THE BASELINE SURVEY ON THE STATE OF IDPS RESILIENCE IN THE BENADIR REGION, SOMALIA

Prepared by: Somalia Resilience Innovation Hub (Somalia RIHub) at Somali Disaster Resilience Institute (SDRI), Somalia

1. Mohamed Osman Mohamoud
2. Salim Kinyiri
3. Nicholas Ndiema
4. Hassan Haji Ali

In collaboration with RAN Secretariat, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda; and George Washington University's Initiative for Disaster and Fragility Resilience, USA

Partner Universities/Countries
1. Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia
2. Jimma University, Ethiopia
3. University of Nairobi, Kenya
4. Benadir University, Somalia

Reviewed by:
1. Prof. Abdirisak Ahmed Dalmar (PhD)
2. Patrick Musinguzi (PhD)

March, 2017

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ACRONYMS

ACLETD	Armed Conflict Locations and Events Datasets
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ADB	African Development Bank
DDI	Dietary Diversity Index
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
GAM	Global Acute Malnutrition
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HH	Household Head
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDP	Internally Displaced persons
IPCC	International Panel for Climate Change
KII	Key Informant Interview
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SSN	Social Safety Nets
TBA	Traditional Birth Attendants
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Department
WB	World Bank
WFP	Word Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This report has been developed with total support from USAID and a team of several collaborators locally and internationally. We would like to acknowledge the contribution of multi-disciplinary team of people from Somalia, Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda and USA who spearheaded the design, implementation, analysis and writing of the baseline study.

All Somalia RIHub members at Somali Disaster Resilience Institute affiliated with Benadir University, Somalia, that is Salim Kinyiri, Mohamed Osman Mohamoud, Prof. Abdirisak Ahmed Dalmar, Hassan Haji Ali, Nicholas Ndiema and Patrick Musinguzi are highly acknowledged for their contribution to this process. All technical support from the RAN Secretariat, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda; and DRLA, Tulane University, USA, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia, Bule Hora University, Ethiopia and University of Nairobi, Kenya is highly acknowledged.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A baseline survey was carried out in Benadir region in the Federal Republic of Somalia and the goal was to investigate the status of resilience of the internally displaced communities in Benadir region. The study characterized examining the underlying causes, effects, vulnerability factors, adaptation mechanisms of chronic displacement, and the relationship for empirical justification.

This baseline survey consisted of sampled camps that served as clusters with a total of 40 clusters of 20 households. Household interviews were conducted after pretesting with questionnaires for errors and missing information. All data was entered into the SPSS statistical package. Data was analyzed in reference to descriptive statistics while the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Structural Equation Model (Pathway Analysis) were used to describe the major factors leading to variability.

Results show that the dimensions of resilience that is wealth, health, infrastructure, governance, human capital, psychosocial status, social capital, security/protection, and environment were closely inter-related. Results demonstrated that overall resilience of the IDP community in Benadir is very low. Stronger mechanisms to recover from shocks without necessarily compromising the long-term livelihood strategies must be explored. The underlying causes of increase in vulnerability were mainly wealth and environmental dimensions. Disparities in resilience capacity between different people in the IDPs were also influenced by the education levels. Efforts are needed to boost the knowledge base as a measure to increase the resilience to shocks and stresses. Gender emerged as an important factor in the IDPs, a clear indicator of the need to have the rights of both men and women considered for any policy formulations or project interventions. Resilience pathway to resettlement was established to be security/protection, social safety, and resettlement. Improved security or protection proved to positively correlate with social safety which is also positively correlated with willingness to get resettled. Other mechanisms such as diversification of the income sources cannot be underrated since the wealth issues emerged as key drivers of vulnerability. This will of course have positive effect on resilience and food insecurity.

