
PLW	Pregnant and Lactating Women
PIMS	Public Investment Management and Governance Support Project, World Bank
PPP	Public Private Partnership Framework
PRMN	Protection & Return Monitoring Network, UNHCR
RRF	Recovery and Resilience Framework
SAM	Severe Acute Malnutrition
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SIDF	Somalia Infrastructure Development Fund
SITF	Somalia Infrastructure Trust Fund
SWALIM	Somalia Water and Land Information Management
SDRF	Somalia Development and Reconstruction Facility
TLS	Temporary Learning Structures
U5MR	Under-five Mortality Rate
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNMPTF	UN Multi Partner Trust Fund for Somalia
UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
WFP	World Food Program
WHO	World Health Organization
WIDEs	Widely Diversified Enterprises
WB	World Bank



Executive Summary

Introduction

Although famine was averted in 2017, thanks in part to a massive scale-up in humanitarian assistance, famine remains a looming risk in the coming months and years. Decades of insecurity, political instability, drought and food insecurity have disrupted desperately needed services, devastated human capital and physical infrastructure, and contributed to systematic impoverishment and displacement of the population.

The 2018 Humanitarian Response Plan (HRP) highlights the need to sustain humanitarian lifesaving efforts at levels similar to 2017 due to predictions of a fourth consecutive season of failed rains from Oct-Dec 2017. The Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) and its local and international partners will need to provide lifesaving services to approximately 6.2 million people in 2018 to limit the effects of diseases and continue to prevent famine.¹ This continuing drought crisis further underlines the need to seek ways to make structural changes that will reduce the impacts of future drought cycles.

The impact of drought on the Somali people is compounded by an interrelated set of factors that include the environment, governance, conflict, displacement and poverty. This confluence of factors has created an exceedingly complex crisis in the Horn of Africa, and it demands an equally complex analysis of the underlying drivers of drought, their impact on the Somali people and the strategies that can pave the way toward recovery and resilience. While the Somali authorities prioritize meeting the urgent humanitarian needs of its citizens, they also see the need to focus on medium- and long-term development objectives. The Somalia Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA), together with the Recovery and Resilience Framework (RRF), is a process led by the FGS in partnership with the Federal Member States (FMS) and supported by the World Bank, the United Nations and the European

Union, which aims to reduce the country's vulnerability to climate shocks, strengthen resilience and significantly reduce the future risk of famine.

Medium - to long-term investments in reducing vulnerability and risk are urgently required to prevent the recurrence of cyclical famine risk in Somalia. The progress in state-building and peace-building in Somalia since 2012 has now created conditions in which targeted efforts can be made to define and implement solutions so that Somalis will never again face the risk of famine. The FGS has already prioritized a focus on resilience within its National Development Plan (NDP), which serves as the overarching framework for development priorities in Somalia. There are now opportunities for better investment in Government-led policies and medium- to long-term programs that can more sustainably reduce risk and vulnerability for the 6.2 million people who are most vulnerable and in need of humanitarian assistance.

Recurrent drought and subsequent famine risk have become a devastating and increasingly unsustainable cycle in Somalia in recent decades. Since the end of the previous drought in 2011, approximately USD 4.5 billion has been spent on emergency responses to save lives. While these efforts have averted famine to date, the continuous need for humanitarian response is preventing Somalis from achieving the vital long-term development gains needed to lift the country out of poverty and insecurity.

The inauguration of a new President and Parliament through a historic electoral process, progress in building economic, security, justice and governance institutions, and the launch of the NDP present an unprecedented opportunity to break the cycle of recurrent disasters and move towards medium-term recovery and long-term resilience.

Towards this end, the DINA and the RRF seek to build on the essential, life-saving humanitarian interventions that have to date succeeded in preventing famine.

¹ UNOCHA and HCT. 2017. Somalia Humanitarian Response Plan: January – December 2018



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Pre-Disaster Context

Somalia is emerging from a decades-long civil war that has ravaged the country since 1991. Cycles of conflict have resulted in a rapid deterioration of the country's infrastructure and institutions, and the emergence of different political entities, all faced by varying levels of conflict and fragility. Decades of conflict have also led to large-scale protracted displacement with substantive progress to durable solutions remaining elusive. The ongoing conflict has multiple layers, including continued competition for resources between communities, resulting in a need for local reconciliation. Insecurity continues to pose big challenges to Somalia's short-term stability and long-term development.

In an attempt to re-establish state authority, the FGS was established in 2012, built through national dialogue and consensus and based on a federal system of Member States. Through an inclusive and participatory process, the Somali Compact was drafted for the period 2014-16, reflecting the ongoing process of transition and defining priority interventions to ensure the country stays on the path to long-term peace and state-building with the ultimate objective of a new Constitution. The FGS and the FMS have also developed an NDP (2017-19), the first in 30 years.

Substantial progress has been achieved in the creation of the federal institutional structure. However, critical parameters of Somalia as a Federal State, including

the formula for resource sharing and the articulation of competencies between the respective entities, are still to be defined and enshrined in the Constitution, and progress is highly dependent on the establishment of relations of trust between the center and the periphery.

Despite progress in the state-building and peace-building agenda, the socio-economic situation of the country remains challenging. Somalia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was estimated to be USD 6.2 billion for 2016, with nominal growth of a 6.2 percent.² Its GDP per capita was equally low, at USD 450.³ Somalia has a population of 12.3 million, with approximately 60 percent living in rural areas.⁴ Only 54 percent of the population participates in Somalia's labor force,⁵ with 33 percent female participation.⁶ Some 51 percent of the population still lives below the USD 1.90 per day poverty line, with the highest incidence of poverty found among households located in IDP settlements (71 percent).⁷ Approximately two-thirds of youth are underemployed or unemployed. Due to the decades-long conflict, recent and comprehensive human development data for the country remains elusive.

Somalia is a largely pastoral and agro-pastoral economy, strategically located in the Horn of Africa and bordered by Ethiopia, Djibouti and Kenya. Its surface area is approximately 637,657 square kilometers, with a coastline extending 3,025 kilometers along the Gulf Aden to the north and the Indian Ocean to the east. Agricultural land comprises 70 percent of the country, of which close to 2 percent is arable land, while 68 percent is permanent pasture.⁸ The main agricultural production areas are situated in southern Somalia and parts of the northwest, with main food crops being maize, sorghum, sesame and cowpeas.

The country is at high risk of natural hazards, notably drought, desertification and floods. Somalia features a highly-varied topography and a desert climate. Northern sections of the country are mountainous, with the land rising between 900m to 2,100m above sea level, and flatten off in the central and southern regions. The climate is arid or semi-arid, with rainfall patterns of two rainy and two dry seasons. The main

rivers running through the country are the Shebelle and Juba rivers, shared with Ethiopia and exposing central and southern Somalia to flooding when heavy rains occur in the Ethiopian highlands. Land degradation is a prominent environmental issue in the country, driven by drought, desertification and poor agricultural and pastoral practices.⁹

DINA Objectives, Approach and Scope

To improve understanding of the dynamics and drivers of recurrent emergencies and to reinforce efforts to develop long-term durable solutions aimed at building broad-based resilience and mitigation to disaster risks as well as longer term climate change trends, the FGS submitted a formal request in August 2017 for WB, UN and EU assistance to conduct a comprehensive Drought Impact Needs Assessment (DINA) and Recovery and Resilience Framework (RRF).

Objectives of the DINA

The DINA aims to provide an assessment of drought damage and loss impacts so that current and future drought impacts can be quantified and an estimation of recovery and resilience needs developed. The findings are essential for any Government to fulfill its role leading drought recovery efforts. They can also guide the FGS, the FMS and partners to continue to prevent famine and implement structural interventions that can lead to a way out of the repeated cycles of drought. The DINA needs figures are essential because they represent the first and only estimation the Government and its partners have of what will be required to move Somalia beyond perpetual emergency response into recovery and, eventually, resilient development. The DINA is important for recovery planning in any crisis situation but particularly relevant for the Government and its partners in Somalia, where there is a pattern of recurrent drought.

The objectives of the DINA include estimating the physical, economic and human impacts of the 2016-17 drought on the socio-economic development of

² World Bank. 2017. Somalia Economic Update.

³ Based on World Bank data 2016.

⁴ Federal Government of Somalia. 2016. Somalia National Development Plan (2017-2019)

⁵ Based on ILO estimates 2015.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ World Bank. 2017. Somali Poverty Profile 2016: Findings from Wave 1 of the Somali High Frequency Survey.

⁸ Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). 2017. The World Fact Book.

⁹ UNDP. 2017. Climate Change Adaptation website, citing UNEP 2011.

Box 1: Centrality of Protection

The centrality of protection of critical rights in the HRP, DINA and RRF requires a system-wide response. The HRP, DINA and RRF have prioritized addressing, in the short-term and early recovery periods, protection of key rights related to:

- Preventing exclusion, including exclusion based on societal discrimination, power structures, vulnerability, age and gender.
- Addressing the rights abuses and social pressure that increasing displacement has placed especially on urban areas and the challenges in achieving durable solutions.
- The erosion of resilience and self-protection of communities due to drought and multi-layered conflict, compounded by limited delivery of services in hard-to-reach areas.

the country at national, state and regional levels and assessing and quantifying sector drought recovery needs as well as the associated overall resilience building needs of the country. These processes aim to integrate concepts of disaster risk reduction, durable solutions for displacement, resilience and “building back better” into recovery planning and implementation, with appropriate gender and environmental considerations.

The DINA comprises three volumes:

- Volume I: Synthesis report
- Volume II: Sector assessment annex
- Volume III: FMS-level annex

Objectives of the RRF

DINA findings and recommendations will inform the development of a Recovery and Resilience Framework (RRF), which will provide the policy, institutional, and financial basis to guide the transition from humanitarian relief to recovery and long-term development. The framework defines a multi-sectoral approach to prioritizing key development and investment priorities, allowing Government authorities to build on existing efforts to strengthen resilience to recurrent disasters, increase disaster management and crisis response capacity, and enhance Somalia’s ability to respond to climate change. The RRF serves two distinct and simultaneous functions: an operational and investment framework that will prioritize and finance recovery interventions while developing government capacity for managing a recovery program, and an implementation platform for the DINA.

DINA in the context of the ongoing humanitarian crisis

The DINA aligns with the 2018 HRP for Somalia, part of the three-year Humanitarian Strategy (2016-18). The DINA complements the HRP by focusing on medium- to long-term recovery and ensuring strategic alignment between Somalia’s humanitarian, recovery, and development agendas. Toward this end, short-term humanitarian interventions are left to the HRP while the DINA focuses more on interventions that support recovery and resilience building measures.

In the context of Somalia, in which a situation of protracted humanitarian crisis prevails, it is imperative that the RRF bring together all stakeholders to consider the recovery strategy. Furthermore, recent and ongoing humanitarian responses continue to provide multiple lessons for increasing efficiency that will inform the recovery and resilience strategy. The RRF allows these lessons to be captured and shared across the spectrum of stakeholders.

The DINA and the resulting recommended interventions are intended to move beyond the traditional and artificial distinction between humanitarian and recovery interventions. International best practice has shown that the most effective recovery strategies work across the humanitarian-recovery-development nexus and take a multi-partner, multi-sectoral, integrated approach that combines both humanitarian, recovery and resilience building interventions to meet immediate humanitarian needs, strengthen livelihoods and build resilience to future disasters. The DINA and RRF benefit from this nexus while also leveraging it for sustainable drought recovery.

Approach and Timeline: The DINA is a FGS-led initiative with important engagement and input from the FMS and the Benadir Regional Administration. To achieve delivery by the timeline requested by FGS, a multi-partner management structure was established, ensuring effective coordination and cooperation. The assessment process commenced in late August 2017 upon the request of the FGS for support to conduct the DINA and RRF. Mobilization of experts, both national and international, took place in September, and the DINA and RRF kicked off in early October with an induction training for over 150 sector experts from the Government, World Bank, UN and the EU in Mogadishu, geared towards understanding the joint WB-UN-EU DINA methodology.

Following the workshop, more than 180 experts working across 18 sector teams embarked on a process of data collection, analysis and validation to establish a pre-drought baseline, determine the damages and losses inflicted by the disaster and calculate the resulting needs for sustainable recovery and long-term drought resilience. With time of the essence due to the severity of the drought, the DINA team engaged the services of Ipsos, a global data and advisory services company, to fill data gaps with on-the-ground support from its field teams in Somalia and to support data collection and validation in inaccessible areas of the country through remote sensing.

Sectoral Scope: The scope of the assessment covered the following sectors:

- **Productive sectors:** Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-fed Crops; Livestock; Fisheries. This represents the sectors of the economy on which the livelihoods of the people generally depend.
- **Physical sectors:** Water Supply and Sanitation; Transport; and Environment, Clean Energy and Natural Resource Management. These sectors represent assets that are essential for the functioning of a society and economy, i.e. the infrastructure.
- **Social sector:** Health; Nutrition; and Education. This includes sectors related to social aspects of society.
- **Cross-cutting themes:** Urban Development and Municipal Services; Social Protection and Safety Nets; Food Security; Livelihoods and Employment; Gender; Governance; Conflict; Displacement and Migration; and Disaster Risk Reduction, Disaster Risk Financing and Drought Resilience. This includes themes which impact other sectors.
- Analyses of the overall macroeconomic, human and social impact of the drought were also undertaken.

Geographical and Temporal Scope: All 18 administrative regions of the Somali peninsula have been affected by the drought and were therefore part of the assessment:

- Central: Benadir, Galguduud, Hiran, Middle Shebelle and Lower Shebelle.
- Northeastern: Bari, Mudug and Nugal.
- Northwestern: Awdal, Sanaag, Sool, Togdheer and Woqooyi
- Southern: Bakool, Bay, Gedo, Middle Juba and Lower Juba.

Given the impact of the drought preceding, and following, the disaster declaration in February 2017 and estimates that drought conditions will continue well into 2018, given the forecast of below-average rains for a fourth consecutive season, the temporal scope to assess damages and losses from the drought covers the time period from the 2016 *Deyr* rainy season (October to December 2016) to the end of the 2017 *Deyr* rains (October to December 2017).

Methodology

The DINA follows the standard PDNA methodology developed by the UN System, World Bank and the European Union that incorporates a collection of analytical methods, tools and techniques developed for post-disaster assessments and recovery planning, ensuring sector to sector comparability and homogeneity in the definition of basic concepts of damages, losses and post-disaster recovery needs. The assessment builds on primary and secondary data related to damage and loss in the identified sectors, which are provided by FGS, FMS and development partners supporting the DINA.

Damage and Loss Quantification: The effects of the drought on each sector have been assessed in terms of damages and losses.

- Damage is defined as total or partial destruction of physical assets existing in the affected area. Damages occur during and immediately after the disaster and are measured in physical units (i.e., number of damaged boreholes, head of livestock, hectares of land, etc.). Their monetary values are expressed as the replacement costs according to prices prevailing just before the event.
- Losses are defined as changes in economic flows arising from the disaster. They occur until full economic recovery and reconstruction is achieved, in some cases lasting for several years, but for the purposes of this assessment, losses have been projected up through December 2017. Typical losses include the decline in output in productive sectors (agriculture, livestock, and fisheries).



Classification and Quantification of Recovery Needs:

Recovery needs are the costs of recommended interventions and resources that include: the reconstruction needs estimated as the requirements for financing reconstruction, replacement or repair of the physical assets that were damaged or destroyed by the disaster; and recovery needs estimated on the basis of the financial resources required for the rehabilitation of basic services, reactivation of productive activities, or immediate reactivation of personal or household income. Recovery needs also include capacity building and operational costs for service delivery that are necessary for the implementation of interventions. Costing for recovery needs include differentials for building back better to consider quality improvements and DRR measures to be implemented to increase resilience against future disasters. For the purpose of this assessment, recovery needs are classified as short-term (Year 1); medium-term (Years 2-3); and long-term (Years 4+). Short-term recovery needs are distinct from emergency humanitarian needs. Rather than representing emergency lifesaving interventions, short-term recovery needs represent interventions of a developmental nature that need to be implemented in the short-term to have quicker results and impact on the overall recovery program. An example would be the immediate injection of capacity within the Government to lead and coordinate the recovery efforts.

Recovery needs, especially in the case of a slow-onset disaster, are typically and logically valued less than damages and losses, as the largest needs are represented in the humanitarian phase that can continue for an extended period of time. In addition, the cost of inputs required for recovery (such as livestock treatment or seeds) are typically less than the value of outputs lost due to drought (such as cattle mortality decreasing income from export, or crop failure decreasing the volume available for sale).

Data Collection and Validation:

The key source of information for the estimation of damages and needs was primary data from the FGS and FMS, and secondary data available from existing or on-going humanitarian/sectoral assessments. In addition, primary data and qualitative data were provided by Ipsos through remote sensing techniques using satellite imagery and from on-the-ground field surveys conducted by the Ipsos Somalia team. Data validation techniques included the use of remote sensing techniques to validate key impact data for crops, livestock and water resources. Further validation of data was performed using process verification techniques and empirical plausibility checks. The assessment included the collection of pre-drought baseline data to evaluate the drought impact and to determine the overall recovery strategy.

The Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development (MoPIED) and UN colleagues coordinated field visits to five Federal Member States (FMS): Galmudug, Hirshabelle, Jubaland, Puntland and South West, and consultation with Benadir Regional Administration authorities. The visits comprised consultations with state-level line ministries, UN agencies operational in the states, and representatives of civil society regarding data collection, needs assessment and recovery strategies.

Understanding the drivers and root causes of drought-related humanitarian needs:

The DINA builds on the Somalia Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO) for 2018 by seeking to better understand the root causes and drivers of drought-related humanitarian needs and famine risk. International best practice has shown that the most effective way to reduce needs, risks and vulnerabilities and build resilience is to work more coherently across the humanitarian-recovery-development nexus by ensuring short-, medium- and long-term programs target the most vulnerable people concurrently wherever possible.

Displacement

(i) Very High-resolution satellite imagery from 2014 and 2015, as well as from August 2017 was used to identify IDP settlements and estimate IDP populations prior to the drought and during the drought periods for Kismayo. IDP structures were determined based on existing imagery signatures, including roofing structure, irregularly-shaped constructions, and tent structures; (ii) Multiple NGO publications and local surveys, including IOM, Norwegian Refugee Services, UNICEF, among others, were examined to further refine areas for imagery analysis and examine IDP settlement patterns. Each IDP structure was counted, its area size accounted for, and roofing type determined. Calculations were cross-examined with UN procurement documents in the areas in which imagery analysis identified organized tent settlements. Data was used to determine average and absolute capacity for population incidence and density within Kismayo. Pre-drought and post-drought settlement maps and IDP estimates for the city were produced as a result.

WASH/Health Access

Remote sensing and NGO data were used to estimate IDP access to WASH/health facilities within three major urban areas, including Mogadishu, Baidoa and Kismayo: (i) Satellite imagery was used to estimate IDP populations and settlement patterns within these cities; (ii) UNICEF data for WASH/Health facilities was utilized to understand baseline distribution and functionality of facilities; (iii) Open street map (OSM) road data (September 2017) and high resolution imagery (August 2017) were utilized to identify which road networks, including primary, secondary and tertiary roads, connected WASH and health facilities to IDP settlements; (iv) IRC, IOM, World Bank High Frequency and Ipsos household surveys were used to understand primary and secondary sources of water and health provisions.

Conflict

(i) ACLED conflict incidence data for Somalia from pre-drought (2014-2016) and drought periods (2016-2017) was used to identify percentage change in conflict incidence at district/region levels for multiple types of conflict (battle-no change of territory, violence against civilians, remote violence, riots/protests); (ii) Conflict percentage change activity was layered over drought impact areas to identify any potential cross-correlation between drought and conflict; (iii) In urban areas with high influx of IDPs, pre-drought vs. drought IDP settlement patterns were reviewed to understand whether increase in IDPs was an additional vector potentially responsible for increase in violence.

Environment

(i) Remote sensing was used to estimate NDVI change (2014-2017) to estimate drought conditions in Somalia; (ii) FAO Landsat-derived land cover/land use areas were reviewed to identify grazing areas; (iii) Pixel-level overlap was identified between grazing areas and most affected/moderately affected by drought areas to estimate percentage of grazing areas likely decimated by drought. Information was further mapped at district level.



2016-2017 Drought

Background on Droughts in Somalia

Somalia is heavily reliant on its natural resource base and the provision of eco-system services. The country's vulnerability to climate change is projected to increase due to its dependency on its natural resource base. This, coupled with the man-made degradation of natural resources due to charcoal production and overgrazing, has increased Somalia's vulnerability to drought and desertification, leading to a marked reduction in food security.

Natural hazards and disasters are endemic in Somalia. The increasing spatial and temporal variability of the rainy and dry seasons as well as floods and droughts result in serious natural disasters, while El Niño-induced changes in weather patterns continue to impact the region. Historical trends show droughts occurring regularly at

intervals of 2-3 years in the *Deyr* (October- December) season and 8-10 years in consecutive *Deyr* and *Gu* (April-June) seasons, extending seasonal hardships.¹⁰ Records indicate that ten significant droughts occurred between 1918 and 1975, while droughts also occurred in 1979-80, 1983-86 and 1989-90.¹¹

In the last quarter century, Somalia has undergone three periods of protracted drought and two periods of famine. A famine in 1992 killed nearly 300,000 people and displaced 1 out of 5 people.¹² By early 1992, it was estimated that between one-quarter and one-third of all children had died.¹³ During the 2011 East Africa Drought, more than a quarter of a million-people died in Somalia, half of them children under the age of five.¹⁴ The drought resulted in 955,000 Somali refugees in neighboring countries¹⁵ and devastating economic losses to agriculture and livestock. It also brought famine to the south of the country. Somalia is now experiencing the third drought of this period.

¹⁰ Federal Government of Somalia. 2016.. Somalia National Development Plan (2017-2019).

¹¹ Africa Watch and Physicians for Human Rights (1992). "No Mercy in Mogadishu: The Human Cost of the Conflict & the Struggle for Relief."

¹² The UN definition of a famine is when at least 20 percent of households in an area face extreme food shortages with a limited ability to cope; acute malnutrition rates exceed 30 percent; and the death rate exceeds two persons per day per 10,000 persons.

¹³ Clark, Jeffery.1992. "Famine in Somalia and the International Response: Collective Failure", US Committee for Refugees Issue Paper, November 1992.

¹⁴ FSNAU. 2013. Mortality Among Populations of Southern and Central Somalia affected by severe food insecurity and famine during 2010-2012

¹⁵ UNICEF. 2011. Horn of Africa Crisis: Regional Overview: December 2011.

Overview of the Current Drought

In February 2017, the President of the Federal Government of Somalia declared a severe nationwide drought and state of national disaster resulting from consecutive seasons of poor rains. For the third season in a row since the beginning of 2016, the rains performed poorly in Somalia, with the 2017 *Deyr* (October-December) season rainfall also projected to be below average. This would imply a fourth consecutive season of poor rainfall (*Gu* 2016, *Deyr* 2016, *Gu* 2017 and 2017 *Deyr*) in the country.¹⁶ The below average rainfall has resulted in a significant depletion of water resources for agricultural consumption, particularly for livestock sustenance, which forms the backbone of the mainly rural economy, accounting for about 65 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Livestock body conditions have deteriorated substantially, and atypical livestock deaths have been reported.¹⁷ Low rainfall also resulted in a dramatic drop in cereal production in the South, with production in 2016 being the lowest on record since the beginning of the Somali conflict in 1988,¹⁸ and 49 percent below the long-term average (1995-2015).¹⁹

The ongoing drought has plunged the majority of the population into food insecurity. An estimated 6.2 million people—more than half of the population—are food insecure (IPC Phases 2, 3 and 4)²⁰ and in need of humanitarian assistance, mostly in remote rural areas.²¹ Of this number, an estimated 3.3 million people are still in Phases 3 and 4²² due to acute food insecurity and thus in need of continued emergency humanitarian

assistance in 2018. With a third consecutive poor rainfall performance from April-June adversely impacting the July harvest, food insecurity levels were predicted to continue largely unchanged through the beginning of 2018 and could in fact worsen through May 2018 due to predictions of a fourth straight below-average rainy season from October to December.²³ Significant areas of Somalia were expected to continue to experience Phase 4 conditions through early 2018, with famine possible in the worst-case scenario in which current food assistance is interrupted.²⁴ The resulting lifesaving humanitarian needs are presented in the 2018 HRP.

Food insecurity and scarcity of drinking water, coupled with displacement, have contributed to a stark rise in malnutrition and water-borne disease. Some 1.2 million children in Somalia are projected to be acutely malnourished in 2018—an increase of 50 percent over the previous year.²⁵ The country is also facing an Acute Watery Diarrhea (AWD)/cholera outbreak in 12 of its 18 regions, with the fatality rate hitting 2.3 percent at one point, more than double the emergency threshold.²⁶ Nearly 5.5 million people continue to be at risk of contracting water-borne diseases like cholera.²⁷ An estimated 926,000 people were displacement by the drought from November 2016-September 2017.²⁸ This pressure on already weak infrastructure and services, especially clean drinking water and sanitation, is contributing to an increased disease burden in the country.

¹⁶ FSNAU and FEWS NET. 2017. Somalia Food Security Outlook: October 2017 – May 2018.

¹⁷ Livestock-related losses of between USD 1.3 billion and USD 1.7 billion have been reported for the period of the drought – Somalia Economic Update 2017.

¹⁸ UNOCHA. 2017. Horn of Africa: Humanitarian Inputs of Drought – Issue 1.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC), consisting of five phases, is a means of classify varying phases of current food security situations based on outcomes on human lives and livelihoods. The phases are: (1) Minimal; (2) Stressed; (3) Crisis; (4) Emergency, and; (5) Famine.

²¹ UNOCHA. 2017. Somalia Humanitarian Dashboard: June 2017.

²² FEWSNET and FSNAU. 2017. Somalia Food Security Outlook – October 2017 to May 2018: “A fifth consecutive below-average season likely; Famine (IPC Phase 5) risk continues”

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ UNICEF. 2017. Somalia Situation Report (Sitrep #15): October 2017.

²⁶ Ibid.

²⁷ WHO. 2017. Outbreak Update: Cholera in Somalia: October 2017.

²⁸ UNHCR. 2017. Displacements Dashboard, Protection & Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), Internal Displacements During September 2017.

Box 3: Water Harvesting Changes Lives



Mohamed Ismail Yasin, originally from Mayle village in northeast Somalia, fled the region's prolonged and severe drought with his six-member family and most of his livestock. They had to travel 600km to the nearest dependable water source: a sand dam near Bandarbeyla in neighbouring Bari region. Mohamed is one of hundreds of thousands of people currently displaced by the drought in Somalia.

Due to the ongoing drought in Puntland, water prices have been rising dramatically and a family with an average sized livestock herd might pay up to USD 400 per month for water, or USD 7-14 per day depending on livestock size. These rising costs can be catastrophic for families.

The Biyo-Gadud sand dam near Banderbeyla is one of the water harvesting structures implemented in Puntland to reduce the impacts of climate change-

induced disasters like droughts and floods. Completed by the Puntland Ministry of Environment, through a Global Environment Facility-financed UNDP-supported project, the sand dam is saving livestock and saving lives.

For Mohamed Ismail Yasin and his family, the water dam has been a life and money saver. The USD 200 -USD 400 a month he used to be charged for water can now be put towards other basic needs for his family.

Story by: Andrea Egan, Salah Dahir, Awil Abdinor, Said Isse, Keelin Fitzgerald and UNDP Somalia/Photos: Said Isse, UNDP Somalia

Rainfall Analysis

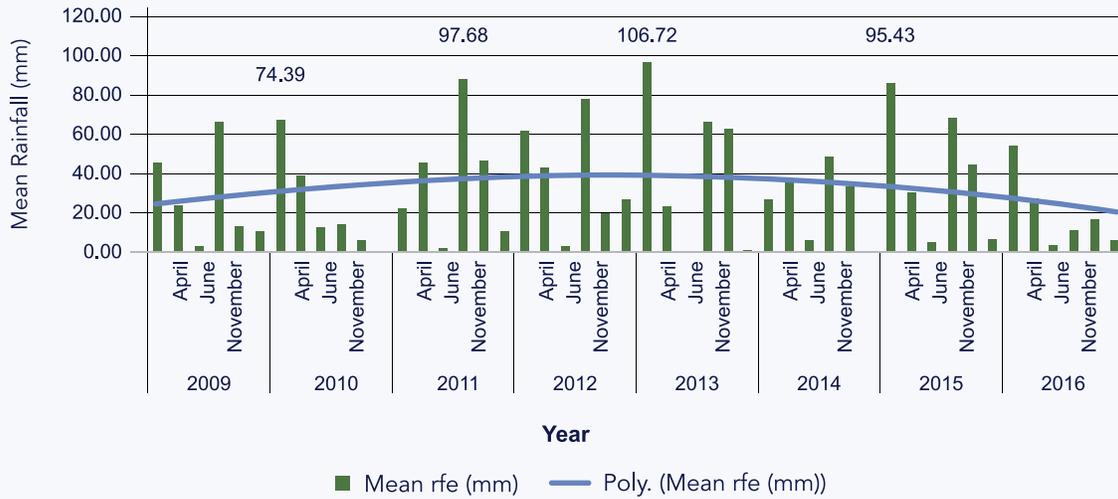
Rainfall in Somalia has historically been low and inconsistent. Descending motion of the air and the resulting low humidity is cited as the main cause for this variability in rainfall. Somalia is further subjected to low rainfall since it is located towards the leeward side of the Kenyan and Ethiopian highlands. The orographic and coastal influences are also regarded as significant and affect the pattern of rainfall in the country.

Effective planting rains during the Deyr and Gu season have become erratic, delayed and below average over the years as shown in Figure 4. Somalia experiences two rainy seasons, *Deyr* and *Gu*. *Deyr* lasts from October to December while the *Gu* season extends from April to June. In 2016-17, the planting rains started around early

September and were erratic in distribution and amounts in most parts of the country. Figure 2 describes the monthly rainfall observed in Somalia in comparison to the long-term average and also illustrates the deficit of the 2016-17 rainy season.

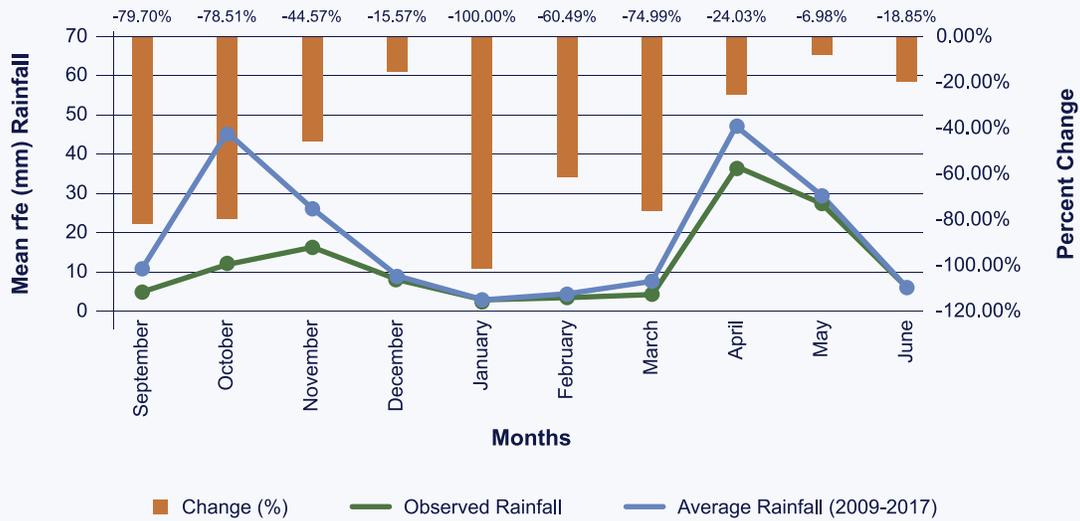
From September 2016 to June 2016, Somalia received significantly below-average rainfall. During September 2016 to December 2016, 54.6 percent less than average rainfall was reported across the affected districts, with 30 out of 42 districts in central and southern Somalia reporting less rainfall than the previous year and 26 out of 32 districts in Somaliland and Puntland reporting less rainfall than in 2016. Overall, Somalia experienced 16.62 percent less than the average rainfall with 19 out of 32 districts in Somaliland and Puntland recording less rainfall than the previous year.

Figure 1: Effective Planting Rains During Deyr and Gu, 2009-2016 Seasons



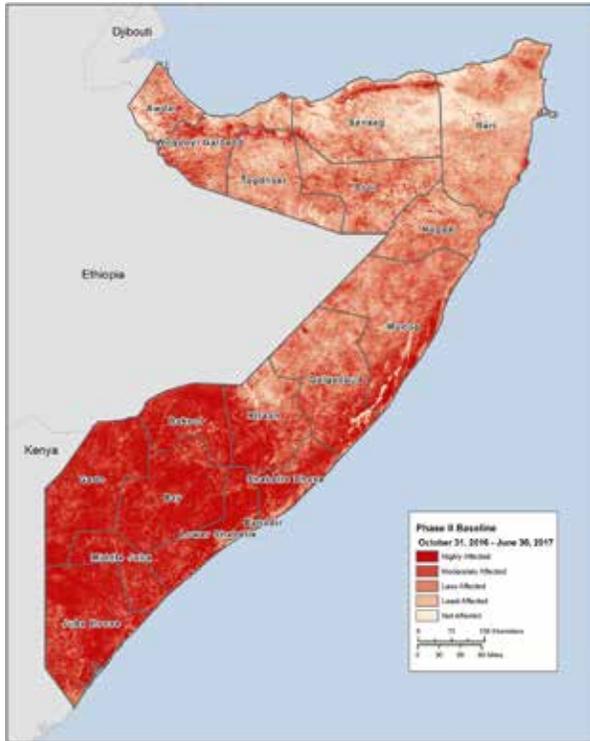
Source: FSNAU

Figure 2: Monthly Rainfall in Somalia in Comparison to the Long-Term Average, Sep. 2016-June 2017



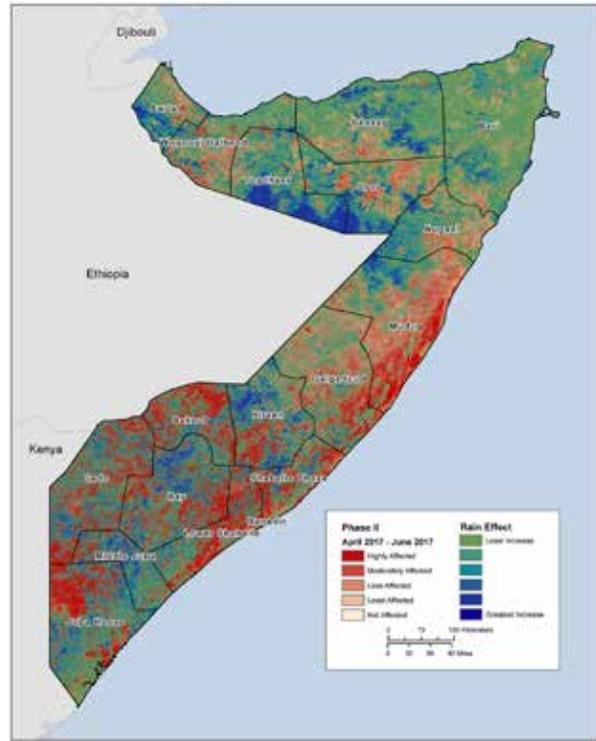
Source: FSNAU

Figure 3a: Impact of the Drought (October 31st 2016-June 30th 2017)



Source: Courage Services Inc.

Figure 3b: Rain Effect (April 2017-June 2017)

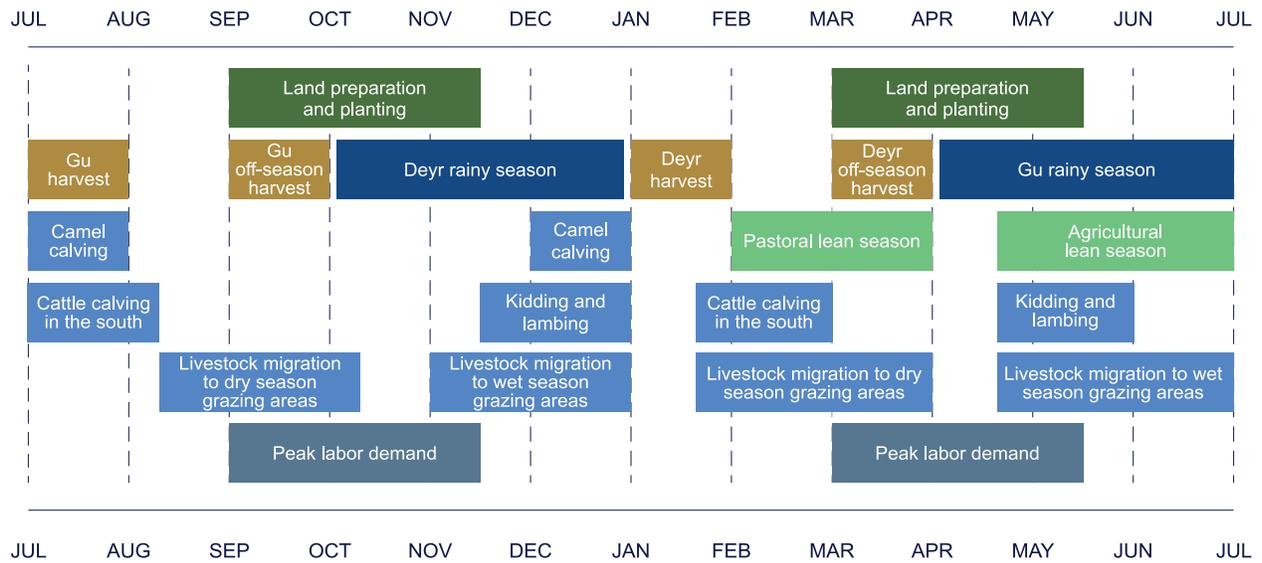


Source: Courage Services Inc.

The 2017 Gu rains were delayed and 20-30 percent below average, with pockets of rainfall as much as 25-50 percent below average along the south. The start of the 2017 Deyr season in October was no better, with rains approximately 50 percent below average in most areas, and predictions of below average rainfall in November and December. As a result, Crisis (IPC Phase 3) and Emergency (IPC Phase 4) food security outcomes were expected to persist with a chance of further deterioration through May 2018.²⁹

²⁹ FSNAU and FEWSNET 2017. Somalia Food Security Outlook : October 2017 to May 2018.

Figure 4: Illustration of Typical Gu and Deyr Season



Source: FEWSNET

Summary of Disaster Effects and Impacts: Damages, Losses and Needs

With damages amounting to USD 1.02 billion and losses estimated at USD 2.23 billion, the total effect of the Somali drought is expected to exceed USD 3.25 billion. The productive sector (Irrigation and Rain-fed Crops, Livestock and Fisheries) accounts for 59 percent of all the effects, while the physical (Water & Sanitation, Environment and Transport), social (Health, Nutrition and Education), and cross-cutting themes make up 38 percent, 1 percent, and 1 percent, respectively. The two most affected sectors are Livestock, and Environment & Natural Resource Management, comprising 50 percent

and 36 percent of the total effects, respectively. The next most affected sector is crops, which makes up 10 percent of the total damages and losses. A summary of the damages and losses across sectors can be found in Figures 5 and 6.

Agriculture (irrigation and rain-fed crops) and urban development and municipal services are the sectors with the greatest needs, representing 28.3 percent and 16.6 percent of total needs, respectively, followed by water supply and sanitation (10.2 percent), transport (8.4 percent), livestock (6.4 percent), nutrition (6.3 percent), environment, clean natural resources management (5.7 percent), and health (4.7 percent).

Figure 5: Distribution of Damages by Sector

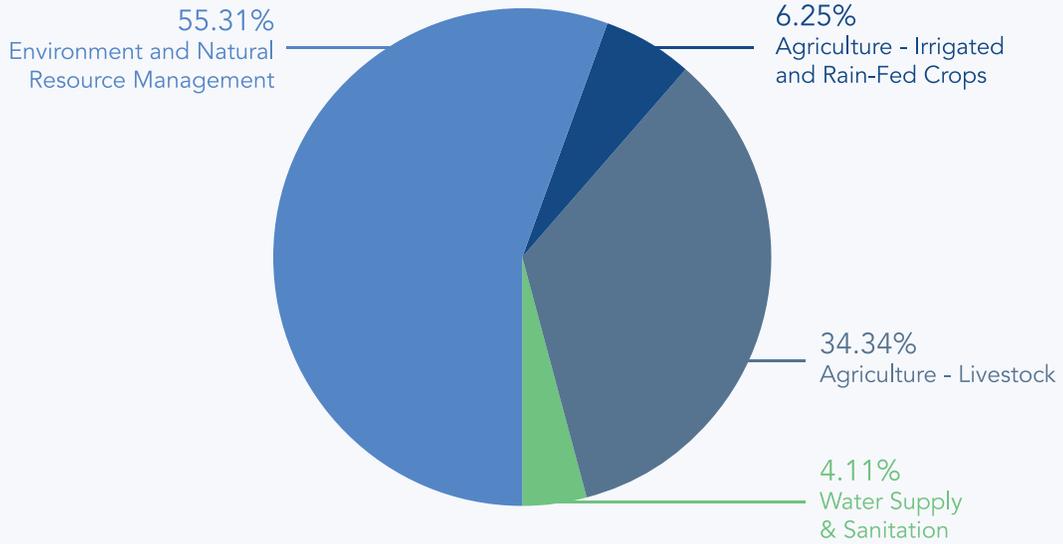


Figure 6: Distribution of Losses By Sector

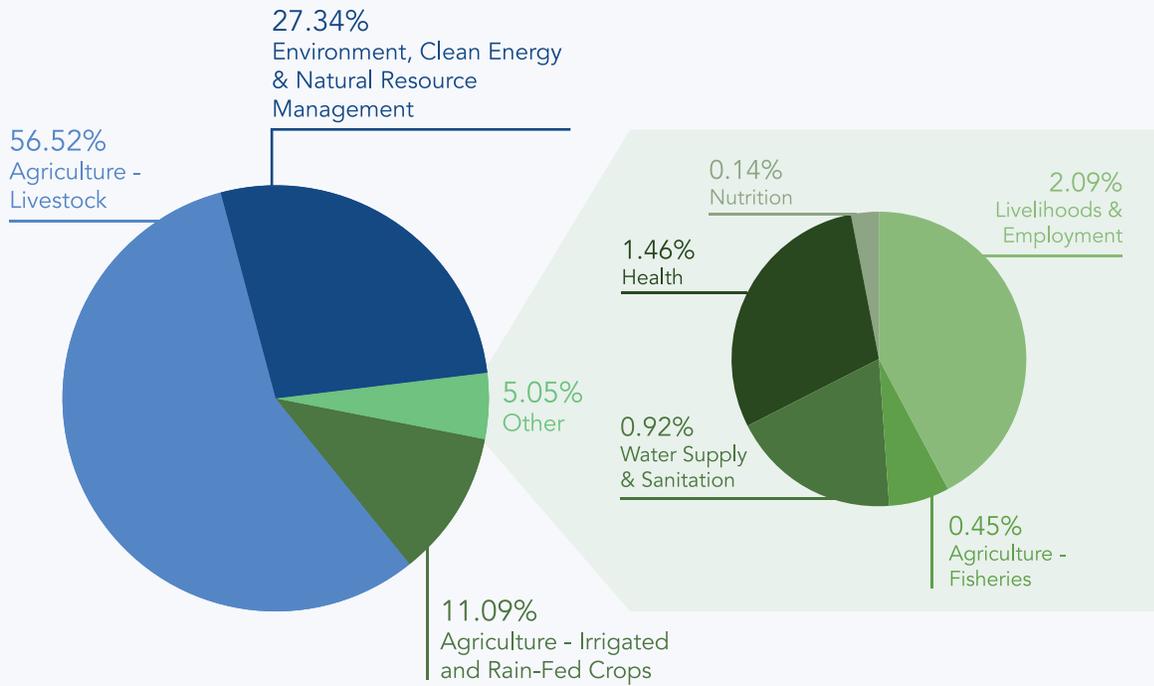


Figure 7: Distribution of Needs By Sector

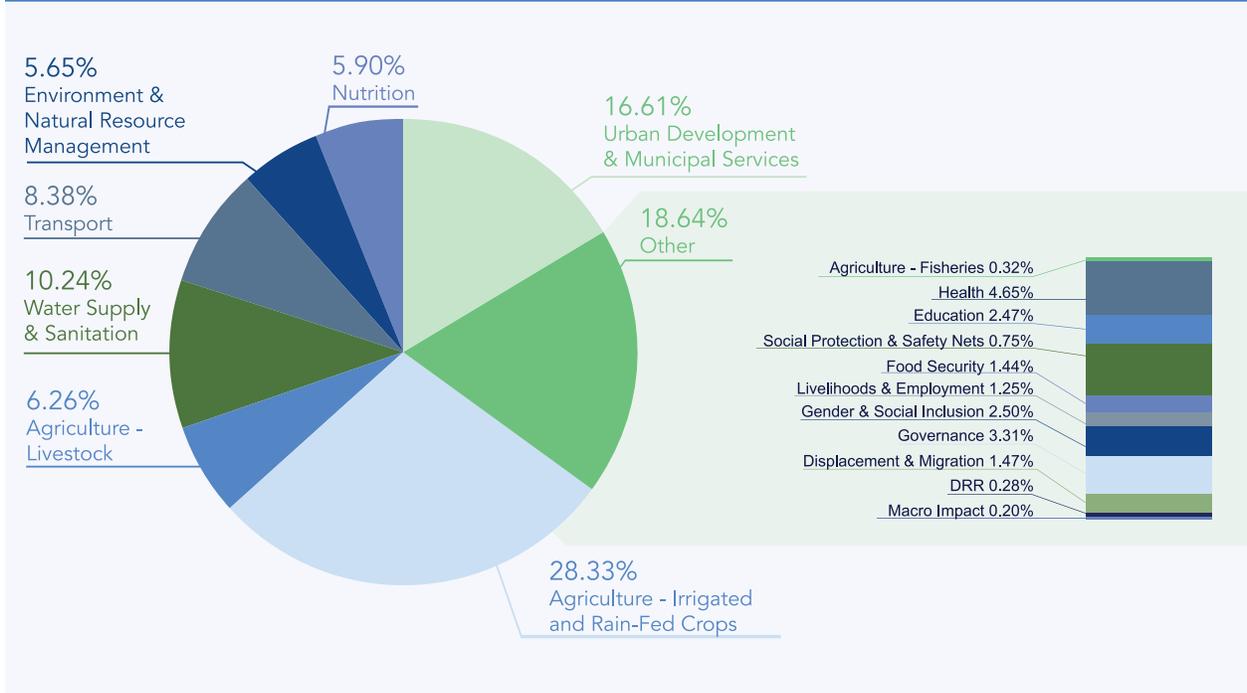


Figure 8: Distribution of Needs by Federal Member State/Administrative Region (in millions)

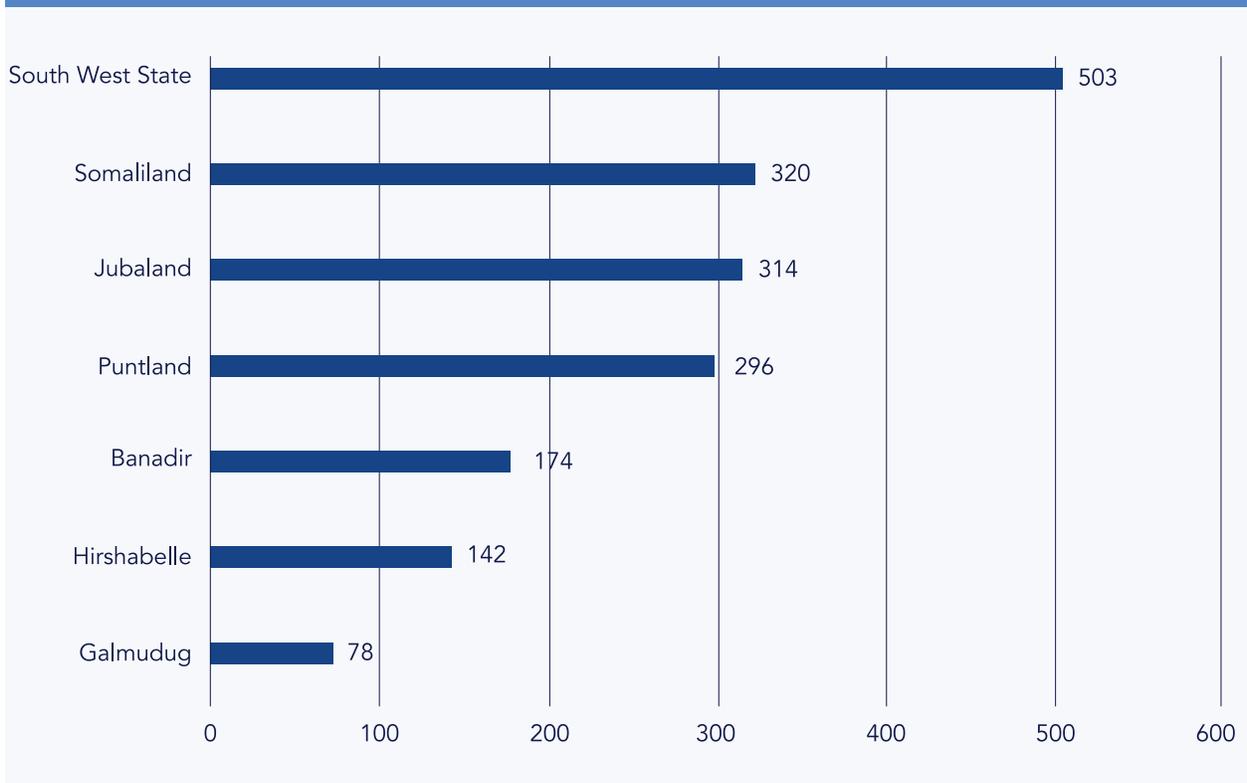


Table 1: Summary of Damages, Losses, and Needs Across All Sectors

	Cost (USD)		
	Damages	Losses	Needs
Productive Sectors			
Agriculture - Irrigation and Rain-Fed Crops	63,789,000	247,655,790	500,292,663
Agriculture - Livestock	350,687,691	1,262,317,038	110,494,000
Agriculture - Fisheries	-	9,965,562	5,650,000
Productive Sectors Total	414,476,691	1,519,938,391	616,436,663
Physical Sectors			
Water Supply & Sanitation	41,958,000	20,480,616	180,738,000
Transport	-	-	147,900,000
Environment & Natural Resource Management	564,795,354	610,683,583	99,853,510
Physical Sectors Total	606,753,354	631,164,199	428,491,510
Social Sectors			
Health	-	32,570,088	82,132,713
Nutrition	-	3,132,587	104,131,888
Education	-	-	43,629,471
Social Sectors Total	-	35,702,676	229,894,072
Cross-cutting Issues			
Urban Development & Municipal Services	-	-	293,273,694
Social Protection & Safety Nets	-	-	13,183,000
Food Security	-	-	25,360,000
Livelihoods & Employment	-	46,622,167	22,100,000
Gender & Social Inclusion	-	-	44,200,000
Governance	-	-	58,360,000
Conflict	-	-	-
Displacement & Migration	-	-	26,000,000
DRR	-	-	5,000,000
Macro Impact	-	-	3,500,000
Cross-cutting Issues Total	-	46,622,167	490,976,694
Grand Total	1,021,230,045	2,233,427,432	1,765,798,938





Overview of Pre-Drought Conditions, Drought Impact and Recovery Needs by Sector

Overview of Pre-Drought Conditions

Productive Sectors

Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-fed Crop Production:

The agriculture sector is Somalia's second largest source of economic activity, employment, and exports, with agropastoralists estimated at about 23 percent of the total population. Smallholder farming accounts for 80 percent of total crop output and 70 percent of marketed agricultural produce. In the early part of this decade, Somalia was producing only 22 to 50 percent of the country's per capita cereal needs. Agricultural imports have steadily increased, reaching almost USD 1.5 billion by 2015, from an annual average of only about USD 82 million in the late 1980s because of failures of domestic crop production and high demand due to rapid population growth and urbanization.

Agriculture – Livestock: Livestock is the major source of livelihoods for Somalis. Over 60 percent of the population in Somalia is dependent on livestock for their livelihoods. The sector provides food, employment and incomes and contributes 40 percent of the GDP. The livestock exportation rate has increased in the last five years, as Somalia exported 4.7 million animal

heads in 2011, 4.8 million in 2013, 5 million in 2014 and 5.3 million in 2015, injecting more than USD 360 million and USD 384 million in 2014 and 2015 into the economy, respectively.

Agriculture – Fisheries: Marine fishery dominates the fisheries sector. Coastal communities are heavily dependent on fishing, carried out mostly by men. Women dominate fish processing, trading, and support activities, and some women are multiple boat owners, although there are no specific numbers available to quantify the division of labor in the sector between men and women. Fishing is, however, a seasonal activity for many rural dwellers, including pastoralists, and often an important source of supplementary food and cash income. The impact of the drought is minimal on the marine fisheries sector, but has significant potential to negatively impact the small inland fisheries sector, which provides essential household food security and some income. The focus of this report in terms of impact of the drought is therefore solely on the inland fisheries sub-sector, with some limited analysis of linkages to the marine sector.

Physical Sectors

Water Supply & Sanitation: Water resources in Somalia are dominated by surface water. During the baseline period of 2013-2015, Somalia Water and Land Information Management (SWALIM) estimates that

there were around 3,733 water points, 61 percent (2,261 sources) of which were reported to be perennial, under normal conditions. Higher proportions of berkads and dams supply water for only part of the year compared to other sources. In other parts of the country, rainwater harvesting through the provision of dug outs, Berkads and Mugciids to impound surface runoff during the two rainy seasons—*Gu* (April to June) and *Deyr* (October to December)—are a common feature of the water supply infrastructure in rural communities.

Transport: The transport sector is considered an enabling sector for other sectors, providing linkages to regional trade and socio-economic activities. The transport sector in Somalia mainly comprises the road sub-sector, aviation and water transport accessing ports. Roads are the only mode of land transport for the country as there are no railways, and therefore, the assessment and interventions of the sector have been concentrated on roads. Most roads in Somalia are in poor condition due to lack of proper maintenance caused by long periods of civil war. Based on visual assessment of satellite imagery, approximately 7,960 km of roads, or 7.6 percent of the total network (including unclassified feeder roads) are considered to be in good or fair condition.

Environment, Clean Energy, Natural Resource Management: The environment and natural resources of Somalia are a source of economic livelihoods for millions of Somalis. About 98 percent of Somalia is dry landmass, with less than 2 percent of the country under water. Dependence on the sector has had significant impact throughout the years, including depletion of vegetation resources and forest cover.

Social Sectors

Health: The conflict-related fragility of Somalia over the past two and a half decades has resulted in the weakening of the health sector, its systems and its personnel, with a related focus on emergency response interventions to recurrent crises. Countrywide, there is less than 1 health facility per 10,000 people, and many health posts do not operate fully due to human resource and infrastructure constraints. A pre-drought survey identified a total of 1,074 facilities in existence, of which 106 were found to be non-functional and 169 unreachable due to conflict and other similar factors. A serious scarcity of health workers is a major challenge faced by the sector. Approximately 3.3 million people were in need of emergency health services in 2016.

Nutrition: Somalia is among the ten countries with the highest prevalence of malnutrition in the world, and the third highest in the eastern and southern Africa region, at 17.42 percent Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM) amongst children under five years (U5), with 3.2 percent

being severely malnourished. The period between *Gu* 2011 and *Deyr* 2011 represented the most severe famine in Somalia, followed by periods of relative good rains showing decline of GAM and SAM cases. The onset of *Gu* 2016 showed a rapid deterioration in GAM. As per the recent FSNAU *Post-Gu* 2017 food security and nutrition assessment findings, the current GAM population quantified from both IDPs settlements and Rural Livelihood zones has increased by 20 percent and 10 percent, respectively.

Education: Pre-drought season and the signs of the impacts of the drought can be traced back to early 2016. A pre-famine warning was declared in January 2016, for an even larger population at risk than during the 2011 famine. According to the UNHCR Protection and Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), the data indicates possible pattern of intra-regional displacement, which affects enrollment.

Cross-cutting Themes

Food Security: Food security is a cross-cutting sector that reflects the combined effects of drought on food security related sectors such as agriculture (crop production, access to agricultural employment), livestock (livestock production and reproduction), trade and market prices (food and livestock prices and purchasing power of the population). The average pre-drought (2015) number of people in acute food security Crisis and Emergency (IPC Phases 3 & 4) was 983,000. Following consecutive seasons of poor *Gu* and *Deyr*, food crisis has worsened in rural areas.

Livelihoods & Employment: The labor market is characterized by an over dependence on the livestock sector, which provides employment to approximately 60 percent of the workforce. There is a significant rate of underemployment (19 percent), which when combined with an open unemployment rate of 22 percent, implies that almost half of the work force is comprised of either unemployed or workers in low paying jobs. Youth unemployment is a growing concern, with 48 percent of youth either unemployed or projected to be in low productive, low paying employment.

Social Protection & Safety Nets: Social protection as a sector does not exist formally. The bulk of the assistance provided is project based, delivered mostly through the development partners and NGOs and is reliant on unpredictable financing. Significant segments of the Somali population are economically and/or socially vulnerable to shocks such as the current drought. There is a need for a reliable response beyond the humanitarian phase with a clear national operating institution for social protection limits gains that can be made beyond short-term assistance.

Gender: In Somalia, women are disadvantaged compared to men on all socio-economic and human development indicators. With a Gender Inequality Index of 0.776, the country ranks fourth lowest globally. Social norms and power structures impact the lives and opportunities available to different groups of men and women. With more than 50 percent of the population under the age of 15, addressing gender inequalities is critical to maximize impact and socioeconomic development and build resilience and sustainable peace.

Urban Development & Municipal Services: Somalia has experienced rapid urbanization due to significant migrations caused by protracted conflicts, insecurity, and cyclical natural disasters. As of September 2017, there are an estimated 2.1 million protracted internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Somalia, most of whom reside in urban areas.³⁰ The country is also witnessing increasing numbers of returnees and refugees from neighboring countries. IDPs have moved to urban centers, settling on public and private lands within and in the outskirts of cities. The ad hoc IDP settlements have exacerbated the urban sprawl in the cities, compounding pressure on land and service delivery. In the absence of security of land tenure, IDPs are highly vulnerable to forced eviction.

Governance: Despite challenges of protracted armed conflict and disaster (including droughts famines, and floods), the presence of the State has reemerged through a new three-tiered federal system – FGS, FMS, and district level government. A new National Development Plan for Somalia (2017-19) has been issued for the first time in 30 years. As the government works to strengthen core functions and establish the foundations of its federalist system, its ability to provide public services remains severely constrained. For example, education and health received only 2.5 percent of the federal budget (USD 6.2 million) in 2016, of which only 39 percent was disbursed. Government capacity and resources for drought response are even more limited, given that many of the relevant structures have only recently been established or have yet to be formed. Revenue mobilization remains insufficient to meet demands.

Conflict: Violent conflict is present in Somalia at several interrelated levels. The civil war, which erupted in 1991 after the overthrow of the Barre regime, and resultant collapse of the central government pitted armed factions against each other, often recruited along lineage lines. Additionally, violent jihadism was added to this scenario in the form of the Islamic Courts Union (ICU) from which al-Shabaab subsequently arose. Third, local communal conflicts, typically over natural resources such as land, pasture, water rights, or economic rents, can result in violence, often at the sub-clan level. Fourth, the incidence of criminal, interpersonal violence and gender-based violence is high. Much of this conflict has, at times, been exacerbated by the involvement of Somalia’s neighbors and broader regional and global interests. Together, these factors continue to make Somalia the most conflict-affected country in Africa in 2017, with 3,287 recorded fatalities and 1,537 violent events as of September 22nd. Three bomb attacks in Mogadishu in October 2017 – including the October 14 attack that killed over 500 – show that the threat remains significant.

Displacement: Prior to the current drought, over 1.1 million people were already internally displaced, while just one million Somali refugees lived in neighboring countries. Forced displacement has occurred in Somalia due to more than 20 years of internal conflict, insecurity, political uncertainty, human rights violations and governance failures. These factors are further compounded by cyclical environmental challenges including periods of acute drought and famine. Many communities have further experienced multiple displacements from the forcible acquisition of their land or forced evictions, particularly in urban areas, contributing to a loss of assets and livelihoods.

DRR, Risk Financing and Drought Resilience: Somalia is highly vulnerable to disasters; the country ranks 15th among developing countries at high disaster risk. In addition to drought, floods are annual phenomena with the most severe occurrence during the months of March-May and September-November in the riverine areas along the two rivers, Jubba and Shabelle. In the absence of committed DRR institutions in Somalia, the combination of drought and floods compounded by conflict has resulted in full-scale humanitarian crises. Disaster risk management actors and associated response strategies are fragmented and do not necessarily reflect current theory or best practice in disaster risk management.

³⁰ UNOCHA. 2017. Humanitarian Needs Overview: Nov. 2017.

Overview of Impact: Results and Findings

Productive Sectors

Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-fed Crop Production (USD 63.8 million in damages; USD 247.7 million in losses): The greatest impact of the drought in the agriculture sector has been on crop production losses arising from both reduced land area under cultivation and much reduced yields at harvest. Rain-fed staple food crops (mainly sorghum, cowpeas, and also some rain-fed sesame) in the inter-riverine regions of Bay and Bokool suffered from a multiple-season lack of rains starting in early 2016, and irrigation crops in the Shabelle valley regions (mainly maize, most sesame, and rice, bananas, and tomatoes, among other crops) suffered from the double impact of lack of rains and a drying river. The total monetary loss associated with all four main staple food crops' output is estimated at USD 71.2 million, with maize and sorghum combined at USD 34.5 million, sesame at USD 27.5 million and cowpeas at USD 9.2 million.

Agriculture – Livestock (USD 350.7 million in damages; USD 1.3 billion in losses): Damages in the sector refers to the death of animals due to lack of water, pasture and disease prevalence, while loss refers to the effect of drought on the production and productivity of livestock. It is estimated that during the drought, Somalia lost over 6.4 million of its total livestock population valued at over USD 350 million in addition to losses in productivity in terms of milk yield and body weight valued at about USD 1.2 billion. Livestock losses have been very high among poor families, averaging 40-60 percent in the north and 20-40 percent in the center and south.

Agriculture – Fisheries: (USD 10.0 million in losses): Effects of the drought on the sector include loss of income as a direct result of reduced landings and loss of assets as families depending on fisheries are forced to sell their fishing gear (lines, nets and/or boat). The latter has been quantified as approximately USD 1.24 million, assuming that 25 percent of those fishers who earn an income (part-time/seasonal/full-time) from fishing have lost their assets. Effects also include loss of and/or restricted access to fishing grounds if river beds silt up and water/river-flow does not return to a proper level for breeding and harboring of fish; and loss of food and sources of important nutrients due to reduced catch.

Physical Sectors

Water & Sanitation (USD 42.0 million in damages; USD 20.5 million in losses): Damages because of the current drought on water supply and sanitation were mainly on water sources (boreholes, shallow wells, berkads), while losses resulted largely from the increased burden on insufficient household income to pay more for water. The cost of vended water has increased by 50 percent during the critical drought period. Price data for water vended by tanker trucks, carts and kiosks shows that following the failed *Deyr* rains in November 2016, the average cost of water went up from USD 4 to USD 6 per cubic meter (m³). In addition to higher average costs, there was greater variability in water prices during the period December 2016 to April 2017. Additionally, multiple shallow wells have dried up, and water levels in most boreholes have decreased to abnormally low levels, forcing many boreholes to operate over increased hours to meet demand, resulting in greater wear and increasing potential damage.

Transport: Damages and losses have not been computed for the transport sector since the infrastructure was not directly impacted. Secondary losses experienced for transport services are difficult to compute and have not been included in the analysis.

Environment, Clean Energy, and Natural Resource Management (USD 564.8 million in damages; USD 610.7 million in losses): An estimated 18 percent of the total national landmass in natural standing vegetation on average was lost in the drought period, potentially affecting the lives and livelihoods of an estimated 6 million (or more than 50 percent) of the estimated total population. Some 93,000 tons of topsoil has been eroded as a direct result of the drought in 2017, resulting in aggregate damages and losses in soil fertility functions and ecosystem services estimated at USD 36 million and USD 3 million, respectively. The continued effect of droughts and inappropriate land use practices have also resulted in widespread destruction of plant life, further decreasing animal habitats.

Health (USD 32.6 million in losses): No damages to the sector can be solely attributable to drought. Losses in the sector primarily stem from increase in the number of new cases of disease, increase in mobile health units leading to increased cost of maintaining and managing

these units, and the destruction of secondary health facilities. The outbreak of epidemic-prone diseases such as Acute Watery Diarrhea (AWD)/cholera, measles and malaria, some of which are cross-border outbreaks, has occurred due to the drought. Somalia has experienced a large-scale outbreak of cholera since the beginning of 2017. A total of 77,783 cases of AWD and 1,159 deaths (CFR 1.49 percent) were reported in different parts of Somalia from January to September 2017. Of these cases, 58.8 percent have occurred in children below five years of age.

Nutrition (USD 3.1 million in losses): Immediate losses were incurred in treating SAM and MAM children and PLW; mass screenings and operational costs; the affected zones and vulnerable groups, including U5s and PLW. The drought and insecurity driven influx of IDPs into major urban centers has compounded the drought effects. UNHCR estimates over 926,000 people were displaced due to the drought from Nov. 2016-Sep. 2017, further straining the limited resources available and leaving the most vulnerable (pregnant/nursing mothers and children) at risk.

Education: Drought-related displacement has drastically affected children's access to education services. As a consequence of the prolonged drought, the sector experienced the following effects: disruption of school calendar in some regions of the country; scarcity of adequate safe water in schools; scarcity of nutritious food for children and their families; and increased enrollments in displacement destinations resulting in stretched existing school resources. On average, the prolonged drought affected an estimated 384,000 school-age children with varying severity scales. For Somalia as a whole, the total proportion of children forced out of schools reached an estimated 8 percent by May 2017.

Cross-cutting Themes

Food Security: In southern part of Somalia, which is the major crop producing part of the country, the 2016 *Gu* cereal production was estimated at 65,000 tonnes. This is 49 percent below the long-term average (1995-2015) and 20 percent below the five-year average for 2011-2015. An estimated USD 399.5 million has been spent on providing food security assistance in response to the current drought. An estimated USD 39.1 million has been spent over the 2016-2017 drought period on increased commercial import of cereals to Somalia.

Livelihoods & Employment (USD 46.6 million in losses): Over 900,000 livestock dependent households (pastoralists and agropastoralists) are affected, with an estimated USD 875 million of direct income lost in the livestock sector alone. Impacts are particularly



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significant on women who predominate in livestock dependent chains, with an estimated loss across 4,500 micro enterprises/kiosks of USD 26 million. The drought has exacerbated what was already a dire situation in relation to employment and livelihoods. Jobs and incomes in related value chains have also been reduced. Combining the estimated numbers of pastoralists and agropastoralist who have ceased their livelihood, with data on IDPs, humanitarian assessments and the loss of national GDP, it is estimated that the open unemployment rate is over 50 percent.

Social Protection & Safety Nets: The drought impact is reflected in the extent and nature of vulnerability, poverty or risk of falling into poverty, and lack of autonomy, discrimination and marginalization. Significant segments of the Somali population are economically and/or socially vulnerable to shocks such as the current drought.

Gender: The drought has exacerbated the existing vulnerabilities and social marginalization of women and has induced massive displacement, with the majority of the displaced women and children. Prolonged exposure to the drought has extended traditional coping strategies, such as migration and family separation, contributing to school drop-outs of boys and girls and necessitating women to bear disproportionate responsibilities. The combination of increased travel distances in search of water and firewood, additional unpaid care work in the face of increased drought-related diseases and the need to adopt an income earning role has resulted in increased work burden for women and increased drop-out rate for girls. During the drought, vulnerable people, including child and female-headed households, are exposed to protection risks such as forced evictions, discrimination based on status and family separations due to lack of support structures and ungoverned settlements; giving them limited access to protective shelter. As women and girls travel longer distances without protection to find water, food, livelihoods and other resources, particularly IDPs traveling outside formal or informal settlement areas, they are more exposed to gender-based violence (GBV).

Urban Development & Municipal Services: The 2016-2017 drought has resulted in around 926,000 newly displaced people between November 2016 and September 2017, with many hosted in settlements in Mogadishu (161,000 people), Baidoa (174,000 people) and Kismayo (42,000 people). These cities alone host almost 40 percent of the total drought-related displacements. The large and rising influx of drought-related displaced people into Somalia's urban areas puts additional stress on already

strained key sectors, particularly land, housing, health, education, water supply and sanitation, protection and jobs. Ad hoc IDP settlements in the outskirts of cities have exacerbated the urban sprawl in the cities, compounding pressure on land and service delivery. In the absence of security of land tenure, IDPs are highly vulnerable to forced eviction. Most of the drought induced IDPs currently reside on government or private land and do not have the authorization to build more permanent types of shelter. Uncontrolled and informal exploitation of aquifers threaten sustainability, safety and access to water supplies in the city.

Governance: The drought has placed significant strain on already stretched Government resources. It has understandably diverted attention from long-term institutional strengthening towards the provision of lifesaving support. However, the impact on public services was mitigated by the very limited role the Government plays in service delivery. Nonetheless, the Government has persisted in implementing reforms and strengthening core capacity at federal, state and district levels, with the support of the international community, albeit with slower than expected results.

Conflict: The drought in Somalia has exacerbated conflicts over pasturelands and natural resources. "Conflict or violence" was the most frequently cited of the difficulties or shocks in the survey undertaken for this assessment in October 2017, with almost one in four households having experienced conflict or violence in the previous month. Drought and conflict, both independently and in combination, cause displacement. The two are so closely intertwined as drivers of displacement that it is not always possible or meaningful to distinguish between them. Of the 1.1 million internally displaced between Nov. 2016 and Sep. 2017, 171,000 are classified as "conflict/security" related, and 926,000 as "drought related." "Conflict-driven" displacement was more geographically focused, with 71 percent being displaced from just one of Somalia's 18 regions, Lower Shabelle in South West State.

Displacement: The current drought, combined with increasing incidence of conflict, has rapidly accelerated rates of internal displacement in Somalia. While household data indicate a relatively even share of male- and female-headed households (48 and 52 percent respectively) among the newly displaced, nearly 65 percent of those displaced fall under the age of 18. Women and children under the age of 18 therefore account for more than three-quarters (84 percent) of those displaced.³¹ Recent displacements extend primarily

³¹ Ibid.

from rural to urban and peri-urban areas. Receiving regions with the highest concentrations of displaced include Bay, Benadir, Mudug and Lower Shabelle respectively, with heaviest concentrations in urban catchment areas in and around Baidoa, Mogadishu, Galkayo and Kismayo. The influx of displaced to urban areas has compounded existing pressures in access to services, land, and other resources, while reinforcing earlier patterns of deprivation, marginalization and exclusion.

Overview of Recovery Objectives and Needs

Productive Sectors

Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-fed Crop Production (USD 500.3 million): Needs for the sector include: (i) rehabilitation of prewar flood control and irrigation infrastructure along the two major rivers in southern and central Somalia and their expansion in both northwestern and northeastern regions; (ii) more modern storage techniques and facilities; (iii) rehabilitation of prewar trunk and rural roads to improve transportation of inputs to farms and of produce to markets; (iv) institutional and human capacity building, and (v) improved access to and adoption of productivity-enhancing and resilient technologies (Climate Smart Agriculture practices).

Agriculture – Livestock (USD 110.5 million): Needs for the sector include: (i) Short term - veterinary services provision; feed and water provision; and restocking/redistribution in selected districts; (ii) Medium term -rehabilitation of livestock watering infrastructure on the rangelands, rehabilitation of the rangelands and enhancing management; improving laboratory facilities for confirmatory disease diagnosis and animal food residue testing; (iii) Long term - strengthening institutional capacity for clinical veterinary services; feed and water development, diversification into poultry production and bee keeping; genetic research and breeding; and strengthened regulatory capacity of veterinary services to supervise and regulate quarantine operations and certification for trade.

Agriculture – Fisheries (USD 5.7 million): Needs for the sector include: (i) distribution of fish nets; (ii) development of fish landing sites; (iii) development of spet fed desert aquaculture; and (iv) development of dried fish.

Physical Sectors

Water & Sanitation (USD 180.7 million): Water and sanitation sector recovery needs entail: (a) water supply and sanitation infrastructure rehabilitation; (b) institutional strengthening and capacity building; and (c) construction of new water supply infrastructure. It is estimated that 202 boreholes, 387 shallow wells, and

29 berkads require complete replacement while 380 boreholes, 728 shallow wells and 54 berkads need to be rehabilitated.

Transport (USD 147.9 million): The main objective of recovery in the transport sector is to provide accessibility to drought-affected areas by maintaining and rehabilitating roads that are in bad condition to allow for relief initiatives to reach the intended beneficiaries. This will need to follow a Building Back Better concept to build resilience to future climate shocks. Some short-term interventions might entail provision of trucking capacity to deliver relief items to affected communities on time. Rehabilitation and reconstruction of roads and bridges will be done in the short- and medium-term, as some of the interventions require proper schemes incorporating procurement of works and options for labor-intensive works, creating employment opportunities for those affected and full reconstruction in some cases. Recovery needs would have to be synchronized with other sectors, especially the trade and agriculture sectors.

Environment, Clean Energy, and Natural Resource Management (USD 99.9 million): Sector recovery needs include improving: (a) vegetative biomass productivity and fodder availability; (b) biodiversity; (c) impacts on soil quality and soil resources; and (d) household energy and fuelwood situation. Suggested direct interventions include scaling up evergreen agriculture (EGA) by integrating with trees-on-farm agroforestry systems for better resilience, as well as rehabilitation of important vegetative resources badly affected by drought by promoting the adoption of sustainable, low-cost land restoration techniques such as farmer-managed natural regeneration (FMNR) and integrated soil fertility management systems (ISFM) for drylands.

Health (USD 82.1 million): Recovery needs for the sector include: (a) ensuring that the current health policy strategic plan is implemented effectively, putting in place a strategic human resource plan that will increase the current level of HRH; (b) implementing a comprehensive health services delivery plan by increasing the number of functional health facilities; (c) increasing the number of mobile clinics and specific community interventions such as immunization campaigns and AWD/cholera awareness campaigns; (d) increasing the availability of treatment points for both primary and basic secondary treatments; and (e) increasing resilience through better social protection, and gender and vulnerable population targeting.

Nutrition (USD 104.1 million): The recovery needs for the sector will include: (a) strengthening prevention and management of acute malnutrition in children U5 and PLW; (b) timely procurement and provision of treatment and medical supplies; (c) regular provision

and implementation of vitamin A supplementation and deworming; (d) nutrition surveillance; (e) monitoring and evaluation; (f) capacity building, (g) procurement of materials required for child and maternal health and (h) nutrition promotion. In view of high number of IDP communities as a result of both drought and conflict, increased provision of mobile treatments and treatment centers is essential.

Education (USD 43.6 million): The sector recovery measures are aimed at restoring learning to most affected regions along with better preparedness and response systems. The recovery needs for the sector include: expanding learning spaces; rapid teacher recruitment and training; distribution of learning materials; establishing community education committees; and data collection tools.

Food Security (USD 25.4 million): To address persistent and high levels of acute food insecurity, the recovery needs include: (a) improved food storage; (b) improved food security early warning systems (c) support for the development of a national food security strategy; (d) support for the development of a national poverty reduction strategy.

Livelihoods & Employment (USD 22.1 million): The recovery strategy targets support to women and youth, with measures to be taken in education, skills development, Labor Market Information Services (LMIS), and entrepreneurship and finance. Support should be provided to women enterprises by supporting women entrepreneurs across all sectors, including livestock, to organize themselves into associations, cooperatives and networks.

Social Protection & Safety Nets (USD 13.2 million): The sector needs include: (a) bringing greater coherence to existing channels and increasing efficiency by increasing government leadership in the sector; (b) developing pilot systems, policies and processes that can serve as a basis for a sustainable social safety nets program; (c) building capacity at state and district level to start to engage subnational government actors in monitoring, vetting and targeting activities; (d) leading research and analysis for the development of targeting and registration systems, building on the lessons of current successful programs.

Gender (USD 44.2 million): As a cross-cutting issue, gender needs to be mainstreamed across all sectors included in the recovery plan. The collection and use of sex- and age-disaggregated data and strengthening gender-responsive governance in the short, medium and long term will facilitate the design and implementation of gender sensitive policies and interventions. Specific support to facilitate women's voices to be heard and

to promote women's participation and leadership is required. National- and district-level gender profiles need to be developed to inform programming. Furthermore, noting the disproportionate risk exposure of women and girls, targeted action addressing their specific needs is needed.

Urban Development & Municipal Services (USD 293.3 million): Recovery and resilience activities will focus on complementing activities in the HRP to support a quicker transition to durable shelter solutions for IDPs. This will include addressing some of the underlying structural deficiencies that perpetuate and compound the challenge of providing durable solutions, such as land tenure issues, improved planning to better link sites to services and better coordination of services across different populations and sectors. Access to basic services should be improved through injecting capacity to coordinate and plan in local government institutions, particularly at municipal and district levels. In the medium term, assistance should have a broader focus to improve urban resilience by investing in the most affected sectors such as housing, water supply and sanitation, health, education, protection, as well as job creation in cities that have experienced or are likely to experience a large influx of IDPs, while strengthening the capacity of the sub-national governments to provide adequate service delivery. In the long-term (beyond 3 years), support should focus on four key areas: regulating service delivery; streamlining intergovernmental relations; improving municipal and district urban planning capacities and approaches; and strengthening institutions related to land and housing.

Governance (USD 58.4 million): Recovery needs for the Governance sector focus on capacity development for key national institutions to lead, manage, and monitor programming for drought recovery over the medium term. Needs include bringing approximately 250 expert personnel on board to contribute to and manage the daily functions for project development, implementation, and oversight, supported by the appropriate equipment, facilities, and training activities. Other key governance functions for recovery that need support are information and database management, facilitating access to finance for social entrepreneurs, project development, and establishment and capacity development of disaster management institutions.

Conflict: To address drivers of conflict, the report's conflict analysis supports the priority needs outlined and estimated in the Urban Development and Displacement sector analyses to address urban poverty and marginalization, including needs unique to IDPs. These needs should focus on land policy, infrastructure, shelter, service delivery, livelihoods, and the development of smaller urban centers.

Displacement (USD 26 million): Drought recovery programming should lay the foundation for the achievement of durable solutions for displaced populations, refugee returns and affected communities. Recovery interventions should align with Government-led efforts to address displacement, including developmental priorities to enable durable solutions highlighted in the NDP, as well as build on existing initiatives to address displacement, such as the Durable Solutions Initiative. Recovery programming should address i) urban solutions, including sustainable integration in urban and peri-urban areas, and; ii) rural solutions, including return and (re)integration in rural/remote areas (including IDPs who intend to return to these areas/places of origin, “stayees”/host communities, and various vulnerable and minority groups). For populations in urban or peri-urban areas, short-term support will focus on addressing basic needs, access to basic services, protection services, and support for early recovery, including cash transfers, medical assistance and access to basic livelihoods. A medium- to long-term recovery strategy will include investments in infrastructure and services delivery, improved housing and land tenure security, promotion or restoration of livelihood opportunities and interventions to strengthen protection and social cohesion. Recovery should also necessarily include support for building capacity and legitimacy of state and local authorities to promote recovery and resilience of IDP populations and to lead long-term durable solutions, including through planned urban expansion, land management, dispute resolution and inclusive planning.

DRR, Risk Financing and Drought Resilience (USD 5 million): There are four areas of disaster risk reduction that require further support and investment: (a) strengthening governance, coordination and participation; (b) building the capacity of national DRM institutions; (c) establishment of early warning and information management systems; (d) harmonizing existing institutional, legislative and policy frameworks; (e) exploring disaster risk financing to strengthen resilience to recurrent drought.

Humanitarian Impact, Immediate Response, and Linkages to the Humanitarian Response Plan

The humanitarian situation in Somalia has been deteriorating from season to season since 2016 primarily due to the successive failure of seasonal rains. Various state and regional level administrations in Somalia issued individual appeals for support with the drought response. The President of Somalia issued an appeal for support from the international community on November 12, 2016.

In response to the drought, an HRP was developed for 2017 to save lives, ensure the protection of the most vulnerable, strengthen resilience, support the provision of basic services and enable durable solutions. Given the rapid deterioration of humanitarian conditions and pre-famine conditions in the country, a large-scale Operational Plan for Famine Prevention was implemented during the first half of 2017, as part of the overall 2017 Somalia HRP, to urgently scale-up humanitarian actions.

The core of the response strategy has been to prevent famine, particularly through the provision of food, water, nutrition and health services, shelter, protection, education and livelihood support, including conditional and unconditional cash transfers, as well as meeting critical needs related to camp coordination and management in IDP settlements. To achieve its aim, the HRP focuses on four strategic objectives:

- **Life-saving:** Provide life-saving and life-sustaining integrated multi-sectoral assistance to reduce acute humanitarian needs and reduce excess mortality among the most vulnerable people.
- **Nutrition:** Reduce acute malnutrition levels in settlements for internally displaced and host communities through integrated multi-sectoral emergency response.
- **Protection:** Reinforce the protection of the displaced and other vulnerable groups at risk.
- **Resilience:** Support the protection and restoration of livelihoods, promote basic services to build resilience to recurrent shocks, and catalyze more sustainable solutions.

The HRP also identified the following key cross-cutting issues:

- Enhance collaboration with development partners on reducing risk and ending need, and explore options for a more coordinated approach to addressing immediate emergency needs and underlying causes in a more sustainable manner
- Strengthen coordination and engagement with national NGOs and local authorities, including emerging states
- Develop a robust, principled and accountable system based on seasonal planning and early warning based on reliable data that advocates and monitors for appropriate responses to emergencies
- Sustain advocacy on the humanitarian situation in Somalia to ensure that international attention and funding is available to respond to humanitarian needs presenting the situation in a way that is complementary and linked to the centrality of protection
- Improve humanitarian access, including by enhancing analysis of access constraints in priority areas and by addressing administrative impediments.

Response priorities

The response strategy was developed based on the identification of the needs of the most vulnerable people, and with response prioritization based on vulnerability and chronic needs. Accordingly, the Somalia Humanitarian Country Team (HCT) set the following response priorities:

- Protect the rights of children and victims of gender-based violence, as well as civilian victims of violations in the conduct of armed conflict; enhance protection information monitoring and analysis systems; and promote respect of humanitarian principles by military actors;
- Prevent and treat communicable diseases; control outbreaks; and increase immunization coverage, especially for measles and polio;
- Tackle food insecurity and prevent food security crises through diversified programming, including resilience building;
- Bring malnutrition and mortality rates below 'emergency' levels through a holistic approach and integrated health, WASH, nutrition, shelter and food security programs, especially in IDP settlements;

- Protect freedom of movement, prevent forced evictions, and promote and support the return and reintegration of the internally displaced persons and returnees.

Humanitarian coordination

A strong humanitarian coordination system is in place in Somalia, including the HCT, Inter-Cluster Coordination Group (ICCG) consisting of nine clusters, regional ICCGs, national and regional humanitarian coordination forums, and sectoral emergency sub-groups. Drought Operations Coordination Centers (DOCCs) are in place in Mogadishu, Baidoa and Garowe to enhance cooperation between partners and linkages among response components.

The HCT works closely with the Federal Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management (MoHADMD), the Somalia NGO consortium, local communities and local level administrations, members of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC), development partners and the private sector.

A large number of humanitarian partners are involved in the delivery of humanitarian assistance on the ground in all 18 regions of the country. More than 266 humanitarian partners with physical presence in Somalia are actively implementing humanitarian activities in Somalia.

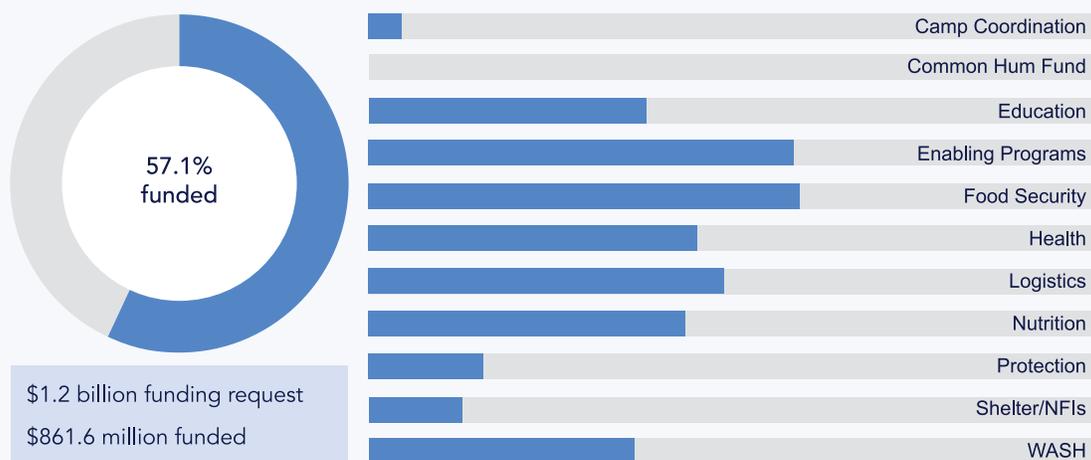
Funding

The donor community generously contributed USD 862 million for the implementation of the humanitarian response plan from Jan. through Sep. 2017. This represents 57 percent of the 2017 HRP's USD 1.5 billion budget.³²

Large-scale humanitarian assistance during 2017 has been critical in reducing food consumption gaps and in averting famine. However, there remains an elevated risk of famine (IPC Phase 5) due to the combination of severe food consumption gaps, high acute malnutrition, and the high disease burden. Therefore, humanitarian assistance will be required through 2018. At the same time, it is necessary to phase-in recovery programs with sustainable solutions for Somalia to strengthen resilience and address the root causes of drought and the underlying vulnerabilities. The recovery strategy will build on and complement the HRP while also supporting the NDP, which aims to create a conducive environment for sustainable development.

³² As of November 2017 - UNOCHA.

Figure 9: Response Plan Funding and Funding by Cluster



The 2018 HRP

Based on assessed needs and projections for 2018, the core of the humanitarian response strategy outlined in the 2018 HRP is focused on providing urgent life-saving assistance and protection, with an emphasis on integrated, localized, multi-sector service provision. To ensure efficiencies and better address the growing needs, humanitarian partners continue to adjust targeting and improve quality of multi-sectoral response. Prioritisation of geographical areas will be reviewed on a continuous basis, and targeting will be adjusted to allow for flexible scale-up in hotspots, and transition to relief and recovery where conditions permit.

Maintaining high levels of efficiency, including the extensive use of cash-based programming where possible, is central to the response strategy. With deployment of mechanisms such as the DOCCs in Mogadishu, Baidoa and Garowe, as well as enhanced coordination with FGS and FMS authorities on prioritisation of areas and needs, humanitarian partners are making efficient use of the available resources to prevent famine. Improved communication with communities and awareness-raising of services provided to the most vulnerable are also allowing for better reach of existing emergency Programs. In 2018 humanitarian

partners in Somalia require an estimated USD 1.5 billion to assist 5.4 million people, prioritizing saving lives, protection of the most vulnerable, strengthening resilience, provision of basic services and enabling durable solutions for the displaced.

The alignment between the HRP and the DINA/RRF processes provides the framework for bringing the "New Way of Working"³³ to Somalia. Since the international community reengaged in the country after the transition of power to the Federal Government in 2012, development partners have been working in a context of protracted humanitarian need. The period of drought over 2016-2017—which is expected to continue into 2018—still has further sharpened the focus on the need to seek development solutions for structural change while continuing to provide lifesaving interventions.

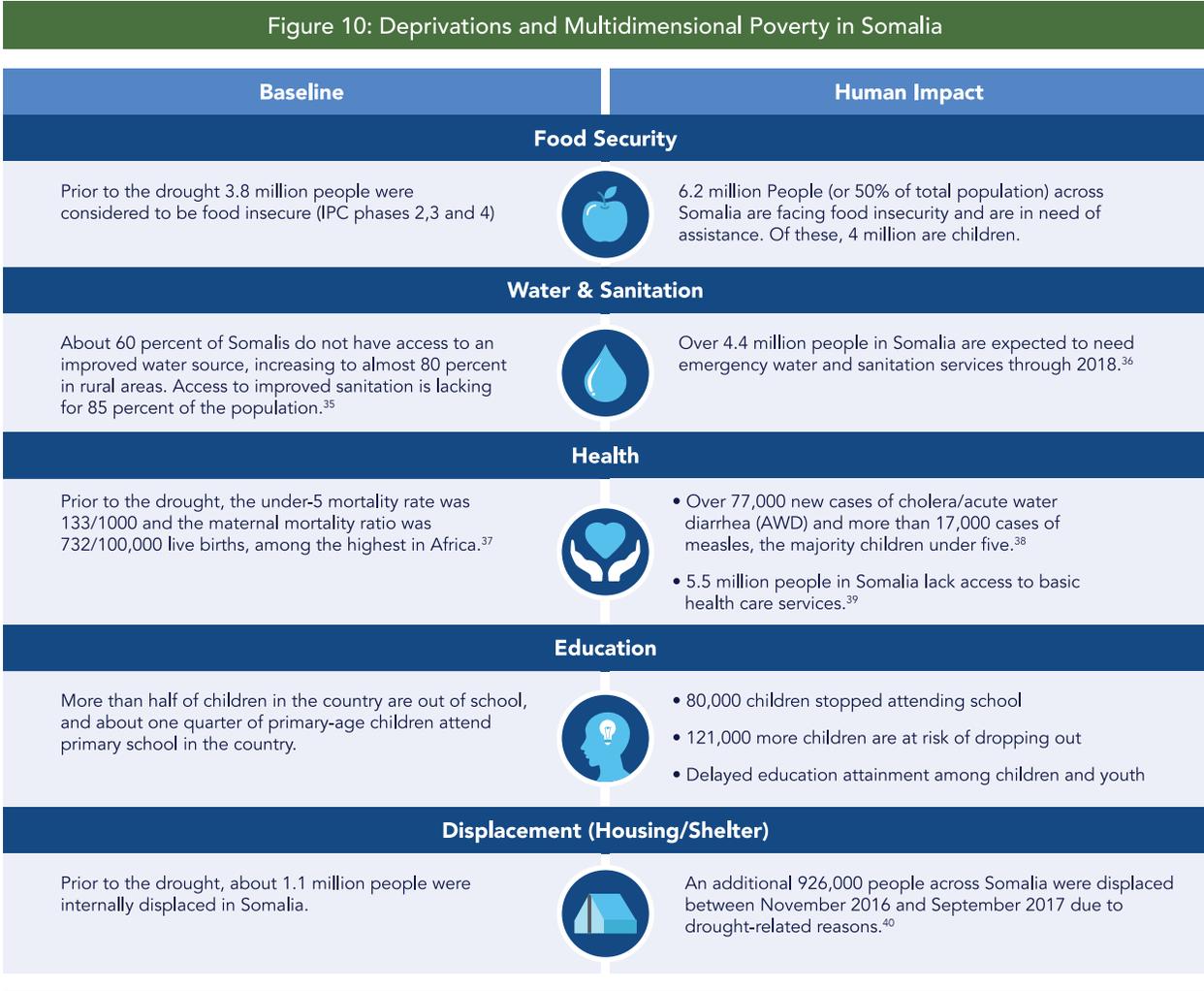
By bringing the HRP, DINA and RRF processes together, the Government has enabled a shift away from the traditional dichotomy of humanitarian and development interventions and instead has brought all stakeholders together around a common objective: to respond to the needs of the Somali people in a way that can ultimately lead to greater self-sufficiency of the state, the society and most importantly, the Somali people themselves.

³³ Agenda for Humanity. 2016. 'Recognizing that humanitarian and development actors, governments, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and private sector actors have been progressively working better together to meet needs for years, the New Way of Working aims to offer a concrete path to remove unnecessary barriers to such collaboration to enable meaningful progress. The New Way of Working can be described, in short, as working over multiple years, based on the comparative advantage of a diverse range of actors, including those outside the UN system, towards collective outcomes. Wherever possible, those efforts should reinforce and strengthen the capacities that already exist at national and local levels'. (<https://www.agendaforhumanity.org/initiatives/5358>)



The Human Impact

The overall impact of the drought in Somalia has taken its toll on the affected population in terms of basic living conditions as well as education, water, sanitation and basic healthcare services. The figure below indicates the deprivations resulting from the drought. According to the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) for Somalia, an estimated 82 percent of Somalis were in multidimensional poverty before the drought.³⁴ Given the large deprivations caused by the drought in Somalia, multidimensional poverty will increase significantly in the country as a result of the drought, especially in the most affected regions.