In summary, the study found that the overall resilience of the IDP community in Benadir is low. Communities in the IDPs require concerted efforts to have stronger mechanisms on how to recover from shocks and reinforce resilience. All policy interventions or programs to increase resilience would embark on improving infrastructure for basic services and productive services with much focus on women. The income sources in the region were more from non-agricultural activities thus the need to invest in agriculture and income diversification while mindful of the global challenges of geo-climatic variability which is also evident in the region.

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Background

Somalia continues to be affected by several challenges key among which is chronic internal displacement. Over the years, the agro-farmer and nomadic communities in Somalia have been internally displaced time and again mainly due to the environmental challenges like cyclical droughts and floods alongside conflict which has been primarily due to socio-cultural, political and economic factors. In Somalia internal displacement has been both a coping and adaptation mechanism. It relates to "*persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border*" (Walter, 2000).

Benadir region, in South Central Somalia is home to about 376 internally Displaced peoples camps (UNOSAT, 2013) spread across its 16 districts. Benadir is the nucleus of internal displacement in country largely by virtue of its proximate location. Benadir covers a long coastal region that provides the displaced with fishing as an alternative livelihood strategy, the capital Mogadishu is country's business heart and home to humanitarian agencies and civil society due to its proximity to Adam Abdulle International airport and Mogadishu sea port. As a result, the region has attracted ethnically diverse cultures comprising of ethnic Somalis; Benadiris, Arabs, Bantus and Baravans. This already reflects a challenge in resource use due to the resultant pressure on land and other resources which has been highlighted to worsen conflict.

In an attempt by RAN (Benadir University, 2013) to contextualize the chronic internal displacement shock, a qualitative study was undertaken. The results indicated that chronic internal displacement was an effect of conflict or environmental factors. The underlying factors for these causes were identified; the main effects/ primary effects and the secondary effects. The study also addressed the factors that make the communities in Benadir region vulnerable including their underlying factors together with the affected communities' adaptive capacities.

Benadir region of Somalia is faced with several challenges but internal displacement among the most outstanding. The RAN (2014), qualitative study findings revealed that Internal Displacement in Benadir is an effect of environmental factors (natural factors) and man-made challenges mainly conflict related. The escalation of these challenges is reflected in the number of IDPs. Drastic environmental and climatic changes especially the prolonged dry spells and floods which are precursors for famine and the civil wars born out of resource distribution inadequacies (economic factors) and clan based ideological differences based on perceived or real differences. The cyclical droughts and floods have primarily been aggravated by both natural and manmade factors like climate variability, proximity to natural hazard areas frequently affected by floods and overdependence on climate sensitive livelihood activities and weak governance systems in region and country at large.

The study also found that climatic changes characterized by prolonged droughts, extreme floods and their associated resource sharing pressure result into conflict exacerbation and therefore escalate internal displacement (O'Loughlin et al. 2012). Blattman and Miguel (2010), attribute civil conflicts and their resultant IDPs challenges to slow economic growth and low per capita income among communities. Literature paints the picture that the internal displacements 'problem' is a true reflection of an absence of

state protection and inability to access the basic rights of citizenship. This quantitative study was sets out to examine the drivers of internal displacement, the status of the various resilience dimensions and their relationships to draw empirical justification regarding internal displacement in Somalia.

2.0. GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

2.1. The Study Goal

The main goal of this quantitative study is to examine the underlying causes, effects, vulnerability factors and adaptation mechanisms of chronic internal displacement and their relationships to gain empirical justification for their variability to resilience dimensions in Somalia/ Benadir Region.

2.2. Objectives of Quantitative data collection

i) To gather a general base-line data on the identified dimensions of resilience to the shock (internal displacement).

ii) To validate the inter-dimensional relationships across the identified dimensions of resilience to the shock.

iii) To determine the entry points on the context specific resilience framework for innovations and interventions to address the shock.

iv) To test and validate Somalia context specific resilience frameworks the indicators, explore and analyze relationships among and between dimensions of resilience specific to a context (chronic internal displacement)

v) To deepen the understanding of resilience measurement and resilience-based interventions.