³⁴ UNDP, 2012. Human Development Report 2012.
³⁵ WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP). 2017. 2015 WASH data for Somalia.
³⁶ UNICEF.2017.Somalia Situation Report (Sitrep #15): October 2017.
³⁷ WHO. 2015. Trends in Maternal Mortality: 1990 to 2015; UNICEF. 2017. Levels and Trends in Child Mortality.
³⁸ From January to August 2017 – UNOCHA.2017. Somalia: Drought Response Situation Report No. 16. September 2017
³⁹ WHO. 2017. Somalia Crisis: Update and Funding Request, May 2107.
⁴⁰ UNHCR. 2017. Displacements Dashboard, Protection & Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), Internal Displacements During September 2017.



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The drought's impact on livelihoods and food security has also had a direct bearing on the levels of poverty in the country. According to the World Bank's 2016 survey, every second Somali lives in poverty, and almost 1 in 3 faces conditions of extreme poverty.⁴¹

Somalia's standing on the Human Development Index (HDI), which combines indicators of health, education and income, was already strikingly low at 0.285, ranking it among the lowest in the world in 2010. It is likely that the human development trend will worsen. Low life expectancy in Somalia is linked to high rates of infant mortality, one of the highest rates of maternal mortality in the world, and the spread of preventable diseases such as tuberculosis (TB), malaria and measles.

The Human Impact Framework

The human impact of the drought in Somalia was measured through six core indicators:

1. Living conditions and access to basic services: measured as people's access to healthcare, water, sanitation, education, cooking fuel, housing, and basic household assets (based on the Multidimensional Poverty Index)
2. Livelihoods and income: measured in terms of access to livelihoods (all occupations), income and productive assets and resources
3. Food security and nutrition: measured in terms of access and food security outcomes

⁴¹ World Bank. 2017. Somali Poverty Profile 2016: Findings from Wave 1 of the Somali High Frequency Survey.

Figure 11: The Cascading Human Impact of Disasters



4. Gender equality: measured as the differential impact on women and girls
5. Profile of populations affected and vulnerable groups: measured as the differential impact and access to resources by different social groups
6. Poverty and human development: impact measured in relation to the poverty line, the Multidimensional Poverty Index, and the HDI.

For the core indicators of the human impact, the assessment follows the cascading effects, beginning with the pre-existing human development conditions, considering the disaster's immediate effects, and evaluating people's coping strategies to determine the human impact outcomes as well as the potential future consequences.

While this chapter provides an overview of the human impact of the drought measured against the human impact framework, a more detailed discussion related to the subject matter herein can be found in the summary reports for the relevant sectors and cross-cutting themes later in this report.

Deprivations in Living Conditions and Access to Basic Services

Access to water and sanitation

Water in Somalia is a scarce resource even without drought. The country's water supply comes mainly from boreholes, shallow wells and berkads, and access to water and sanitation is very low (see Figure 10). The majority of open wells, berkads and some shallow boreholes in Somalia are likely to be contaminated due to the common practice of open defecation and the absence of a system for controlling water quality.⁴² Water sources have been increasingly drying out as

a result of the drought, and the scarcity of water has prompted abnormal migrations and increased the cost of potable water.⁴³ The average distance to water points has increased to 50km, with some communities making a round trip of up to 125km for water. The lack of water and competition for this scarce resource is also one of the triggers for conflict in Somalia.

The drought has affected not only the quantity but also the quality of drinking water. There are noticeable weaknesses in the water sector related to water quality testing and monitoring in Somalia, which is compounded by the relatively poor understanding of how the water supplies become contaminated and the risks associated with the use of contaminated water.

The cost of water has increased by 50 percent during critical dry periods. Following the failed rains in November 2016 the average cost of water went up from USD 4 to USD 6/scubic meter (m3).⁴⁴ There was greater variability in water prices during the period December 2016 to April 2017, with some areas facing prices of over USD 50/m3 such as in Laas Caanood and Xudun. In Gedo region in southern Somalia, 90 percent of villages are now reliant on unsafe water sources for drinking and domestic purposes.

Access to basic healthcare services

The effect of the drought on health adds to the pre-existing poor health status of Somalis resulting from a healthcare system that is largely lacking. Prior to the current drought, the under-5 mortality rate and the maternal mortality ratio were among the highest in Africa. During 2017, there were two outbreaks of communicable diseases in the country, cholera and measles. The situation has improved for cholera but there remains concern over a possible resurgence, while measles cases still remain at epidemic levels and may

⁴² UNICEF. 2016. Situation Analysis of Children in Somalia 2016; World Bank. 2017. Somali Poverty Profile 2016: Findings from Wave 1 of the Somali High Frequency Survey.

⁴³ UNOCHA. 2017. "Horn of Africa: Impact of Conflict and Drought Crisis on Women and Girls," March 2017

⁴⁴ Collated by FSNAU from various sources (FEWSNET, SWALIM, FSNAU)

Figure 12: Water and Sanitation: Typology of the Cascading Effects and Human Impact of Drought ⁴⁵

Drought Effects	Coping Strategies	Human Impact
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Depletion of water resources for human and animal consumption • Lower availability of water • Increase in the cost of water • Reduced access to water due to high prices and longer distances to water points 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purchasing water, higher expenditures • Atypical population movements in search of animal water and grazing • Women and children fetch food, water and firewood at longer distances • Children leave school to assist with domestic work • Drinking contaminated water • Reduction in the consumption of water to 3 liters per person per day, well below the minimum standard of 7.5 liters for basic human water needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher incidence of water-borne diseases • Increased school drops outs • School drop-out places children at risk of child labor, child marriage and recruitment by armed groups <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4.4 million people are in need of water & sanitation services • 80,000 children stopped attending school, and an additional 121,000 more are at risk of dropping out • Delayed education attainment among children and youth

worsen acute malnutrition and mortality among children if not treated.⁴⁶ The population is in need of primary healthcare, emergency reproductive health, nutrition and trauma care. There is also a need for treatment of disease outbreaks, case management of communicable diseases, prevention of outbreaks, and emergency obstetric and neonatal care.

Increasing morbidity resulting from the drought increases household expenditures on healthcare, although expenditure on healthcare varies among income groups. Average annual expenditures in healthcare are about USD 2 and USD 8 per person among poor and better-off households, respectively.⁴⁷ Poorer households, unable to afford the increasing needs for healthcare, are among the most vulnerable to disease.⁴⁸

Figure 13: Health: Typology of the Cascading Effects and Human Impact of Drought ⁴⁹

Drought Effects	Coping Strategies	Human Impact
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased demand for healthcare • Higher morbidity and mortality rates • Reduced access to health services, especially for migrating populations and IDPs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased spending on healthcare • Increased borrowing for healthcare 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher incidence for morbidity and mortality • Malnutrition, especially among children • Higher maternal mortality rates • 5.5 million people in Somalia lack access to basic health care services

⁴⁵ FSNAU and FEWS NET. 2017. Food Security Outlook: June 2017 to January 2018; Inter Agency Working Group on Disaster Preparedness for East and Central Africa (IAWG). 2016. Lesson Learned? An Urgent Call for Action In Response to the Drought Crisis in the Horn of Africa; Maxwell D., et al. 2016. Facing Famine: Somali Experiences in the Famine of 2011. Food Policy 65

⁴⁶ Health Cluster Somalia. 2017. Health Cluster Bulletin: August 2017; UNICEF. Somalia Situation Report (Sitrep #15):October 2017; UNICEF. 2017. Pre-famine Briefing Note: September 2017.

⁴⁷ World Bank. 2017. Somali Poverty Profile 2016: Findings from Wave 1 of the Somali High Frequency Survey.

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ FSNAU and FEWS NET. 2017. Food Security Outlook: June 2017 to January 2018; Inter Agency Working Group on Disaster Preparedness for East and Central Africa (IAWG). 2016. Lesson Learned? An Urgent Call for Action In Response to the Drought Crisis in the Horn of Africa; Maxwell D., et al. 2016. Facing Famine: Somali Experiences in the Famine of 2011. Food Policy 65.

Access to education

The education and protection of children is being affected by the drought as they increasingly drop out of school to help families cope with the drought, particularly to fetch food and water. About 80,000 children have already stopped attending school, and an additional 121,000 more are at risk of dropping out.⁵⁰ School drop-outs add to Somalia's existing low levels of school enrollment and education attainment and, furthermore, place children at risk of child labor, child marriage and recruitment by armed groups.

Poverty is strongly associated with children's enrollment in school. About 45 percent of children living in poor households are enrolled in school compared to 63 percent of children living in better-off households.⁵¹ Poor households spend on average USD 25 per year in education, compared to USD 47 for the non-poor.⁵² School enrollment and educational attainment also varies by livelihood group and by gender. For example, less than a quarter of pastoralist children attend formal schools in Somalia, compared to half in the wider population, due to their nomadic lifestyle and to poverty. Less than 50 percent of girls attend primary school, and only 25 percent of women aged 15 to 24 were literate in 2006.⁵³

Access to housing

The drought has forced large numbers of Somalis to migrate from their homes to IDP settlements in search of humanitarian assistance, depriving them of the most basic living conditions. An estimated 926,000 people across Somalia were displaced between November 2016 and September 2017 due to drought.⁵⁴ Women and children under the age of 18 account for more than three-quarters (76 percent) of those displaced.⁵⁵ Although drought-related displacement has affected all regions of Somalia, the majority of the people displaced due to drought are in Bay and Benadir Regions. Displacement of such a large segment of the population has a serious impact on access to housing in Somalia. The displaced are already among the most vulnerable and deprived, and the increasing number of displaced due to drought is deepening poverty and vulnerability.

Summary of deprivations in numbers

The overall impact of the drought in Somalia has taken its toll on basic living conditions as well as on education, water, sanitation and basic health services. The human impact in numbers is summarized in Figure 14.

Figure 14: Deprivations: Living Conditions and Access to Basic Services



⁵⁰ UNICEF. 2017. Somalia Situation Report (Sitrep #15): October 2017; UNICEF. 2017. Pre-famine Briefing Note: September 2017.

⁵¹ World Bank. 2017. Somali Poverty Profile 2016: Findings from Wave 1 of the Somali High Frequency Survey.

⁵² Ibid.

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ UNHCR. 2017. Displacements Dashboard, Protection & Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), Internal Displacements During September 2017.

⁵⁵ Draws upon the DINA section on Displacement.

Livelihoods: Agriculture Losses, Unemployment and Loss of Income and Productive Resources

Agricultural losses and depletion of productive resources

Livelihoods in Somalia are dominated primarily by livestock, as well as by crop production, both of which are important for subsistence and cash income. The drought is therefore a significant shock for large portions of the population. The current drought has deprived affected households of their livelihoods, income and vital productive assets, leading to severe food access constraints and acute food insecurity. It is estimated that during the drought, Somalia lost over 6.4 million of its total livestock population, a massive loss of one of the principal resources of Somalis.⁵⁶ Losses in crop production and livestock have driven food prices well above the average and lowered household access to food and income.

Unemployment and income loss

The livestock sector is central to the economic and cultural life of the Somali people. The sector provides food and income to over 60 percent of the country's population.⁵⁷ Almost half the workforce is either unemployed or work in low paying jobs, and youth unemployment is a growing concern, estimated to be at 48 percent. The drought has exacerbated what was already a dire situation in relation to employment and livelihoods. It is estimated that pastoralists have lost about USD 540 million in their livelihoods and income as a result of the drought, or about 70 percent of their average annual cash incomes. Agropastoralists have suffered losses as well, estimated at USD 330 million, which represents 30 percent of their average annual incomes.⁵⁸ Jobs have also been lost and incomes reduced in related and unrelated value chains and businesses.

Coping Strategies

The coping strategies adopted by drought-affected households include the sale of productive assets like farming land, breeding stock, and draught animals. Some common coping strategies include out-migration to look for food or work, borrowing money, and borrowing other assets. Migration is often applied in

Box 4: Water, Food and Security for Displaced Communities

Asha Nur is a 25 year-old mother of four. She was displaced from Lower Shabelle by internal conflict and drought eleven months ago. Asha lost two of her children to cholera as she tried to find IDP camps that could support her with security, clean water and food for her family. Like many female-headed households in Somalia, Asha is the sole breadwinner, and she makes her income by washing clothes for other IDPs.

Understanding the importance of clean water and nutritious food for any child's growth and development, the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management provides food for Asha's family and other displaced people who live in the Al-Hidaya camp in Mogadishu. While grateful for government support, Asha urges the government to support IDPs through cash grants, to enable them to start small businesses. In Asha's case, she believes this would help her buy more buckets to do laundry, giving her the ability to buy her own food and send her children to school.

Source: Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management

combination with other strategies such as accessing financial and other assets through social networks. Borrowing money to cope with disaster shocks is a common strategy, but it is closely linked to remittances from diaspora relatives, which is also another key livelihood strategy for most homes. For example, while waiting for remittances, families borrow money, food, or other assets as a common short-term strategy. While migration is traditionally linked to a pastoralist livelihood, when food and employment opportunities are limited, out-migration increases as a coping strategy to adapt to the shocks.⁵⁹ Coping strategies adopted by the drought-affected populations are shown in percentage terms in Figure 15 below.

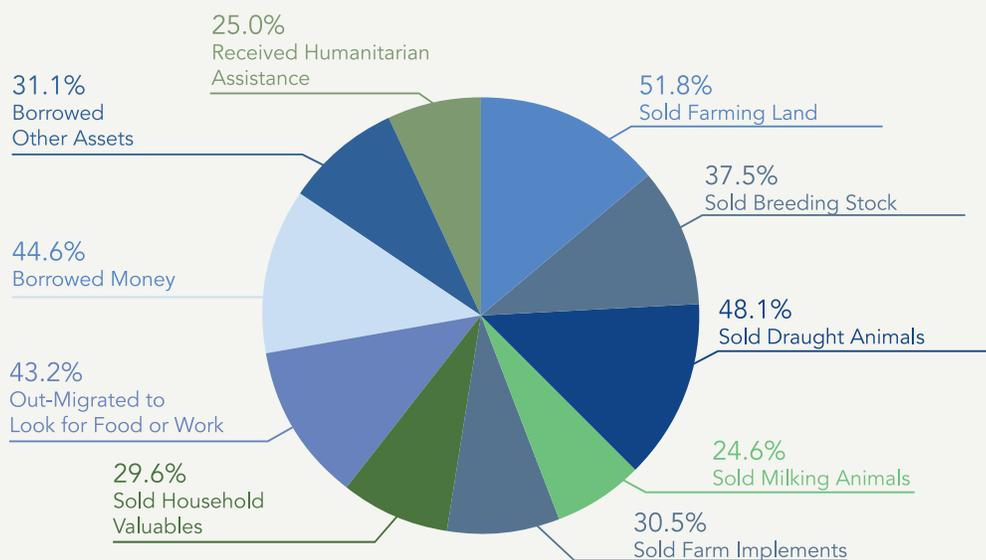
⁵⁶ Draws upon DINA section on Livestock

⁵⁷ FSNAU and FEWS NET. 2017. Somalia Livestock Price Bulletin: October 2017

⁵⁸ Draws upon DINA section on Livelihoods.

⁵⁹ USAID, SDRI, Benadir University, CRS, and Institute for Disaster & Fragility Resilience, GWU. 2017. Data-Driven Resilience Programming with Communities: Women's Empowerment And Food Security.

Figure 15: Adoption of Coping Strategies by Percentage



The figure below summarizes the drought's effect on livelihoods, the main coping strategies and the overall human impact.

Figure 16: Livelihoods: Typology of the Cascading Effects and Human Impact of Drought⁶⁰

Drought Effects	Coping Strategies	Human Impact
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss of crop and livestock production • Reduced availability of food especially cereals • Livestock morbidity and mortality • \$875 million in lost income for pastoralists & agropastoralists • 19,555 small businesses affected • Food prices higher than five year average for 2012-16 • Consumption gaps 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sale of livestock and other productive assets • Search for casual labor • Receipt of higher remittances • Rural to urban migration • Population displacement • Child labor • Increased borrowing / credit • Reduced food consumption • Reduced dietary diversity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deprivation of people's livelihoods • Deprivation of food • Depletion of people's resource base and assets • Increased indebtedness <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 6.2 million people face food insecurity • 1.2 million children are or will be acutely malnourished in the next year • Impoverishment and destitution

⁶⁰ FSNAU and FEWS NET. 2017. Food Security Outlook: June 2017 to January 2018; Inter Agency Working Group on Disaster Preparedness for East and Central Africa (IAWG). 2016. Lesson Learned? An Urgent Call for Action In Response to the Drought Crisis in the Horn of Africa; Maxwell D., et al. 2016. Facing Famine: Somali Experiences in the Famine of 2011. Food Policy 65.

Food Security: Food Access and Malnutrition

The tight supply of cereals and rise in the cost of the food basket has severely constrained people's access to food, producing acute and widespread food insecurity and a deterioration of the nutrition situation in Somalia. As a result, most rural livelihood zones in Somalia are classified as in Crisis (IPC Phase 3) or Emergency (IPC Phase 4). Even prior to the drought, the nutritional status of Somali children was among the worst in the world, with under-nutrition thought to be the underlying cause in over a third of under-five child deaths. Subsequently, a significant increase in both SAM and GAM cases has been detected during the drought.

Gender

The drought has had a disproportionate impact on the livelihoods, safety and wellbeing of women and girls in Somalia. The Somali customary system is based on a clear gender division of labor, and Somali women have unequal access to resources, opportunities, power and decision-making.⁶¹ Therefore, droughts and other shocks have a differential impact on women and men, reflecting their particular roles and responsibilities at home and in the economy, and coping strategies differ between genders. Such differences are summarized below, and need to be taken into account in the recovery process to ensure that the needs of women and girls are addressed.

Livelihoods: There is a division of labor between women and men in Somalia that influences the impact of the drought on their respective roles. In pastoralist and agropastoralist communities, men are responsible for large livestock such as camels and cattle, while women are responsible for raising small livestock such as goats and sheep, and for milk production. Women are involved in the informal sector, especially micro-enterprises, small trade and markets,⁶² while men are generally more involved in farm labor and formal employment. Also, Somali women have unequal access to agriculture, livestock and fisheries production inputs and technology.

Migration and Female-headed households: The extended absence of males due to drought and abnormal migration has resulted in a significant rise in the number of female-headed households, as well as households in which women become the primary breadwinners for the family.

Domestic and productive work: The lack of water and firewood and the absence of men due to drought migration have increased women's work in the household and their role in obtaining resources to support the home. Women and girls travel increased distances in search of water, in addition to their domestic work-related responsibilities.

Protection: Gender-based violence such as intimate partner violence, sexual and physical assault has increased with the drought, especially among the internally displaced population. The GBVIMS reported a 9 percent increase in incidence from January-June 2017.

Reproductive health: Somalia's maternal mortality ratio is among the highest in the world, and the drought increases the risk for pregnant and lactating women. It is estimated that over 130,000 pregnant women need critical health assistance.⁶³ Without access to reproductive health services, women face an increased risk of life-threatening complications.

Violence against women cuts across all social and economic strata and is deeply embedded in Somali culture. Although rape and sexual violence against women and girls is strongly linked to conflict and displacement in Somalia, parts of Somalia where there is relative peace also witness high levels of gender-based violence, creating long-term threats to security and to women's health.⁶⁴

⁶¹ UNDP. 2012. Human Development Report 2012.

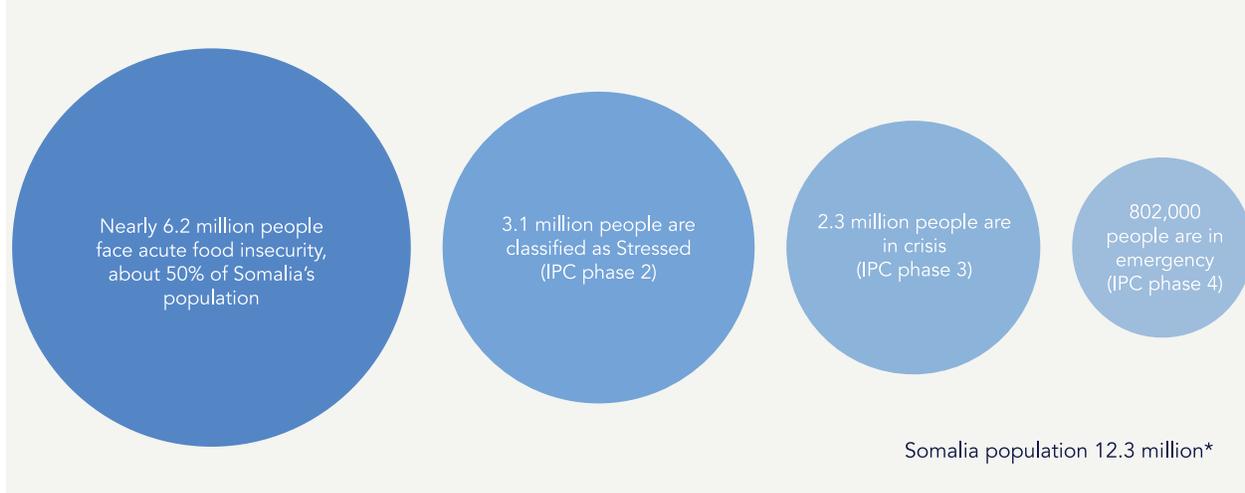
⁶² World Bank. 2017. Somali Poverty Profile 2016: Findings from Wave 1 of the Somali High Frequency Survey

⁶³ UNFPA. 2017. Situation Report #006: April 24, 2017; UNFPA. 2017. Situation Report #013: September 2017.

⁶⁴ UNDP. 2012. Human Development Report 2012.

Profile of Populations Affected, Vulnerable Groups and Social Protection

Figure 17: Profile of Populations Affected



*Source: Federal Government of Somalia. Somalia NDP (2017-19)

Vulnerable geographic areas

In its latest outlook report through January 2018, the FSNAU classifies the livelihood zones that are areas of concern, as indicated in Table 2. Populations in Crisis and Emergency (IPC Phases 3 and 4) are considered priorities for food security and livelihoods support programming.

Populations in Emergency (IPC 4) deserve special attention given the risk of increased mortality. These are Guban Pastoral, Hawd of northwest, Northern Inland Pastoral of northwest, East Golis of northwest, Addun of central, Southern Agropastoral of Hiraan and displaced populations in Dhusamareeb (Galgadud), Mogadishu (Benadir), Baidoa (Bay) and Dollo (Hiran) regions.



Table 2: Areas of Concern Through January 2018 by Food Security Phase⁶⁵

Livelihood Group	Areas of concern through January 2018 by food security phase
IDPs	IDPs in Mogadishu, Baidoa, Dhusamareb and Dollow are classified as Emergency (IPC Phase 4)
	Most of the remaining IDP settlements are in crisis (IPC Phase 3)
Urban Centers	Urban populations in Togdheer, Sool, Mudug, Galgaduud, Hiraan, Marka (Lower Shabelle), Bandir (Mogadishu) Bay (Baydhaba and Qansadhere), Bakool (Wajid and Hudur), Gedo (Dollow, Ceel Waaq and Belet Xaawo), and Lower Juba (Kismayo).
Northern Region	Guban Pastoral, Hawd Pastoral of Northwest, Northern Inland Pastoral of Northwest and East Golis of Northwest are expected to be in Emergency (IPC Phase 4) through December.
	West Golis Pastoral (IPC 2) will improve to IPC 1 October Jan 2018 Northwest Agropastoral, West Golis Pastoral and Northern Inland Pastoral (NIP) of Northeast, and East Golis of Northeast are expected to be in Crisis (IPC Phase 3).
Central Region	Addun (IPC 4) and Cowpea-Belt Agropastoral zones
	Hawd Pastoral livelihood zone
Southern Region	Bay-Bakool Low Potential Agropastoral and Southern Agropastoral of Hiran will remain in Emergency (IPC 4)
	Southern Inland Pastoral livelihood zone of Bakool, Southern Agropastoral livelihood zone of Gedo, Middle and Lower Juba and Juba Cattle Pastoral livelihood zone of Middle and Lower Juba and Southern Rainfed Maize Agropastoral

Populations in Emergency (IPC 4) deserve special attention given the risk of increased mortality. These are Guban Pastoral, Hawd of northwest, Northern Inland Pastoral of northwest, East Golis of northwest, Addun of central, Southern Agropastoral of Hiran and displaced populations in Dhusamareb (Glagadud), Mogadishu (Benadir), Baidoa (Bay) and Dollo (Hiran) regions.

Most of the settlements of IDP populations are classified as in Crisis (IPC Phase 3) or Emergency (IPC Phase 4) due to their poor living conditions, limited livelihood and coping options. Poor households in major urban areas are in Crisis (IPC Phase 3) as a result of high food prices and increased competition from the influx of displaced populations. Population groups classified as in Crisis and Emergency (IPC Phases 3 & 4) require interventions aimed at reducing food consumption gaps, reducing acute malnutrition, saving lives and protecting and saving livelihoods.

Vulnerable population groups

In addition to the populations classified as in Crisis and Emergency (IPC Phases 3 & 4), including IDPs, there are specific population groups that are particularly vulnerable and need to be prioritized in the recovery efforts. As shown in the table below, they include poor households, marginalized groups including disadvantaged minorities and clans/lineages, and extremely vulnerable social classes such as women, female-headed households and children. These groups face particularly high risks, including exclusion and discrimination based on power structures, tradition and social norms in Somalia. Inclusion of these groups in the recovery process is essential, including protection and safety nets that need to target them for priority recovery assistance.

⁶⁵ FSNAU/FEWS NET. 2017. Somalia Food Security Outlook: June 2017 to January 2018

Table 3: Vulnerable Population Groups	
Poor households	Poor households are particularly at risk, given the many deprivations they face: low labor force participation, high unemployment, lower income, low resource base and assets, lower access to water and sanitation and health care, and higher levels of food insecurity and malnutrition.
Disadvantaged ethnic minorities and clans/lineages	The Somali clan system is an important feature of social, political and economic life. The clan structure is divided into four major groups: the Hawiye, Darood and Dir/Isaaq, which are overwhelmingly nomadic pastoralist clans; and the Digil and Miri e, also known as the Rahanweyn, which practice agropastoralism in the southern part of Somalia. Several smaller ethnic communities, including the Bantus and groups estranged based on traditional occupations, are disadvantaged groups. They face the greatest inequalities and exclusion, they do not get any clan protection, and they are often victims of sexual abuse and gang attacks. ⁶⁶
Women and FHH	The drought has had a differential impact on women and men, reflecting their particular roles and responsibilities at home and in the economy, so coping strategies differ between genders. In addition Somali women face a range of distinct barriers as a result of the acute gender inequalities in Somalia. Female-headed households have increased with the drought as a result of the extended absence of males due to drought and abnormal migration. The maternal mortality ratio is extraordinarily high, with 1 in every 12 women dying due to pregnancy-related causes. ⁶⁷ Over 130,000 pregnant women need critical health assistance.
Children	4 million children face food insecurity (among the 6.2 million). Of these, 1.2 million children under 5 are, or could be, acutely malnourished in the next year, including over 232,000 who have or will suffer life-threatening severe acute malnutrition (SAM). School drop out rates extending from displacement are pronounced and have the potential for long-term development impacts. Children with GAM > 15 % or MUAC < 12.5 CMs in > 10.7 % are in dire need of urgent assistance, especially in the following locations: Northern Inland Pastoral of northeast and northwest regions , Guban pastoral of northwest regions, Hawd Pastoral and Addun pastoral of central regions, Coastal Deeh pastoral of northeast , North Gedo Pastoral and North Gedo Riverine, Shabele Agropastoral, Bakool pastoral and IDP settlements in Garowe, Bosaaso, Galkacyo, Qardho, Dhusamareb, Mogadishu, Baidoa, Dolow, Kismayo, Hargeisa and Berbera.

Source: From FSNAU outlook to Jan 2018

⁶⁶ UNDP. 2012. Human Development Report 2012.
⁶⁷ UNICEF. 2016. Situation Analysis of Children in Somalia 2016.

Poverty and Human Development

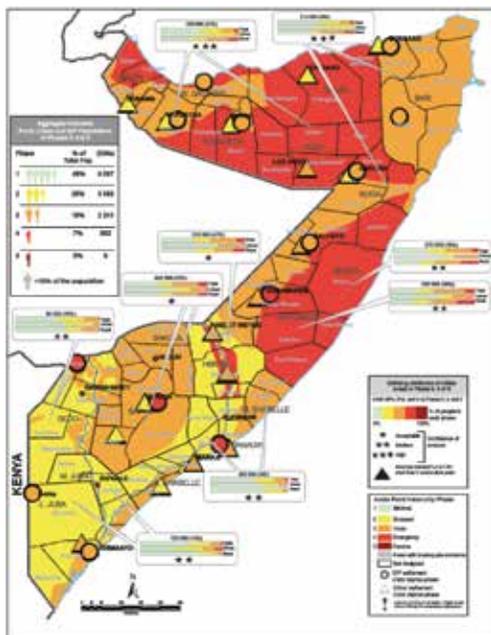
Data on poverty in Somalia is largely out of date. Nonetheless the key data available is presented here and summarized in the figure below.⁶⁸

The poverty line and multidimensional poverty in Somalia

According to the 2002 Socio-economic survey, 43 percent of the total population was living in extreme poverty (defined as USD 1 per day in PPP), and 73 percent was living on less than USD 2 per day. The percentage of people living on less than a dollar a day was 24 percent in urban areas and percent in rural and nomadic areas.

The World Bank's 2016 survey found that every second Somali lives in poverty, and almost 1 in 3 faces conditions of extreme poverty. Poverty, defined as having a total consumption expenditure lower than the international poverty line of USD 1.90 at 2011 PPP, varies across regions, with the North East at 27 percent, the North West with 50 percent, urban areas with 45 percent, and rural areas with 52 percent. The poverty incidence is highest in IDP settlements, where seven out of ten people are poor.⁶⁹

Figure 18: Food Insecurity by IPC Phase (August to December 2017), Poverty and Human Development in Somalia



Puntland

- The MPI is 0.41
- 75% of the population is multidimensionally poor.

Somaliland

- The MPI is 0.38
- 72% of the population is multidimensionally poor.

South Central Somalia

- The MPI is 0.54
- 89% of the population is multidimensionally poor.

Somalia

- Human development index is 0.285 (165 out of 170 countries)
- The MPI is 0.47 (ranking it 94 out of 104 countries)
- 82% of the population is multidimensionally poor.
- Gender inequality index is 0.776 (out of a value of 1), the fourth lowest position globally.

⁶⁸ There are two main references used: 1) The 2002 Socio Economic Survey carried out with support from UNDP and the World Bank which provides the most recently available and nationally representative poverty data on Somalia; and 2) The Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) on Multidimensional poverty in Somalia, which is based on UNICEF's 2006 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey and referenced in the 2012 Human Development Report. However, the data from these is indicative only, and not considered to be representative of current poverty levels in Somalia given the time lapse and the changes that have taken place since the surveys. A third reference is the World Bank's High Frequency Survey conducted in early 2016, which is more recent and is representative of 4.9 million Somalis, but does not cover nomadic people and Somalis living in inaccessible areas.

⁶⁹ World Bank. 2017. Somali Poverty Profile 2016: Findings from Wave 1 of the Somali High Frequency Survey

Based on the DINA's findings, it is estimated that pastoralists and agropastoralists have lost about USD 870 million in their livelihoods and income. In addition, about 19,555 small businesses involved in livestock value chains, such as transporters, petty traders and milk traders, have been affected. It is estimated that these businesses have lost USD 43 million in revenue and about USD 22 million in income. As a result, the population living below the poverty line will likely increase and income per capita will fall further below the current levels estimated at USD 450.⁷⁰

In contrast to the headcount measure of poverty, the MPI identifies multiple deprivations at the household level across three dimensions (standard of living, education and health) using a total of 10 indicators (access to water, sanitation, housing, school attainment, school attendance, child mortality, nutrition/malnutrition, etc.). The Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) identifies those with multiple deprivations as the poorest of the poor.

Somalia's MPI is 0.47 out of 1, which placed it at 94 out of 104 countries in 2010. The MPI estimated that 82 percent of Somalis were in multidimensional poverty, ranging from 61 percent in urban areas to 94 percent in rural areas.⁷¹ Given the large deprivations caused by the drought in Somalia, it is likely that multidimensional poverty has increased significantly in the country, especially in the most affected regions. Displaced populations, estimated at over 1 million, now face multiple deprivations and have joined the ranks of the poorest among the poor.

The gender inequality index

Gender inequality is alarmingly high at 0.776 out of a value of 1 (complete inequality), with Somalia at the fourth lowest position globally on the Gender Inequality Index.⁷² Women suffer severe exclusion and inequality in all dimensions of the index—health, employment and labor market participation. Somali girls experience early and forced marriage at a young age, and violence against girls and women is widespread. Traditional laws, used in lieu of a state judiciary, are highly discriminatory against women.⁷³

Given the drought's impact on women, there is a risk that they will fall into further exclusion and inequality. As noted, Somali women face a range of distinct barriers as a result of acute gender inequalities, and female-headed households have increased with the drought as a result of the extended absence of males due to drought and abnormal migration. In addition, their livelihoods have also been lost, and violence against women has intensified.

The human development index

The Human Development Index (HDI) combines indicators of health, education and income. Somalia's HDI value is strikingly low at 0.285, ranking it among the lowest in the world, at 165 out of the 170 countries in 2010. Lack of data limits the estimation of regionally and socioeconomically disaggregated HDI values.

Human development indicators are sobering. Low life expectancy in Somalia is linked to high rates of infant mortality, one of the highest rates of maternal mortality in the world, which is exacerbated by the widespread practice of FGM, and the spread of preventable diseases such as tuberculosis, malaria and measles. High levels of mortality and low life expectancy stem from inadequate curative and preventative health services, the collapse of sanitation and water systems, erratic food security and pockets of chronic malnutrition, all of which increase susceptibility to fatal diseases. The last Human Development Report (2012) warned of the possibility of a worsening trend in human development in Somalia due to the 2011 famine. The current drought will further increase this possibility.

Final Observations

Somalia is a country in protracted crisis as a result of conflict and recurrent droughts and floods over several decades. This has provoked the destruction of much of its basic service infrastructure, insecurity, large population movements, the collapse of state institutions, a lack of employment and livelihood opportunities, and deep and widespread poverty. The country faced two famines that killed an estimated 300,000 people in

⁷⁰ UNOCHA and HCT. 2016. Humanitarian Response Plan for Somalia: 2017.

⁷¹ UNDP. 2012. Human Development Report 2012.

⁷² Ibid.

⁷³ Ibid.



1991-92 and 250,000 in 2010-11. The current drought will further exacerbate the already extremely high levels of vulnerability and impoverishment in Somalia, and its Human Development Index will remain low or slip further below its current levels.

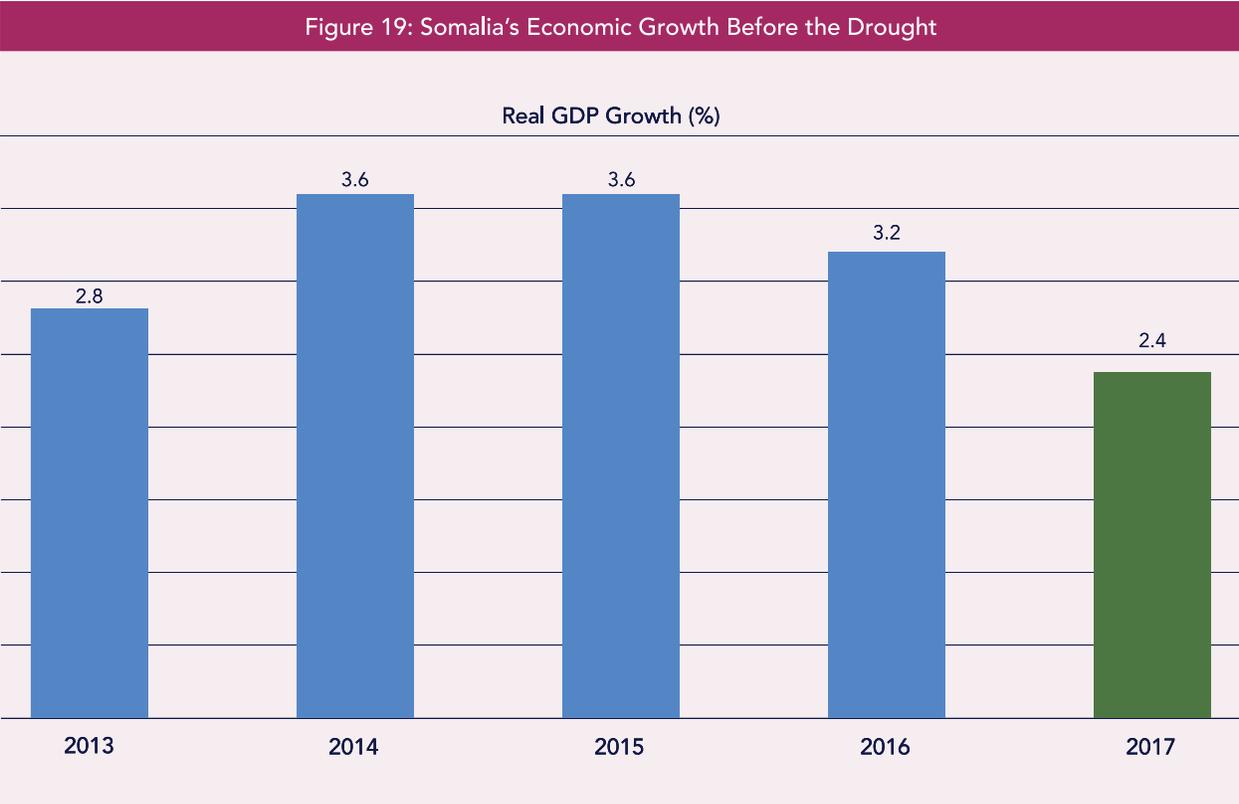
The chapter does not recommend specific recovery needs for sectors discussed above, as they are included in the respective sector chapters of the DINA report. This chapter highlights the cumulative impact of drought on different aspects of human development and presents core recommendations as follows:

- It is imperative that the recovery process from the current drought prioritizes the most vulnerable population groups identified in the DINA and summarized in this chapter, namely the poor, disadvantaged ethnic minorities, women and female-headed households, and children.
- It is important to adhere to a 'do no harm' policy to ensure equal access to drought recovery resources and services and to minimize the potential for further inequalities and conflict that is often associated with the lack of access to vital natural resources such as food and water.
- It will also be critical to deliver recovery initiatives that build resilience among the affected populations to ensure that their livelihoods are less vulnerable to future droughts, following the key recommendations made across all sectors in the DINA.
- The drought recovery strategy should be coherent with and build on Somalia's National Development Plan (2017-2019), which aims to achieve poverty alleviation, economic revival and societal transformation in a socially just and gender equitable manner, as well as its National Adaptation Program of Action (NAPA), which identifies urgent and immediate climate change adaptation needs of the most vulnerable groups and proposes concrete adaptation measures across all key sectors.

Macroeconomic Impact

The impact of the drought on the Somali economy has been primarily channeled through losses in crop production and livestock and livestock-related products, estimated at USD 1.7 billion between November 2016 and June 2017. Livestock and livestock-related losses and crop production failures were widespread across the country, affecting 17 out of the 18 regions of Somalia.⁷⁴ The drought also led to significant price increases for key staples, affecting consumer purchasing power.

Somalia’s economy was on the path to recovery before the drought. The economy has been growing at 5 percent per annum in nominal terms (3.6 percent in real terms), mainly driven by agriculture and services (Figure 19). The agricultural sector, mainly livestock, remains the largest sector in Somalia’s economy, the largest employer in rural areas with nomadic cultures and the largest export earner. In the services sector, remittances, money transfer companies and telecommunications lead the growth.



Source: IMF and FGS authorities

⁷⁴ DINA estimates



The country's economic growth in 2017 is expected to decelerate due to the drought, with a similar outcome expected in 2018 if rains continue their below-average trend. The recovery in crop production and the rebuilding of the herd size could begin in 2019 through the normalization of rainfall levels, continued governments efforts to rebuild the country, and increased inflows of remittances and foreign aid. Somalia's recovery from drought will take time and will be influenced by several factors: (i) the absorptive capacity of the NGOs who are leading the humanitarian assistance and the economy;

(ii) the security situation, particularly in rural areas; (iii) the ability of the FGS and FMS to coordinate rehabilitation efforts for drought programs; and (iv) the normalization in rainfall levels. Implementation of a people-centered recovery strategy, along with a resilience-building strategy with all key stakeholders against shocks, remains essential. Similarly, a robust level of results-oriented humanitarian and development assistance will be critical.

Pre-drought Context and Baseline for the Sector

Pre-Drought Sector Context & Analysis

With a per capita gross domestic product (GDP) of USD 450 in 2016 and a poverty headcount rate of 51.6 percent,⁷⁵ Somalia is among the poorest nations in the world. Poverty is widespread, and large proportions of the population remain vulnerable to poverty and food insecurity; over six million people live in rural areas where food insecurity is high. Social-economic outcomes are poor. The Somali poor have worse access to services, poorer educational outcomes, and are less successful in the labor market. Lack of access to an improved source of water is the most common deprivation among rural households, with more than 9 in 10 rural households deprived in this dimension.⁷⁶ Lack of access to an improved source of water and to education affect 41 and 36 percent of Somali households, respectively.⁷⁷ Somalia's economy was largely undiversified, with the agricultural sector constituting the mainstay of the economy. The agricultural sector, dominated by livestock sub-sector, accounted for roughly 65 percent of GDP and 85 percent of total employment. The sector remains highly vulnerable to variability in rainfall levels due to the heavy reliance on rain-fed agriculture, which disproportionately affects the rural economy through crop production failures and livestock losses—and the resulting price shocks, as well as high levels of underemployment, particularly during the dry season.

The development of the manufacturing sector remains a drag on the economy due to the adverse business environment. The development of the manufacturing sector was limited by the harsh business environment, high electricity and transport costs—due to limited road connectivity, low road maintenance, roadblocks by militia and cartels which prevent competition in the trucking sector. This, combined with the lack of productive knowledge embedded in the economy, resulted in a high transaction cost of doing business in Somalia.

While inflationary pressures on the economy remained contained, the unemployment and poverty rates remained extremely elevated, particularly in rural areas. The end-of-year Consumer Price Index (CPI) advanced at an average pace of 2.4 percent over the 2013-2015 period due to the dollarized economy and the sharp decline in oil prices. It is important to note, however, that there was significant spatial price variation related to the poor connectivity of roads, which hampered the trade of goods across regions.

Unemployment and poverty levels remain high. With economic growth being insufficient to absorb the youth population entering the labor force, the unemployment rate among the working age population⁷⁸ rose from 47 percent in 2002 to 54 percent in 2013,⁷⁹ with the unemployment rate among the youth population⁸⁰ standing at 48 percent.⁸¹ Approximately 73 percent of the population lived on less than USD 2 per day, with the poverty incidence in rural areas standing at 80 percent against 61 percent in urban areas in 2013.⁸² ⁸³ Poverty in Somalia is linked with lower access to services, poorer educational outcomes, and weaker labor market outcomes. For example, 9 in 10 rural households are deprived from access to an improved source of water.

The Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) is highly constrained in its ability to deliver public services and initiate public investments due to its limited capacity to raise revenues and access grants and loans. Domestic revenue averaged 2.3 percent of GDP in 2013-2015, mainly driven by trade taxes averaging over 70 percent during this period. Public expenditure averaged 3.5 percent of GDP in 2013-2015, entirely limited to wages and salaries and use of goods and services. Spending depends heavily on multilateral and bilateral donor inflows, which are often late or do not materialize, creating uncertainty in budget implementation.

The large current account and trade deficits are a source of external vulnerability. During 2013-2015, exports and imports averaged 18.7 percent of GDP and 70.4 percent of GDP, respectively, leading to an average external trade deficit of 51.7 percent of GDP.⁸⁴ About 80 percent

⁷⁵ World Bank. 2013. Integrated Household Survey (IHS)

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

⁷⁸ Population between the ages of 15 and 64.

⁷⁹ UNDP, World Bank. 2002. Socio-Economic Survey 2002; World Bank. 2013. Integrated Household Survey (IHS)

⁸⁰ Population between the ages of 14 and 29.

⁸¹ Somali Labor Force Survey 2014

⁸² World Bank. 2013. Integrated Household Survey (IHS).

⁸³ Somaliland specific estimates put the poverty incidence in urban and rural areas at 29 percent and 38 percent, respectively.

⁸⁴ Based on IMF data 2017.



of Somalia's exports consisted of livestock products, with export earnings of livestock products standing at USD 384 million in 2015. Somalia's imports largely consisted of consumption goods. The large external trade imbalance was primarily financed by large inflows of remittances and foreign aid,⁸⁶ with each support mechanism averaging USD 1.4 billion over 2013-2015.

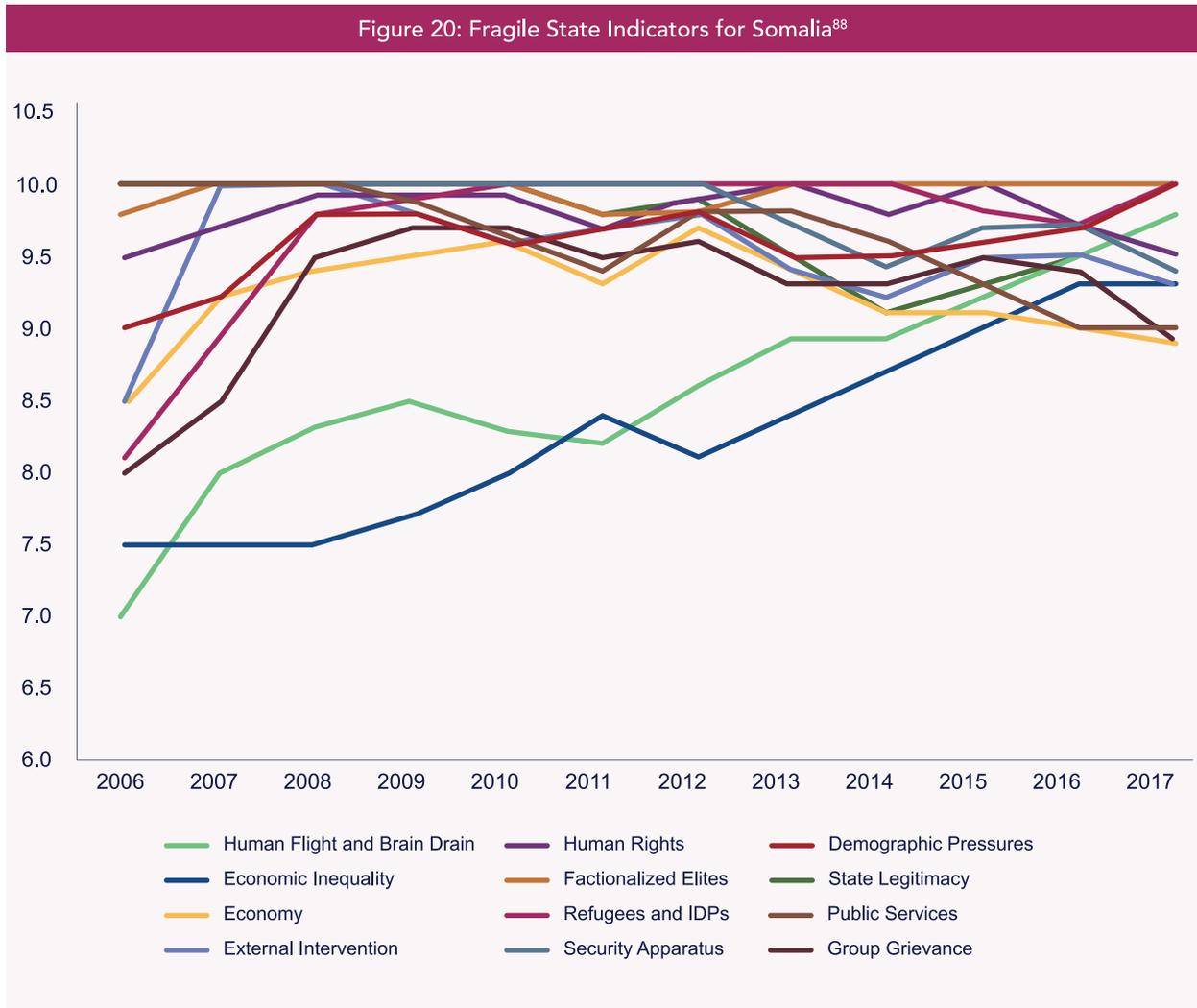
The economy continues to be highly dollarized, limiting the scope for monetary policy. The lack of capacity of the Central Bank of Somalia (CBS) to perform its supervisory function is a key challenge for financial sector governance. Somalia has no formal financial

system; money transfer companies and domestic mobile payment systems dominate the financial system. Total assets held at the CBS averaged USD 87.1 million over 2013-2015.