3.0. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Description of Somali - the baseline study area

3.1.1. Physiographic and social-economic features of Somali

Somalia country profile Located in Horn of Africa, Somalia is home to about 10 million people (2012 est.) with 63% of the population living in rural areas against 37% in the urban areas. Somalia covers an area of 637,657 sq km (246,201 sq mi) bordered by the Gulf of Aden to the north, by the Indian Ocean to the east, by Kenya and Ethiopia to the west, and by Djibouti to the northwest (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2013) as illistrated in figure one below:

Figure 1: Map showing the location of Somalia in the Horn of Africa Source: United Nation 2013

The Africa Development Bank (ADB) Somalia country report (2013), indicates that the economy is largely informal sector-driven based on Agriculture with livestock-keeping surpassing crop growing in value and normally accounting for about 40% of GDP and more than 50% of export earnings. Remittances too contribute significantly to Somalia's economy, accounting to up to USD 1.6 billion annually (CIA World FactBook, 2013 & Encyclopædia Britannica, 2013). In addition, the economy is based on trade networks controlled by a small group of wealthy businessmen.

Majority of the population especially the rural populations survive through subsistence activities and are

engaged in small-scale businesses, as petty traders, livestock keepers and grain producers. The economy is challenged by cyclical droughts, political instability, poor governance, limited investment and inadequate or obsolete infrastructure which significantly deter the formation and operation of businesses. Somalia's GDP is USD 5.896 billion (2010 est.) with a real growth rate of 2.6% (2010 est.) and per capita income of $600 (2010 est.). It is comprises agriculture: 59.3%, industry: 7.2% and services: 33.5% (2011 est.) (CIA World FactBook, 2013)

According to Somalia Human Development Report 2012, overall unemployment among people aged 15 to 64 is estimated at 54 percent in Somalia, up from 47 percent in 2002. The unemployment rate for youth aged 14 to 29 is 67 percent one of the highest rates in the world. Females experienced higher unemployment at 74 percent than males at 61 percent. The Human Development Index (HDI) value is 0.285 ranking Somalia among the lowest in the world, at 165 out of the 170 countries in the 2010 Global Human Development Report. Gender inequality is alarmingly high at 0.776 out of a value of 1 and in terms of measuring deprivations related to poverty; Somalia's Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) of 0.47 out of 1 and places the country at 94 out of 104 countries in 2010, Life expectancy at 50 years, up from 47 in 2001 and out of the three key dimensions used to measure Somalia's development, education is the lowest at 0.118 out of 1, followed by income at 0.253 out of 1 and health slightly higher at 0.486 out of 1 (UNDP, 2012). In 2008, humanitarian assistance for Somalia per average per person was estimated at US$ 80.10, which is four times the per capita aid for development (UNDP, 2012).

The maternal mortality ratio (MMR) for Somalia is exceptionally high: 1,000 – 1,200 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births, with Infant mortality rate as high as (IMR): 109 per 1000 live births and Under-five Mortality Rate UMR: 180 per 1000 live births (UNICEF, 2012). The vast majority of childbirths (55.9%) take place with the help of Traditional Birth Attendants (TBA) .

UNICEF Somalia (2012), reports that the leading causes of infant and child mortality are illnesses such as pneumonia (24 per cent), diarrhea (19 per cent), and measles (12 per cent), as well as neonatal disorders (17 per cent). Maternal mortality stands at 1 out of every 12 women dies due to pregnancy related causes with access to maternal services as low as 9% of births being attended by skilled birth attendants. Modern contraceptive rate is around 1% only which are challenged by cultural practices which encourage early marriages and discourage use of modern contraceptives. Malaria remains the most common cause of illness and death among under five children and pregnant women in Somalia. Proportion of children with access to malaria treatment had reached 8% by 2006 (WHO report 2011). The major infectious diseases that pose a high degree of risk include the food or waterborne diseases like bacterial and protozoal, diarrhea, Hepatitis A and E and Typhoid fever; the vectorborne diseases are Schistosomiasis; animal contact diseases are rabies (CIA. The World Fact book Somalia, 2013).