Somalia has been unable to meet its debt obligations since the late 1980s. External debt is estimated at about USD 5.1 billion or 81 percent of GDP, most of which is in arrears. The country remains ineligible for financial assistance from International Finance Institutions, pending the clearance of its outstanding obligations, hence a standing barrier to much-needed development finance.

⁸⁶ Official foreign aid comprised of humanitarian aid, development aid, support to peacekeeping and budget support.

Insecurity continues to pose significant risk to economic activity and greatly exacerbates the effects of drought. Insecurity due to the threat of al-Shabaab still lingers in Mogadishu and northern regions of Puntland and Galmudug. As such, economic activity being recorded reflects the resilience of the Somalia economy amidst fragility. Somalia has in fact been rated the second most fragile state in the world in 2017 shown by the Fragile State Index and posting a deteriorating performance on almost all of the indicators relative to 2006⁸⁷ (Figure 20).



⁸⁷ Somalia's ranking in the Fragile State Index has fluctuated between the most fragile country and the second most fragile country in the world.

⁸⁸ Increase in the index associated to a deterioration; Source: Fragile State Index.

Table of Key Baseline Data for the Sector

The table below presents the key baseline macroeconomic data for Somalia.⁸⁹

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017*
Nominal GDP (USD)	5,723	5,950	6,111	6,336	6522
Real Growth (%)	2.8	3.6	3.6	3.2	2.4
GDP Per capita (USD)	429	436	436	442	443
Total Revenue (% of GDP)	2.1	2.5	2.3	2.7	3.9
Grants (% of GDP)	0.7	1.0	0.4	0.9	1.7
Total Expenditure (% of GDP)	2.1	2.5	2.2	2.7	3.9
Current Account (% of GDP)	-4.8	-6.3	-7.2	-10.1	-11.2
Trade Balance (% of GDP)	-47.9	-52.5	-54.6	-58.5	-63.6
Exports of Goods and Services	16.5	19.2	20.5	17.8	15.9
Import of Goods and Services (% of GDP)	64.4	71.7	75.1	76.4	79.5
Remittances (% of GDP)	22.7	22.9	23.3	24.7	26.7
Exchange Rate SOS/USD)	20,435	20,268	22,286	23,960	

Drought Impact

The Aggregate Economic Impact

The effect of drought on the macroeconomy will be felt into the medium term. The impact of the shock on Somalia's economic activity and, thus, on macroeconomic variables is and will be felt both directly and indirectly in the very short, short, and medium term. Regardless of humanitarian and other financial assistance to help Somalia cope with the drought, it will take the economy years to recover from the losses caused by drought. This crisis is also being exacerbated by the ongoing conflict in the country and weak institutional and governance arrangements in Somalia.

Real GDP growth in 2017 will decelerate due to drought, but it is expected to revert to the post-2011 trend in 2018–19.⁹⁰ The drought has severely reduced agricultural production, the main driver of Somalia's economy. The impact of the drought on the agriculture and livestock sectors can be considered as two-fold: (i) losses in terms of crop production failures, and livestock and livestock-related products; and (ii) damages caused to crops and from deceased livestock. Losses in terms of crop production failures, and livestock and livestock-related products have been estimated at USD 1.7 billion. Damages caused to crops and from deceased livestock have been estimated at USD 350.7 million. Livestock losses and crop production failures were widespread across the country, affecting 17 out of the 18 regions of Somalia.

⁸⁹ Based on IMF data (data for 2017 is provisional).

⁹⁰ DINA estimate

Furthermore, the drought resulted in depressed prices of livestock and livestock products as agropastoralists and pastoralists tried to salvage the value of their herd. Declining livestock prices during the drought have caused the rapid increase in off-take as herders try to salvage the value of their herd and as they face rising prices for fodder. This, combined with the lack of transport and storage facilities for livestock, resulted in large increases of livestock supplied to the market, driving prices down. Moreover, pastoralists have been forced to sell their productive stock, composed of young and breeding females, in line with the erosion of the purchasing power of herders. Sheep and goat prices have, however, returned to their pre-drought level—largely due to the lifting of the temporary ban from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia—while camel and cattle prices are yet to recover to their pre-drought levels (Figures 21-24).

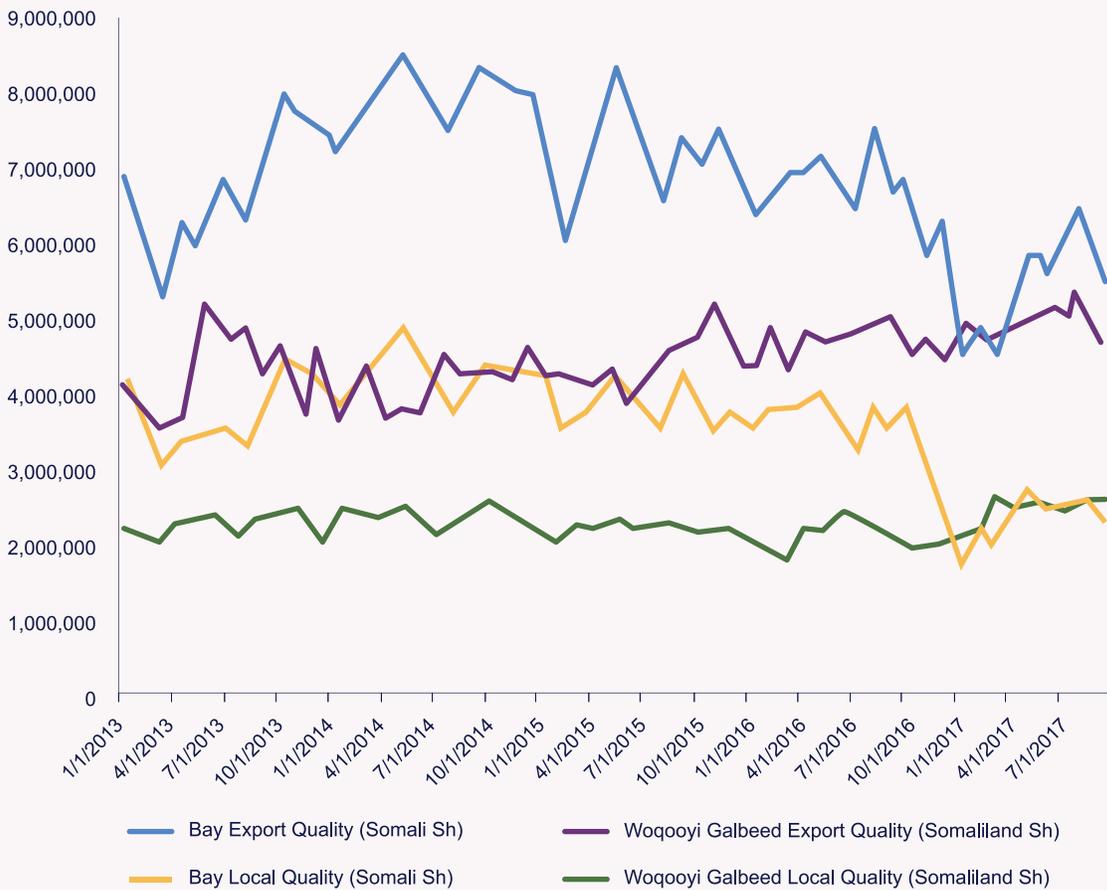
Figure 21: Price of Camel Local Quality (Somali and Somaliland Shillings)⁹¹



⁹¹ FSNAU database 2017.

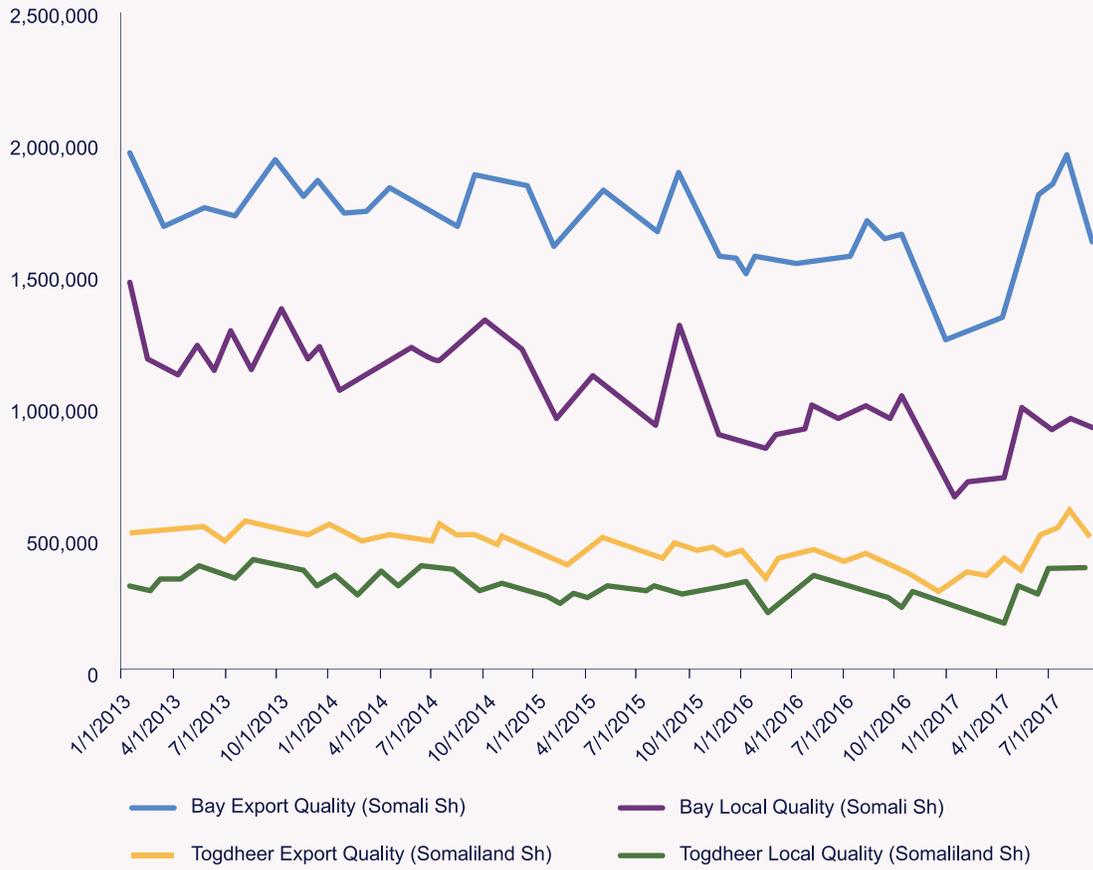


Figure 22: Price of Cattle of Export and Local Quality (Somali and Somaliland Shilling)⁹²



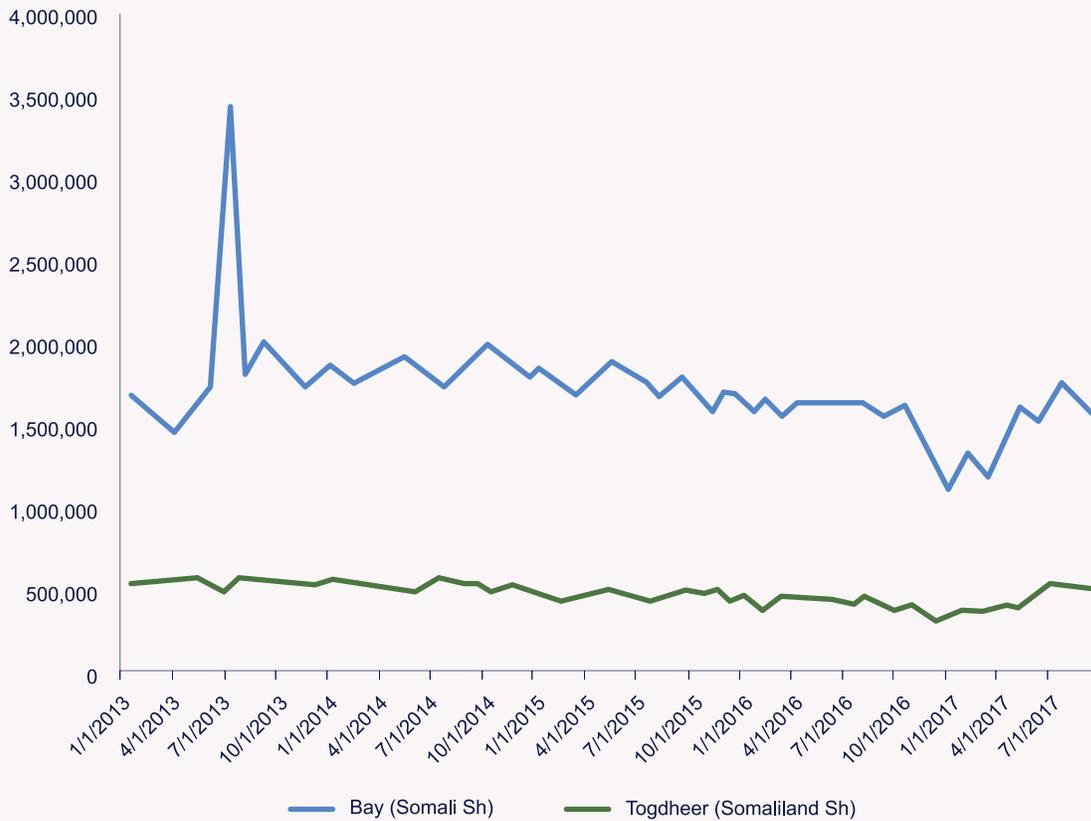
⁹² Ibid.

Figure 23: Price of Sheep of Export Quality (Somali and Somaliland Shillings)⁹³



⁹³ Ibid.

Figure 24: Price of Goat of Export and Local Quality (Somali and Somalia Shillings)⁹⁴

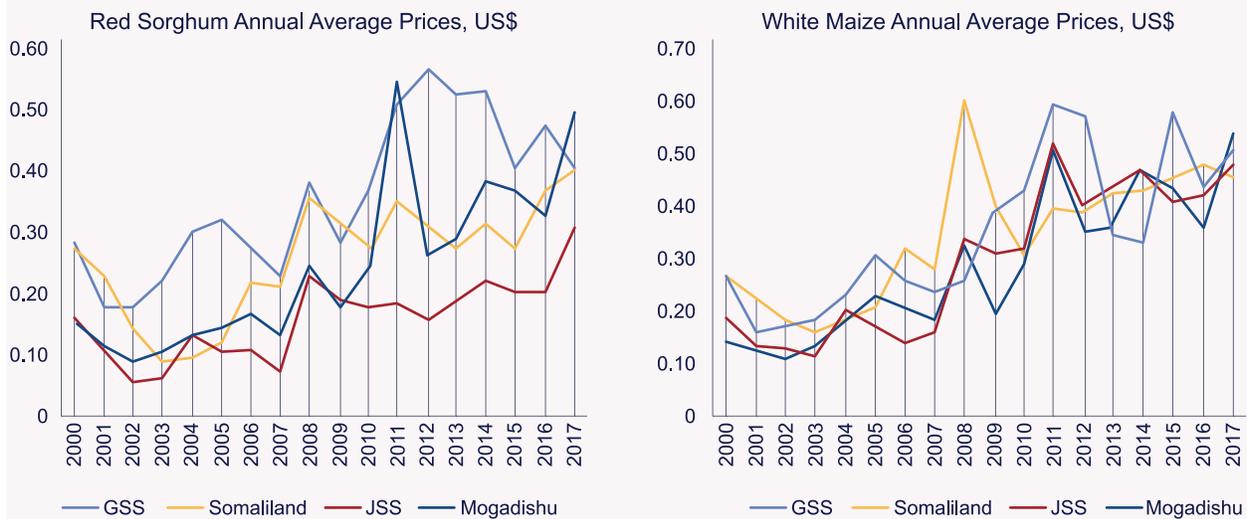


Prices of crops significantly increased during the drought period. The price movement of cereals over a period of drought is shown in Figure 7. The extent to which grain prices rise during drought obviously depends on the size of drought-induced crop losses and how far these can be made good by imports of grain from elsewhere. The speed with which farm production returns to normal levels after the drought is determined by the level of loss in productive capacity—seeds, outflow of labor, damage to soils, etc.— which can only be reconstituted over a period of years. In general, however, crop production will return to normal more rapidly than does output from the livestock sector due to the slow rates of reproduction and herd reconstitution in the latter case.

⁹⁴ Ibid.



Figure 25: Price of Crops Increased Significantly in all Regions⁹⁵



Wages recovered to their pre-drought level in late 2017. While wages in Somalia declined by 6.9 percent between November 2016 and June 2017 relative to the same reference period in 2016, the average daily labor rate in August 2017 was comparable to the one recorded in August 2016. Meanwhile, Somaliland’s average daily labor rate was not adversely affected by the drought, having risen by 3.3 percent between November 2016 and June 2017 relative to the same reference period in 2016 (Figure 26).

⁹⁵ FSNAU database, 2017.

Figure 26: Average Daily Labor Rate (USD)⁹⁶

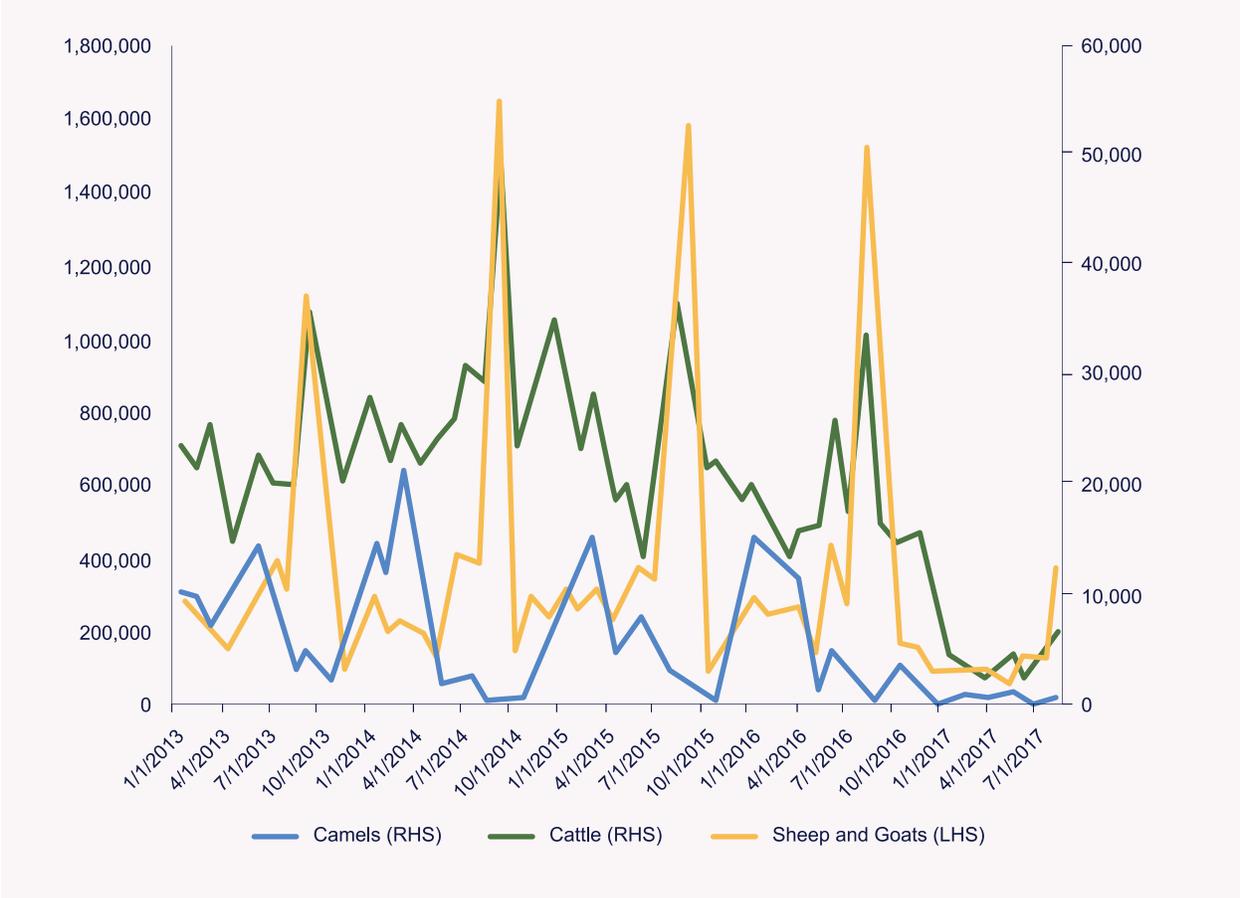


Somalia’s exports of livestock have been severely affected by the drought and the ensuing temporary import ban by the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) on suspicion of livestock being infected by the Rift Valley fever.⁹⁷ The decline in the value of exports has been partially offset by the decrease in the value of imports related to the deterioration in the purchasing power of Somalia. Figure 27a presents Somalia’s volume of exports of camels, cattle, sheep and goats through August 2017. With livestock accounting for roughly 80 percent of total exports, the drought and the temporary import ban from the KSA could remain a major threat to the economic recovery. Furthermore, with less livestock to export, hard currency has declined, reducing available resources for the imports that drive customs receipts.

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ KSA banned Somalia’s livestock in 2000 following the outbreak of the Rift Valley Fever in the Horn of Africa region, but lifted the ban in early 2015.

Figure 27a: Somalia's Exports (2013-2017)⁹⁸



Imports to Somalia increased significantly in 2017 to meet the basic dietary requirements of the population affected by the drought. Somalia has historically relied on significant food imports given the minimal production taking place outside of agriculture. The drought, combined with the presence of armed conflict, resulted in Somalia's imports increasing from USD 2,710 million in 2015 to USD 3,194 million in 2017, representing a 18 percent increase over this period, to cater to the basic food requirements of the population (Table 5). As a share of GDP, imports increased by five percentage points, from 44 percent of GDP in 2015 to 49 percent in 2017.

⁹⁸ FSNAU database 2017.

Figure 27b: Somalia's Imports (2013-2017)⁹⁹

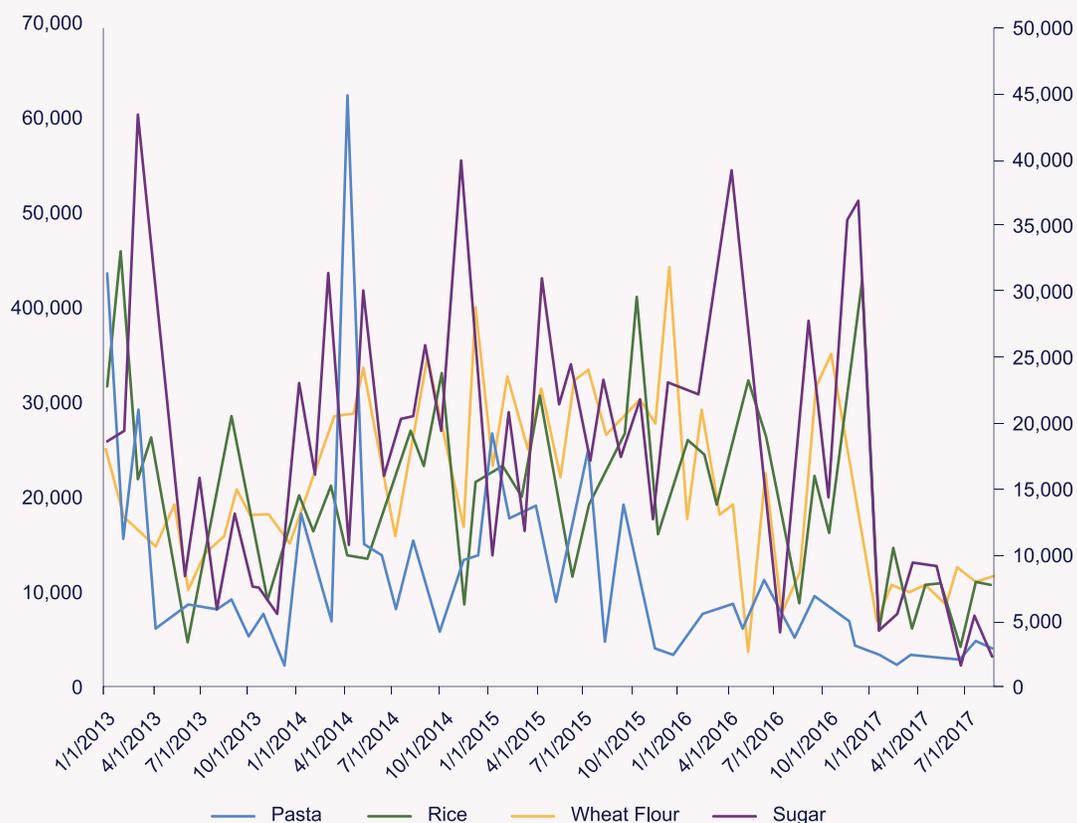


Table 5: Balance of Payments, 2013-19 (USD millions)¹⁰⁰

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Trade balance	-2,618	-2,959	-3,000	-3,201	-3,603
Goods balance	-1,728	-2,072	-2,026	-2,237	-2,544
Exports of goods, f.o.b.	640	608	683	647	650
Imports of goods, f.o.b.	-2,367	-2,680	-2,710	-2,884	-3,194
Service balance	-890	-887	-974	-964	-1,059
Service credits	303	337	355	373	384
Service debit	-1,193	-1,224	-1,328	-1,338	-1,443

⁹⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰⁰ Based on IMF data 2017.

The drought has worsened Somalia's external sector. The external trade balance worsened, induced by a fall in livestock exports. The combined direct negative effect of the higher food imports and the lower livestock exports in 2017 on the trade balance of the balance of payments is approximately USD 608 million over two years. This amount reflects only the influence of the drought on livestock exports. The trade balance deteriorated, rated from negative USD 3 billion (49 percent of GDP) to negative USD 3.6 billion (55 percent of GDP). Although the drought also had an impact crops, such as banana, sesame and grain sorghum, these products are for domestic consumption and do not contribute to the total value of goods exported, thus their effect on the current account of the balance of payments is at most minimal. The limited impact of drought on economic activity in Somalia reflects weak forward and backward linkages between the agricultural activities and the rest of the economy.

Impact on the fiscal sector

Somalia's fiscal base is too weak to absorb any shocks. The FGS has a budget of USD 260 million, equivalent to just 4.0 percent of GDP in 2017. Spending depends heavily on multilateral and bilateral donor inflows, which creates uncertainty in budget implementation as some funds do not materialize. Donor grants in the 2017 budget constitute 1.9 percent of GDP (47 percent of the 2017 budget). Domestic revenue (taxes plus fees) as a share of GDP remains very low, at just 2.1 percent of GDP, making it difficult to provide services. Domestic revenue is driven mainly by customs tax revenue. In addition, the basic norms of fiscal management remain weak. Unrealistic revenue projections and weak expenditure controls contribute to the accumulation of arrears. Weak revenue mobilization hinders the ability of the FGS to deliver services to citizens.

Somalia's public expenditure is low, constrained by weak revenue mobilization. In terms of the budget, most of the money goes into compensation of employees (49 percent), use of goods and services—mostly military rations (25 percent) and grants to FMS (7 percent), leaving limited fiscal space for public service delivery and investment. The administrative and security sectors account for more than 75 percent of total spending. Together, the economic and social services sectors account for only about 10 percent of total expenditure. More—and better allocated—spending will need to go to these sectors if service delivery is to improve.

Overall, there is very little fiscal impact emanating from drought. Since no taxation is levied on the livestock sector, the impact of drought on the economy is minimal. While there is increased demand for Government services for short-term relief, there is no fiscal space for Government to deliver on these demands hence reliance on humanitarian/development assistance.

Medium- to Long-term Macroeconomic Projections and Impact on Development Goals

Somalia's economic recovery is projected to continue in the 2018–20 period. Somalia's economy is expected to recover from the drought in 2019 through the recovery in crop production and the rebuilding of the herd size. The World Bank estimates that Somalia's economic growth will be stable, driven by aggregate demand fueled by remittances, lower oil prices, and improved security environment. Somalia's economy is expected to recover from the drought in 2018, with real GDP forecast to grow by 3.5 percent in 2018. There are indications and ad hoc evidence of a construction boom in Mogadishu and other major cities across Somalia. The high level of capital imports observed in the balance of payments accounts signals the expansion of the productive potential of the economy. As private consumption remains strong, with continued large FDI inflows, economic recovery will take hold, creating jobs and stability.

Weak public capital investment remains a critical binding constraint, however. The Government lacks the resources to undertake major programs or investment projects from its meager resources. Public investment will continue to rely heavily on official development assistance, which currently has a very low capital component.

Financing needs will increase significantly as peace takes hold. Import demand is projected to remain strong, thanks to continued robust growth and large—mainly officially funded—infrastructure investment needs. Continued flows of grants and access to concessional loans will be necessary to finance infrastructure development, a precondition for developing Somalia's export base.

Fragility has impeded any form of structural transformation in Somalia. Somalia's economy remains exposed to shocks because of its high export concentration and lingering insecurity, which makes the business environment difficult. To safeguard external stability in the medium term, policies targeting the diversification of the economy combined with improvement in nonprice competitiveness will be critical.

Reforms Needed to Spur Growth

Sustainable growth will require investments in physical and human capital and institutional strengthening. Significant investments to close the country's capital and infrastructure gap will be needed to increase economic growth in the medium term. Policies that target access, quality, and inclusiveness of education could increase the contribution of human capital to growth. Reforms in public financial management and governance would improve the efficiency of public and private investment. Improvements to the business environment—through stronger contract enforcement and more efficient and reliable electricity provision, for example—will be essential to raise productivity.

To support diversification, policies should address issues that hinder entry into new lines of economic activity. Weaknesses abound, in particular in terms of the provision of infrastructure, security, the regulatory and institutional environment, the accumulation of human capital, and the provision of finance. Evidence from cross-country comparisons and individual case studies suggests that policies targeting these areas can foster structural transformation and diversification.

Short- and medium-term policies to diversify Somalia's economy could stabilize the economy and enhance economic recovery. With livestock dominating exports, Somalia is highly exposed to exogenous shocks such as export bans as a result of a disease outbreak. To reduce the economy's exposure to shocks from this sector, strong livestock disease surveillance is needed. At the same time, policymakers need to formulate and implement a long-term economic diversification agenda.

Potential Scenarios if Policy and Programming Measures Are Not Taken

Notwithstanding the robust growth expected for Somalia over the forecast horizon, significant risks remain on both the domestic and external fronts.

Somalia needs to undertake measures to withstand current and future shocks. Unless policy reforms are undertaken, Somalia will remain dependent on large injections of foreign aid to address the needs of its population following weather-related shocks. An estimated 6.2 million individuals are currently in need of humanitarian assistance, including more than 800,000 people in Emergency (IPC phase 4),¹⁰¹ the phase which precedes famine. Pastoralists remain vulnerable to suffering from additional livestock losses, and recovery

from the current drought and re-establishment of productive assets will require several seasons of good rainfall.

The ongoing conflict in part of the country is delaying and dampening growth prospects. Although Somalia's economy remains stable, simmering conflict continues to pose an important downside risk to economic activity in the medium term. Al-Shabaab continues to be a threat to Somalia's national security; terrorist activity has scared away both domestic and foreign potential investors and tilted FGS priority spending toward security.

Financing is highly dependent on foreign remittances, development partner flows, and export revenue; declines in these sources would affect Somalia's growth prospects. Foreign remittances are the main driver of both consumption and investment. The fiscal budget and the activities of several NGOs depend on development partner inflows. Official development assistance faces significant pressures given the ongoing slowdown in Europe and refugee pressures. Somalia's exports are concentrated in a few commodities (mainly livestock) and exported to few countries (mainly in the Gulf). A disease outbreak or exports bans could wipe out export revenues.

Increased Risks and Vulnerabilities

If policy and programming measures are not taken by Somalia and the international donor community, Somalia will also be exposed to greater risk of conflict and fragility. Conflict remains at the heart of the crisis, not least as a driver of displacement, but also by limiting access and progress on development and provision of basic services to the population.

Cross-cutting Considerations

Some of the cross-cutting issues which are critical to lifting the economic potential of Somalia include most notably:

- **Private sector's role in the recovery.** The weak state environment has limited the ability to channel investment in public infrastructure, and this gap has been filled in many instances by private investment. The poor and vulnerable are, however, often excluded by the nature of private infrastructure provision. The private sector can be a valuable source of capital (i.e., risk capital and investment capital), as well as expertise and local knowledge, which are yet to be tapped into

¹⁰¹ FSNAU and FEWSNET. 2017. Special Brief – Focus on Post Gu 2017 Assessment Results: September 2017.

in the recovery and resilience-building phase. Private sector capital and expertise is expected to bring investments susceptible to generate greater economic opportunities for the population. Guarantee instruments, which formalize risk-sharing agreements and thereby reduce the risk to help attract investors, would be of particular importance within Somalia's context, characterized as it is by high risks and uncertainty.

- **Gender.** Social and prejudicial cultural practices in Somalia limit women's full economic participation within society. There is a strong correlation between women's labor force participation and poverty alleviation. Studies have shown that a greater portion of women's earnings is deployed for child healthcare and education. As such, access to finance, labor force participation and education opportunities are critical. The recovery and resilience building process will need to consider the barriers to women's full economic participation, not only in the value chains traditionally reserved for women and marginalized groups, but across all sectors of the economy. The sector will ensure the needs of vulnerable groups are properly addressed: female-headed households, widows, divorced, women and men with disabilities, older women and men and adolescent girls as well as neglected and excluded groups of minorities.
- **Social protection and safety nets.** While remittances constitute a safety net for a significant portion of the Somali population, middle- and higher-income households are the greatest beneficiaries of remittances. To recover and build resilience against future weather-related shocks, it would be essential for cash and in-kind support to be targeted to the households with the greatest needs who do not receive remittances.
- **Displacement and migration.** Displacement and migration leads to shifts in the supply and demand of goods and services, leading to temporary disruptions in markets and ultimately, in economic outcomes. Recurrent bouts of displacement and migration induce private sector entities to engage in low-investment projects with quick gains, rather than projects that would generate more opportunities for the Somali population.
- **Environment and natural resources.** Environmental and natural resources deterioration and depletion is undermining the sustainability of the economy. Somalia will need immediate and long-term programs with dedicated resources to ensure natural resources are protected and deterioration of environment is countered.

Recovery Needs and Strategy

Recovery Needs, Prioritization of Needs and Population Groups

The development of infrastructure networks in Somalia's rural areas is crucial to unleash the country's economic potential and contribute toward building resilience against future weather-related shocks. Significant investments are required in the infrastructure networks in rural areas to raise the productivity of producers, increase their international competitiveness and help them to connect to domestic and international markets. The needs in the energy sector, road infrastructure and information and communications technology (ICT) are as follows:

Road infrastructure. Satellite imagery identified about 104,000 km of roads and pathways, the majority of which are unpaved and in poor condition. The joint WB, UN, African Development Bank infrastructure assessment estimated various transport infrastructure needs at USD 1,863 million. The network is characterized by its high accessibility in urban areas but very limited connectivity in rural areas. Significant improvements in these areas will need not only laws and regulations but also a political settlement that will enable the state to credibly commit and implement. Somalia's geographical location and physical characteristics could enable it to partake in inter- and intra-regional trade along multiple trade corridors. Over the longer term, this could entail participating in trade flows connecting Europe, Asia, the Middle East and Africa, as well as serving as a gateway to East Africa. Reaping such benefits will require concomitant investments such as developing sub-regional transport connectivity, a task that will require coordination across multiple countries.

ICT. Today, half the country has mobile coverage, with a few 3G sites established and 4G sites underway. The price of services dropped 50 percent over the last decade, despite the dominance of one mobile operator (Telesom in Somaliland, Golis in Puntland and Hormuud elsewhere). Almost 90 percent of Somalis own a phone, almost a third use a smartphone and three quarters use mobile money. But the sector remains unregulated, vulnerable and untaxed.

In addition to the development of infrastructure networks in rural areas, financial and technical support to small producers in rural areas is required. Providing access to microfinance credit in rural areas would be an important step toward allowing small producers to access capital. Technical capacity building would also be required to raise the productivity of producers and ensure that products maximize the earning potential of producers.

Recovery Strategy for the Sector

Revenue-enhancing measures

To address the significant needs in infrastructure networks, revenue-enhancing measures will need to be initiated. While there has been progress in increasing revenue from sources other than customs duties since 2014¹⁰² – through, most notably, agreement of concessions for the collection of non-tax revenues,¹⁰³ the FGS has made comparatively little progress in collecting private sector income taxes and indirect domestic taxes. As such, revenue-enhancing measures will need to be taken by the FGS to generate revenue.

Involvement of the private sector in the development of infrastructure networks will remain crucial given the FGS's current inability to deliver public investments. The private sector will need to be highly involved in the development of infrastructure networks in the coming years. To incentivize private investments, an adequate Public Private Partnership (PPP) framework will need to be considered.

A greater portion of remittances will need to be channeled for investment purposes rather than consumption. While remittances have provided the majority of start-up capital for small businesses, most of the remittances remain consumed today—supporting the livelihoods of three million individuals—rather than being invested.¹⁰⁴ Given the significant financial constraints confronted by the Somali economy, it would be important to establish an investment fund with the resources from the Somali diaspora that could be directly channeled to microfinance institutions and the productive segment of the economy.¹⁰⁵

Supporting the business enabling environment

Reforms are needed to allow new entrants to operate in sectors of the economy being controlled by widely diversified enterprises (WIDEs).¹⁰⁶ While their bundling businesses across sectors to lower transaction costs, reduce asymmetric information in financial contracting, and diversify risk has enabled WIDEs to provide services across multiple sectors, including making capital

investments that otherwise would not be possible, WIDEs distort markets due to the monopolies that they hold in a range of sectors. Key reforms are needed to allow for new entrants to enter the market and restore competitive equilibrium.

Regulation of the financial sector is critical to many aspects of Somalia's efforts to recover from drought and increase resilience. Currently, the CBS is preparing a Financial Sector roadmap that outlines the necessary steps. A regulated financial sector will create more effective payment systems, which will help bring down the cost of cash transfer programs. Investments in building the financial sector will also create the opportunity for financial products that can benefit lower income and vulnerable households, including microcredit and microinsurance products. Finally, expanded financial inclusion and access to finance will enable greater economic inclusion and growth. Female-headed households and youth should be given special attention.

Investment policy and promotion will need to be undertaken. The FGS in partnership with the World Bank Trade and Competitiveness Global Practice has supported targeted capacity building on investment policy and promotion, formulation of the Foreign Investment Policy in 2015 and establishment of SomInvest, a one-stop shop intended to serve foreign investors. The aim is to attract and create the much-needed investment resources, technology and employment opportunities. Much more work will be needed in that regard in the medium to long term.

An export strategy will need to be developed to diversify export products and export markets. The absence of sufficient quality controls and certification, as well as poor resource management, were identified as key constraints to exports. The resilient recovery of Somalia's export market would aim to provide support to improve management of the fisheries sector to strengthen capacity to meet international export standards for livestock and support the expansion of potential export markets.

¹⁰² Domestic revenue rose by 36 percent in 2015, rising from USD 84.3 million in 2014 to USD 114.3 million in 2015, to USD 139 million in 2016, driven mainly by tax revenue, which contributed more than 70 percent of total revenue in 2012–16,

¹⁰³ The two largest of these concessions relate to the management of Mogadishu Port and Mogadishu Airport, but FGS has also entered into concessions for the collection of road tax, vehicle licenses and property transfer tax.

¹⁰⁴ L. Hammond. Family Ties: Remittances and Support in Puntland and Somaliland. FAO, 2013. Available at <http://www.rsc.ox.ac.uk/news/family-ties-remittances-and-support-in-puntland-and-somaliland-laura-hammond>

¹⁰⁵ Current activities, which include measures to improve the formalization, transparency and compliance of the remittance providers in Somalia, will support this measure. Specifically, the World Bank activities will contribute to developing the regulatory framework and building supervisory capacity in Somalia, pertaining to the money transfer business (MTBs) sector in Somalia.

¹⁰⁶ The largest of today have emerged from the dominant money transfer/hawala businesses, and have grown to encompass diverse interests across a range of sectors. Their financial sector interests include banking, microfinance, and mobile money, while non-financial interests span telecommunications (internet and mobile), agriculture, real estate, energy, water distribution, and commodities trading (import-export).



Women will need to become economically empowered. There are a number of interventions that can be considered in this regard. First, the Government, the UN, civil society organizations (CSO) and aid coordination mechanisms should enable a formal, meaningful, consultative forum with women’s groups and networks to identify, address and monitor the needs and capacities of women, girls, men and boys. Second, appropriate funds need to be allocated to women’s groups and CSOs who are already working with affected communities and have the context-specific knowledge on the distinct needs, priorities and capacities of women, girls, men and boys. Finally, women must have access to relevant, consistent and timely information to make informed decisions regarding early recovery and rehabilitation processes and phases.

Furthermore, Somalia can take part in risk pools to access insurance solutions. Risk pools create a foundation for (a) taking a collective approach to quantitative analysis and modeling, (b) improving information sharing and coordinated response, (c) pooling diverse exposures before accessing the market, thereby lowering the costs of coverage, and (d) strengthening regional cooperation and policy dialogue. The regional risk pool for drought in Africa—African Risk Capacity (ARC)—is now in its third year of operation and has developed an early warning model that can be used to measure and monitor drought risks across the region. Six governments—Burkina Faso, The Gambia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, and Senegal—have purchased USD 100 million in drought insurance cover. Specifically, the use of ARC’s drought model and early warning products could play a larger role in regional risk assessment and monitoring.

Table 6: Summary of Drought Recovery Needs

Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Develop a Power Master Plan	National	X			
Address institutional constraints in the energy sector with the FGS	National				
Increase access in rural areas through off grid solar sources	National	X			
Initiate Renewable Energy Resource Mapping for wind power	National	X			
Invest in power generation and distribution in next phase of the MPF energy program	National		X	X	
Cross-border Electrification and Interconnector Study (being designed for approval)	National				
Mobile money for drought response	National	X			2,000,000
Regulatory support for the ICT Sector	National	X			400,000
Developing a National ID system	National	X			100,000
Building the Digital Ecosystem	National	X			TBD
Increased access to Internet		X	X	X	TBD
Financial Services					1,000,000
Building the capacity of the Central Bank of Somalia to license and oversee the financial sector	National			X	
Access to micro-finance credit	National	X	X	X	
Total Macroeconomic Needs					3,500,000

Summary of Sector Assessments

The DINA synthesis report (Volume I) summarizes the full reports that have been submitted for each sector and cross-cutting theme. The full reports can be found in Volume II.

Productive Sectors

Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-fed Crop Production

The Agriculture sector is Somalia's second largest source of economic activity, employment, and exports. Agropastoralists, estimated at 2.8 million or about 23 percent of the total population, are mostly poor and dependent on a mix of settled crop production (both staple food and cash crops) and livestock rearing and, to a more limited extent, on forestry products. Smallholder farming accounts for 80 percent of total crop output and 70 percent of marketed agricultural produce. Use of appropriate technologies and good agricultural practices has been very limited, the root cause of Somalia's low agriculture productivity.

In the early part of this decade, Somalia was producing only 22 to 50 percent of the country's per capita cereal needs. Main staple crops are sorghum, maize and cowpeas, while the main cash crops are sesame, banana, other fruits, vegetables, legumes, frankincense and myrrh. The only exports in recent years were of sesame, dry lemons, frankincense and myrrh, unlike in the pre-war years when banana was by far the major crop export. Agricultural imports have steadily increased, reaching almost USD 1.5 billion by 2015 from an annual average of only about USD 82 million in the late 1980s. This has been the result of low domestic crop production, high demand due to rapid population growth and urbanization and support through remittances.

The current drought, on top of much reduced river flows, has caused major damage and losses to both rain-fed and irrigated crops, including perennial fruit tree crops. Even during the most recent *Gu* growing season (April-June), many parts of the country received below-average, sporadic and scattered rainfall. Over the past year, however, the northwestern regions of Somaliland

received almost normal rains and thus experienced growth of both pasture and crop production compared to their poor performance in 2015.

Damage to irrigation canals has been attributed to the drought in the Shabelle and Juba valleys, due to desperate livestock climbing over their walls and from additional silting from barren nearby soil and sand being blown into the canal beds. Most damage was suffered by banana trees along the Shabelle river, which dried up during the first three months of 2017, and the shallow-rooted banana trees could not survive both the lack of rains and irrigation.

The greatest impact of the drought in the agriculture sector has been on crop production losses arising from both reduced land area under cultivation and reduced yields at harvest. The drought had the largest impact on rain-fed staple food crops and on the irrigated crops in the Shabelle valley regions. Physical and monetary losses have been large for other crops, mainly fruits, vegetables and frankincense. As a consequence of both the high livestock-related mortality and output and the losses in crop production, by early 2017 over 1.6 million people had already exhausted their cereal stocks and become heavily dependent on markets (with cash purchases funded with remittances) and international aid for food.