HIV has emerged as a key development issue in Somali society. UNICEF (2007), estimates adult HIV prevalence rate (aged 15–49), in Somalia at 0.7. Central South Zone has the lowest prevalence rate of 0.5. Prevention among young people (Female) (aged 15–24); HIV/AIDS prevalence rate is 0.3. In Somalia just 4 percent of young women have comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS.

Somalia has been in anarchy and protracted conflicts ever since the collapse of the Siad Barre regime in 1991. According to Armed Conflict Locations and Events Datasets (ACLETD) Country Report (April, 2013),

Somalia is the most violent country in the ACLED dataset in terms of the number of violent events; and the ninth most fatal country in terms of conflict-related fatalities. Instability and conflict have been one of the features of the country for over two decades, with conflicts escalating gradually in the late 1990s, and intensified severely from late 2006 onwards due to the rise of armed fundamentalists (See Figure 2).

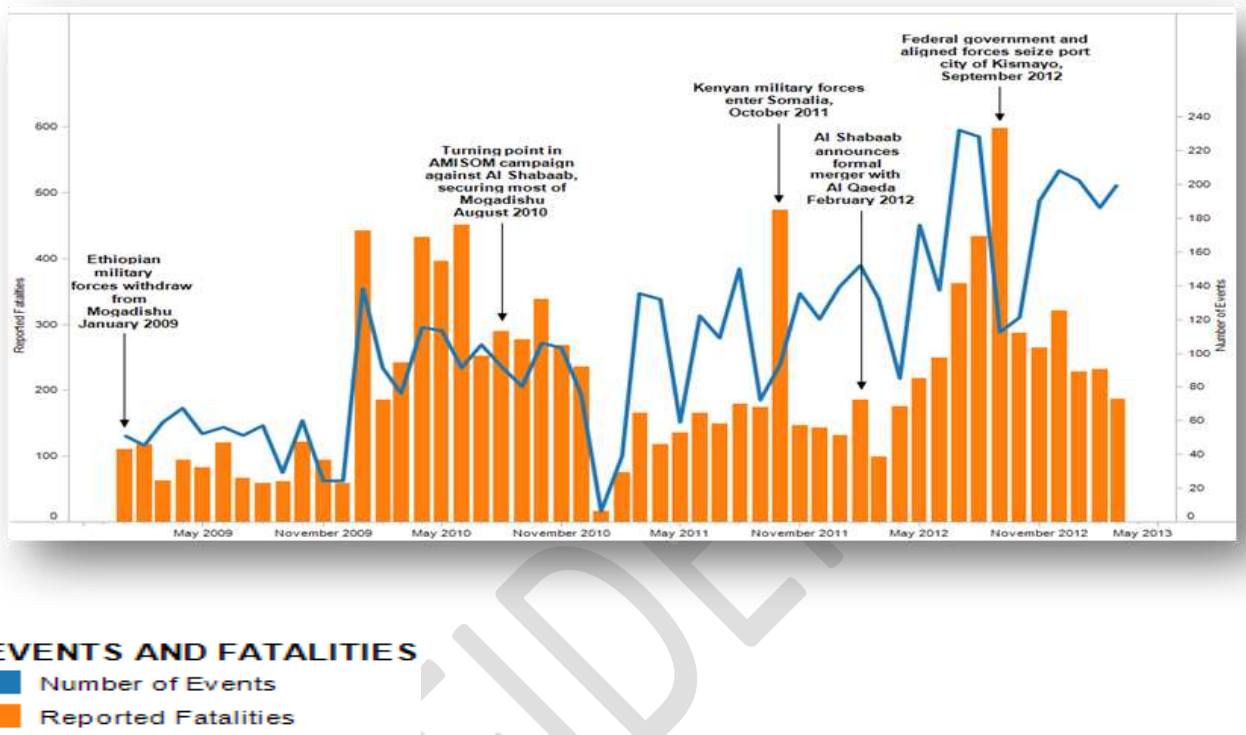

Figure 2: Conflict Events and Reported Fatalities, Somalia, 2009 - March 2013. Source: ACLED 2013