In crop production, Somali women share activities with men, while providing more than 60 percent of labor in subsistence farming. Due to their vulnerability, female-headed small-scale farming households have been the hardest hit by the drought.

The drought has forced many rural people to leave their homes in search of alternative sources of food and water. The drying of the Shabelle River also caused a major displacement of riverine farming communities. Most farmers fleeing irrigated areas due to reductions in river flows are expected to return to their fields once flows have returned to normal, but many farmers under rain-fed conditions may choose to seek new employment opportunities in urban areas where they can more easily receive both aid and remittances.



Given the revenue and human capacity constraints of the public sector, only the private sector can invest in the new ventures that are required to increase land under cultivation, yields and agro-processing, to adopt climate-smart practices, and to offer insurance options to farmers.

The ongoing drought has contributed to estimated losses and damages totaling USD 311.5 million, of which USD 247.7 million are losses and USD 63.8 million are damages. Despite the high damages and losses and the many challenges that it faces, the country's crops agricultural sector remains both viable and critical to the country's economic recovery and long-term development. Widespread adoption of climate-smart agricultural practices would make a large difference to both resilience and growth for key rain-fed crops, for which yields and total area under cultivation can be significantly increased.

The main components of a short- and medium-term program with the dual objectives of recovery and resilience strengthening should include: (i) rehabilitation of prewar flood control and irrigation infrastructure along the two major rivers in southern and central Somalia and their expansion in both northwestern and northeastern regions; (ii) more modern storage techniques and facilities; (iii) rehabilitation of prewar trunk and rural roads to improve transportation of inputs to farms and of produce to markets; (iv) institutional and human capacity building, (v) improved access to and adoption of productivity-enhancing and resilient technologies (Climate Smart Agriculture (CSA) practices), and (vi) water and watershed management. In total, the recovery and resilience strengthening needs have been estimated at USD 500.3 million for the crops sector.

Table 7: Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-Fed Crop Recovery Needs

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Improving access to quality agricultural inputs for vulnerable rural population and returnees	National	X	X	X	95,500,029
Irrigation canal rehabilitation	National	X	X	X	150,040,098
Recovery/resilience of banana plantations (small and large) ¹⁰⁷	National	X	X	X	9,752,500
Improving farm management practices (incl. SMART, post-harvest handling, etc.)	National	X	X	X	50,000,013
Institutional capacity building for better governance	National	X	X	X	19,000,006
Rebuilding agriculture research and extension system	National	X	X	X	41,000,012
Strengthening informal and building formal seed system	National	X	X	X	20,000,006
Water and watershed management	National	X	X	X	115,000,000
Total Agriculture Needs					500,292,664

¹⁰⁷ Justified by the fact that banana is the only crop whose trees were actually killed by the drought. The banana crop was the only one to experience damage, while others experienced only losses.

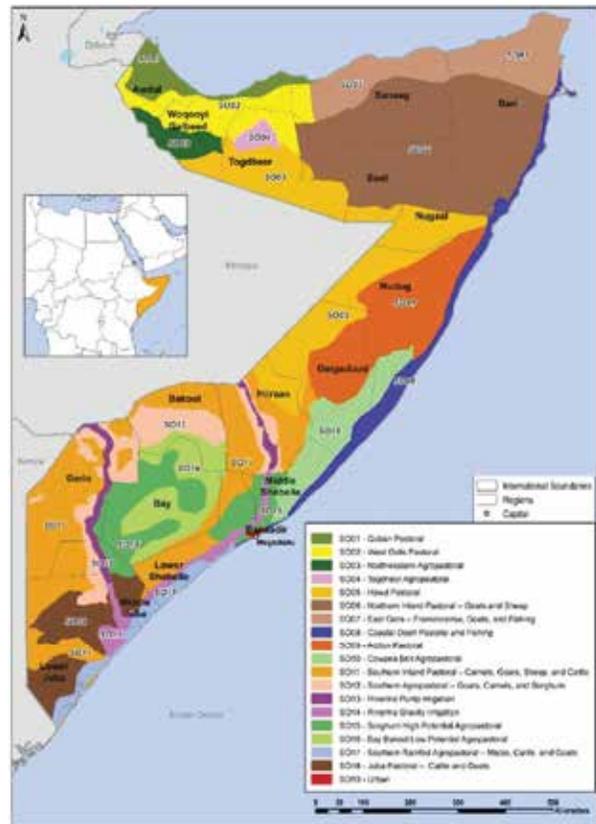
Agriculture – Livestock

Livestock is the major source of livelihood for Somalis. Over 60 percent of the population derives a livelihood from pastoralism-based livestock production.¹⁰⁸ The sector provides food, employment and incomes and contributes an estimated 40 percent of the GDP and 80 percent of the foreign currency earnings, excluding cash remittances from Somalis in the diaspora, with its exports being Somalia's leading foreign exchange earner.¹⁰⁹ The growth has been boosted by continued export-focused interventions, "good prices," and growing markets in the Middle East. Recent statistics on livestock export from the FAO show Somalia exported 4.9 million goats and sheep, 294,000 cattle and 72,000 camels in 2015.¹¹⁰

Periodic droughts affect the livestock sector substantially. Insufficient rain and water availability towards the end of 2016 severely reduced water and pasture availability for livestock (Figure 31). The drought stretched the government's capacity to handle the devastating effects of the drought on pastoralists. This also increased the risk and vulnerability of livestock-dependent households, with the poor losing up to 60 percent of their total stock in some of the most severely affected areas.¹¹¹

Somalia suffered over USD 1.6 billion in losses and damages in the Crops sector – around 50 percent of the total drought damage and losses – during the drought period. In addition, an estimated USD 400 million revenue loss from live animal exports in 2017 will bring the overall damage and loss to over USD 2 billion. Following the drought, the country faced numerous challenges including but not limited to: absence of fodder reserves and alternatives, the absence of allocated budget by Government to the sector, and weak government institutional capacity to cope with such large-scale drought impact.

Figure 28: Somalia Livelihood Profile



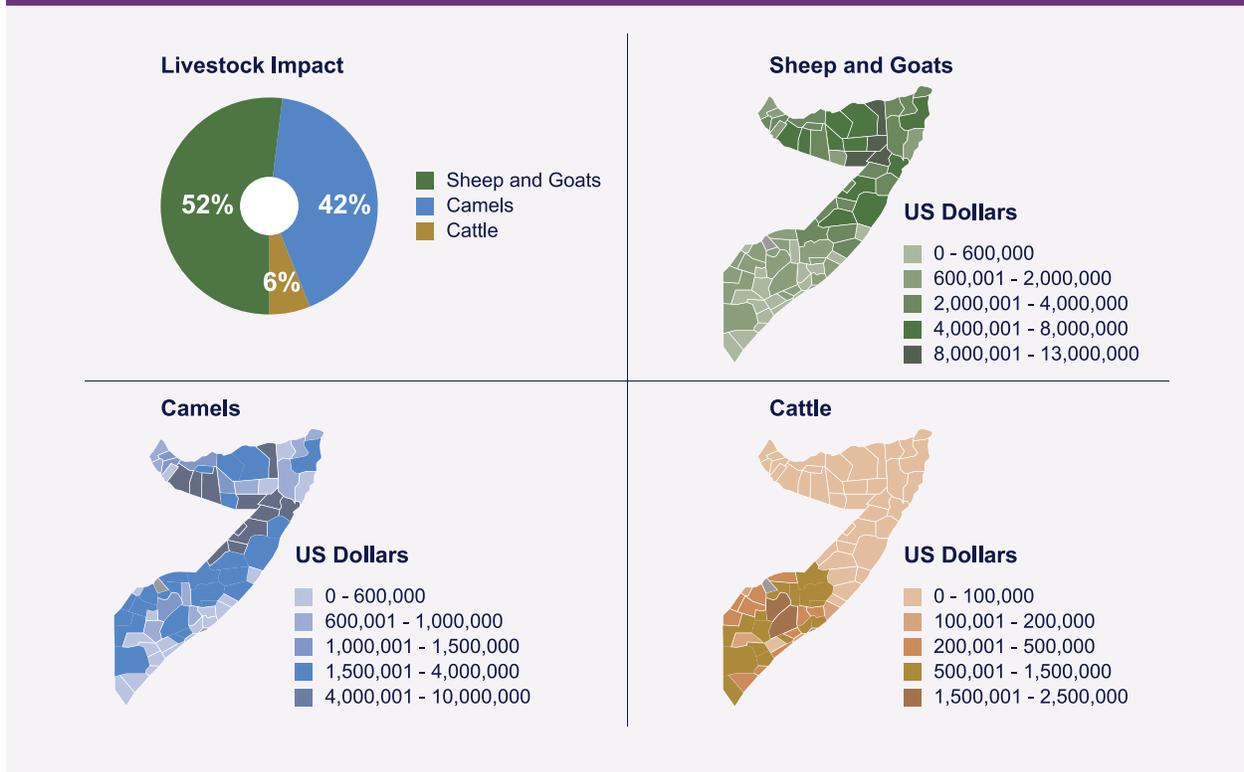
¹⁰⁸ Federal Government of Somalia. 2016. National Development Plan (2017-2019).

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

¹¹⁰ FAO. 2017. Baseline and Good Practices Study on Water and Fodder Availability Along the Livestock Trade Routes in the Horn of Africa.

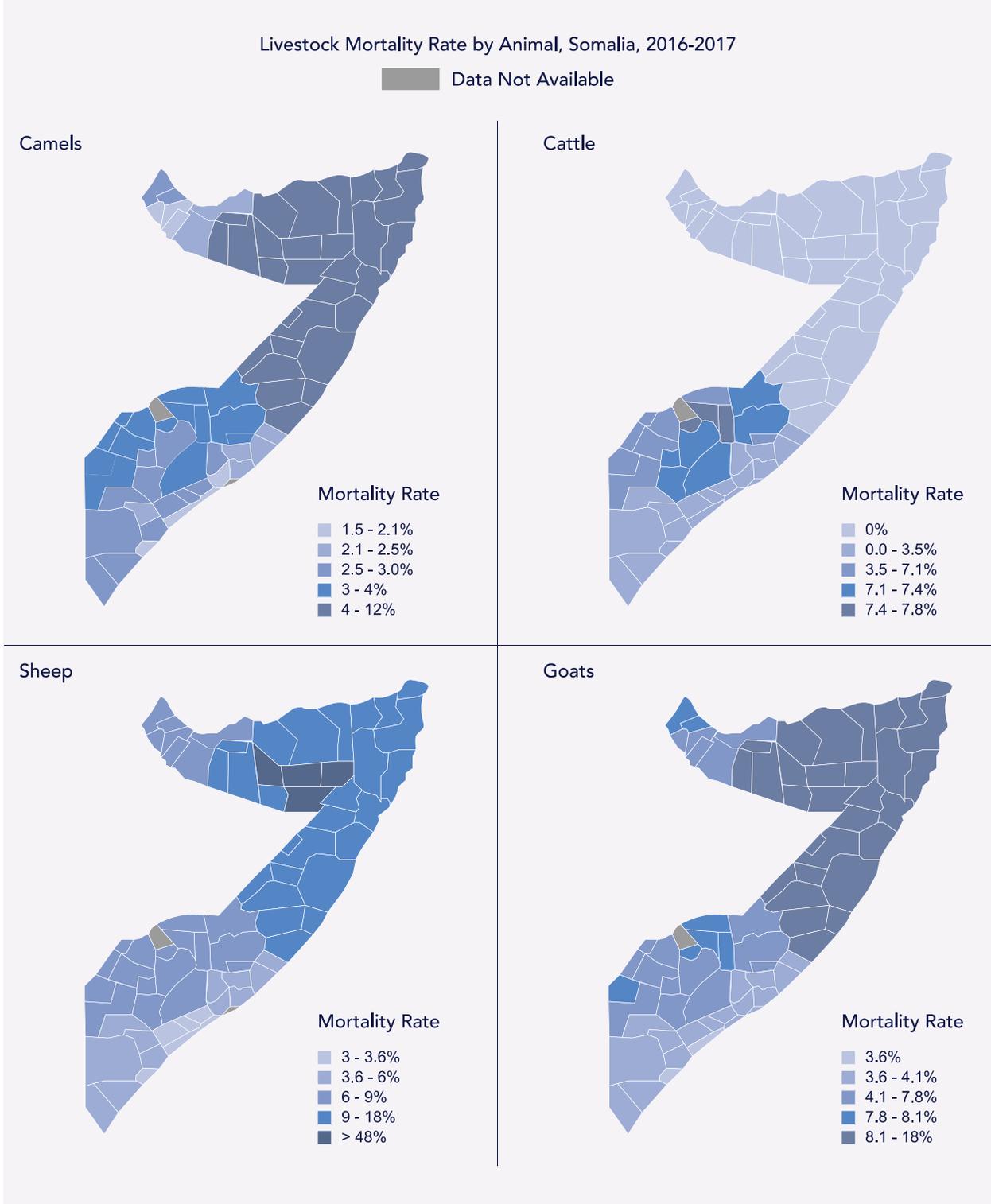
¹¹¹ Estimated based on FSNAU data.

Figure 29: Estimated Livestock Losses Due to Drought



A number of cross-cutting considerations exist in the sector. Women are heavily involved in subsistence farming entailing milk production, meat marketing and poultry production, leaving them particularly affected by the drought's effects on livestock. The drought has caused massive population movement in search of grazing land and water for livestock, compounding issues related to displacement. The private sector is pivotal in the growth of the livestock trade in terms of provision of essential services and infrastructure development; veterinary services, for example, are exclusively in the hands of the private sector. Given the protracted conflict in the country, governance structures are weak, with limited capacity to handle emergencies of this magnitude. As such, there is an absence of preparedness and risk reduction strategies in place for mitigating the impact and for recovery.

Figure 30: Mortality Rate by Type of Livestock





To support short-term recovery needs, the following priorities are critical for consideration: veterinary services provision; feed and water provision; and restocking in selected districts. For medium-term recovery needs: rehabilitation of livestock watering infrastructure on the rangelands, rehabilitation of the rangelands and enhancing management to minimize conflict with settled farmers cultivating crops under irrigated conditions; improving laboratory facilities for confirmatory disease diagnosis and animal food residue testing to ensure food safety among others. For long-term interventions, strengthening institutional capacity for clinical veterinary services; feed and water development, diversification into poultry production and bee keeping, as well as genetic research and breeding; strengthened regulatory capacity of veterinary services to supervise and regulate quarantine operations and certification for trade among others. The estimated cost for short-, medium- and long-term interventions amounts to USD 110.5 million.

Figure 31: Percentage of Grazing Land Degraded by Drought

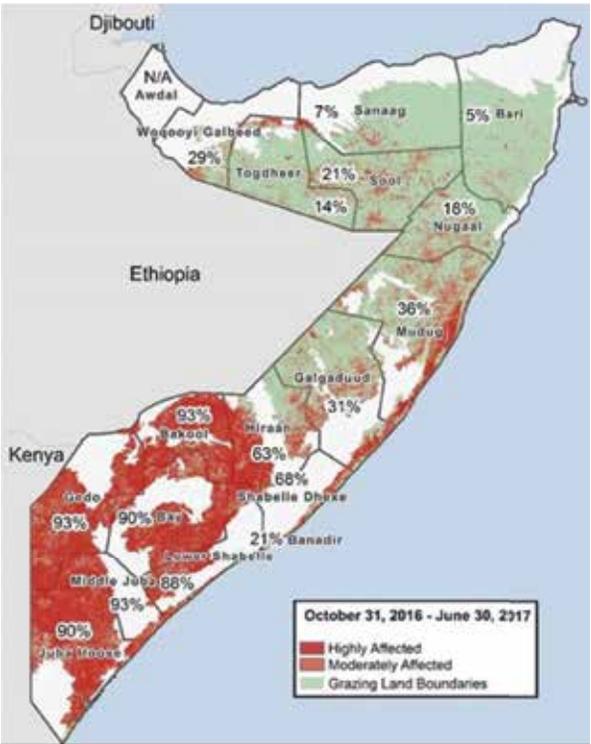


Table 8: Agriculture – Livestock Recovery Needs

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Vaccination against prioritized diseases (PPR/CCPP/SGP);	National	X	X	X	66,500,00
Supportive Treatment (on need basis)	National	X	X	X	13,860,000
Strengthening community based animal health service delivery (CAHWs training and kits supply) and linking them with the private sector	National	X	X	X	1,134,000
Establishing mobile clinics	National	X	X	X	500,000
Rehabilitate laboratory facilities	National	X	X	X	250,000
Strengthening the public veterinary service and SPS	National	X	X	X	2,500,000
Feed Supply (Range Cube and Mineral Blocks) and feed stores Construction/Rehabilitation	National	X	X	X	1,000,000
Fodder production and Management	National	X	X	X	3,000,000
Redistribution (1 percent of the total damage for sheep and goats (167,317) among very poor and poor households) with focus in South Central regions)	National	X	X	X	6,000,000
Rehabilitation of livestock water infrastructures	National	X	X	X	4,000,000
Rangeland management	National	X	X	X	5,000,000
Capacity Development	National	X	X	X	2,000,000
Poultry Production	National	X	X	X	1,250,000
Bee keeping	National	X	X	X	1,000,000
Genetic research and breeding	National	X	X	X	2,500,000
Total Livestock Needs					110,494,000

Agriculture – Fisheries

Somalia's marine fishery dominates the fisheries sector, and coastal communities are heavily dependent on fishing, carried out mostly by men. Women dominate fish processing, trading and support activities, and some women are multiple boat owners, although there are no specific numbers available to quantify the division of labor in the sector between men and women. However, fishing is a seasonal activity for many rural dwellers, including pastoralists, and often an important source of supplementary food and cash income. On much of Somali's Indian Ocean coastline, fishing ceases entirely during the months of the strongest southwest monsoon season (June-September), and many communities return to a pastoral existence. Fish consumption in Somalia is one of the lowest in Africa, at about 3.1 kg per capita per year.¹¹²

There is no history of aquaculture, but there is a small inland fishery sector, mostly based on two riverine systems: the Shabelle River (flowing through Hiraan, Middle Shabelle and Lower Shabelle) and the Juba River (flowing through Lower Juba, Middle Juba and Gedo). According to FAO FishStat data, total inland production has stagnated at 200 metric tons (MT) per year over the last decade.¹¹³

For the inland fishery, the effect of the drought in the six regions of relevance is as follows: (i) disruption to the spawning migrations and spawning grounds of key fish species—in extreme cases the drying up of river beds resulted in spawning stock mortalities, (ii) when water levels are low, fishing may no longer be possible (access to the water, water too shallow, destruction of fish habitat), (iii) boats may be stranded and in extreme cases boats and/or fishing gear may be sold if the owner has no other income, (iv) loss of income (to the individual/household) and upstream in terms of expenditure in the local economy), (v) collapse of riverbanks and/or change in river courses as rivers dry up and/or siltation with renewed flooding (post-drought), and (vi) the collapse of markets—both primary and secondary markets—and value addition.

The effects of the drought to the fisheries sector include (i) loss of income as a direct result of reduced landings; (ii) loss of assets as families depending on fisheries are forced to sell their fishing gear (lines, nets and/or boat) – this has been quantified as approximately USD 1.24

million if it is assumed that 25 percent of those fishers who earn an income (part-time/seasonal/full-time) from fishing have lost their assets; (iii) loss of and/or restricted access to fishing grounds if river beds silt up and water/river-flow does not return to a proper level for bleeding and harboring of the fish; (iv) loss of food and sources of important nutrients due to reduced catch; and (v) significance of post-harvest loss as the drought affects purchasing power.

The impact of drought to the fisheries sector includes: (i) influx of people into the coastal communities, as their livestock died; most of them do not engage in fishing, or compete for limited fish; (ii) unsustainable fishing practices as new fishermen resort to using environmentally damaging fishing gear; (iii) the possibility of conflicts of control and use of limited area for fishing; and (iv) decline in sources of livelihoods for families dependent on seasonal fishing due to the reduced and destroyed river streams;

Women play a significant role in inland fisheries (either fishing and/or trading fish) and as such have been severely impacted in terms of their livelihoods and food security. As fishing is one of several activities that households engage in, there is likely to be moderate to significant impact dependent on the importance of fishing to household income generation and food security. Droughts may negatively affect fish breeding and fishing grounds, but may also impact coastal communities through the drying up of low-lying coastal areas and salt-water ingress into brackish water estuaries.

The recovery needs are based on the following key assumptions: there is no direct costed impact of the drought on the marine fisheries sector. Prioritization would therefore need to be done by the communities dependent on the inland fisheries sector; the inland fishery is seasonal, and therefore fishing activity for most households is only one of several activities that the household engages in. The numbers provided in the inland fisheries income-loss spreadsheet suggest that the level of household mixed fish and crop livelihood activity varies between insignificant (<10 percent fishing activity) to 40 percent. The total number of households obtaining a proportion of income and food from inland fishing is taken as 50 percent of the total target population of 91,209 households (as some states/regions have access to coastal fisheries, which is excluded from the DINA).

¹¹² 2009 data – no more recent data exists. World Bank and FAO. 2017. Somalia - Rebuilding Resilient and Sustainable Agriculture (draft).

¹¹³ EU and FAO. 2014. Fisheries in the ESA-IO Region: Profile and Trends Somalia.

Box 5: Training Women Strengthens Fishing Communities



© UNSOM

Canab Mumin Farax fled Mogadishu 16 years ago at the height of the civil war. Today she lives with her family in a temporary settlement camp in the city of Bossaso (Puntland State).

Canab is a member of a community group of internally displaced persons who processes sun-dried fish at the Ajuuran B camp on the outskirts of Bossaso, and then sells the final product to nearby businesses and inland city markets. On a normal day, the team begins work early in the morning, when fresh fish is delivered from the landing site in Bossaso and stored in ice coolers. The team members clean the fish and slice-off the fillets, which are then laid out on racks to dry in the sun.

It takes about 14 to 16 hours for the fillets to dry before they are packed and sealed. The dried fish is then sold in supermarket outlets around Bossaso under the brand “Kalluun Qalajisan”, meaning dried fish. The dried fish is thus commercialized, but the fish remnants

are also completely utilized. They are used to cook and provide a highly nutritious and low fat meal that is then distributed among the community, which has some of the most disadvantaged households in Somalia.

Canab is one of the more than 70 women training under the Joint Program on Youth Employment Somalia (YES), which, in the case of Bossaso, has been implemented by the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the Puntland State government to help develop the fish value production chain in Somalia. Beneficiaries are identified within disadvantaged communities and trained in the processing and marketing of dried fish, thus adding value to this product. For Canab, this could signal an end to trekking under the scorching sun to sell cooked fish at a market next to the bus station in Bossaso to sustain her family.

Source: United Nations Assistance Mission in Somalia (UNSOM)

Therefore, needs as presented in the table below include: (i) distribution of fish nets; (ii) development of fish landing sites; (iii) development of spate-fed desert aquaculture; and (iv) development of dried fish.

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Distribution of fishing kits	Regional	X			150,000
Development of fish landing sites	Regional		X		2,000,000
Development of spate fed desert aquaculture	Regional			X	1,500,000
Development of dried fish	Regional		X		2,000,000
Total Fisheries Needs					5,650,000

Physical Sectors

Water Supply and Sanitation

Water resources in Somalia are dominated by groundwater, with the surface water mainly found along the Juba and Shabelle Rivers in the southern part of the country. During extreme dry periods, the flow in both rivers is not able to adequately support domestic and agricultural water needs for the riverine communities. Water resource and water supply development over the past 20 years has been dominated by non-state humanitarian actors.

During the baseline period of 2013-2015, Somalia Water and Land Information Management (SWALIM) estimated that there were around 3,733 water points, 61 percent (2,261 sources) of which were reported to be perennial under normal conditions. Higher proportions of berkads¹¹⁴ and dams supply water for only part of the year compared to other sources.¹¹⁵ In other parts of the country, rainwater harvesting through the provision of dug outs (wars)¹¹⁶, berkads¹¹⁷ and mugciids¹¹⁸ to impound surface runoff during the two rainy seasons—*Gu* (April to June) and *Deyr* (October to December)—is a common feature of the water supply infrastructure in rural communities.

As Somalia goes through a series of devastating and frequent droughts, the impact on the country's hydrologic cycle is substantial, manifested with immediate drying up of surface and ground water sources. The effect of such a troubled cycle, beyond the immediate impact on human lives and livestock, includes decline in ground water recharge, depletion of fresh water aquifers, reduction of surface water flow and other long-term damages. In March 2016 and February to mid-March 2017, the Shabelle River dried out completely, unseen in over 30 years.

Furthermore, drought has affected not only the quantity but also the quality of drinking water. There are noticeable weaknesses in the water sector related to water quality testing and monitoring. Weaknesses in regulating water quality are compounded by the relatively poor understanding of how the water supplies become contaminated and the risks associated with the use of contaminated water.

The water supply and sanitation related damages include complete drying up of boreholes, shallow wells, hand-dug wells, berkads, dams, water pans and springs. The losses in water supply and sanitation are: higher cost for the households to access quality water, higher production cost of water, costs related to temporary water deliveries, and provision of sanitation services. Sanitation services in urban and peri-urban areas of Somalia are stretched and deteriorated due to the influx of IDPs who migrated as a result of drought. Small urban towns already had poor drainage, sewage and solid waste management infrastructure. Additional population has had a severe impact on sanitation services. In rural settings, depletion of water sources resulted in non-functionality of the water supply system, depriving communities access to a minimum quantity of water needed for drinking, sanitation and hygiene. Needs were estimated considering the requirement to bring back required service levels both for humans and livestock to pre-drought levels and for internally displaced populations in urban areas. The needs assessment has duly considered the sustainability of services and resilience building of the sector by focusing on institutional strengthening and sector capacity building.

¹¹⁴ CIA. 2013. The World Fact Book: Somalia.

¹¹⁵ Most berkads, dams and dug wells which supply water for a limited period within the year have not been mapped.

¹¹⁶ Wars are dams or impoundments up to 3 m depth built in clayey soils that retain surface run-off from rain with capacity of 1,500 to 50,000m³

¹¹⁷ Berkads have capacities of 10 to 100 m³. Covering with shrubs or iron sheets reduces evaporation, thereby extending the period of use.

¹¹⁸ Mugciids are underground storage wells with an average depth of 15m that are used to supplement supply when all other sources are depleted.

Box 6: Safe Drinking Water Promises Health Benefits



© UNICEF Somalia

Seventy-four year old Mariam Omar Farah could not hide her excitement when she heard her town would, for the first time, receive piped clean water that week. Mariam lives in a shack with eight family members including grandchildren, one hundred meters from the main reservoir tank of the new project.

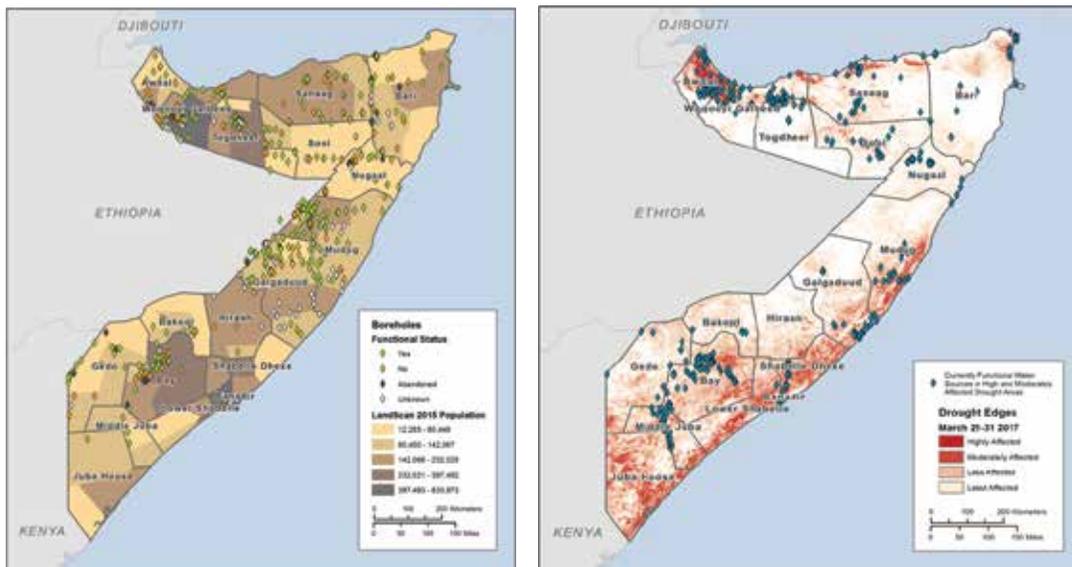
A 2015 UNICEF survey found that just over half the households in Somaliland (56 percent) had access to safe drinking water, while over half the households in the country still take over 30 minutes to fetch water. The piped water would provide great benefits for the town of Wajaale. The drought has contributed to a huge increase in people suffering from water-borne diseases in Somaliland, and the successful completion of the pipeline would lead to large health benefits for the people of Wajaale. The local rain-fed water pan is about a kilometer from the town, but the water is contaminated by human and animal feces, which has

led to disease outbreaks. During the dry season, the water dries up and people and water vendors travel to a seasonal river 15 kilometers away.

Under the project, the water is pumped to Wajaale’s tank from a borehole in a village 24 kilometers away. This groundwater, found below the water table, is of good quality and does not need to be treated. Pipes are being laid to public kiosks with taps where the public is charged for each jerrycan and, also, for those who can afford it, to private homes with water meters. While those far from kiosks will continue to rely on water sellers, the price of water is expected to drop drastically.

Source: UNICEF Somalia

Figure 32: Boreholes and Drought Edges



Source: World Bank estimation from Ipsos data

The effects of the drought include over 80 percent of the shallow wells drying up and the water levels of most boreholes decreasing to abnormally low levels. The droughts and over two decades of conflict in Somalia have weakened the water supply and sanitation sector governance, representing the core challenge to sustained water supply and sanitation services. This includes inadequate policies and strategies, standards and guidelines and the lack of a regulatory framework for service providers. Furthermore, water scarcity has increased the risk and vulnerabilities of women, children, IDPs, and livestock.

With decreased access to safe water, compounded by the drying up of rivers, lack of technical expertise to rehabilitate the few existing over-congested water sources resulted in the escalation of acute water- and sanitation-related diseases. The prevalence of childhood illnesses has also increased. The unavailability and shortage of water have led to violent interclan conflicts due to scarce food and water services, which will degenerate and worsen Somalia's security situation, leading to more conflict and displacement.

Women and girls traveling to and from IDP settlements are exposed to serious risk of violence while traveling to water points and sanitation facilities that are limited and located far from homes. The scarcity of water and absence of men due to drought and conflict have resulted in an increase in women's work burden in the household. Women and girls, who have the primary responsibility for collecting water for domestic use, are now traveling increased distances in search of water. Women and girls accessing latrines at night are at increased risk of becoming victims of sexual harassment or assault. Finally, the drought has caused water points to become the center of inter/intra social group conflict for control, access and use of water for human and livestock needs.

The ongoing drought has inflicted USD 41.9 million worth of damages to water infrastructure and USD 20.5 million of related losses. With a view to bring back service to humans and livestock to pre-drought levels, and to build the capacity of sector institutions for sustainable and more resilient and long-term recovery, sector needs are estimated at USD 180.7 million as detailed in the table below.

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Construction of new boreholes	National	X	X	X	77,000,000
Rehabilitation of non-functional boreholes	National	X			15,200,000
Construction of new protected shallow wells	National	X			1,935,000
Rehabilitation and protection of non-functional shallow wells	National	X	X		2,184,000
Construction of new berkads	National	X			203,000
Rehabilitation of berkads	National	X			216,000
Institutional strengthening and Capacity building	National	X			34,000,000
Urban rural sanitation (drainage, sewage and solid waste management)	District/municipal level	X	X	X	50,000,000
Total Water Supply and Sanitation Needs					180,738,000

Transport

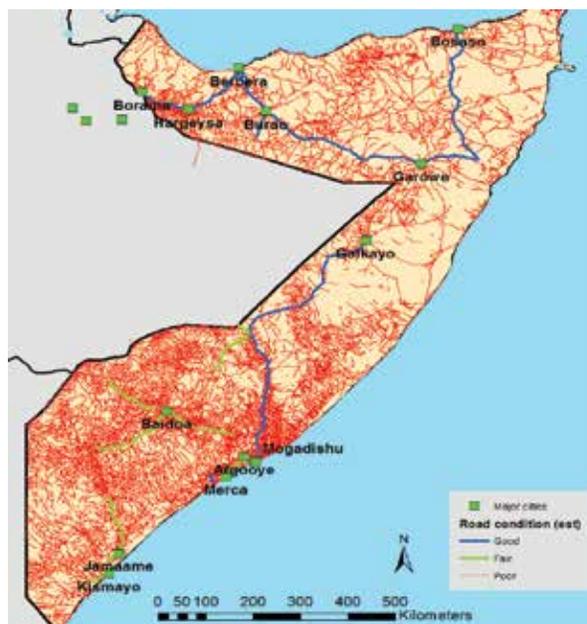
The transport sector is considered an enabling sector for other sectors, providing linkages to regional trade and socio-economic activities. In Somalia, roads are the only mode of land transportation in the country; therefore, the assessment and interventions of the sector have been concentrated on them as they provide access to areas affected by the drought.

Roads in Somalia are in poor condition due to lack of proper maintenance, a decades-long civil war which damaged the transport infrastructure significantly, and further inaccessibility due to security constraints. Somalia is highly urbanized, with most of the population living in or near cities. According to the 2014 Population Estimations Survey for Somalia (PESS), 5.2 million people—about 40 percent of the total population—live in urban areas.¹¹⁹ This means that the majority still lives far from a road that is in good or fair condition. Out of the 21,830km of roads¹²⁰ (including unclassified feeder roads), less than 10 percent of the total network is estimated to be in good or fair condition (Figure 33), affecting many farmers and pastoralists who still live in rural, drought-affected areas not well connected to commercial markets.

Although the transport infrastructure is not directly impacted by the drought, there are secondary effects burdening its services and contributing to increased prices of commodities. Transporters are affected due to scarcity of commodities (e.g., agricultural products), which then need to be transported over longer distances, causing them to incur losses, and translating into higher fuel costs. Consequently, these costs end up being paid by the end-user and are evidenced by huge differences between farm gate and retail prices for most commodities. Seasonal jobs offered by transporters (e.g., truck drivers, assistants, transport laborers and mechanics) would also be affected negatively. Furthermore, security remains a challenge and implementation of any set of interventions will be affected by it. According to the WFP, some of the primary roads are currently closed or difficult to pass due to conflict, while other roads are impassable due to broken bridges. Interventions in conflict areas require intense consultation with communities to avoid inducing conflict when carrying out works and to avoid activities that would facilitate al-Shabaab activities and bring overall negative impacts.

There is also evidence of transport infrastructure's influence on IDP settlement patterns. Figure 34 shows

Figure 33: Provisional Road Condition



Source: World Bank estimation from Ipsos data

IDP settlements in Kismayo in relation to primary road infrastructure. Access to transport is a key service for IDPs, as it connects IDPs to livelihood opportunities and access to additional municipal services, and should be considered when planning future transport infrastructure works.

The transport sector considers several cross-cutting sectors that are expected to be employed for recovery and resilience such as social protection, displacement and environment. Labor-intensive methods of road rehabilitation will be considered for rehabilitation works, while schemes will be designed in such a way that local people are engaged whilst ensuring good quality works through proper supervision and monitoring. The movement of people will cause some areas to have inadequate local workers for labor-intensive works, while more work-demand would be available where people have migrated. Works programs will need to take this into consideration when designing projects. Environmental issues should also be considered in all road works. For instance, the natural habitat of pests and animals would need to be conserved as much as possible, and trees should not be cut unnecessarily during implementation.

¹¹⁹ Federal Republic of Somalia. 2014. Population Estimation Survey 2014: For the 18 Pre-war Regions of Somalia.

¹²⁰ Federal Republic of Somalia. 2016. Somalia National Development Plan (2017-2019).

Table 11: Transport Recovery Needs					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Short-term rehabilitation, reconstruction and maintenance of 1099km of roads	Regional	X			83,600,000
Medium-term rehabilitation, reconstruction and maintenance of 1008km of roads	Regional		X		64,300,000
Total Transport Needs					147,900,000

Figure 34: IDP Settlements and Roads in Kismayo



For sectors directly impacted by the drought (e.g., agriculture, food security, water supply and sanitation, and health), the transport sector will support their recovery and resilience efforts by providing improved linkages between the population, social services and markets. Recovery interventions include rehabilitation and maintenance of roads and bridges at a cost of USD 147.9 million, aimed at providing improved linkages, targeting areas that are hard hit by the drought and those that require various relief initiatives. The initiatives are expected to contribute to people’s socio-economic activities and improve their livelihoods through improved accessibility and short-term employment from the labor-intensive road rehabilitation works. The building-back-better concept will be applied for sustainability of the rehabilitation works. The interventions recommended for the transport sector are short-term rehabilitation (reconstruction and maintenance of 1,099 km of roads) and medium-term rehabilitation (reconstruction and maintenance of 1,008 km of roads).

Environment, Clean Energy, and Natural Resource Management

The environment and natural resources of Somalia are a source of economic livelihood for millions of Somalis. About 98 percent of Somalia is dry landmass, with less than 2 percent of the country under water. Dictated by shifts in the wind patterns, the country's environmental resources and agricultural livelihoods revolve around four main seasons, and failure of the two rainy seasons typically has severe consequences. Dependence on the sector has had significant impact throughout the years, including depletion of vegetation resources and forest cover.

The 2016-17 drought in Somalia has had immense environmental impacts. This study estimates a national average loss of 68 percent of natural standing vegetation in the drought period (or 113,282 km², accounting for 18 percent of the total national landmass), potentially affecting the lives and livelihoods of an estimated 6 million (or nearly 50 percent) of the estimated total population. In general, this assessment estimates the damages and losses in the environment sector to be approximately USD 564.8 million and USD 610.7 million respectively, which require USD 99.9 m in recovery costs.

Region	Vegetative Biomass Productivity and Fodder Availability		Biodiversity		Impact on Soil Resources and Soil Quality		Household Energy and Fuelwood Losses		Total	
	Damages	Losses	Damages	Losses	Damages	Losses	Damages	Losses	Damages	Losses
NW Area	35.1	38.2	0.1	63.8	4.8	0.8	63.6	53	103.6	155.8
NE Area	73	90.8	0.2	8.2	10.5	0.8	79.4	66.2	163.1	166
Juba River Area	71.9	89.3	-	-	10	0.5	54.9	45.8	136.8	135.6
Interreverine/ Other	43.3	49.6	-	-	5.5	0.4	29.9	25	78.7	75
Shebelle River Area	44.6	51.4	-	-	5.7	0.3	32	26.6	82.3	78.3
National Totals	268	319.3	0.4	72	36.6	2.8	259.9	216.6	564.8	610.7



There has been severe impact on the soil resources of Somalia because of the current drought. This assessment projects that 93,000 tons of topsoil have been eroded as a direct result of the drought in 2017, in the process resulting in aggregate damages and losses in soil fertility functions and ecosystem services estimated at USD 36 million and USD 3 million, respectively. In addition, charcoal production has gone up by 50 percent because of the drought, as a subsistence livelihoods option to replace employment in farming and livestock rearing activities. This has had the effect of desiccating over 90,000 hectares of forest and woodlands, significantly contributing to aboveground biodiversity degradation, loss of soil flora and fauna and acceleration of the process of desertification, estimated at USD 216 million.

The continued effect of droughts and inappropriate land use practices have also paired to result in widespread destruction of plant life, which has in turn also fragmented and decreased animal habitats and reduced forage, negatively impacting not only Somalia's most important economic resource (livestock

complement of goats, sheep, camels, and cattle), but also its wildlife. In addition, biodiversity-related livelihoods, such as frankincense, myrrh, etc., have been adversely affected due to the drought's impact on the natural growing zones. The drought has also triggered excessive extraction of these resources due to diminishing conventional livelihoods elsewhere.

This study makes a number of recommendations (short-, medium-, and long-term) to remedy the situation. They include capacity building of Government institutions, support to legislation and policy development, and direct interventions. Suggested direct interventions include scaling up evergreen agriculture by integrating with trees-on-farm agroforestry systems for better resilience, as well as rehabilitation of important vegetative resources badly affected by drought by promoting the adoption of sustainable, low-cost land restoration techniques such as farmer-managed natural regeneration (FMNR) and integrated soil fertility management systems (ISFM) for drylands.

Table 13: Environment, Clean Energy and Natural Resource Management Recovery Needs					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Emergency capacity building of government forest rangers	National	X			2,000,000
Emergency re-seeding of selected rangelands with fast-growing grass species and setting up of germplasm mother blocks (seed production zones for indigenous fruit tree species)	National	X			10,000,000
Improvement of energy efficiency of existing charcoal carbonization and kilning systems	National	X			8,000,000
Scaling up evergreen agriculture (integrating with trees-on-farm agroforestry) and ISFM and training forest end users on sustainable extractive techniques for NWFPs	Southern Somalia		X		17,000,000
Development of legislation to support zoning of wildlife parks, migratory corridors	National		X		1,000,000
Cleaner and renewable energy sources – promotion of energy-efficiency	National		X		15,000,000
Technical capacity improvement of Somali government - remote sensing, GIS, national lab	National			X	4,000,000
Cleaner and renewable energy sources –promotion of solar energy technologies and promoting the use of LPG in Somalia	National		X	X	27,000,000
Rehabilitation of selected gullies and other severely degraded ecosystems in the North and promoting wide-scale adoption of low-cost integrated soil fertility management (ISFM) for improving soil resources	National			X	11,000,000
Assisting the Somali government with the development of a biomass energy policy	National		X	X	3,000,000
Develop a power plan	National	X			853,510
Cross-border electrification and interconnector study	National	X			1,000,000
Total Environment, Clean Energy and Natural Resource Management Needs¹²¹					99,853,510

¹²¹ In assessing the environmental sector, there is a noticeably large difference between the cost of damages and losses (USD 524m and USD 606m, respectively), and the cost of recovery (USD 99.85m, which has a suggested implementation period of up to 5 years). This is largely due to the method of valuation of environmental resources, which takes into account the generation of these assets over years, losses that persist for a long time, and several intangible features, as well as the existing absorptive capacity of governmental systems in Somalia.



Social Sectors

Health

In terms of health indicators, Somalia ranks among the weakest countries in the world. In 2015, maternal mortality ratio (MMR) was the sixth highest,¹²² and immunization coverage was among the lowest in the world.¹²³ In 2016 the under-five mortality rate (U5MR) was the highest in the world.¹²⁴ Overall life expectancy at birth is very low compared to the rest of the region, and the country was unable to achieve any of its health-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). These issues are compounded by the fact that the total fertility rate is very high and is increasing over time. The conflict-related fragility of Somalia over the past two and a half decades has resulted in the weakening of the health sector, its systems and its personnel, with a related focus on emergency response interventions to recurrent crises. Countrywide, there is less than 1 health facility per 10,000 people, and many health posts do not operate fully due to human resource and infrastructure constraints.¹²⁵

Table 14: Key Baseline Data for the Health Sector

	2016		2015		2014		2013	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
AWD/Cholera	15619	548	7536	84	2820	140	6864	200
Measles	3843	0	7497	0	10229	0	3173	0
GAM cases	206016		151015		218300		206100	
SAM cases					43850		51250	

Source: <http://apps.who>

¹²² 732 per 100,000 live births - WHO. 2015. Trends in Maternal Mortality: 1990 to 2015.

¹²³ Somalia ranks fourth among countries with lowest DPT3 coverage globally of 42 percent - WHO and UNICEF, 2015. Estimates of National Immunization Coverage (WUENIC).

¹²⁴ 133 per 1000 live births - UNICEF. 2017. Levels and Trends in Child Mortality.

¹²⁵ WHO. 2015. Strategic Review of the Somali Health Sector: Challenges and Prioritized Actions.

The drought has led to worsened food insecurity, inadequate water supply and large population movement. The advent of the drought coupled with persistent insecurity has left most of the health work in the hands of NGOs and bilateral donors. With minimal or no financing from the central government, this has created challenges in the form of access to basic health care.

No damages to the sector can be solely attributable to drought. Losses in the sector primarily stem from increase in the number of new cases of disease, and increase in mobile health units leading to increased cost of maintaining and managing these units. Losses in terms of USD are detailed in Table 15.

The overall health effects of the drought are difficult to measure, partly because effects tend to accumulate over time, and partly, because health impacts can be

indirect given their link to interceding circumstances such as the loss of livelihoods. However, some impacts are palpable. The drought has worsened food insecurity, which has led to large-scale malnutrition, directly affecting the health of the population. Mass displacement has placed large numbers of the population at risk of malnutrition and disease. Reduction of most of the pre-existing water sources has created an increased dependence on use of water from private vendors or, for those that cannot afford to, an increased dependence on unprotected and unsafe water sources, leading to a high risk of contracting water-borne diseases such as Acute Watery Diarrhea (AWD)/cholera. Measles and other viral respiratory infections have also increased due to dry conditions and overcrowding in IDP settlements. Malaria, AWD/cholera, and other water-borne diseases are likely to spread further with the expected Gu rains particularly in new, congested settlements for IDPs, due

Zones	Cholera Losses	Primary-basic Health Losses	Measles Losses	Total Losses
Awdal	-	471,591	2,324	473,915
Woqooyi Galbeed	-	1,674,404	30,860	1,705,263
Togdheer	86,695	933,759	50,200	1,070,653
Sool	32,622	740,645	14,368	787,635
Sanaag	26,359	2,872,248	-	2,898,607
Bari	40,560	1,107,777	28,661	1,176,998
Nugaal	57,009	1,086,742	8,671	1,152,421
Mudug	62,446	1,785,506	29,785	1,877,737
Galgaduud	94,196	2,818,960	11,869	2,925,026
Hiraan	8,764	1,455,726	29,960	1,494,450
Middle shabele	57,146	3,840,978	10,845	3,908,969
Benadir	159,785	1,158,434	98,776	1,416,994
Lower Shabelle	128,448	3,299,297	31,459	3,459,204
Bay	342,122	1,711,183	-	2,053,305
Bakool	89,012	686,858	-	775,869
Gedo	128,975	1,598,081	-	1,727,056
Middle Juba	-	541,680	-	541,680
Lower Juba	70,498	3,053,807	-	3,124,306
Grand Total	1,384,638	30,837,675	347,776	32,570,088



to overcrowding, poor sanitation facilities and insufficient access to safe water. A household survey conducted as part of the DINA process concluded that IDPs are 2.5 times more likely not to have access to medical health services and 3.4 times more likely than residents to have poor/fair health status.¹²⁶ They were also 1.6 times more likely than residents to report not having access to gender-based violence health services.¹²⁷

Gender considerations remain critical, with most of the affected and displaced being children and women, especially within the context of accompanying conflict. Special mechanisms for women and children to access care and nutritional support should be established. These will enable equity in the distribution of available inputs to the communities. The private sector remains a powerful partner for providing health services in Somalia. Indeed, without the private sector, the overall impact on health would have been unimaginable. Any financing for

health should take into consideration the availability of private sector partners in delivering health services. This is especially in view of the mostly destroyed and non-functional health infrastructure and a chronic shortage of human resource for health (HRH).