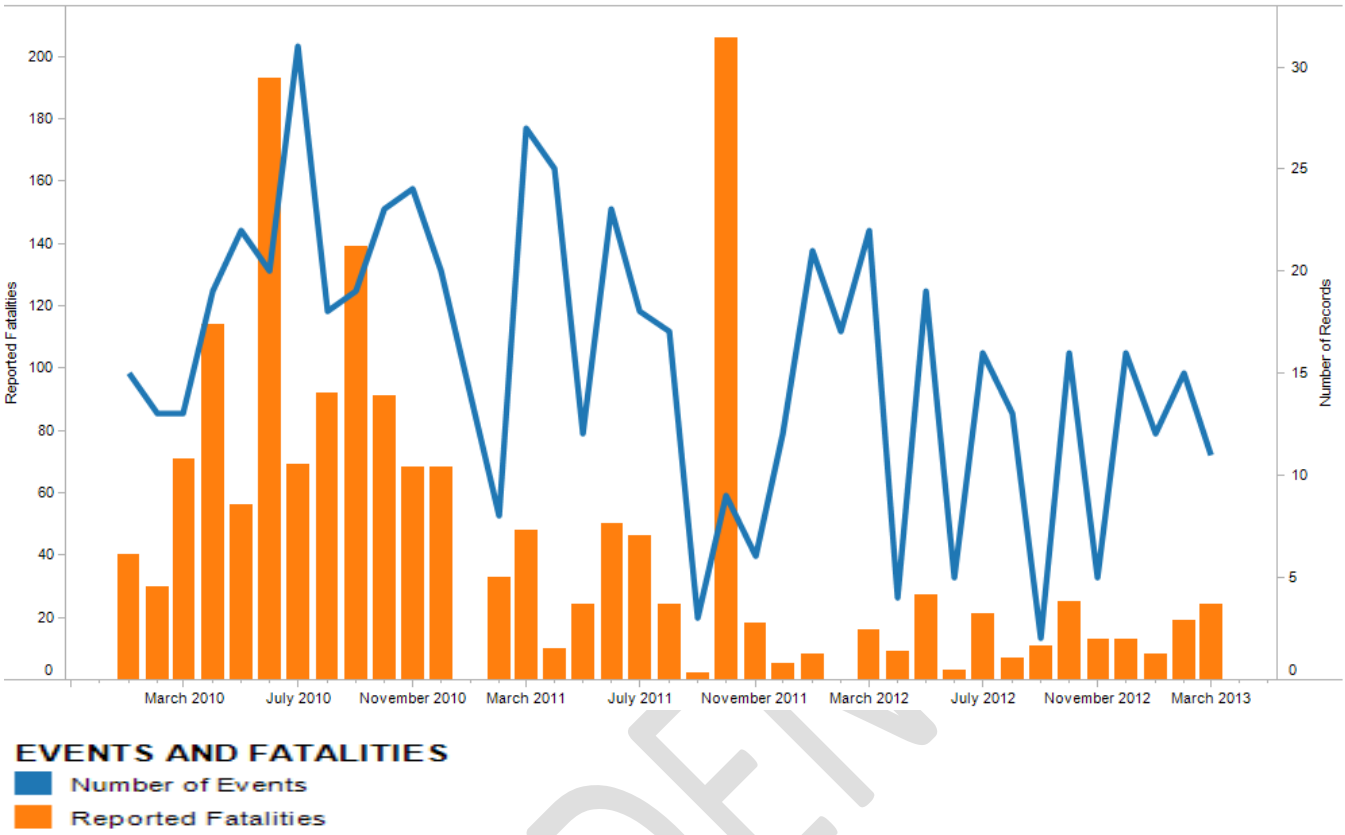

Figure 3: Al Shabaab Events and Reported Fatalities, Banaadir Region, Somalia, 2010 - March 2013.