To achieve the above recovery goals, approximately USD 82.13 million would be required for a number of short-, medium- and long-term interventions, including: treatment of increased incidence of cholera; treatment of people receiving primary and/or basic secondary health care services; and treatment of increased measles cases. While the HRH gap is projected to expand over the coming years, and, in the long term, additional investments in the sector are needed to increase the number of training institutions in the country, a calculation of the related needs has not been undertaken for the immediate term of this exercise.

¹²⁶ World Bank and Ipsos. 2017. Somalia Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA).

¹²⁷ Ibid.

Table 16: Summary Needs for Health					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity (national/ regional)	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Engaging the public in promotion of health, hygiene and safe drinking water, sanitation, environmental hygiene, food safety and safe waste disposal	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Promoting food borne diseases laboratory-based surveillance by developing food safety guidelines and interventions	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Introducing standardized rapid diagnostic technologies for prevalent communicable diseases	National	X	X	X	2,470,912
Active disease surveillance and early warning system	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Prepositioning medical supplies and kits to undertake coordinated rapid response	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Establishing an effective health information system that provides accurate and timely health data for evidence planning and implementation, supported by monitoring and evaluation	National	X	X	X	2,470,912
Increasing cholera treatment Centre's in all regions	National	X	X	X	8,236,375
Promoting participation in improving public health at community level	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Ensure availability of essential medicines, vaccines and commodities	National	X	X	X	22,007,180
Establishing emergency response services	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Ensuring immunization of all children and pregnant women against the major child killer diseases sanctioned by the health authorities including campaigns	National	X	X	X	8,236,375
Deploying more health care workers that are competent on tasks and treat patients with dignity, respect and compassion	National	X	X	X	5,765,462
Supporting fixed and mobile clinics	National	X	X	X	8,236,375
Total Health Needs					82,132,713

Nutrition

Somalia is among the ten countries with the highest prevalence of malnutrition in the world, and the third highest in the eastern and southern Africa region, with 17.42 percent Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM) amongst children under five years (U5) and 3.2 percent severely malnourished.¹²⁸ The causes are multiple and complex. Apart from insecurity, climate and seasonal factors and notable poverty among some communities, dominant child care practices and select socio-cultural beliefs (e.g. weak infant and child feeding and care practices, combined with poor hygiene, the lack of basic health and WASH facilities, and women's excessive workloads) were seen to be core drivers of malnutrition in southern and central Somalia.¹²⁹

Both GAM and severe acute malnutrition (SAM) appear correlated with period of famine and severe drought as shown in Figure 35. For instance, the period between *Gu* 2011 and *Dyer* 2011 represented the most severe famine in Somalia, followed by periods of relative good rains showing a decline of GAM and SAM cases. Again, the onset of *Gu* 2016 season shows a rapid deterioration of the nutrition situation up from 12.2 percent in 2015 to the current GAM rate of 17.4 percent, which is close to the 18 percent GAM level observed during the 2011 famine.

Good nutrition is an investment in the future of Somali children. Nutritious diets fuel children's growth, drive brain development, strengthen learning potential, enhance productivity in adulthood and pave the way

Figure 35: GAM and SAM Trends in Somalia



Source: Adapted from FSNAU/FEWSNET data summaries

¹²⁸ UNICEF. 2014. State of the World's Children Report 2014.

¹²⁹ WFP and SNS Consortium. 2015. Nutrition Causality Analysis (NCA) Study.

to a more sustainable and prosperous Somalia. Poor nutrition has a great impact on child development, as well as school attendance and performance. Poor nutrition also affects productivity, leading to loss of income and perpetuating the circle of poverty. The drought- and insecurity-driven influx of IDPs into major urban centers is compounding the already deteriorating situation.

Immediate losses were incurred in treating SAM and moderate acute malnutrition (MAM) children and pregnant and lactating women (PLW), mass screenings and operational costs for the delivery of a comprehensive package of preventive, curative and promotional services in static and mobile outreach clinics in hard-to-reach areas.

The nutrition situation continues to deteriorate, partly due to food insecurity, morbidity, lack of milk and high disease burden in many households. The Lower Shebelle region had a higher malnutrition prevalence with approximately 31,200 U5s being acutely malnourished in June and July 2017. This includes 24,200 MAM and 7,000 SAM children.¹³⁰ There were also significant increases in GAM cases from Deyr 2016/17 and Gu 2016. Other notable significant increases were in SAM cases in the same period. Further, critical levels of GAM are present in most areas, driven by lower than normal food access, increased waterborne illness during the rainy season, and poor access to health services. High disease incidence (e.g., AWD/cholera, measles) is further exacerbating acute malnutrition.

Table 17: Nutrition Sector Losses

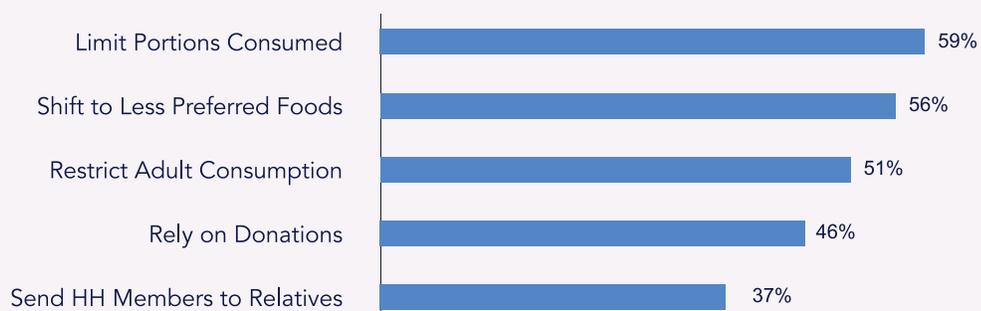
	SAM Losses	GAM Losses	Total Losses
Awdal	14,188	81,214	95,403
Woqooyi Galbeed	29,540	121,234	150,773
Togdheer	44,918	86,520	131,439
Sool	19,006	101,948	120,954
Sanaag	27,040	112,048	139,088
Bari	25,686	189,970	215,656
Nugaal	26,373	149,566	175,940
Mudug	52,700	264,973	317,673
Galgaduud	32,867	150,315	183,183
Hiraan	28,230	107,984	136,215
Middle shabele	32,360	88,736	121,097
Benadir	159,260	397,853	557,113
Lower Shabelle	65,830	203,317	269,147
Bay	35,564	76,116	111,680
Bakool	26,883	102,992	129,876
Gedo	37,274	113,543	150,818
Middle Juba	446	613	1,059
Lower Juba	29,202	96,273	125,475
Grand Total	687,371	2,445,216	3,132,587

¹³⁰ FSNAU. 2017. Somalia Post Gu Seasonal Food Security and Nutrition Assessment: Major Findings and Recommendations: October 2016.



Critical issues with access to food continue in the country. A survey conducted for the DINA found that 71 percent of respondents did not have enough food within the month subsequent to the survey being conducted. Households have been forced to resort to limiting portions of consumed meals, shifting to less preferred foods, restricting adult consumption to leave more food for children, and relying on donations.¹³¹ See Figure 36.

Figure 36: Critical Issues with Food Access



Source: IPSOS Survey 2017

¹³¹ World Bank and Ipsos. 2017. Somalia Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA).

Box 7: Nutrition Center Saves Lives of Drought-affected Children



© UNICEF Somalia/Makundi

Overall the nutrition situation in Somalia continues to deteriorate. However, hundreds of children's lives have been saved by a modest nutrition center in the middle of dusty Baidoa town in southern Somalia. In the center, worried mothers sit quietly on mats, babies strapped on their backs and toddlers playing with cups of water or chewing on sachets of therapeutic peanut paste. The prolonged drought has hit this area, which was the epicenter of the 2011 famine, very badly. As consecutive rainy seasons failed, the livestock died, and there was little in the way of local harvests of maize and sorghum.

Buley Ali Mursal perches, squashed between other mothers, on the low concrete bench. She brought her children here from their village 20 kilometers away after they began to look weak and listless. They didn't have any harvest in 2017 for themselves or to sell, and the children were eating just maize. Habiba, another mother, moved with her 10-month old, Binti, and five siblings to a makeshift settlement from their village a month ago, when their goats and cows died, as well as the crops. Her husband makes a

small amount of money loading trucks and she fetches firewood. Binti was looking very weak so she came to the center and now her health has improved over the past month.

So far in 2017, nearly 1,300 children with life threatening malnutrition have been cured after enrolling in the program. The NGO DMO runs three other mobile clinics covering 15 settlements for the displaced around Baidoa. WFP also provides supplies for the family when the child is discharged. In 2017, UNICEF and partners have delivered life-saving treatment to over 180,000 children throughout Somalia suffering from life threatening severe acute malnutrition.

Source: UNICEF

IDP settlements are particularly vulnerable to malnutrition. SMART surveys conducted by FSNAU in June 2017 indicate critical levels of acute malnutrition in nine out of 12 IDP settlements.¹³² Ipsos survey results found that IDPs were four times more likely than residents to report not having enough food to eat as one of their top three most urgent relief needs. IDPs were also four times more likely than residents to report that their household experienced a decreased number of meals per day as a result of the drought. Furthermore, food status is 1.4 times more likely to have gotten worse than stayed the same due to the current drought for either IDPs or households with a child under the age of 5.¹³³

Gender is a key consideration as nutrition challenges during drought affect mostly children, pregnant and lactating women (PLW) and older people. The higher

number of cases seen in these groups reflects the dire nutrition situation in the country, and they require specific inclusion in all mitigation measures. Social protection and safety nets will be a critical area for recovery; relapse into SAM following treatment should be prevented as much as possible, and such measures would help achieve that by increasing the likelihood of families accessing food and water. With the increased likelihood of food insufficiency in migrant communities, they will benefit most from increasing mobile clinics and nutrition support programs. The role of the private sector is crucial in the support of nutrition rehabilitation and recovery programs, given their direct interaction with communities - they have a better understanding of local issues, thus their input in the design of such programs is vital.

¹³² Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit – Somalia (FSNU) 2017. Food Security and Nutrition Quarterly Brief: July 2017.

¹³³ Ibid.

Given the continuing drought, major challenges remain such as the availability of adequate food and constraints on the ability of communities to be resilient. Access to quality health care and WASH services for the most vulnerable remain a major challenge. Although care and treatment for children with SAM is life-saving, if nothing is done to address underlying causes, these children remain at risk. Hence the need for external assistance to mitigate the impact of the drought will be more prolonged until communities are able support themselves as the drought recedes. The immediate and medium-term needs remain high. Both the FGS and the UN and other partners need to prioritize nutrition as one of the drivers of resilience building, as it affects the next generation in terms of productivity and national development.

The recovery needs for the sector will include: strengthening prevention and life-saving treatment for acute malnutrition in children U5 and PLW to be delivered at scale. Critical activities include regular provision and implementation of other interventions such as Vitamin A supplementation and deworming; nutrition surveillance; monitoring and evaluation; capacity building and procurement of materials required for child and maternal health and nutrition promotion. In view of the high number of IDP and displaced communities as a result of the drought, increased provision of nutrition treatment through static and mobile outreach services is essential.

Table 18: Nutrition Recovery Needs					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Surveillance and M&E operations	National	X	X	X	10,413,189
Mobile clinic and nutrition rehabilitation vans	National	X	X	X	20,826,378
Vitamin A supplementation	National	X	X	X	1,561,978
People living with HIV and AIDS	National	X	X	X	2,082,638
Deworming	National	X	X	X	1,561,978
Capacity building	National	X	X	X	15,619,783
Procurement of material and rehabilitation	National	X	X	X	20,826,378
Health promotion and community mobilization	National	X	X	X	10,413,189
Implementation and operational support	National	X	X	X	20,826,378
Total Nutrition Needs					104,131,888



© UNDP Somalia/Dreamcatcher

Education

Displacement as a result of the drought has resulted in over 926,000 people moving across different regions with Benadir, Bay, Lower Shabelle and Mudug hosting an increase of IDP arrivals, during the period November 2016 to September 2017.¹³⁴ Drought-related displacement has drastically affected children's access to education services with over 118,008 children's (38.8 percent female) learning reported as disrupted due to the prolonged drought.¹³⁵ Overall, more than half of children in the country were out of school before the drought, and school drop-outs add to Somalia's existing low levels of school enrollment and education attainment; some 45 percent of the population cannot read or write, and only 16 percent have completed primary school. About one quarter of primary-age children attend primary school in the country, according to the last full survey on

primary net attendance undertaken in 2006.¹³⁶ IDPs are among those who face the highest education inequities in Somalia.

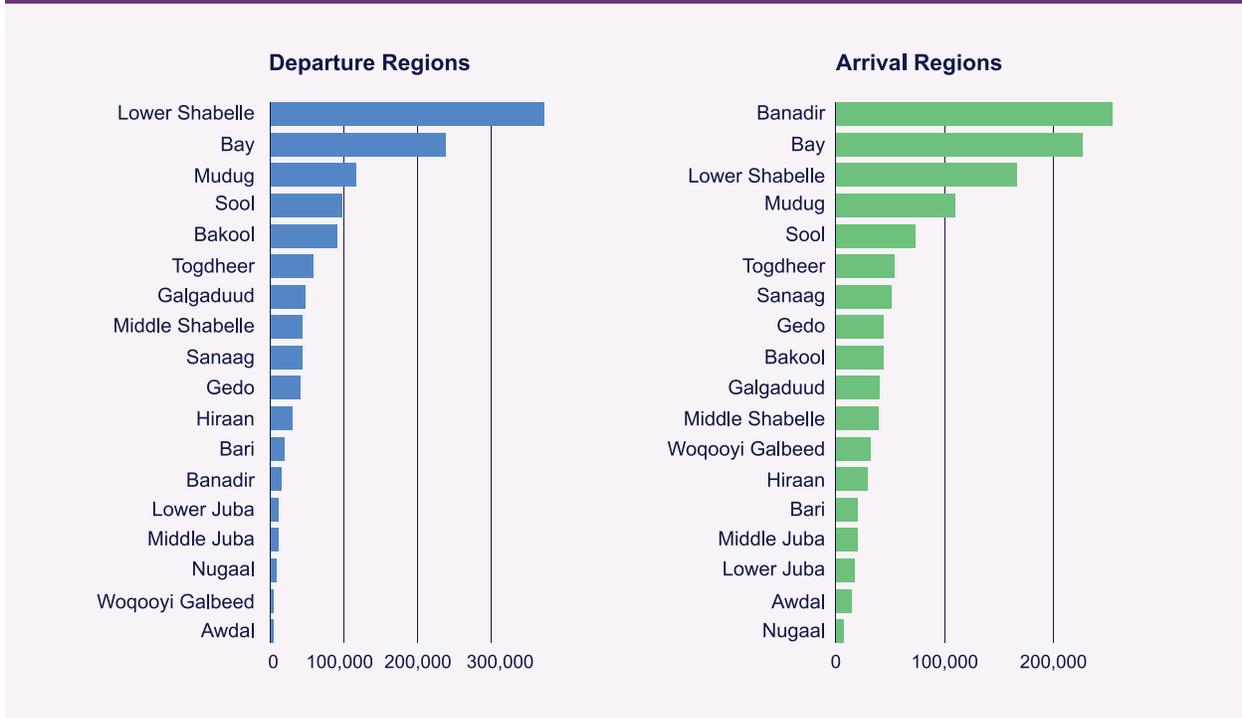
According to the UNHCR Protection and Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), the data indicates a possible pattern of intra-regional displacement, which affects enrollment. The drought has not spared some of the best performing regions in terms of enrollment. The highest numbers and proportions of children 'forced out' of education due to drought, potential famine and associated economic pressures on families are located in regions and states that have been most affected by conflict. In these cases, the proportions of children forced out of school reached over 25 percent and in the most extreme cases were above 42 percent (Sool).

¹³⁴ UNHCR. 2017. Displacements Dashboard, Protection & Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), Internal Displacements during September 2017.

¹³⁵ Drop-out data gathered for Puntland and Somaliland via education cluster mechanisms and education ministry personnel during early 2017; data for Central South Somalia gathered by MOECHE officials in coordination with state and regional education offices and local education cluster partners across Central South Somalia, as contained in FGS Education Sector Analysis 2012-2016 (draft, September, 2017).

¹³⁶ UNICEF. 2017. Somalia Education Baseline Survey 2017.

Figure 37: Displacement Statistics



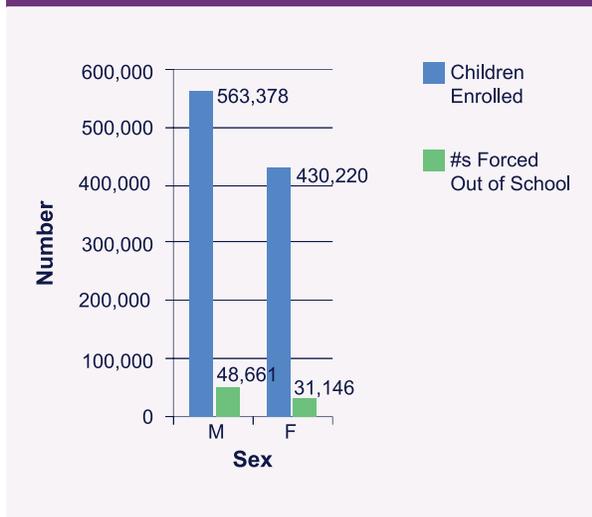
Of the nearly 80,000 children forced out of education by May 2017, most were found in southern Somalia, with over 38,000 children reported being out-of-school, while in Somaliland and Puntland the numbers reached slightly over 12,000 and 16,000 respectively, with more than 12,000 children out-of-school in the contested regions between Puntland and Somaliland.¹³⁷ Overall, Puntland was most affected, with over 10.2 percent of children out-of-school, followed by southern with 8.3 percent and then Somaliland with only 3.3 percent of children forced out of school. Some of the out-of-school children were vulnerable to recruitment and use by armed forces and groups. Once they escape armed groups or are released from armed forces/groups, they are need of reintegration programs including vocational training

and accelerated learning opportunities. For Somalia as a whole, the total proportion of children forced out of school reached an estimated 8 percent by May 2017 of all children enrolled in education.¹³⁸ It is, of course, worth cautioning that figures reported by Government and cluster partners could understate the actual figures of drop-outs as data provided has typically been for schools that have closed and in many instances did not capture children who have dropped out of schools that remained open. Moreover, emergency forecasts for the remainder of 2017 expected worsening humanitarian conditions and deepening impacts on communities, including education, meaning that the number of children being forced out of education would likely increase for the remainder of the year.

¹³⁷ UNICEF. 2017. Somalia Education Baseline Survey 2017.

¹³⁸ Ibid.

Figure 38: Children Enrolled vs. Forced Out of School



Most displaced families will not be able to make fee payments to the vast majority of private run schools. Having lost most of their livestock, many displaced families will require some form of social protection if they are to continue meeting their daily needs, let alone finance the education of their children. Schools too may need to roll out-of-school feeding programs to enhance learning capacities of children.¹³⁹

43 percent of children enrolled in primary schools are girls, while 56 percent enrolled are boys.¹⁴⁰ Gender disparities in school enrollment and attainment are linked to social norms that favor boys' education, as well as to the lack of separate sanitation facilities for girls and the lack of female teachers.¹⁴¹ Gender barriers also include limited or unavailable operational primary and secondary facilities, prohibitive school fees, and household demands. Girls in particular are less likely to attend school due to domestic responsibilities, especially in female-headed households in which mothers pursue economic opportunities and require additional support in the home.

In an already difficult environment for girls, currently enrolled girls should be supported to complete their education if they are to count towards improving

gender equity in Somalia. There is a need to engender the response and recovery plan to ensure that gender issues are addressed. The needs for displaced girls will vary considerably to the needs of boys, especially taking into consideration the high prevalence of gender-based violence (GBV) affecting girls and women in IDP settings. Serious protection concerns persist in Somalia, putting displaced civilians and especially children of school-going age at risk. Abuses, including wide-spread GBV, recruitment of children, physical attacks, and forced displacement remain a pervasive feature of conflict and displacement in Somalia.

Education enrollment is low among nomadic and pastoralist communities. UNFPA PESS survey data from 2015 suggests that educational inequities experienced by these groups remain deeply entrenched and are perhaps the highest for any group in the country. Only 15.7 percent of nomadic and pastoralist communities aged 6 and above are enrolled in education—or less than half of the national average. GER rates signal even greater levels of inequity experienced by pastoralist and nomadic children, with only a 3.1 percent GER for primary level compared to a national average of 32 percent.

Recovery activities will focus on the following: strengthening Government-led coordination mechanisms, building capacities to sustain education services while at the same time supporting learners and groups at greatest risk. Pro-poor approaches that strengthen community engagement and direct community support will facilitate the reduction of school drop-outs. The development of planned classrooms and improved durable "Semi-Permanent Learning Structures" and other education infrastructure will take into consideration environmental sensitivity and sustainability. Developments (e.g., learning spaces) towards the recovery plan will be risk-informed and take into consideration risk reduction measures. Teacher training and development of learning materials will be based on the approved national curriculum framework. FGS will prioritize education sector management and regulation by implementing responsive policies and acts.

¹³⁹ Mousse, F. 2015. The Complexity of Sexual and Gender-Based Violence: Insights from Mogadishu and Central South Somalia. CISP, International Alert.

¹⁴⁰ Federal Government of Somalia. 2017. Education Sector Analysis 2018-2020.

¹⁴¹ UNICEF. 2017. Somalia Education Baseline Survey 2017.

Box 8: Displaced Children Get a Chance at Education



© UNICEF Somalia/Hashi

The prolonged drought in Somalia has led to difficult decisions for families – whether to stay on their barren land and try to survive, to uproot everyone, or to divide the family. Seven-year-old Anab’s mother died when she was little, and her father has been unable to support all five children in their village in Lower Shabelle during the current crisis. So Anab and her sister were sent to live with their aunt in a makeshift settlement on the outskirts of Mogadishu, known as Kilometre 13, where her father hoped they would receive assistance.

Anab’s aunt, Halima, who does casual work, now looks after Anab, her six-year-old sister and four of her own children. Anab, her sister, and two of her cousins go to Al-Hiddaya school, run by the local NGO Somali Community Concern, where 250 children who have been affected by the drought are getting an education as well as free meals to help them concentrate. Miss

Ikram, a teacher at Al-Hiddaya school, said that when she arrived, Anab was pale, weak and lethargic. Now the little girl has grown stronger and is full of enthusiasm and keen to continue her education.

Anab, a soft-spoken girl who had never been to school before, say she wants to be a teacher. Support from the Canadian Government has helped over 6,500 drought-impacted children access basic education, school meals and water and sanitation facilities, including safe drinking water, in 21 new schools along the Afgoye corridor outside Mogadishu.

Source: UNICEF Somalia

Table 19: Education Recovery Needs

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs

Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Learning spaces	Regional	X			19,200,000
Teachers	Regional	X	X		12,885,600
Learning materials/kits	Regional	X	X	X	4,343,871
CEC structures to be supported	Regional	X	X	X	2,880,000
Education sector coordination support and data tracking costs	Regional	X	X	X	4,320,000
Total Education Needs					43,629,471

Cross-cutting Themes

Food Security

The protracted drought crisis in Somalia has been exacerbated by widespread conflict and poverty. In recent years, frequent crop production failures in crop dependent areas and severe shortage of pasture and water in pastoral areas followed by substantial livestock losses have disrupted livelihoods and have contributed to further population displacement. The average pre-drought (2015)¹⁴² number of people in acute food security Crisis and Emergency (IPC Phases 3 & 4) was 983,000.

Food security is a cross-cutting sector that reflects the combined effects of drought on food security-related sectors such as agriculture (crop production, access to agricultural employment), livestock (livestock production and reproduction), and trade and market prices (food and livestock prices and purchasing power of the population).

Region	Population	Baseline (2015)	Current (2016-2017)	Drought Impact	Drought Impact on # of IPC 3&4	
		IPC 3&4	IPC 3&4	IPC 3&4	As percent of Regional Population	As percent of Total IPC 3&4
Awdal	673,264	69,209	102,061	32,851	5	2
Woqooyi Galbeed	1,242,003	101,836	121,547	19,712	2	1
Togdheer	721,364	35,074	127,915	92,841	13	6
Sool	327,427	13,532	90,871	77,340	24	5
Sanaag	544,123	39,665	141,719	102,054	19	6
Bari	730,148	85,596	141,668	56,072	8	3
Nugaal	392,697	13,049	95,569	82,520	21	5
Mudug	717,863	44,139	231,715	187,576	26	12
Galgaduud	569,434	38,502	159,204	120,703	21	7
Hiraan	520,684	30,226	198,696	168,470	32	10
Middle Shabelle	516,035	8,033	56,756	48,723	9	3
Lower Shabelle	1,202,222	25,083	151,754	126,671	11	8
Benadir	1,650,228	379,086	359,194	-19,892	-1	-1
Bay	792,182	19,977	262,231	242,254	31	15
Bakool	367,227	26,716	141,087	114,371	31	7
Gedo	508,403	9,950	73,088	63,137	12	4
Middle Juba	362,922	9,591	56,134	46,543	13	3
Lower Juba	489,307	33,542	82,266	48,724	10	3
Total	12,327,533	982,806	2,593,475	1,610,669	13	100

¹⁴² A new estimate for the total population of Somalia (12.3 million) became available following dissemination of the final report of the Somalia Population Estimation Sample Survey (PESS) in October 2014. The new population estimates were used as a basis for food security assessments starting in 2015. Prior to 2015, food security assessments were based on a total Somalia population figure of 7.5 million, which was estimated by UNDP in 2005. Therefore, the average for 2015 was used as a baseline instead of the average for 2013-2015.



Endemic to Somalia in recent decades due to a confluence of natural disasters and insecurity, food security has significantly worsened during the 2016-17 drought. Following three consecutive seasons of below average rains and predictions of a fourth, the food crisis has worsened in rural areas. This has led to near-total crop failures and reduced rural employment opportunities, widespread shortage of water and pasture, with consequent increases in livestock deaths and rapidly diminishing food access among poor households as staple food prices continue to rise sharply and livestock prices decrease significantly. In the southern part of Somalia, which is the major crop producing part of the country, the 2016 *Gu* cereal production was estimated at 65,000 tonnes.¹⁴³ This is 49 percent below the long-term average (1995-2015) and 20 percent below the five-year average for 2011-2015.¹⁴⁴ Rising food prices are also affecting food access among displaced and poor urban households. There has also been substantial drought-related distress migration. Acute malnutrition remains high and widespread across Somalia (Table 20). As a result, as many as 6.7 million people have been faced with acute food insecurity across Somalia since January 2017.¹⁴⁵

Continuing gaps in assistance to populations in stressed IPC Phase 2 could lead to further deterioration of food security, forcing some households to adopt “irreversible” coping strategies.¹⁴⁶ Humanitarian assistance will need

to be scaled up for the remainder of 2017-2018 to prevent a deterioration of food security and livelihoods conditions. Although famine (IPC Phase 5) has been averted, the elevated risk of famine still looms as a result of severe food consumption gaps, high acute malnutrition, elevated disease burden and dependence on humanitarian assistance.¹⁴⁷ Food insecurity and the resulting humanitarian needs are projected to deteriorate through May 2018.¹⁴⁸

In Somalia, there is a strong association between food insecurity and poverty. Addressing the very high and widespread poverty and unemployment in Somalia will also contribute to sustainable improvement in the food security of its population. The following short-, medium- and long-term recovery and resilience needs have been identified to address persistent and high levels of acute food insecurity in Somalia. Short- to medium-term interventions will focus on improved household food storage to reduce food waste and improved food security early warning systems. Medium- to long-term interventions will support development of a national food security strategy and policy and a national poverty reduction and resilience strategy. It is also noted that the prioritization of road investments as detailed in the transport sector will take into consideration the potential for direct positive impact on humanitarian response, either reducing logistics overheads or extending assistance and markets to secondary towns.

¹⁴³ FSNAU and FEWSNET. 2016. Somalia Food Security and Nutrition Analysis: Post Gu 2016. Technical Series Report No. VII.69.

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

¹⁴⁵ FSNAU and FEWSNET. 2017. Special Brief – Focus on Post Gu 2017: Assessment Results: September 2017.

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

¹⁴⁷ FSNAU and FEWSNET. 2017. Somalia Food Security Outlook – October 2017 to May 2018.

¹⁴⁸ Ibid.

Figure 39: Projected Food Security Outcomes, Nov. 2017-Jan. 2018 and Feb.-May 2018¹⁴⁹

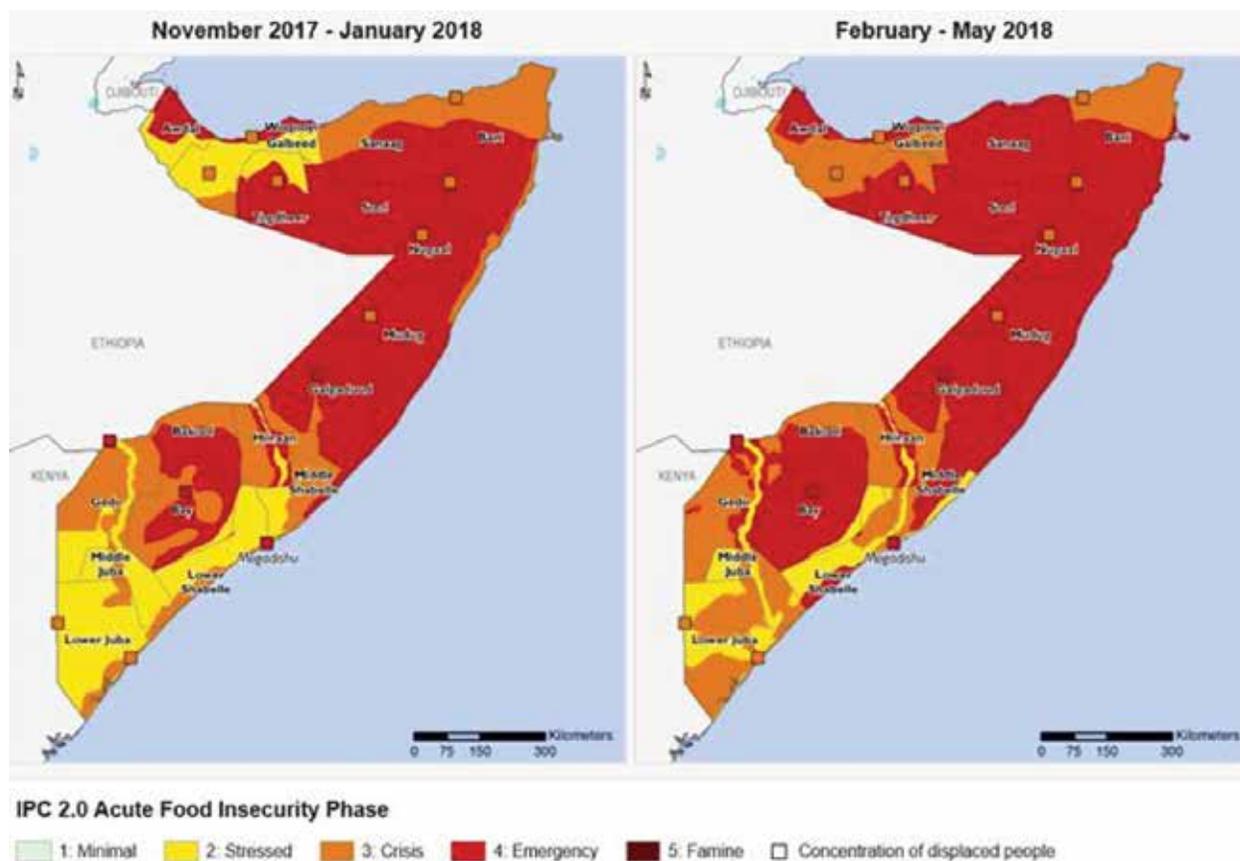


Table 21: Food Security Recovery Needs

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Improved food storage to reduce waste	National	X	X		20,000,000
Improved food security early warning systems	National	X			5,000,000
Support for the development of a national food security strategy	National	X	X	X	120,000
Support for the development of a national poverty reduction strategy	National	X	X	X	240,000
Total Food Security Needs					25,360,000

¹⁴⁹ FSNAU and FEWSNET.2017. Somalia Food Security Outlook – October 2017 to May 2018.

Livelihoods and Employment

The labor market is characterized by an overdependence on the livestock sector, which provides employment to approximately 60 percent of the workforce. The informal sector accounts for the remaining 40 percent of labor opportunities. Rates of under-employment and unemployment are high. Even for those employed, there is a significant rate of under-employment (19 percent), and this combined with an open unemployment rate of 22 percent implies that almost half of the work force are either unemployed or work in low paying jobs.¹⁵⁰

Youth unemployment is a growing concern, with 48 percent of youth either unemployed or projected to be in low productive, low paying employment.¹⁵¹ This leaves them particularly vulnerable to recruitment by non-state armed groups.

Skill sets are low, stemming from the more than 57 percent of Somalia's children who are not in formal schooling. Only 3 percent of males and 2 percent of females in urban areas have had any form of formal vocational training, and linkages between training and the labor market are weak.¹⁵²

The drought has exacerbated challenges for employment and livelihoods. Over 900,000 livestock dependent households (pastoralists and agropastoralists) are affected (Table 22), with an estimated USD 875 million of direct income lost in the livestock sector alone. Impacts are particularly significant on women who predominate in livestock dependent chains, with an estimated loss across 4,500 micro enterprises/kiosks of USD 26 million.

Beyond the economic losses, accelerated rates of urbanization associated with drought and conflict

are changing the nature of future employment, from a rural-based pastoralist one to an urbanized one. Those migrating often have low education levels and are poorly equipped to take advantage of available employment opportunities, including those provided through activities associated with the flow of aid such as construction, logistics and services.

There are four important cross cutting areas. First is the proportion of women affected by the drought, and related to their role in domestic trade of livestock products (meat, milk, hides and skins), and petty trade (kiosks). The second is the challenge of employment of youths, and the need for skills training. The third is the need for a Government-led social protection policy geared towards cash for work and cash transfer, and the fourth is the need to build on successful examples in Somaliland and Puntland of rehabilitation works aimed at reforestation, improvement of water harvesting, and erosion control.

Whilst livelihoods will continue to be the most important productive sector for the foreseeable future, the long-term dependence on livestock (particularly live exports) must be reduced, and efforts focused towards other sectors. Livelihoods interventions should take into account the changing economic model in Somalia and align with the demographic shifts in urban and rural areas. The transitions in the rural economy towards a modernized agricultural sector will require increased skills in industries along the value chain as well as water shed management. Sectors in the urban areas such as construction and logistics could potentially provide livelihoods opportunities; therefore, training and skills training in this sector should be linked to infrastructure investment activities. Other sectors that

Table 22: Estimated Direct Losses in the Livestock Sector¹⁵³

Household Type	Pastoralists	Agropastoralists
Number of livelihoods affected	487,591	479,832
Total income losses of milk sales and animal sales based on present and income losses on sales. Using Standard offtake rates.	USD 609,495,380	USD 262,376,953
Estimated workdays lost based on USD 3 per day Indicates future losses from decreased assets that generate jobs.	USD 203,165,127	USD 87,458,984
Number of jobs/livelihoods lost, extrapolated from FSNAU reports	450,000	350,000

¹⁵⁰ The data has been extracted from a Somali Labor Force Survey carried out in 2014, a Labor Force Survey of Somaliland 2012 and various reports and articles.

¹⁵¹ UN Definition of youth: those between ages 15 -24. Estimated at 26 percent of population, according to UNFPA PESS.

¹⁵² Somali Labor Force Survey 2014.

¹⁵³ Drawn from livestock losses and FSNAU/FEWSNET assessments.

have the potential to contribute to a diversification of the economy include coastal fishing and social sectors, building on the investments in social sectors that come through humanitarian interventions and building on this foundation to work towards a more skilled local workforce.

As part of this, the employment and livelihoods recovery strategy targets support to women and youth, with measures recommended in terms of education, skills development, labor market information services (LMIS), and entrepreneurship and finance. Innovative approaches could link immediate temporary employment, with access to literacy and numeracy training, business development, and job placements. Support should be provided to women enterprises by supporting women entrepreneurs across all sectors, including livestock, to organize themselves into associations, cooperatives and networks.

Lastly, increasing access to finance will be key to developing more sustainable jobs, including financial support to small- and medium-sized businesses to develop. This should be done in two parallel tracks,

firstly, targeting businesses in specific sectors critical for recovery and humanitarian aid delivery (such as logistics and construction) and that can provide livelihoods and employment in the near term, and secondly, by supporting the financial sector to diversify and provide financial products to small- and medium-sized businesses. The latter will depend on a minimum level of regulation and policy and the ability of the CBS to engage with the financial sector.

Charcoal production and the rehabilitation and management of rangeland must be addressed if any degree of sustainability is to be built into the recovery of the livestock sector. Efforts must be made to develop the renewable energy sector as this has the potential to reduce environmental degradation, involve women and youth, and to provide power sources to sectors, which are currently under-developed due to energy deficit and/or high costs. Lastly, support to Government institutions to improve and/or establish labor market information services and support to FGS and FMS to coordinate the Livelihoods and Employment sector will be required.

Table 23: Livelihoods and Employment Recovery Needs					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Support to women and youth to engage in key economic sectors	National	X	X	X	20,000,000
Support to Govt. Institutions to improve and/or establish Labor Market Information Services	National	X	X	X	1,900,000
Support to FGS and Federal State Governments to coordinate the E&L sector	National	X	X	X	200,000
Total Livelihoods and Employment Needs					22,100,000



Social Protection and Safety Nets

In the absence of reliable and long-term Government-led support to the vulnerable in Somalia, social protection as a sector does not exist formally. The bulk of it is relief assistance, which is project based, donor funding dependent and delivered mostly through the UN and international humanitarian NGOs reliant on unpredictable financing. During the current drought, most of this assistance was in the form of cash transfers through voucher cards and mobile phones. Shock-responsive safety nets have been delivered through a protracted humanitarian response, with smaller scale conditional transfers designed to build access to basic services. Informal social safety nets also play an important role. However, the absence of reliable response beyond the humanitarian phase with a clear national operating institution for social protection limits gains that can be made beyond short-term assistance.

The impact of the drought, in particular on livelihoods and rising prices of staple foods, has led to negative coping strategies in the absence of shock responsive social protection. Families have instead been forced to resort to strategies such as reduction of food consumption and food diversity, buying food on credit, selling their livestock and other productive assets, and migrating to urban parts of the country. These losses are captured in the relevant sections (Food Security, Nutrition, Agriculture-Livestock, Agriculture-Irrigation and Rain-fed Crops, Displacement).

The biggest impact is reflected in the extent and nature of vulnerability, both economic (being in or at risk of poverty) and social (lack of autonomy, discrimination and marginalization).¹⁵⁴ Compounding shocks occurring before households have had the ability to recover further erodes their coping capacity to manage them, and further increases this vulnerability. Significant

¹⁵⁴ UNICEF. 2014. Designing Social Protection Frameworks for Three Zones of Somalia.

segments of the Somali population are economically and/or socially vulnerable to shocks such as the current drought. Regions where populations are most vulnerable or where IPC Phases 3 and 4 is above 40 percent include Sanaag and Sool in the north; South Mudug and Galgaduud in central Somalia; and Hiraan, Bay and Bakool in the south. Urban areas that have experienced a sharp increase in IDP populations include Mogadishu, Baidoa, Dhusamareb, Garowe, Berbera, Bossaso, Dolow and Hargeisa.

However, the current drought response has demonstrated the ability of current protection systems to expand to more remote areas using refined targeting and improved systems for vetting and monitoring.¹⁵⁵ The current response to the ongoing drought therefore provides many elements that can form the basis of a more coherent, sustainable and predictable social safety nets system. Cash assistance has been used in humanitarian response in Somalia since 2003. During the 2017 drought response, the use of cash as a modality has significantly scaled up, reaching up to three million individuals each month. Somalia has some unique characteristics which make cash-based interventions particularly appropriate. First, Somalia is dependent on food imports to meet its food needs and as such has developed extensive and robust markets to address demand even in the face of local production shortages. Moreover, on-going conflict continues to constrain access in many parts of the country, limiting road transport and the reach of traditional in-kind assistance. Finally, relatively quick to operationalize, cash assistance has not only played important life-saving and livelihood preserving roles, but has also helped to stimulate markets during time times of crisis. Some innovative cash approaches have also been introduced as a response to the drought, such as Cash+, combining cash transfers with productive inputs (seeds), thus enhancing the livelihoods and productive capacities of poor and vulnerable households.

Social protection does not exist as a formal sector, largely due to the absence of a legitimate and formal state for over 25 years. There is therefore a lack of capacity at all levels of Government to formulate policy, lead dialogue and coordinate activities or actors engaged in social protection activities. In the immediate term, there is a lack of policy frameworks and leadership leading to a lack of coherence across the current systems

of protection and less efficient use of funds. There is also a lack of institutions to promote accountability for violations against civilians and enforcement of existing laws in the country. While responding to effects of drought and conflict, there is need to strengthen policies and legal frameworks that promote and respond to human rights violations at different levels, as indicated in the NDP. There is a need to strengthen child protection systems to increase the Government's role in preventing and responding to violence and the abuse and exploitation of children, both during humanitarian situations and in more or less stable contexts.

The fluid movement of people between rural and urban areas is an important factor for consideration, and any long-term solution needs to take into account the mobility of the population, particularly in response to crises. However, Somalia's almost 75 percent mobile phone coverage and prevalence of mobile network operators have made it possible to deliver cash transfers through mobile phones. This development has changed the landscape of safety nets delivery in Somalia. The reliance of technology for cash transfer, however, could mean that older people are at risk of being excluded, as are populations in remote areas with limited access to technology. And the lack of trained social workers in the country means that the methods of targeting and supporting vulnerable groups will remain challenging.

The proposed recovery strategy for the social protection sector recognizes the ongoing crisis and the need to sustain support to the 6.2 million people still in need of assistance. The 2018 HRP describes the support through social safety nets that will need to be sustained throughout the year. The social protection strategy in this DINA does not, therefore, reflect these ongoing needs as part of the recovery and resilience costs for the sector.

The strategy seeks instead to i) bring greater coherence to existing channels and increase efficiency by increasing Government leadership in the sector and ii) develop and pilot systems, policies and processes that can serve as a basis for a sustainable social safety nets program that can respond to crises. This would build on existing successful cash transfer programs, leverage technology-based solutions, and integrate the ongoing efforts to develop an ID system for Somalia.

¹⁵⁵ UNOCHA and HCT. 2017. Somalia Humanitarian Response Plan: January – December 2018

In the short term, this strategy proposes to inject capacity into the Ministries of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management (MoHADM), the Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development (MoPIED) and the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development (MoWHRD) to develop policy and harmonize approaches among existing actors. Capacity is also needed at state and district level to start engaging sub-national government actors in monitoring, vetting and targeting activities. The Government will lead efforts to develop social protection policy and management frameworks (including management and implementation arrangements) and will lead research and analysis for the development of targeting and registration systems, building on the lessons of current successful programs.

With this capacity, policy, knowledge and system design in place, it will be possible to pilot a model for a sustainable social safety net program, led by Government, and implemented by appropriate partners under a coherent and harmonized framework. The social protection systems will aim to be risk-informed and shock-responsive, able to scale levels and coverage of assistance up and down according to the variable level of risk and exposure of vulnerable populations to shocks. Such a model would also look at working with local financial sector institutions to pilot household-level insurance products linked to cash transfers.

Table 24: Social Protection and Safety Nets Recovery Needs

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Injection of minimum capacity in MoHADM and MoPIED	National/State	X	X		168,000
Social Protection policy and framework, vulnerability analysis, capacity development of Government, communication strategy	National	X			1,515,000
Database inventory and analysis	National	X			100,000
Design of pilot incl. registry, targeting methodology, transfer systems, monitoring systems, grievance mechanism, vetting	National	X			5,000,000
Pilot of system in select geographic areas (incl. urban and rural) targeting 100,000	National/Regional		X		6,400,000
Total Social Protection and Safety Nets Needs					13,183,000



Gender

In Somalia, women are disadvantaged compared to men on all socio-economic and human development indicators. With a Gender Inequality Index of 0.776, the country ranks fourth lowest globally. Social norms and power structures impact the lives and opportunities available to different groups of men and women.¹⁵⁶ Addressing gender inequalities is critical to maximize impact and socioeconomic development to build resilience and sustainable peace.

Health and nutrition indicators are among the worst in the world with a life expectancy in 2016 of 57 years for women and 54 years for men.¹⁵⁷ The maternal mortality rate is estimated at 732 per 100,000 live births,¹⁵⁸ with one in 12 women dying due to pregnancy-related causes.¹⁵⁹ Somali children and their mothers continue to suffer from multiple nutritional deprivations, which deny them the opportunity to thrive and reach their full developmental potential.

Access to education remains a key gender concern with illiteracy rates for women and men of 76 and 60 percent, respectively, in IDP communities, and 59 and 39 percent, respectively, in host communities.¹⁶⁰ Women are also less likely to complete secondary education. This has lifelong consequences. Social norms lock girls and women into unequal power relationships, leaving many of them with little control over decisions that affect their lives, be it at household, community or national level. Their social, economic and political participation is limited despite their care work, their contribution to the household economy and their historic role in Somali society as community mobilizers and peace-builders. Labor opportunities are limited but characterized by a large gender gap, with labor force participation in 2015 amongst men of 76 percent versus 33 percent amongst women.¹⁶¹ As land and family assets are controlled by husbands or male relatives, with limitations on women's inheritance rights as well as limited access to skill training and markets, widows and female-headed households are particularly vulnerable. Lack of education further disempowers women.

¹⁵⁶ UNDP. 2012. Human Development Report: 2012.

¹⁵⁷ <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/country/somalia>.

¹⁵⁸ WHO. 2015. Trends in Maternal Mortality: 1990 to 2015.

¹⁵⁹ UNICEF. 2016. Situation Analysis of Children in Somalia 2016.

¹⁶⁰ UNHCR. 2016. Internal Displacement Profiling in Mogadishu.

¹⁶¹ Based on World Bank data.



The physical and psychological integrity of women and girls is not ensured. Early marriage is pervasive throughout the country, with 45 percent of women aged 20 to 24 married before the age of 18.¹⁶² This limits their educational and earning potential. Gender-based violence is a prevalent challenge throughout Somalia, driven notably by pervasive social norms, insecurity, poverty and displacement. Gender inequalities are further exacerbated by the displacement situation; displaced populations confront a range of severe protection challenges and lack access to basic services.

The drought has exacerbated the vulnerabilities and social marginalization of women. Prolonged exposure to the drought has extended traditional coping strategies, such as migration and family separation, contributing to school drop-outs of boys and girls and necessitating women to bear disproportionate responsibilities. The combination of increased traveling distances in search of water and firewood, additional unpaid care work in the face of increased drought-related diseases and

the need to adopt an income earning role (despite cultural barriers, reduced opportunities and limited time available) have resulted in increased work burden for women and drop-out rates for girls. Internally displaced because of the drought, women experience cultural intolerance and often become dependent on charity or humanitarian assistance, which severely heightens their marginalization and vulnerabilities. At the same time, this separation has created opportunities for some women to be economically empowered.

The drought has also put the women and children at higher risk of malnutrition and poor health as they traditionally eat after men and because of the huge migration of livestock left them with limited access to protein-rich food. In addition, women's risk to contract illnesses is particularly high due to their care function for the sick, children and elderly while their access to basic health services remains particularly limited.

¹⁶² Federal Government of Somalia. Somalia National Development Plan (2017-2019).

The drought has exacerbated the security situation of women and girls. Being excluded from asset ownership or having to operate through a patriarchal filter, the social support systems for women are compromised by conflict, regular exposure to disasters, and instability. During the drought, vulnerable people—notably women, children, minorities, the disabled, child- and female-headed households—are exposed to protection risks such as forced evictions, discrimination based on status and family separations due to lack of support structures and ungoverned settlements and hence have limited access to protective shelter. As women and girls travel longer distances without protection to find water, food, livelihoods and other resources, particularly for IDPs traveling outside formal or informal settlement areas, they are more exposed to GBV. The drought has induced massive displacement, with the majority of IDPs women and children. Gender inequalities are therefore aggravated. It is worth noting as well that the loss of assets combined with lack of access to education, skills training and livelihood opportunities leave men and boys unable to fulfill their duties of protectors and providers, making them further vulnerable due to their identity crisis, manifesting in a range of often negative coping mechanisms.

As a cross-cutting issue, gender needs to be streamlined across all the sectors included in the DINA recovery strategy. This requires a better understanding of the different barriers faced by men, women, boys and girls in accessing services, economic resources and political opportunities but also to leverage their contribution to the recovery. The collection and use of sex- and age-disaggregated data and the strengthening of gender-responsive governance in the short, medium and long term will facilitate the design and implementation of gender-sensitive policies and interventions. Specific support to facilitate women’s voice to be heard and to promote women’s participation and leadership is required. National- and district-level gender profiles need to be developed to inform programming. Furthermore, noting the disproportionate risk exposure of women and girls, targeted action addressing their specific needs is needed. Finally, a gender-balanced representation in recovery and resilience planning will be important. Other priority needs are treated in the respective sectors and cross-cutting sectors; however during the Recovery and Resilience Framework, a proper mechanism will need to be established to track progress.

Table 25: Gender Recovery Needs					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Implementation of sex-, age-disaggregated data (SADD) and gender analysis tools	National	X	X	X	4,300,000
Gender-responsive governance and promote women’s participation and leadership	National	X	X	X	4,400,000
Promote gender equality in disaster risk reduction	National	X	X	X	3,500,000
Women sustainable economic and livelihoods development	National	X	X	X	28,500,000
Gender-based Violence (GBV) targeted responses	National	X	X	X	3,500,000
Total Gender Needs					44,200,000

Urban Development and Municipal Services

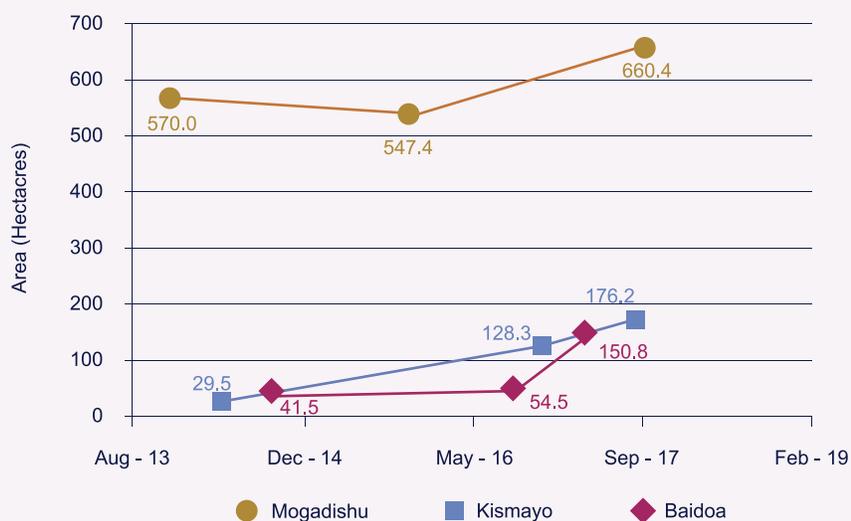
Somalia has experienced rapid urbanization due to significant migrations caused by protracted conflicts, insecurity, and cyclical natural disasters. As of September 2017, there were an estimated 2.1 million protracted internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Somalia, most of whom reside in urban areas.¹⁶³ The country is also witnessing increasing number of returnees and refugees from neighboring countries.

The 2016-2017 drought has displaced an estimated 926,000 people between November 2016 and September 2017.¹⁶⁴ The majority of the new displacements have occurred in regions such as Mudug, Bay and Benadir. Many of the drought-displaced people are hosted in settlements (Figure 40) in Mogadishu (161,000 people), Baidoa (174,000 people)¹⁶⁵ and Kismayo (42,000 people).¹⁶⁶ These three cities alone host almost 40 percent of the total drought-related displacements.¹⁶⁷ Drought-related displacement is occurring against the backdrop of ongoing conditions of poverty, vulnerability,

conflict and protracted displacement. The large and rising influx of drought-related displaced people in Somalia's urban areas puts additional stress on the already strained key sectors, particularly land, housing, health, education, water supply and sanitation, protection and jobs. Population displacement during drought or conflict is often associated with loss of ID documents and birth certificates.

IDPs have settled on public and private lands within and in the outskirts of cities, exacerbating the pressure on already scarce land (Figures 41, 42a and 42b). The ad hoc IDP settlements have exacerbated the urban sprawl in the cities, compounding pressure on land and service delivery. In the absence of security of land tenure, IDPs are highly vulnerable to forced eviction. Most of the drought-induced IDPs currently reside on Government or private land and do not have the authorization to build more permanent types of shelter. Recent assessments in the three cities have found that over 70 percent of the surveyed IDPs reside in *Buuls*,¹⁶⁸ a traditional shelter made of sticks and covered in plastic sheeting or rags.

Figure 40: Area Occupied by IDP Settlements in Baidoa, Kismayo and Mogadishu



Source: UNOSAT and UN-Habitat

¹⁶³ UNOCHA. 2017. Humanitarian Needs Overview: Nov. 2017.

¹⁶⁴ UNHCR. 2017. Displacements Dashboard, Protection & Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), Internal Displacements During September 2017.

¹⁶⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶⁶ Ipsos, 2017.

¹⁶⁷ Secondary cities are not in the focus of longer term development investments and support, but are mostly served by humanitarian agencies and charities.

¹⁶⁸ REACH. 2016. Baidoa Assessment.

Cities have not been able to keep pace with the large influx of IDPs, so provision of basic infrastructure and services is severely constrained. Urban sprawl exacerbated by new IDP settlements and compounded by lack of proper maintenance has resulted in congestion of vital regional roads. There is a significant need to construct or upgrade existing roads. The drought has made water supply precarious, and with increasing numbers of people moving into urban areas, the situation is worsening. Uncontrolled and informal exploitation of aquifers threaten sustainability, safety and access to water supplies in the city. The steady development of constructed areas that have not been properly planned is a significant risk for environmental degradation. Health facilities in urban areas have seen a surge of patient loads and are having difficulties in dealing with the growing demand. Furthering the burden on health facilities is the sharp rise in communicable diseases such as acute watery diarrhea (AWD)/cholera and the (re-) emergence of infections like measles. The majority of IDP children are out of school due to lack of access to schools and financial capacity. Solid waste management is being neglected. With the influx of additional labor supply, competition over jobs, particularly low-skilled jobs in construction, trade and service sectors, is likely to intensify in the long-term, causing potential social tension where the unemployment rate is as high as 40 percent.

Figure 41: IDP Settlements in Mogadishu

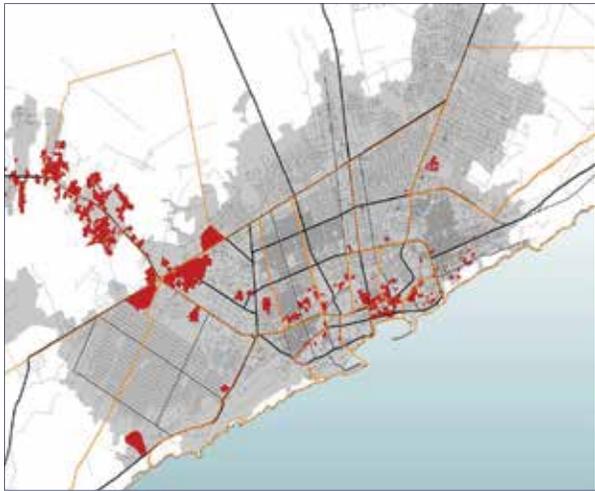


Figure 42a: IDP Settlements in Baidoa

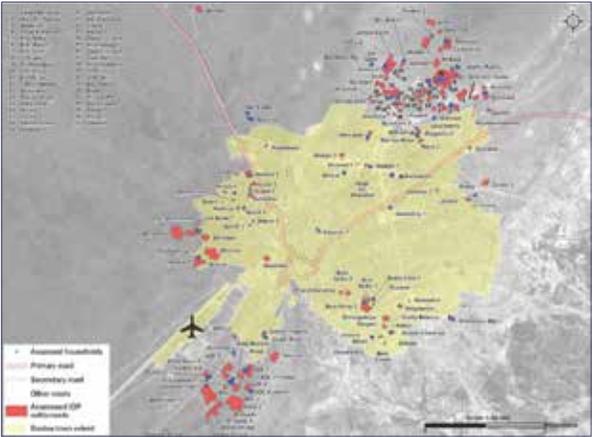
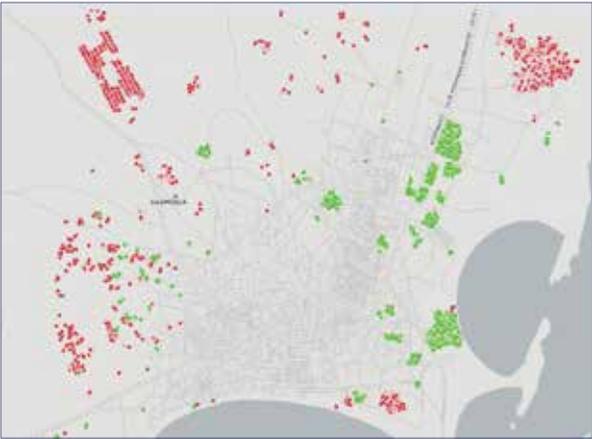


Figure 42b: IDP Settlements in Kismayo



Source: REACH Baidoa and IPSOS Kismayo IDP Settlement Assessment

Yet the government has limited capacity and resources to address the challenges. In the absence of public sector in the service provision, private sector led service delivery models have emerged. While private service providers fill in an important void, overreliance on private service delivery hinders the network approach to service delivery and results in fragmented service provision.

Cities must provide safety, respond to a large population influx and continue service delivery. Yet, current unplanned and unregulated city expansion has led to arbitrary distribution of land and has aggravated contestation over land. Intense competition over land exacerbates forced evictions, particularly among IDPs. In the absence of secure land tenure, IDPs and other urban poor have no choice but to rely on a system of “gatekeepers.” Informal social networks play an important role in providing protection, services, and employment opportunities. But dependence on social network affiliations plays to the disadvantage of those from minority groups and female-headed IDPs. Moreover, physical safety, particularly that of women and children, remains one of the most prominent risks in urban centers. These critical issues need to be addressed in the short term to alleviate the immediate stresses of rapid population movement to cities.

In the short term (within the next year), provision of temporary shelter to the high and increasing number of IDP is urgently needed until their situation stabilizes and they ultimately decide whether they would like to settle down in the urban areas or return to their places of origin. This requires the government to provide adequate public land so that IDPs can stay for an extended period without fear of eviction.

In the medium term, the assistance should have a broader focus to improve urban resilience by investing in the most affected sectors such as housing, water supply and sanitation, health, education, protection, as well as job creation in cities that have experienced and are likely to experience a large influx of IDPs. The recovery and resilience activities will focus on complementing activities

in the HRP to support a quicker transition to durable shelter solutions for IDPs. This will include addressing some of the underlying structural deficiencies that perpetuate and compound the challenge of providing durable solutions, such as secure land tenure, improved urban planning to better link IDP settlements to services and better coordination of services to benefit different population groups, and skills training (in construction, trade, and services) and placement support as well as enterprise development assistance to IDPs. Access to basic services should be improved by strengthening local government’s capacity to plan and coordinate, particularly at the municipal and district level. This would result in more effective and better-coordinated service delivery among different actors involved as well as linking provision of emergency services to long-term planning. Support to strengthen the capacity of the sub-national government needs to take place so that they can fulfill their responsibility and be in the driver’s seat.

In the long-term (beyond three years), support should focus on four key areas: regulating service delivery; streamlining intergovernmental relations; improving municipal and district urban planning capacities and approaches; and strengthening institutions related to land and housing. With almost 20 percent of the Somali population affected by displacement – of which 6.2 percent are drought-related – sustainable recovery, peace and development in Somalia can only be ensured with the integration of the displaced populations as an integral part of the urban development strategy. A phased approach that takes into account the continued need for non-state actors for service delivery but recognizes the long-term goal of a functioning Somali state that provides for the welfare of its people is required. Use of government systems, especially those of municipal governments, is recommended from the outset, recognizing that in the preliminary stages the Government systems will be limited to coordination and policy development functions.



Table 26: Urban Development and Municipal Services Recovery Needs

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Temporary shelters	Regional	X	X		33,000,750
Permanent shelters	Regional		X	X	61,018,100
Primary school construction	Regional		X	X	4,787,980
Latrines	Regional		X	X	1,443,100
School vouchers	Regional	X			22,869,411
Operating costs	Regional		X	X	7,222,000
Mobile clinics	Regional	X			1,335,104
AWD/cholera treatment	Regional	X			480,000
Water trucks	Regional	X			2,855,230
Boreholes	Regional		X	X	1,665,108
Sanitation	Regional	X	X		4,296,751
Skill training and placement	Regional	X	X		147,800,160
Capacity building for municipal government	Regional	X	X		4,500,000
Total Urban Development and Municipal Services Needs					293,273,694

Governance

Protracted armed conflict and disasters including droughts, famines and floods have been major drivers of fragility in Somalia over the past three decades. Government leadership has had to work under extreme constraints, with a lack of qualified staff, lack of funds and continued high levels of insecurity. Moreover, al-Shabaab continues to control much of the rural area of southern and central Somalia that has been hardest hit by the drought and where humanitarian access is limited.

Despite these challenges, the presence of the State has been re-emerging in the context of a new three-tiered federal system, which includes the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS), Federal Member States (FMS) and district level government. For the first time in over 30 years, Somalia issued a new NDP, covering the period 2017–19, that underpins a focus on building sustainable, efficient, effective, accountable and inclusive institutions. The NDP includes a pillar for building effective and efficient institutions (Chapter VI) which lays out the strategy for improving the way the Government is organized and operates.

As the Government works to strengthen core functions and establish the foundations of its federalist system, its ability to provide public services remains severely constrained. For example, education and health received only 2.5 percent of the federal budget (USD 6.2 million) in 2016, of which only 39 percent was disbursed.¹⁶⁹ Government capacity and resources for drought response are even more limited, given that many of the relevant structures have only recently been established or have yet to be formed. Revenue mobilization remains insufficient to meet demands; major expenditures continue to be recurrent costs, notably salaries and running costs of the administration.

Somalia remains heavily dependent on aid and remittances,¹⁷⁰ which are driving its consumption-driven growth.¹⁷¹ In 2016, it received an estimated USD 1.4 billion in remittances and USD 1.3 billion in official development assistance (ODA), of which approximately half was comprised of humanitarian aid.¹⁷² In comparison, total aid in 2017 is expected to reach close to USD 2 billion, driven by the surge of humanitarian support in response to the drought.¹⁷³

The drought has placed significant strain on already stretched government resources. It has understandably diverted attention from long-term institutional strengthening towards the provision of lifesaving support. However, the impact on public services was mitigated by the very limited role the Government plays in service delivery.¹⁷⁴ Moreover, the Government has persisted in implementing reforms and strengthening core capacity at federal, state and district level, with the support of the international community, albeit with slower than expected results.

Despite the ongoing drought, the Government succeeded in establishing the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management (MoHADM) in early 2017 to address the whole spectrum of crisis prevention/disaster risk reduction, preparedness, response and recovery by facilitating horizontal and vertical coordination between stakeholders, by offering necessary policy guidance, leadership, information sharing and by facilitating planning and implementation. MoHADM is designed to operate through a network of institutions at the federal, state and local levels; sub-national counterparts have yet to be further developed and strengthened. Although initial efforts to respond to drought were limited to coordination, this newly established entity demonstrates significant potential to increase the Government's capacity to prepare for and respond to natural disasters.¹⁷⁵

¹⁶⁹ World Bank. 2017. Somalia Economic Update (SEU).

¹⁷⁰ ODA and remittances, as a share of GDP, were estimated at 21 and 22 percent respectively in 2016 (before the surge in aid seen in 2017) – Federal Government of Somalia. 2017. Aid Flows in Somalia: Analysis of Aid Flow Data.

¹⁷¹ World Bank. 2017. Somalia Economic Update (SEU).

¹⁷² Federal Government of Somalia. 2017. Aid Flows in Somalia: Analysis of Aid Flow Data.

¹⁷³ Based on estimates derived from the OCHA FTS and preliminary data collected through the latest aid mapping exercise. Humanitarian aid commitments totaled USD 1.2 billion as of November 2017. Development aid is expected to remain steady at approximately USD 700 million.

¹⁷⁴ Due to the existing political gridlock between the center and the periphery, and sometimes within the center. This requires the completion of the constitutional review, and establishing a constitutional court at the federal level.

¹⁷⁵ UNOCHA. 2017. Somalia: Operational Plan for Famine Prevention - January-June 2017.

Given the Government's limited capacity and financial resources, its role in coordinating efforts supported by the international community is especially critical. In piloting the New Deal, Somalia made great strides towards focusing attention on priorities for peace- and state-building, fostering a country-owned and led approach to their transition from fragility, and improving aid effectiveness through a coherent, coordinated architecture. As part of the Somali Compact, the FGS and development partners established the Somalia Development and Reconstruction Facility (SDRF) as both a coordination framework and a financing architecture for implementing the Somali Compact, with the aim of enhancing the delivery of effective assistance to all Somalis. The SDRF also brings together three multi-partner trust funds under common governance arrangements administered by the United Nations (UN), the World Bank (WB) and the African Development Bank (AfDB).

Following the conclusion of the Somali Compact, the aid architecture was revised for the next phase of Somalia's development. Aligned with the NDP and Security Pact, the revised aid architecture brings the SDRF and the Comprehensive Approach to Security (CAS) under one overarching framework, the Somali Partnership Forum (SPF), which serves as the centerpiece for the partnership between the Government and international community. The aid architecture was not functional for much of 2017 due to delays associated with elections, the political transition, the diversion of attention towards drought response, and extended debates over the details of the revised structures. As such, the revised aid architecture is only now being revitalized. While this aid architecture is the centerpiece for partnership between Government and the international community, it will need to be strengthened to support an expedited recovery program. Furthermore, by addressing governance deficits at federal, state and district level, the recovery program will be addressing one of the structural drivers of fragility in the country.

The recovery needs interventions for the Governance sector are detailed in Table 27.

Table 27: Governance Recovery Needs					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Expert Personnel (+/- 250 staff for 24 months)	National		X		41,000,000
Office equipment	National		X		2,200,000
Capacity building activities specific to recovery and resilience	National		X		3,200,000
Development of legislative framework & related consultations	National		X		1,900,000
Building leadership capacity within the Somali Government on oversight and delivery against an accountability framework	National		X		800,000
Establishing Database Center and strengthening statistical capacity and information management	National		X		2,700,000
Building recovery program management capacity within Federal and State Min of Planning (2 years)	National		X		6,000,000
Access to finance for social entrepreneurs and innovators	National	X	X	X	560,000
Total Governance Needs					58,360,000



Conflict

Violent conflict is present in Somalia at several interrelated levels. First, conflict has at times been exacerbated by the involvement of Somalia's neighbors and broader regional and global interests. Second, civil war, which erupted in 1991 after the overthrow of the Barre regime and resultant collapse of central government, pitted armed factions often recruited along lineage lines. Third, violent jihadism was added to this scenario in the form of the Islamic Courts Union (ICU) from which al-Shabaab subsequently arose. Fourth, local communal conflicts, typically over natural resources such as land, pasture, water rights, or economic rents, may result in violence, often at the sub-clan level. Fifth, the incidence of criminal, interpersonal violence and gender-based violence is high. The recruitment and use of children—and often their abduction by armed forces and groups—means the future of children as young as 10 years old is jeopardized as a result of years of conflict. According to the UN Secretary General, the number of children recruited in 2016 (1,915) doubled compared with 2015 as a result of increased attacks by al-Shabaab.¹⁷⁶

These levels are interrelated: local conflicts implicate wider tensions, alliances and grievances at other levels, drawing on a repertoire of injustices going back to the colonial period, land grabbing under the Barre regime and the civil war. Together, these factors continue to make Somalia the most conflict-affected country in Africa in 2017, with 3,287 recorded fatalities and 1,537 violent events as at September 22nd.¹⁷⁷ October's three bomb attacks in Mogadishu—including the October 14 attack that killed over 500—show that the threat remains significant.

Somali culture recognizes the association between war and drought (col iyo abaar). The antithesis is captured in a traditional saying, "nabad iyo caano" ("peace and milk"), recognizing the association of prosperity with security. A 2014 study demonstrates the causal relationship between extreme weather events and the incidence of civil conflict in Somalia. Between 1997 and 2009, one standard deviation increase in drought intensity and length is estimated as raising the likelihood of conflict by 62 percent. The authors also find that the impact of drought on local conflict was mediated through livestock price shocks, which increased the incentives for conflict.¹⁷⁸

The drought in Somalia has exacerbated conflicts over pasturelands and natural resources. "Conflict or violence" was the most frequently cited of the difficulties or shocks in the survey undertaken for this assessment in October 2017, with almost one in four households having experienced conflict or violence in the past month.¹⁷⁹ The map below provides a visual representation of the relationship between drought and conflict.

Drought and conflict, both independently and in combination, cause displacement. The two are so closely entwined as drivers of displacement that it is not always possible or meaningful to distinguish between them.¹⁸⁰ Of the 1.1 million internally displaced from November 2016 to September 2017, 171,000 were classified as "conflict/security" related, and 926,000 as "drought related." "Conflict-driven" displacement was more geographically focused, with 71 percent being displaced from just one of Somalia's 18 regions, Lower Shabelle (South West State).

¹⁷⁶ UN. 2017. Children and Armed Conflict. Report of the Secretary General. P.20 <http://undocs.org/A/72/361>.

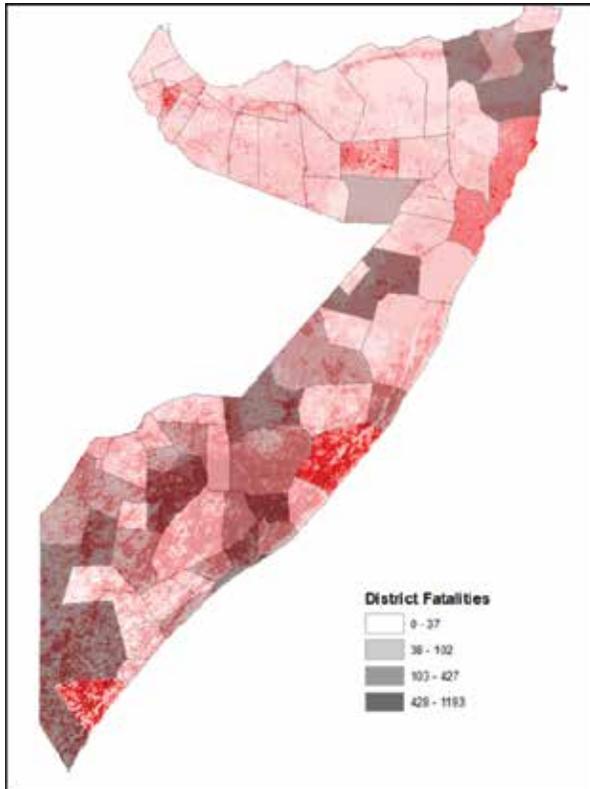
¹⁷⁷ ACLED. 2017. Somalia: 2017 Update. Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Base. September 22, 2017.

¹⁷⁸ Maystadt, Jean-Francois and Olivier Ecker. 2014. 'Extreme Weather and Civil War in Somalia . 'Does Drought Fuel Conflict through Livestock Price Shocks?' American Journal of Agricultural Economics.

¹⁷⁹ World Bank and Ipsos. 2017. Somalia Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA).

¹⁸⁰ Protection Cluster, 2017. Protection Risk Analysis 2017 (draft).

Figure 43: Somalia Fatalities by District (In Grey) and Drought Intensity (In Red)



Source: Protection Cluster, 2017. *Protection Risk Analysis 2017 (draft)*

The conflict and security situation also exerts a very direct impact on drought response, as well as its effectiveness. Insecurity places severe restrictions on access by humanitarian aid and development assistance, as well as on trade and freedom of movement. In the first ten months of 2017, humanitarian organizations were subjected to 130 violent incidents, with 15 persons killed, 32 injured and 30 abducted.¹⁸¹ Security challenges mean the distribution of humanitarian and

development aid is unavoidably mediated through existing power structures. Intermediaries may limit the distribution of assistance to groups not allied to them or lacking in political capital, reinforcing the dependency of vulnerable groups on the politically better-placed and aggravating existing tensions, grievances and inequalities.

Somalia's security situation also has fiscal consequences relevant to the funding of drought response and development services. International partners spend some USD 1.5 billion a year on peacekeeping, counterinsurgency and support to the Somali security sector (much more if anti-piracy measures are included), while the FGS in 2014 and 2015 spent 45 percent and 33 percent of the national budget, respectively (USD 68 million and USD 44 million), on security. Numerous informal armed groups and militias also extort millions of dollars annually in predatory "taxes" on citizens.¹⁸²

The drivers and impacts of conflict, as set out in the fuller text of this analysis (see Volume II), are complex and interconnected. They will need to be addressed through an integrated approach that brings together humanitarian, recovery and developmental approaches to address long-term poverty, marginalization and limited access to certain areas.

In the design of drought response, resource allocation, needs assessment and selection criteria should all be evidence-based, transparent, and rooted in an understanding of the social and conflict context. Monitoring and evaluation should also address social and conflict issues, so that lessons can be learned about what works in particular circumstances. In the medium and long term, these considerations apply to the development of policy frameworks (e.g., for service delivery) as much as to specific responses. Such knowledge is an indispensable foundation of action, as ill-considered intervention is not only wasteful but may cause real harm. The fate of many earlier attempts to build institutions or implement programs in Somalia ought to be a sufficient lesson in this regard.

¹⁸¹ UNOCHA. 2017. Sarah Otuku. Personal Communication.

¹⁸² World Bank. 2017. Somalia Security and Justice Sector Public Expenditure Review.

Two elements in particular will build resilience against both future drought and conflict. These are: first, restored economic growth, employment and reduced inequality; and second, increased legitimacy of Government and public institutions through transparency and improved performance. At household level, resilience will be built through investment aiming at increasing production and productivity, promotion of climate smart agriculture, diversifying income sources, provision of social safety nets and basic social services, and strengthening of positive coping strategies.

Disputes over land are a driver of conflict, as are past expropriations. Insecurity of land tenure is also a major factor impeding the capability of the urban poor and displaced persons. Somalia's NDP recognizes the need to develop national land and urban policies, specifically with a focus on climate change mitigation and natural disaster planning. Stable and equitable policies are needed for both development and the settling or resettling of the displaced. The issues are very complex, and Somalia's partners should consider supporting a participatory deliberative process aimed at developing consensus on a way forward on land tenure and management.¹⁸³

The conflict analysis outlined here supports the priority given in other sections of this assessment (including Urban Development and Displacement & Migration sections) to a focus on urban development to address urban poverty and marginalization, including that of the displaced. In addition to land policy, this would entail a focus on infrastructure, shelter, services and livelihoods, and the development of smaller urban centers.¹⁸⁴ Construction could itself be a major opportunity for developing skills and employment opportunities.

Youth unemployment has been identified as a driver of conflict. Support for establishing productive livelihoods would accordingly help to establish the conditions for a more peaceful and stable Somalia. As recognized in the NDP,¹⁸⁵ sustainable rural livelihoods require sound environmental and natural resources management policies along with rural services. The employability of urban youth is limited by their very low educational

status, especially among minorities and IDPs. Along with education, technical and vocational training, credit and employment schemes will also have their place. These are addressed in more detail in other sections of the report.¹⁸⁶

Displacement

Current drought conditions compound pronounced development deficits and humanitarian challenges in Somalia, including existing rates of acute and protracted displacement. Prior to the current drought, over 1.1 million people were already internally displaced, while fewer than one million Somali refugees lived in neighboring countries. Forced displacement has occurred in Somalia due to more than 20 years of internal conflict, insecurity, political uncertainty, human rights violations and governance failures. These factors are further compounded by cyclical environmental challenges, including periods of acute drought and famine. Many communities have further experienced multiple displacements from the forcible acquisition of their land or forced evictions, particularly in urban areas, contributing to a loss of assets and livelihoods.¹⁸⁷ In 2017, families in various states of Somalia, in particular Galmudug and Southwest State, were under pressure by al-Shabaab to provide children to the armed group. As a result, families made their children flee al-Shabaab controlled areas to escape recruitment. Overall, UNICEF and partners provided assistance to 3,700 unaccompanied and separated children between January and October 2017, and family reunification for some of the displaced children is a challenge due to insecurity.¹⁸⁸

The inability to provide adequately for IDPs in Somalia has led to disparities and exclusion, which has only further weakened community resilience and exacerbated vulnerabilities. IDPs are consistently more vulnerable and have a lower standard of living than host communities or economic migrants, though all face poverty and deprivation. Nine out of ten people living in IDP camps live in poverty, and the internally displaced account for more than two-thirds (68 percent) of those in crisis and emergency.¹⁸⁹

¹⁸³ See sections on Environment, Clean Energy and Natural Resources, Livestock and Urban Development.

¹⁸⁴ See Urban Development section.

¹⁸⁵ Federal Government of Somalia. National Development Plan (2017-2019).

¹⁸⁶ See Employment and Livelihoods section.

¹⁸⁷ Protection Cluster, 2017. Protection Risk Analysis 2017 (draft). The profiling survey conducted in Mogadishu indicates, for example, that 46 percent of IDPs in Mogadishu had moved multiple times before arriving at their current residence. 31 percent faced eviction over the previous six months, and 37 percent feared eviction in the coming six months – Joint IDP Profiling Service (JIPS). 2016. Internal Displacement Profiling in Mogadishu.

¹⁸⁸ UNICEF. 2017. Somalia Situation Report: November 2017.

¹⁸⁹ Federal Government of Somalia. 2016. National Development Plan (2017-2019).

Box 9: Homeless and Hungry: The Journey Continues



Hawaya is a long way from home looking for any kind of assistance in Doolow, a border town along the Ethiopian border (Jubaland State). The pair had been traveling over four nights from their rural village, 120km away. Like most who end up in Doolow, she has lost virtually everything to the ongoing drought, including her husband and eldest son who both died just a week ago of starvation.

Heartbroken, Hawaya set out with her daughter Nasibo to Doolow, where they heard that humanitarian agencies were providing assistance. Leaving nothing behind but a donkey cart, as even the donkey had died, they traveled over four nights to reach the town. At some points, the pair had to cross through known Al-Shabaab territory but had fortunately not encountered them. When asked if she had feared of encountering, them she replied that she was fearful of Al-Shabaab, but equally fearful of what could have happened to her child as a consequence of the drought if she had stayed.

Homeless, hungry, and in desperate need of assistance, she gets emotional trying to describe the feelings that she is going through. "I cannot put words to what I feel about losing my husband and son, but I do feel as if I am at war with this famine and drought. I will not forget this time in my life."

Should no aid come to her soon, Hawaya and Nasibo will likely have to continue their journey further across the Ethiopian border, where they hope food and shelter can be found in a refugee camp.

Source: IOM

Forced displacement, which typically takes place from rural to urban areas, is contributing to the increasing urbanization of Somalia and the creation of a disenfranchised urban underclass in formal and informal settlements. The influx of displaced to urban areas places increasing pressure on already limited resources, infrastructure and services, while adding to social tensions. IDPs often lack access to affordable housing and secure land tenure, which increases vulnerability to forced evictions and drives IDPs to the margins of urban areas. Despite these challenges, IDPs are likely to remain in urban areas. Precedents in Somalia and evidence from other contexts demonstrate positive correlation between the duration of displacement in an urban context and the likelihood for IDPs to permanently remain.

The returns of Somali refugees from neighboring countries, including from Dadaab refugee camp in Kenya, to urban centers place additional strain on overstretched services and exacerbate existing development deficits. Nearly 40,000 people returned from Dadaab, primarily to urban catchment areas in Kismayo, Baidoa and Mogadishu.¹⁹⁰ In the absence of comprehensive reintegration and development support, returnees are likely to become IDPs as well.

Forced displacement predominantly affects groups that are already socially and politically marginalized. Poverty and deprivation caused by IDPs' loss of assets and livelihoods are sustained and reinforced by political, social and cultural processes. Minority clan status, gender and the dislocation from clanship and patronage

¹⁹⁰ UNHCR. 2016. Refugee Population Verification Exercise.

networks contribute to entrenched marginalization and wider experiences of exclusion, which ultimately render IDPs more vulnerable, less able to restore viable livelihoods and living conditions, and less in a position to integrate with the society of the host community. Displaced women and children are among the most vulnerable and confront multiple constraints including lack of adequate shelter, limited economic opportunities and lack of control over critical resources, while also facing increased vulnerability to gender-based violence due to limited security in the IDP settlements, poor living conditions and limited clan protection.

In response to these challenges, the Government has committed to the development of a comprehensive approach to address displacement in Somalia and has integrated achieving durable solutions as a priority development objective under the Resilience Pillar in the NDP. Complementary initiatives such as the Durable Solutions Initiative (DSI) launched in 2016 aim to support these efforts. The DSI provides a collective framework for harmonizing durable solutions approaches and programming, advancing a holistic, multi-sectoral, multi-stakeholder approach with Government, humanitarian and development actors.

The current drought, combined with increasing incidence of conflict, has rapidly accelerated rates of internal displacement in Somalia. Between November 2016 and September 2017, 926,000 persons were displaced due to drought, while 171,000 others recorded as displaced by conflict in the same period.¹⁹¹ While household data indicate a relatively even share of male- and female- households (48 and 52 percent respectively) among the newly displaced, nearly 65 percent of those displaced fall under the age of 18. Women and children under the age of 18 therefore account for more than three-quarters (84 percent) of those displaced.¹⁹²

Recent displacements extend primarily from rural to urban and peri-urban areas. Receiving regions with the highest concentrations of displaced include Bay, Benadir, Mudug and Lower Shabelle respectively, with heaviest concentrations in urban catchment areas in and around Baidoa, Mogadishu, Galkayo and Kismayo. New arrivals frequently join existing, congested settlements, or establish temporary sites. New IDPs further combine with continuing returns from Kenya, which amount to nearly 28,000 between January-June 2017.¹⁹³ It is foreseen that with the continuation

of drought conditions and localized conflict, people from rural areas will continue to move to urban centers in increasing numbers and join settlements for internally displaced.

The influx of displaced to urban areas compounds existing pressures in access to services, land and other resources, while reinforcing earlier patterns of deprivation, marginalization and exclusion. IDPs face severe nutritional and food security challenges and confront serious access constraints to basic services (e.g., water and health) and livelihoods that impede resilience to drought. Forced eviction remains a significant challenge to those confronting both protracted and recent displacement; nearly 110,000 IDPs have been evicted in 2017 in total.¹⁹⁴ There is speculation that increasing rates of eviction may reflect increased rent-seeking behavior from gatekeepers and landowners seeking to profit from humanitarian assistance targeting those newly displaced.

Increasing rates of displacement are further linked to worsening protection challenges, particularly for displaced women and children. Between April and June 2017, incidence of GBV increased 9 percent and included cases of physical and sexual assault as well as child sexual abuse.¹⁹⁵ Of these cases, over three-quarters of survivors are IDPs, with incidence linked to congestion and poor security conditions in camps, as well as extended distances between water and sanitation facilities in settlements. Protection risks for children include family separation and child recruitment, arbitrary arrest, drop out from or lack of access to education, and elevated exposure to GBV including assault, and early and forced marriage.¹⁹⁶

Addressing the accumulated caseload of displaced will be a central challenge both to drought recovery and to the long-term stability and development of Somalia. Drought recovery programming should lay the foundation for the achievement of durable solutions for displaced populations, refugee returns and affected communities. The rapid expansion of displaced populations, combined with challenges confronting existing rates of displacement, return and wider poverty and vulnerability, highlights the need to move beyond care and maintenance to a holistic, long-term approach advancing self-reliance, resilience and socio-economic integration through partnerships with Government, humanitarian and development actors

¹⁹¹ UNHCR. 2017. Displacements Dashboard, Protection & Return Monitoring Network (PRMN), Internal Displacements during September 2017.

¹⁹² Ibid.

¹⁹³ Regional Durable Solutions Secretariat. 2017. Self-Reliance and Resilience for Displacement-Affected Communities in Somalia. ReDSS/Somali NGO Consortium Brief.

¹⁹⁴ UNOCHA. 2017. Humanitarian Dashboard: April 2017.

¹⁹⁵ Based on Gender-Based Violence Information Management System (GBVIMS) data 2017.

¹⁹⁶ Protection Cluster. 2017. Protection Risk Analysis 2017 (draft).

Box 10: Exclusion in Somalia

Exclusion is defined as a process or state that prevents individuals or groups from full participation in social, economic and political life and from asserting their rights. Exclusion derives from exclusionary power relationships resulting from social identity (e.g., race, gender, ethnicity, caste/social groups/tribe or religion) and/or social location (areas that are remote, stigmatized or suffering from war/conflict) or some combination thereof (DG-ECHO 2016). The forms of exclusion will vary by social and political context, and those who are socially excluded may often be less visible and vulnerable because of discrimination against them and their low participation in community decision-making and political processes. Exclusion is frequently deeply engrained in culture and likely to be exacerbated by crisis and conflict.

In Somalia, dimensions of exclusion link to social groups, ethnic and livelihood groups, gender, age, displacement status, and disability (as emerges in more detail in the sections on Gender, Conflict and Displacement & Migration). Factors of exclusion often overlap and intersect, and contribute to or compound acute protection challenges. Somali society is dynamic and hierarchical, involving shifting interactions and alliances between social groups, sub-groups, ethnic groups and other social groups. These interactions contribute to evolving relations and divisions and particularly between the power of social groups, with consequent marginalization of lower status groups. Minority and marginalized groups, dislocated from social support networks and traditional and formal decision-making structures, are frequently vulnerable to exploitation and deprivation, having minimal political representation and limited access to education, formal employment, remittances, or humanitarian relief. Data on the population of minorities in Somalia is sparse and contested, although UNOCHA in 2002 estimated that they comprised one third of the population (Hill, 2011).

Minority groups have been particularly vulnerable during Somalia's decades of violent instability and have been among the groups most severely affected during climatic crises. Evidence from the 2011 and 1991 droughts indicates that the famine-affected population was predominantly drawn from particular groups. These largely agricultural or agropastoral groups have suffered a long history of marginalization, predation and expropriation of their land (Majid and McDowell, 2012; Lindley, 2014; Besteman, 2016). They are often excluded from the economic and political networks that could grant them access to physical, political or judicial protection, and to coping mechanisms such as remittances from overseas. The same excluded social and ethnic groups have been the most likely to suffer forced displacement during conflict and drought, often of a repeated and protracted nature. As IDPs, they suffer discrimination based on presumed identity, appearance, livelihood grouping and community of origin and demonstrate worse levels of nutrition, health, education, access to employment and other services than their (also very poor) neighbors in host communities. In IDP camps in peri-urban and urban areas where the displaced live in continuing and often worsening conditions of deprivation, exclusion is deepened and takes a spatial form. IDPs are vulnerable to exploitation by land owners and extortion by camp "gatekeepers" who use them to attract and divert humanitarian assistance (Human Rights Watch, 2013; Bryld et al., 2013; 2017). They are denied political rights, have limited access to justice and have limited to no security of residence or land tenure, being regularly subject to forced eviction. The impact of the current drought reinforces these dynamics of exploitation and marginalization: over 100,000 IDPs have been evicted between January and August 2017, reflecting a 15 percent increase in evictions as compared with the same time period the year prior.

Gender dynamics further inform and deepen patterns of exclusion. The traditional social system upon which socio-cultural norms are rooted assigns women inferior social and legal status and structurally excludes women from peace building and participation in political and public decision-making. Realization and enforcement of rights are challenged by traditional socio-cultural norms including early and forced marriage and FGM/C. (LOGICA, 2013) The complex interaction between statutory, religious and customary law further undermines women's individual rights and impede women's access to land, assets and other critical resources. Women and girls (as well as boys) confront significant protection challenges, including exposure to varying forms of gender-based violence. The context of conflict, recurring natural crises and displacement further compounds these challenges; incidence rates for sexual and physical assault, as well as other violations, are highest among displaced women and children. The climate of impunity and lack of redress for gender-based violations at community, civil, and judicial levels are further forms of gender exclusion.

Source: United Nations Assistance Mission in Somalia (UNSOM)



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at all levels. Recovery interventions should align with the Government-led efforts to address displacement, including developmental priorities to enable durable solutions highlighted in the NDP, as well as build on existing initiatives to address displacement, such as the DSI.

While some returns to communities of origin are possible, safe and voluntary return may not be feasible, due to ongoing insecurity and absence of basic services, or desirable for those unwilling to return. Given the context of rapid urbanization within which displacement and return take place, recovery interventions fostering local integration in urban centers and secondary towns remain a priority. Recovery programming should therefore look to address i) urban solutions, including sustainable integration in urban and peri-urban areas, and; ii) rural solutions, including return and (re) integration in rural/remote areas (including IDPs who intend on returning to these areas/places of origin, "stayees"/host communities, and various vulnerable and minority groups).

For population in urban or peri-urban areas, shorter-term support will focus on addressing basic needs, access to basic services, protection services, and support for early recovery, including cash transfers, medical assistance and access to basic livelihoods. A medium- to long-term recovery strategy will include investments in infrastructure and services delivery, improved housing and land tenure security, promotion or restoration of

livelihood opportunities and interventions to strengthen protection and social cohesion. Recovery should also necessarily include support for building capacity and legitimacy of state and local authorities to promote recovery and resilience of IDP populations and to lead long-term durable solutions, including through planned urban expansion, land management, dispute resolution and inclusive planning.

Recovery interventions targeting rural/remote populations and those wanting to return to communities of origin should include an operational framework and regular assessment of conditions required to enable sustainable return and resettlement in a safe, dignified and voluntary manner. Medium-term interventions include provision of a basic package of start-up assistance to enable return, such as cash and livelihood support and medium- to long-term investments to support strengthening of local authorities and to provide socio-economic infrastructure and service delivery in places of return.

Recovery interventions targeting IDPs are integrated across sectors, particularly as related to socio-economic investments in urban development (including improved basic service provision, housing and shelter and skills development needs for urban displaced) and also social protection interventions. Separate costing for discrete displacement-related interventions has been developed. (See Table 28).

Table 28: Displacement Recovery Needs

Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Urban and Peri-Urban Areas					
Collection of sex- and age-disaggregated profile data of displaced and returning populations	National		X	X	2,000,000
Monitoring costs (social cohesion, displacement movements, etc.)	National		X		500,000
IDP personal identity documentation and civil registration	National			X	1,000,000
Capacity building of state and local authorities to promote recovery and resilience of IDP populations	National		X		1,000,000
Community-based participatory planning processes	National		X	X	2,000,000
Support for the participation in civic life, dispute resolution and peaceful co-existence in displacement affected areas	National		X	X	1,000,000
Promoting land tenure security through improved policies and frameworks, including improved land use planning	National			X	500,000
Development and adoption of federal and state level policy on internal displacement and reintegration of returnees	National			X	500,000
Rural and Remote Areas					
Assessment of conditions for safe return through area-based solutions analysis	National		X		500,000
Collect population profile data on remote/rural	National		X		1,000,000
Skills development and livelihoods restoration	National	X	X	X	12,000,000
Support for market access and strengthened value chains for partial returns (including those with family member remaining in urban areas)	National		X	X	1,000,000
Support strengthening of local authorities	National	X			1,000,000
Communication and sensitization to support re/integration of IDPs and to enable participation in civic life, dispute resolution and peaceful co-existence.	National	X			1,000,000
Establish/strengthen transparent dispute resolution mechanism to manage land disputes	National		X		1,000,000
Total Displacement Needs					26,000,000

Disaster Risk Reduction, Risk Financing and Drought Resilience

DRR: Risk Profile and Background

The humanitarian crisis in Somalia is among the most complex protracted emergencies in the world.¹⁹⁷ Somalia is highly vulnerable to disasters – the country ranks 15th on the list among the developing countries at high disaster risk.¹⁹⁸ Drought and inconsistent *Gu* and *Deyr* rainfalls are a relentless, underlying threat. Somalia has endured multiple, severe drought incidents, with historical trends showing droughts occur regularly at intervals of 2-3 years in the *Deyr* and 8-10 years in consecutive *Deyr* and *Gu* seasons.

In addition to drought, Somalia is exposed to the risks of floods and other hazards. Floods are annual phenomena with the most severe occurrence during the months of March-May and September-November in the riverine areas along the two rivers, Jubba and Shabelle. Other hazards include cyclones and storm surges, and mild earthquakes.

DRM Legal, Policy and Institutional Arrangements in Somalia

With the breakout of armed conflict in the early 1990s, state institutions collapsed. There has since been a vacuum in terms of comprehensive and coordinated disaster management policy and institutions. As a result, hundreds of non-governmental organizations (NGOs), both national and international, United Nations (UN) agencies, religious groups and donor assistance have provided humanitarian aid in response, as a lifeline for communities to survive during and after disasters. Some of the regions within the country, namely Somaliland and Puntland, have developed autonomous institutions as regional governments in these areas took control. In the rest of the country, absence of any unified governance structure meant that uncoordinated and ad hoc mechanisms to deal with disasters have

become the norm. While these may have constituted the only humanitarian assistance for affected people, a comprehensive approach to dealing with disaster risk management, risk reduction, mitigation, response and recovery has not received due attention until recently when the Somali Disaster Management Agency (SoDMA) and the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management (MoHADM) were established and a National Disaster Management Policy developed.

Disaster Risk Financing in Somalia

Donors play a significant role in financing development as well as humanitarian relief in Somalia. In 2016, official development assistance (ODA) for Somalia amounted to USD 1.3 billion, equivalent to 21 percent of Somalia's 2016 GDP. Of that amount, 48 percent was humanitarian aid and 52 percent development aid. From 2007-2016, the average proportion of humanitarian ODA out of total ODA was 58 percent, with development ODA accounting for the remainder. Only a small fraction of ODA is channeled through Government systems, with 8 percent of development aid being "on treasury" in 2016. Actual budget expenditure in that year amounted to USD 171 million, which is only 13 percent of ODA.

Remittances are another key source of external financing for Somalia, estimated at USD 1.4 billion in 2016 (23 percent of GDP). Foreign direct investment flows were equivalent to 12 percent of GDP. Compared to external financing, domestic resource mobilization is very limited, with Government revenues amounting to only two percent of GDP in 2016. Somalia has a contingency budget, with an allocation of USD 2.3 million in the revised 2017 budget, which can be used for emergency expenditures on the authority of the Minister.

Overall, Somalia is very dependent on external aid for disaster response. This is evidenced by a significant spike (of 221 percent) of humanitarian ODA flows in response to the 2011 drought. Available data for 2017 suggests a similar significant spike in response to the ongoing drought, with reported humanitarian flows already 52 percent higher than in 2016, when flows were already above the average of the past 10 years.

¹⁹⁷ UNDP. 2015. Somalia Project Document - Enhancing Climate Resilience of the Vulnerable Communities and Ecosystems in Somalia.

¹⁹⁸ UNOCHA. 2015. Humanitarian Response Plan: 2016.



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In the case of droughts, disaster risk financing (DRF) strategies need to be closely integrated with policies and investment decisions related to agriculture and food security. Drought risk needs to be addressed through a combination of policy and financial measures, which include national contingency/emergency reserve, financing augmented supplies of food grains, support subsidies or social safety nets for vulnerable populations, and in acute situations, ensuring the continuity of humanitarian responses.

Given the volatility of ODA flows and past experience with delayed response, initial DRF efforts could focus on ensuring that external sources of financing are in place ex-ante to respond quickly to future disasters at sufficient scale. Such funds could then be disbursed based on the stages of drought in question. The success of such instruments will depend on donor/partner interest in shifting their own operational modalities to support collective, pre-planned, rules-based financing.

International Humanitarian Assistance

In the absence of organized Government mechanisms, the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) has mobilized and coordinated humanitarian efforts in Somalia since 1999.

Donors play a significant role in financing development as well as humanitarian relief in Somalia. In line with the purpose of the Grand Bargain from the World Humanitarian Summit to anticipate and prepare for crises, deliver protection and assistance better to the most vulnerable and restore opportunity and dignity to them, donors have moved quickly to commit or pledge more than USD 862 million for the implementation of the 2017 HRP.¹⁹⁹ This unprecedented level of early support in the Somalia context has enabled operational agencies to rapidly reach millions of Somalis with safe water, food and medical assistance.

The Somalia Humanitarian Fund (SHF) is a multi-donor, country-based pooled fund established in 2010 to support the timely allocation and disbursement of donor resources to address the most urgent humanitarian needs in Somalia. Almost USD 400 million was allocated by SHF for humanitarian response in Somalia since 2011.

The World Bank in May 2017 approved a USD 50 million emergency project – the Somalia Emergency Drought Response and Recovery Project (SEDRP) - to scale up the drought response and recovery efforts in Somalia. This project, implemented through FAO and ICRC, is in addition to the ongoing “Strengthening Capacity for Disaster and Climate-Risk Management in Somalia,” a project funded to the tune of USD 450,000.

Effects and Impact of the Drought

The back-to-back drought episodes have had the devastating effect of diminishing any possibilities of the affected communities to bounce back. Their livestock, which is their main source of livelihoods, has not been able to regenerate and recover in numbers. This has resulted in a vicious cycle of poverty. The droughts have had a devastating effect on most of the pre-existing water sources, leading to their progressive and then definitive drying-up. For instance, due to poor rainfall experienced in the upper parts of the Shabelle basin during the previous rainy season, coupled with over utilization of the river water in Somalia and Ethiopia, a significant reduction in the water levels in Shabelle River has been witnessed, according to the Somalia Water and Land Information Management (SWALIM).

The current humanitarian situation in Somalia continues to deteriorate and an elevated risk of famine persists in some parts of the country. At its peak, over 6.7 million people were estimated to be in need of protection and humanitarian assistance, more than half of the population of Somalia.²⁰⁰ Major disease outbreaks are spreading, with an increase in cases of Acute Watery Diarrhea (AWD)/Cholera and measles.

In the absence of effective DRM institutions, the combination of climatic shocks such as drought and floods, compounded by conflict, has resulted in full-scale humanitarian crises. The inheritance of conflict in Somalia has weakened the capacity of Government institutions to address consequences of disasters such as El Niño or other climate-related challenges and natural hazards.

¹⁹⁹ As of November 2017, OCHA.

²⁰⁰ UNOCHA. 2017. Somali: Humanitarian Dashboard: July 2017.

Recovery Needs

The total recovery needs estimated for strengthening the DRR system in Somalia is USD 5 million.

Table 29: Summary Needs for Disaster Risk Reduction and Drought Resilience					
Summary of Drought Recovery Needs					
Intervention	Level of Activity (national/ regional)	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
DRM Policy and legislation Harmonization of existing institutional, legislative and policy frameworks – including finalization of the current DRM Policy					425,000
Harmonization of Existing Policies and Institutions	National	X	X		200,000
Finalization of draft National DRM Policy	National	X	X		125,000
Enactment of DRM Laws	National		X		100,000
Capacity building of National DRM institutions					1,575,000
DRM Preparedness, Contingency Planning and Risk Financing (Fund)	National		X	X	950,000
Personnel and Training at National and Subnational Level and Mainstreaming of DRM in Development Sectors	National	X	X	X	275,000
Capacity Building of National DRM Institutions - Equipment and Facilities	National	X	X	X	350,000
Early warning and information management system (Met services, Information channeling)					2,125,000
Basic National Met Services Station Connected to Regional Met Agencies	National		X	X	1,475,000
Emergency Communication and Control Rooms	National		X	X	450,000
EW Information Management and Channeling	National	X	X	X	200,000
Drought Management system					875,000
Drought Cycle Management Training	National	X			175,000
Drought Coordination Mechanism	National	X	X		150,000
Drought Vulnerability Assessment and Risk Reduction Planning	National	X	X		250,000
Livestock Risk Insurance Pilot Capacity Development	National	X	X	X	300,000
Total Disaster Risk Reduction, Risk Financing and Drought Resilience Needs					5,000,000



Drought Recovery Strategy

One of the objectives of the Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA) is to introduce a recovery strategy that sustainably addresses drought and famine risk and promotes medium-term recovery and long-term resilience with the ultimate goal of preventing another famine in the country. As has been discussed earlier in the Executive Summary, the on-going drought is an outcome of below-average rainfall failure for four consecutive seasons in the last two years. In 2017, a concerted effort made by the FGS and international agencies prevented famine in Somalia, though the risk of famine remains. The continued failure of rainfall, loss of agricultural productivity, and food shortages, accompanied by weak government delivery systems, inefficient markets, the impacts of conflict and insecurity, will prolong the drought into 2018, requiring a continued, concerted effort among all actors to avert famine in Somalia. In parallel, efforts to address the structural drivers of drought and to break out of the cycle of recurrent crisis need to be considered now to reduce the impacts of drought in the future. This strategy suggests the guiding principles, sector-specific interventions and institutional arrangements needed to find a sustainable solution to recurrent drought, famine risk and chronic food insecurity in Somalia.

Underlying Conflict Drivers and Stressors for Drought

Drought in Somalia has been aggravated by underlying conflict drivers and stressors. A combination of political, governance, security, economic and environmental factors has complicated government and international efforts to deliver effective assistance to drought-affected people and alleviate the impact of humanitarian crisis. These factors together have created endemic conditions under which the vicious cycle of crop failures,

food insecurity and famine persists, with most of the population trapped in poverty and deprivation. While an effective drought recovery strategy needs to address the priorities of drought cycle management, it should also seek to mitigate the impact of these underlying drivers and stressors.²⁰¹

Crippling Impact of Conflicts: One of the underlying drivers has been the pattern of recurrent conflicts in Somalia, driven by ideologically based insurgencies (al-Shabaab), warlordism, inter-clan rivalries and disputes, and entities profiting economically from insecurity and violence. These conflicts have crippled Somalia's economy, which remains underdeveloped and fragile. GDP per capita is estimated at USD 450, the incidence of poverty at 73 percent, and extreme poverty at 43 percent.²⁰² Productivity in agriculture and livestock sector, which are the mainstays of the national economy, are characterized as low, structurally impacted by scarcity and poor management of water, land and other natural resources. Absence of infrastructure, market integration, and technical and support services to help boost productivity have also contributed to low growth and income in this sector. As a result, the sector is highly susceptible to price, supply and labor disruptions caused by other shocks.

Environmental Degradation: Somalia has suffered serious environmental degradation, and its natural resource management has worsened over the years due to a combination of factors. The degradation has occurred due to extensive deforestation, soil erosion and diminishing volumes of water in major rivers. Inadequacy of water supply infrastructure and management has led to over-grazing around water points, accelerating soil erosion. Additional consequences of environmental degradation and resource scarcity include increased competition between groups over resources, which can

²⁰¹ The Drought Recovery Strategy draws upon a number of reference documents available on Somalia, the key among them are: Spyros Demetriou, 2017. Business Case Assessment for Accelerating Development Investments in Famine Response and Prevention in Yemen, South Sudan, Somalia and North-east Nigeria (draft); FAO, UNICEF & WFP. 2012. A Strategy for Enhancing Resilience in Somalia; Federal Government of Somalia. 2017. Somalia National Development Plan (2017-19), and UNOCHA. 2017. Humanitarian Response Plan 2018.

²⁰² UNDP and WB. 2002. Socio Economic Survey Somalia.



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aggravate conflict in contexts of significant declines in livelihoods and welfare.

Governance Issues: The most positive development in recent years has been the formation of the Federal Government in 2012, which led to a renewed emphasis on improving governance and strengthening state capacities at Federal and State levels. Improvements in governance and strengthening of institutions have contributed significantly to famine prevention in 2017. The stronger presence of the government institutions on the ground, and their ability to make services available

not just in Mogadishu but across the country has helped in easing the impact during the most recent droughts. The Government has set up the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs & Disaster Management (MoHADM) and the National Drought Committee to coordinate relief efforts in Mogadishu and in the Federal Member States (FMS). These structures (FGS and FMS) have worked well with international agencies in delivering drought relief. At the same time, Government institutions still have limited capacities and limited reach, and conflict has limited state outreach significantly.

DINA: Rationale, Objectives and Guiding Principles

The establishment of a full federal government in 2012 led to international re-engagement with Somalia within the framework of the Compact for Somalia, and a considerable increase in development assistance aligned with the Peace and State-building Goals.

Following the 2011-2012 famine, the international humanitarian community recognized that life-saving assistance alone was insufficient to address widespread vulnerability and exposure to drought and other shocks, leading to greater emphasis on resilience-based programming with a focus on strengthening livelihoods and service provision. As both humanitarian and development assistance since 2014 have gone up, it has not brought economic development and food security to Somalia. Since 2016, the drought has aggravated food insecurity, economic losses and displacement and left as many as 6.7 million people in need of assistance, and these impacts are expected to continue into 2018. The DINA has been initiated with the objective of breaking the cycle of drought-induced food insecurity by linking humanitarian assistance with long-term development and state-building efforts.

The DINA complements the 2018 Humanitarian Response Plan (HRP) for Somalia, part of the three-year Humanitarian Strategy (2016-18). To ensure complementarity and reduce overlaps, the DINA has not included interventions which serve the core objectives and priorities of HRP. For example, emergency interventions on the ground related to food security and nutrition are included in HRP, so these services have not been replicated in DINA.

The DINA aligns with a number of priorities included in the National Development Plan (2017-19) (NDP), which presents the overarching development framework in Somalia and features a focus on resilience building. Nonetheless, in the spirit of complementarity, interventions around expanding different areas of governance and investment in structural reforms, human resources and infrastructure development which do not have a direct link to drought recovery and resilience are not included in DINA. In its scope and coverage, the DINA has taken into account the following objectives and guiding principles.

Preventing Famine

The DINA recognizes that food security continues to be one of the most important priorities in Somalia. Drought is a frequent risk in Somalia, and a combination of factors could turn drought into a famine. The DINA suggests several measures to respond to the immediate priorities of drought and ensure that the people have access to food supplies. Though the DINA leaves short-term humanitarian interventions to the HRP, it recommends several capacity-building measures as well as plans to increase agriculture productivity in the short run so that drought risk is alleviated and the risk of another famine affecting Somalia is reduced. It also suggests flexibility in drought management so that in situations in which drought conditions deteriorate, attending to food security remains the most important priority. Famine prevention thus remains a core objective of the DINA.

Building Resilience

The DINA seeks to build resilience at the state, community and household level through its recovery interventions across 18 sectors. In tandem with the DINA, a Recovery and Resilience Framework (RRF) is being developed to provide an institutional platform for the recovery interventions suggested in different sectors. The RRF will also support Somalia's transition from the ongoing humanitarian and early drought recovery interventions towards medium-term drought recovery, disaster preparedness and long-term resilience building.

Within the context of the DINA, resilience refers to the capacity of government, households and communities to deal with and recover from natural shocks and conflicts. Whereas the Government should be able to secure an enabling environment for regular developmental activities to take root in Somalia, communities and households pursue new strategies that preserve and enhance their income, livelihoods and well-being. Recovery interventions included in the DINA will enable Governments to provide better access to services, and households and communities to rebuild their assets and livelihoods, thus developing resilience at all levels.

The objective of building resilience is included in both the HRP and the National Development Plan. The 2018 HRP focuses on four core strategic objectives: providing life-saving assistance, as well as nutrition, protection and resilience support to the most vulnerable. The NDP too has a resilience pillar, which cuts across different sectors and includes issues such as reintegration of displaced persons and returnees, disaster management, social protection, etc. Through its interventions, DINA aims to connect with resilience aspects of both the HRP and NDP, but places greater emphasis on economic and institutional aspects of resilience that could be developed over a period of three to five years.

Developing national and state capacity for resilience requires a national leadership committed to steady investment in drought management. It demands a number of measures to be implemented simultaneously: strengthening the ability of productive and social sectors to respond effectively to crises and shocks and mitigating their impact; developing protection instruments and social safety nets to protect the weakest in society beyond crisis periods; and supporting the accountability and transparency of drought management to build trust across communities.

Integrating a Conflict-sensitive Approach

The drivers of drought and conflicts are interconnected and mutually reinforcing. These drivers, therefore, need to be addressed through an integrated approach that brings together humanitarian, recovery and developmental approaches to address long-term poverty and marginalization. Two elements, in particular, will build resilience against both future drought and conflict and reduce their impact. These are restored economic growth, employment and reduced inequality; and increased legitimacy of government and public institutions through transparency and improved performance. The DINA emphasizes both elements through several strands of recovery needs.

Only by addressing Somalia's long-standing conflict can the recurring threat of food insecurity and famine be tackled in a sustainable manner. Policies and interventions aimed at reducing drought risk and preventing famine should take into account the likely impact of these measures in a fragile situation. Planning and implementation of these measures should be informed by a clear understanding of how each intervention will contribute to peace and stability in the medium- to long-term. Proposed interventions must therefore take account of Somalia's marked regional and local variations in ecology, livelihoods systems, social systems, political power and governance, as well as shifting patterns of conflict.

A guiding principle of the conflict-sensitive approach is to "do no harm."²⁰³ Conflict sensitivity involves considering both the effects of conflict on drought response activities and the effects of drought response activities on conflict. All recovery interventions should add to the structural stability of, and enhance respect for, good governance and human rights.

Reinforcing Commitment to Durable Solutions

Drought recovery programming should lay the foundation for the achievement of durable solutions for displaced populations, refugee returns and affected communities. The rapid expansion of displaced populations, combined with challenges confronting existing rates of displacement, and wider poverty and vulnerability, highlights the need to move beyond care and maintenance to a long-term approach advancing self-reliance and resilience through partnerships with government, humanitarian and development actors at all levels.

²⁰³ The "do no harm" approach involves understanding conflict dynamics and local context and their linkages to the proposed recovery program. Ensuring recovery interventions do no harm involves: understanding the conflict context, identifying conflict triggers and conflict resolution mechanisms, analyzing the interventions and their linkages to context and conflict triggers, and adopting an iterative approach to program design and implementation.

A comprehensive approach to drought management would thus require including durable solutions for dealing with the issue of displacement. The FGS is already committed to this process through an inclusion of reference to durable solutions in the NDP, which reflects the broader, ongoing evolution of the issue from a humanitarian priority to a government-led development responsibility. The Government, through the National Commission on Refugees and IDPs, has also formulated a National Policy on Refugees and IDPs that is framed along the commitments made by the FGS within the framework of the IGAD Nairobi Plan of Action. Any drought-related recovery strategy should seek to build on the framework outlined by the Government within such initiatives.

The Durable Solutions Initiative proposes an operational framework and set of operating principles for durable solutions interventions in Somalia. It advocates the area-based approach, supports the creation of conditions for safe, sustainable and voluntary return to Somalia, and builds the resilience of refugees and host communities. Recovery interventions should align with the five developmental priorities to enable durable solutions highlighted in the National Development Plan, including: i) rule of law and governance; ii) access to land and tenure security and inclusive development; iii) individual documentation, social inclusion and participation; iv) access to services and labor markets; and v) rural reintegration capacity.

Reflecting the New Way of Working (NWoW)

The DINA reflects the principles and priorities of the New Way of Working (NWoW). Across 18 sectors that are included in the DINA, recovery needs that have emerged present a collective outcome towards which the FGS, FMS and all development partners can commit their resources and plan their implementation. Recovery interventions included in the DINA and elaborated further through the RRF are quantifiable and can have measurable impact on reducing people's risks and vulnerabilities.

DINA is also driven by the mandate and comparative advantage of the agencies participating in the assessment. Approximately 20 agencies are participating in the DINA as per their mandate and specialization. Following the preparation of the RRF, recovery interventions would be implemented by these agencies and actors in support of the FGS and FMS.

The DINA represents an official process led by the FGS. It has highlighted the need to reinforce and strengthen capacities that already exist at national and local levels. The assessment proposes a multi-year timeframe, which could be utilized for analysing, strategizing, planning and financing operations in different sectors. The DINA embodies these core elements of NWoW and serves as a means for working across the humanitarian-development nexus in Somalia.

Focusing on Inclusion of the Most Vulnerable Groups

In Somalia, there are specific population groups that are particularly vulnerable and need to be prioritized in recovery efforts. These include poor households, disadvantaged ethnic minorities, women and female-headed households, and children. These groups face particularly high risks, including exclusion and discrimination based on power structures, tradition and social norms in Somalia. Inclusion of these groups in the recovery process is essential, which also means extending protection and safety nets that need to target them for priority recovery assistance.

Given the ways in which conflict and drought have in the past amplified existing social divisions and inequalities, drought management measures should give particular attention to the circumstances and needs of these marginalized and vulnerable groups. This should include an understanding of relevant differences within these groups (for example between those displaced by the recent drought, the long-term displaced, and other marginalized urban dwellers). Such an approach should be developed through needs analysis, which should be followed through communication with affected groups, especially the most vulnerable, during implementation.

Government Leadership and Adopting a Whole of the Governance Approach

The DINA and RRF have been led by the FGS with engagement from the FMS. The same leadership demonstrated during this process will be required in the ensuing months and years to ensure effective implementation of the recovery program and coordination among the various stakeholders. Only a sustained effort to strengthen institutions and improve governance can reduce the impact of drought and address the issue of famine prevention and food security on a long-term basis. It requires federal and state governments, supported by donors, to combat large-scale corruption and begin to deliver public services, particularly security, at all levels. It calls for the finalization of constitutional negotiations regarding the allocation of power and authority between the FGS and FMS. At the same time, it is equally important to restart the national reconciliation process among Somali clans, focusing from the bottom up. A transparent and inclusive process in establishing the new administration will reduce divisive group dynamics and promote greater social cohesion. There is a critical need for a whole-of-governance approach that is process-oriented, flexible and responsive to people's needs. Through a greater attention to underlying drivers of conflict and integration of other conflict-sensitive measures, it is possible to reduce the level and intensity of conflict and improve the level of governance and delivery of services during a drought situation.

Building on the comparative strengths of all stakeholders

The recovery strategy will take into consideration the diverse set of actors delivering services in Somalia. Government leadership, coordination and policy setting will be central to the recovery strategy. Concerted capacity and systems building efforts will be required to ensure the Government is able to play this role and incrementally start to provide services. However, the recovery strategy will take an opportunistic approach and seek practical collaborations between state and non-state actors that will leverage the geographic reach, experience, strengths and existing systems represented across all stakeholders. This includes non-governmental organizations, private sector, academia, civil society and government actors.

Prioritizing Community Inclusion and People-centered Interventions

Community participation in all aspects of the recovery process is fundamental, so the recovery program should focus on people-centered interventions and encourage community decision-making, ownership and empowerment to ensure solutions are locally appropriate and sustainable. It is important to factor local knowledge and skills into the design and implementation of recovery interventions.

Ensuring the Centrality of Protection

As the scale of displacement has increased, the issues of exclusion raise serious concern, and the need for protection has increased. The primary responsibility for protection rests with the national authorities, in accordance with national and international legal instruments. In the Somalia context, the UN system has identified three priorities that form that basis of its Centrality of Protection Strategy. The strategy takes into account the role and contribution of all the relevant actors—governments, UN agencies and other development actors—to achieve protection goals. These three priorities are: enhancing ways to identify and address differential forms of exclusion, including those based on societal discrimination, power structures, vulnerability, age, and gender and strengthening inclusion of and ensuring accountability by community-based and other non-traditional humanitarian responders, for more effective protection to affected population; addressing critical protection concerns with increasing displacement in IDP sites and collective centers, including heightened protection risks/threats that have emerged in the failure to end displacement through appropriate solutions (local integration, return, and settlement elsewhere); engaging with conflict-affected communities and parties (national and international) to the conflict to minimize disproportionate and indiscriminate targeting of civilians and civilian assets vital for survival. These three priorities are reflected in the DINA and RRF.

Key Recovery Interventions

The drought recovery strategy proposes a two-pronged approach aimed at improving assets and livelihoods and reducing the impacts of conflict and displacement while enhancing the impact of drought management

measures. It identifies measures which improve assets and livelihoods at the level of households and communities—improved agricultural productivity and livestock management, diversification of livelihoods, provision of housing, etc. At the same time, it recommends measures that promote social inclusion and gender equity, enhance protection, and reduce the impact of conflicts. These measures are aimed at reducing the impacts of conflict and displacement, and enhancing the impact of drought management measures. The details of these measures are included in sector summaries included in this synthesis report and the sector and cross-cutting chapters in Volume II. Key recovery interventions across the productive, infrastructure and social sectors are briefly outlined here:

Improve Agricultural Productivity

An enhanced investment in agriculture represents an important strand of the recovery strategy. Among the important measures which help farmers, are better irrigation, flood-control, on-farm and communal storage, farm-to-market access, agricultural inputs and widespread adoption of drought-and pest-resistant seeds. These measures will help farmers diversify their incomes through better quality and alternative crops.

Revival of agriculture in Somalia would require rebuilding of a functioning, effective agriculture research and extension system (almost totally absent at present), starting with 300 extension officers and aiming at a total of 600 officers. It would also need better post-harvest and dry storage facilities and techniques. Rehabilitating and improving transport links between main ports, farms, and urban markets can help both reduce input costs to farmers and retail prices to consumers for all crops, and especially for bananas and other fruits and vegetables.

Increase Irrigation Facilities

Increasing irrigation facilities would have a direct impact on agricultural productivity. Revival/rehabilitation of pump-fed irrigation systems will contribute to the efficiency of pump usage/operation and increase crop production. The rehabilitation of deshek systems/ infrastructure will help farming communities to use floodwater efficiently and reduce/mitigate the risks associated with this type of farming.



Surface water harvesting structures (such as sand and subsurface dams, berkads, contour bunding, etc.) play a significant role in crop and livestock production in Somalia. Therefore, rehabilitation/construction of water harvesting infrastructure with knowledge/skills transfer programs and a better regulatory/policy framework would help both agro-pastoral and pastoral communities, ultimately contributing to food security and famine prevention.

Develop Livestock Management

As livestock is the mainstay of Somalia's economy, improved livestock management practices are essential for sustaining livelihoods of pastoralist and agropastoralist communities. The key recovery objective in this sector is to support the recovery of herds among poor agropastoralists through selective restocking and improved veterinary services while encouraging alternate livelihoods and improved rangeland management. Herds should have the right livestock composition, including not only more drought-tolerant animals like goats but also larger animals, such as camels, which are usually never included because of their high cost. The agropastoralists and pastoralists will also be supported towards enhancing the quality of their livestock, rather than possessing huge numbers of animals with poor productivity and high vulnerability to effects of droughts.

Among other measures that need to be taken to support livestock health is to increase private investment in commercial fodder production, including the establishment of fodder banks and extensive training in fodder storage. Another important priority would be to develop capacity for public and private veterinary service providers, disease surveillance and diagnosis facilities and laboratories.

A Continued Focus on Food Security

In Somalia, there is a strong association between food insecurity and poverty. Addressing the very high and widespread poverty and unemployment in Somalia will also contribute to sustainable improvement in the food security of its population. In Somalia, short- to medium-term interventions will focus on improved household food storage to reduce food waste. Medium- to long-term interventions will improve food security early warning systems and support development of a national food security strategy and policy and a national poverty reduction and resilience strategy.

Diversify Livelihoods and Increase Employment

Efforts to diversify livelihoods and increase employment include short- and medium-term strategies. In the short-term, these measures would include cash for work, cash transfer and efforts to encourage alternative livelihoods. Medium-term measures would involve organizing Somali primary producers, petty traders, and small businesses into producers' associations, and working with them to design, plan and implement livelihood, employment and vocational training strategies and interventions. It would also emphasize organizing women into networks, producer groups, associations, and cooperatives so that they can increase productivity and improve returns on their labor and capital.

Improve Access to Health, Nutrition and Education

Recovery measures in health include developing health policies which include policies on working through non-state actors where relevant, increasing human resources for health, and implementing a comprehensive health services delivery plan by increasing the number of functional health facilities. It also includes increasing the number of mobile clinics and specific community interventions such as immunization campaigns and AWD/cholera awareness campaigns. Resilient recovery of the sector would also look at Government-led disaster response planning to ensure the system can scale up quickly in the case of crises.

A recovery strategy for nutrition includes strengthening prevention and management of acute malnutrition in children under five, timely procurement and provision of treatment and medical supplies, and regular provision and implementation of other interventions such as Vitamin A supplementation, deworming, and nutrition surveillance.

The recovery strategy includes responding to the needs and priorities of affected population and maximize their participation in the education system. It would also consist of prioritising the needs of displaced children whose learning is affected, focusing on displaced children of school going age who have never enrolled in any schools, and ensuring national ownership and leadership of the education recovery strategy.

Expand Water Supply in Urban Areas

In rural areas, water supply is ensured through traditional sources. In urban areas, a lack of investment in water services holds back opportunities for productive livelihoods and leads to tensions between host and migrant populations. Recovery efforts in urban areas

would include rehabilitation of existing schemes and construction of new ones, which will support the needs of IDPs. Almost all urban areas in Somalia need immediate support to improve water supply and sanitation services. This will require clear policy and regulatory guidance for developing public-private partnerships with water utilities in urban areas.

Rehabilitate Road Network

Somalia is becoming urbanized very fast, with a large segment of displaced people living in or near cities. However, a sizeable population still lives in rural areas and lack accessibility, especially outside of Mogadishu. While the entire road network in Somalia would benefit from repairs and renovation, there is a need to prioritize the interventions to maximize the impact of available resources.

The reconstruction work will aim at linkages that are destroyed but are critical for recovery, especially primary roads. These would require bitumen surfacing and/or low volume paving. Meanwhile some of the primary roads that would bring positive impact but are not destroyed may receive basic maintenance to make them motorable. The other roads, mainly feeder roads, will require rehabilitation, mostly gravel. Depending on several factors like security, availability of labor and extent of road damage, some roads may be rehabilitated using equipment while others would need labor intensive methods. The prioritization of road investments will take into consideration the potential for direct positive impact on humanitarian response, either reducing logistics overheads or extending assistance and markets to secondary towns.

Implement an Integrated Environment Program

Recovery needs include rehabilitation of rangelands and reforestation, which can also provide a large number of short-, medium- and long-term employment opportunities, especially for youth. Experience elsewhere in Somalia indicates that this work could be effectively undertaken through a community contracting type of approach that ensures ownership and the long-term stewardship of the environment. In addition, efforts must be made to develop the renewable energy sector, which has the potential to involve women and youth and can provide power sources to sectors that are currently underdeveloped because of energy deficits or high costs of energy.

Address Gender-specific Recovery Needs

The gendered aspects of recovery needs include economic and livelihoods development for women and promotion of climate-resilient agriculture and ownership of crops for women farmers. A sustainable recovery requires strengthening the capacities of displaced and vulnerable women to access livelihoods through cash-for-work and short-term employment opportunities through community infrastructure rehabilitation. It includes a targeted approach for vulnerable women and other groups for unconditional cash transfer support. The medium-term recovery efforts support training and skills enhancement, livestock asset distribution, and market related skills for women. Recovery efforts also include support for women's access to housing, land and property ownership issues and dispute resolution mechanisms, including legal aid and documentation.

Implement Urban Solutions, including Sustainable Local Integration in Urban and Peri-urban areas

Urban solutions support displacement-affected populations living in urban areas by addressing service delivery across the communities hosting displaced persons. While humanitarian support will focus on addressing basic needs (food, water and sanitation, and emergency shelter, access to basic services (education and health), early recovery support includes basic livelihoods and psycho-social support. The recovery strategy in medium and long-term promotes multi-stakeholder response in different areas to improve self-reliance, resilience and socio-economic integration of vulnerable populations. Urban recovery would address the existing structural deficiencies in urban areas under pressure from rapidly rising populations as well as looking at urban planning and development in secondary towns.

Address Displacement

Addressing the impact of the drought in IDP settlements is a critical need. The 2018 HRP clearly outlines needs related to the provision of shelter and services in camps. The Drought Recovery Strategy would look at addressing challenges that perpetuate the vulnerabilities of IDPs and prevent them from achieving durable solutions. This would include looking at addressing the housing shortage through construction and rental; integrating water and sanitation service provision to IDP settlements into municipal and district planning; looking at governance issues around developing solutions for IDPs and addressing issues of land conflict.



Develop Disaster Risk Reduction and Disaster Risk Financing Systems

It is imperative for the FGS and FMS to view recovery as an opportunity to plan and implement a systematic approach to identifying, assessing and reducing disaster risk. An important priority would be to set up an early warning system through which a network of information systems such as meteorological stations, communication systems and decision subsystems can forecast potential climatic shocks, providing the response systems time to prepare for the adverse events. Establishing and strengthening emergency response, preparedness and recovery mechanisms, and mainstreaming disaster risk reduction into development processes are among the other important priorities of disaster risk reduction. These priorities can be achieved only when the institutional capacity for DRR as represented by the MOHADM and SODMA at the federal level, and HADMA and NERAD at the FMS level is strengthened.

Somalia can also begin to explore disaster risk financing as part of building resilience to recurrent drought. Initial risk financing efforts could focus on ensuring that external sources of financing are in place ahead of time to respond quickly to future disasters at sufficient scale. The sector strategy also earmarks funding to pilot a livestock risk insurance program.

Implementing the DINA

Institutional and implementation arrangements for implementing the recommendations of the DINA will be detailed in the RRF. As requested by the FGS, the RRF will serve as an implementation platform for the DINA and for resilience-building interventions, enabling the development of a systematic, programmatic and integrated approach for multi-sectoral recovery that: (a) provides integrated and harmonized policies and strategies for recovery; (b) ensures coordination of interventions among stakeholders, and helps avoid gaps and minimize overlaps in the coverage of recovery interventions; (c) strengthens aid harmonization and set uniform and consistent standards for the implementation of the recovery program; (d) establishes robust monitoring and evaluation mechanisms for disaster recovery at the programmatic and project levels; and (e) leverages predictable investments and development of inter-linked projects and interventions for resilient recovery.

The RRF defines a multi-sectoral approach to prioritizing key development and investment priorities, allowing Government authorities to build on existing efforts to strengthen resilience to recurrent disasters, increase disaster management and crisis response capacity, and enhance Somalia's ability to respond to climate change. The RRF serves two distinct and simultaneous functions: an operational and investment framework that will prioritize and finance recovery interventions while developing government capacity for managing a recovery program, and an implementation platform for the DINA.

Annex 1: Drought Recovery Action Plan

Somalia DINA Drought Recovery Action Plan					
Intervention	Level of Activity	Timeframe			Cost (USD)
		Short-term (Year 1)	Medium-term (Years 2-3)	Long-term (Years 4+)	
Macroeconomic Impact					
Mobile money for drought response	National	X			2,000,000
Regulatory support for the ICT Sector	National	X			400,000
Developing a national ID system	National	X			100,000
Building the digital ecosystem	National	X			TBD
Increased access to Internet	National	X	X	X	TBD
Financial services - Includes building the capacity of the Central Bank of Somalia to license and oversee the financial sector; and access to micro-finance credit	National	X	X	X	1,000,000
Sub-Total Macroeconomic Impact					3,500,000
Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-Fed Crop Production					
Improving access to quality agricultural inputs for vulnerable rural population and returnees	National	X	X	X	95,500,029
Irrigation canal rehabilitation	National	X	X	X	150,040,098
Recovery/resilience of banana plantations (small and large)	National	X	X	X	9,752,500
Improving farm management practices (incl. SMART, post-harvest handling)	National	X	X	X	50,000,013
Institutional capacity building for better governance	National	X	X	X	19,000,006
Rebuilding agriculture research and extension system	National	X	X	X	41,000,012
Strengthening informal and building formal seed system	National	X	X	X	20,000,006
Water & watershed management	National	X	X	X	115,000,000
Sub-Total Agriculture – Irrigation and Rain-Fed Crop Production					500,292,664
Agriculture – Livestock					
Vaccination against prioritized diseases (PPR/CCPP/SGP)	National	X	X		66,500,000
Supportive treatment	National	X	X		13,860,000

Strengthening community based animal health service delivery (CAHWs training and kits supply) and linking them with the private sector	National	X	X		1,134,000
Establishing mobile clinics	National	X	X		500,000
Rehabilitate laboratory facilities	National	X	X		250,000
Strengthening the public veterinary service and SPS	National	X	X		2,500,000
Feed supply (range cube and mineral blocks) and feed stores construction/ rehabilitation	National	X	X		1,000,000
Fodder production and management	National	X	X		3,000,000
Restocking (1% of the total damage for sheep and goats (167,317) among very poor and poor households) with focus in South Central regions	National	X	X		6,000,000
Rehabilitation of livestock water infrastructures	National	X	X		4,000,000
Rangeland management	National	X	X		5,000,000
Capacity development	National	X	X		2,000,000
Poultry production	National	X	X		1,250,000
Bee keeping	National	X	X		1,000,000
Genetic research and breeding	National	X	X		2,500,000
Sub-Total Agriculture – Livestock					110,494,000
Agriculture – Fisheries					
Distribution of fishing kits	Regional	X			150,000
Development of fish landing sites	Regional		X		2,000,000
Development of spate fed desert aquaculture	Regional			X	1,500,000
Development of dried fish	Regional		X		2,000,000
Sub-Total Agriculture – Fisheries					5,650,000
Water Supply and Sanitation					
Construction of new boreholes	National	X	X	X	77,000,000
Rehabilitation of boreholes	National	X			15,200,000
Construction of new shallow wells	National	X			1,935,000
Rehabilitation of shallow wells	National	X	X		2,184,000
Construction of new berkads	National	X			203,000
Rehabilitation of berkads	National	X			216,000
Institutional strengthening and capacity building	National	X			34,000,000
Urban/Rural sanitation (drainage, sewage, and solid waste management)	National	X	X	X	50,000,000
Sub-Total Water Supply and Sanitation					180,738,000

Transport					
Short-term rehabilitation, reconstruction and maintenance of 1099 km of roads	Regional	X			83,600,000
Medium-term rehabilitation, reconstruction and maintenance of 1008 km of roads	Regional		X		64,300,000
Sub-Total Transport					147,900,000
Environment, Clean Energy and Natural Resource Management					
Emergency capacity building of government forest rangers	National	X			2,000,000
Emergency re-seeding of selected rangelands with fast-growing grass species and setting up of germplasm mother blocks (seed production zones for indigenous fruit tree species)	National	X			10,000,000
Improvement of energy efficiency of existing charcoal carbonization and kilning systems	National	X			8,000,000
Scaling up evergreen agriculture (integrating with trees-on-farm agroforestry) and ISFM and training forest end users on sustainable extractive techniques for NWFPs	Southern Somalia		X		17,000,000
Development of legislation to support zoning of wildlife parks, migratory corridors	National		X		1,000,000
Cleaner and renewable energy sources – promotion of energy-efficiency	National		X		15,000,000
Technical capacity improvement of Somali government - remote sensing, GIS, national lab	National			X	4,000,000
Cleaner and renewable energy sources –promotion of solar energy technologies and promoting the use of LPG in Somalia	National		X	X	27,000,000
Rehabilitation of selected gullies and other severely degraded ecosystems in the North and promoting wide-scale adoption of low-cost integrated soil fertility management (ISFM) for improving soil resources	National			X	11,000,000
Assisting the Somali government with the development of a biomass energy policy	National		X	X	3,000,000
Development of a power master plan	National	X			853,510
Cross-border electrification and interconnector study	National	X			1,000,000
Sub-Total Environment, Clean Energy and Natural Resource Management					99,853,510

Health					
Engaging the public in promotion of health, hygiene and safe drinking water, sanitation, environmental hygiene, food safety and safe waste disposal	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Promoting food borne diseases laboratory-based surveillance by developing food safety guidelines and interventions	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Introducing standardized rapid diagnostic technologies for prevalent communicable diseases	National	X	X	X	2,470,912
Active disease surveillance and early warning system	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Prepositioning medical supplies and kits to undertake coordinated rapid response	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Establishing an effective health information system that provides accurate and timely health data for evidence planning and implementation, supported by monitoring and evaluation	National	X	X	X	2,470,912
Increasing cholera treatment Centre's in all regions	National	X	X	X	8,236,375
Promoting participation in improving public health at community level	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Ensure availability of essential medicines, vaccines and commodities	National	X	X	X	22,007,180
Establishing emergency response services	National	X	X	X	4,118,187
Ensuring immunization of all children and pregnant women against the major child killer diseases sanctioned by the health authorities including campaigns	National	X	X	X	8,236,375
Deploying more health care workers that are competent on tasks and treat patients with dignity, respect and compassion	National	X	X	X	5,765,462
Supporting fixed and mobile clinics	National	X	X	X	8,236,375
Sub-Total Health					82,132,713
Nutrition					
Surveillance and M&E operations	National	X	X	X	10,413,189
Mobile clinic and nutrition rehabilitation vans	National	X	X	X	20,826,378
Vitamin A supplementation	National	X	X	X	1,561,978
People living with HIV and AIDS	National	X	X	X	2,082,638

Deworming	National	X	X	X	1,561,978
Capacity building	National	X	X	X	15,619,783
Procurement of material and rehabilitation	National	X	X	X	20,826,378
Health promotion and community mobilization	National	X	X	X	10,413,189
Implementation and operational support	National	X	X	X	20,826,378
Sub-Total Nutrition					104,131,888
Education					
Expansion of learning spaces	Regional	X			19,200,000
Rapid teacher recruitment and training	Regional	X	X		12,885,600
Distribution of learning materials	Regional	X	X	X	4,343,870
Community education committees and child to child clubs	Regional	X	X	X	2,880,000
Education sector coordination support and data tracking costs	Regional	X	X	X	4,320,000
Sub-Total Education					43,629,470
Food Security					
Improved food storage to reduce waste	National	X	X		20,000,000
Improved food security early warning systems	National	X			5,000,000
Support for the development of a national food security strategy	National	X	X	X	120,000
Support for the development of a national poverty reduction strategy	National	X	X	X	240,000
Sub-Total Food Security					25,360,000
Livelihoods and Employment					
Support to Women and Youth to engage in the renewable energy sector	National	X	X	X	20,000,000.00
Support to Govt. Institutions to improve and/or establish Labor Market Information Services	National	X	X	X	1,900,000.00
Support to FGS and Federal State Govt's to coordinate the E&L sector	National	X	X	X	200,000.00
Sub-Total Livelihoods and Employment					22,100,000
Social Protection and Safety Nets					
Injection of minimum capacity in MoHA and MoPIED	National	X	X		168,000
Social protection policy and framework, vulnerability analysis, capacity development of Government, communication Strategy	National	X			1,515,000

Database inventory and analysis	National	X			100,000
Design of pilot incl. registry, targeting methodology, transfer systems, monitoring systems, grievance mechanism, vetting	National	X			5,000,000
Pilot of system in select geographic areas (incl. urban and rural) targeting 100,000	National		X		6,400,000
Sub-Total Social Protection and Safety Nets					13,183,000
Gender					
Implementation of sex, age disaggregated data (SADD) and gender analysis tools	National	X	X	X	4,300,000
Gender-responsive governance and promote women's participation and leadership	National	X	X	X	4,400,000
Promote gender equality in disaster risk reduction	National	X	X	X	3,500,000
Women sustainable economic and livelihoods development	National	X	X	X	28,500,000
Gender-based Violence (GBV) targeted responses	National	X	X	X	3,500,000
Sub-Total Gender					44,200,000
Urban Development and Municipal Services					
Temporary shelter	Regional	X	X		33,000,750
Permanent shelter	Regional		X	X	61,018,100
Primary school construction	Regional		X	X	4,787,980
Latrines	Regional		X	X	1,443,100
School vouchers	Regional	X			22,869,411
Operating costs	Regional		X	X	7,222,000
Mobile clinic	Regional	X			1,335,104
AWD/cholera treatment	Regional	X			480,000
Water trucks	Regional	X			2,855,230
Boreholes	Regional		X	X	1,665,108
Sanitation	Regional	X	X		4,296,751
Skills training & placement	Regional	X	X		147,800,160
Capacity building for municipal government	Regional	X	X		4,500,000
Sub-Total Urban Development and Municipal Services					293,273,694
Governance					
Expert Personnel (+/- 250 staff for 24 months)	National		X		41,000,000
Office equipment	National		X		2,200,000
Capacity building activities specific to recovery and resilience	National		X		3,200,000

Development of legislative framework & related consultations	National		X		1,900,000
Building leadership capacity within the Somali Government on oversight and delivery against an accountability framework	National		X		800,000
Establishment of Database Center; strengthening statistical capacity and information management	National		X		2,700,000
Building recovery program management capacity within Federal and State Min of Planning (2 years)	National		X		6,000,000
Access to finance for social entrepreneurs and innovators	National	X	X	X	560,000
Sub-Total Governance					58,360,000
Displacement					
Collection of sex- and age-disaggregated profile data of displaced and returning populations	National		X	X	2,000,000
Monitoring costs (social cohesion, displacement movements, etc.)	National		X		500,000
IDP personal identity documentation and civil registration	National			X	1,000,000
Capacity building of state and local authorities to promote recovery and resilience of IDP populations	National		X		1,000,000
Support Community-based participatory planning processes	National		X	X	2,000,000
Support for the participation in civic life, dispute resolution and peaceful co-existence in displacement affected areas	National		X	X	1,000,000
Promotion of land tenure security through improved policies and frameworks, including improved land use planning	National			X	500,000
Development and adoption of federal policy on internal displacement and reintegration of returnees	National			X	500,000
Assessment of conditions for safe return through area-based solutions analysis	National		X		500,000
Collection of population profile data on remote/rural	National		X		1,000,000
Skills development and livelihoods restoration	National	X	X	X	12,000,000

Support for market access and strengthened value chains for partial returns (including those with family member remaining in urban areas)	National		X	X	1,000,000
Support for establishment and strengthening of local authorities	National	X			1,000,000
Communication and sensitization to support re/integration of IDPs and to enable participation in civic life, dispute resolution and peaceful co-existence.	National	X			1,000,000
Establishment/strengthening of transparent dispute resolution mechanism to manage land disputes	National		X		1,000,000
Sub-Total Displacement					26,000,000
Disaster Risk Reduction, Risk Financing and Drought Resilience					
Harmonization of existing policies and institutions	National	X	X		200,000
Finalization of National Disaster Management Policy	National	X	X		125,000
Enactment of DRM laws	National		X		100,000
DRM preparedness, contingency planning and risk financing fund	National		X	X	950,000
Personnel and training at national and subnational level and mainstreaming of DRM in development sectors	National	X	X	X	275,000
Capacity building of national DRM institutions - Equipment and facilities	National	X	X	X	350,000
Basic national met services station connected to regional met agencies	National		X	X	1,475,000
Emergency communication and control rooms	National		X	X	450,000
Early warning information management and channeling	National	X	X	X	200,000
Drought cycle management training	National	X			175,000
Drought coordination mechanism	National	X	X		150,000
Drought vulnerability assessment and risk reduction planning	National	X	X		250,000
Livestock insurance policy development	National	X	X	X	300,000
Sub-Total Disaster Risk Reduction, Risk Financing and Drought Resilience					5,000,000
Grand Total - Drought Recovery Action Plan					1,765,798,939

Annex 2: Acknowledgments

The Somalia Drought Impact and Needs Assessment (DINA) was developed through an intensive collaboration led by the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS), through the Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development (MoPIED) in partnership with the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management (MoHADM), with technical and capacity support from the World Bank, UN and EU. The Ministry was supported by the DINA Coordination Team composed of representatives of the Government, the World Bank, UN and EU to ensure technical oversight and guidance.

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