According to USAID fact sheet (April, 2013) Somalia's has approximately 1.1 million Internally Displaced Persons and its resultant effects, put the country at pole position globally. Besides the wars, the country has also been experiencing cyclical droughts and famine. Over years, in response to the escalating violence and wars and increasing famine, hundreds of thousands of Somalis fled internally and to neighboring countries in search of assistance. According to UNHCR (2013), IDPs are largely a result of insecurity especially in south-central regions and increased military activities in previous years. Of these, 81 per cent (893,000 people) are settled in south-central region, mainly in Benadir (Mogadishu) where there are over 300,000 IDPs and Galgaduud (approx. 119,000), Lower Shabelle (approx. 100,000) and Gedo (approx. 76,000) regions.

Ferris and Petz (2012), argues that droughts are particularly deadly in Africa. His argument has earlier been supported by Apurva et al. (2010), who found that drought produce the largest declines in GDP and also exacerbate conflict. While referring to the Somali famine of 2011, Ferris indicated that a mixture of political and social factors in famine situations, result into widespread loss of life and displacement. She established that by the time famine was declared in Somalia in 2011, some 1.5 million people – perhaps one-fifth of Somalia's population – were internally displaced, with hundreds thousands more fleeing to neighboring countries (Ferris, 2012).

The IPCC (2012) reflected Somalia as a victim of the predicted and now extreme weather events of the 21st century largely due to due to climate change. Maxwell and Fitzpatrick (2012), predict that with the

number and length of warm weather spells becoming more frequent and intense, there is strong evidence that the scale of droughts will be augmented in this Horn of Africa country, giving rise to more Somalis in need of emergency assistance and at imminent risk of starvation. The extreme weather changes have escalated the floods challenge especially in the riverrine communities whose farmlands and homesteads submerge exposing them to greater risks of famine and displacement.

Several studies have justified that a relationship exists between extreme weather conditions and conflict Burke et al. (2009); Hsiang, Meng, and Cane (2011); O'Loughlin et al. (2012) and Raleigh and Kniveton (2012). O'Loughlin et al. (2012) show that abnormally high temperatures and low rainfall increased the risk of violent conflict in East Africa (covering Burundi, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Somalia, Tanzania, and Uganda) over the past two decades. Somalia has experienced droughts -prolonged dry spells and floods in equal measure and as a result, different parts of the country have been under conflict over the past two decades leading to an unprecedented level of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in country.

3.2. Internal Displacement

Somalia's internal displacements have a historical background and have primarily been synonymous with the country's transformation trends, climatic behaviours and conflict. Somalia native people are predominantly nomadic (in the semi-arid and desert lands) and crop cultivators especially the communities in the riverrine areas. Internal displacement has been a strategy to adapt to the above natural and man-made challenges in the communities. The effect these displacements are what has come to be known as Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs).

While there is no internationally agreed definition of IDPs, this study adopts the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) (1999), definition as "*persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border*".

From the foregoing, it is apparent that internal displacement could be induced by natural or man-made disaster. It is also worth noting that the Internal Displacement phenomenon is not a new concept. Recognition of internal displacement emerged gradually through the late 1980s and became prominent on the international agenda in the 1990s. The chief reasons for this attention were the growing number of conflicts causing internal displacement after the end of the Cold War and an increasingly strict international migration regime. The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) (2003), traces the concept back to the 1940s when the Greek government argued to the United Nations (UN) General Assembly in 1949 that people displaced internally by war should have the same access to international aid as refugees, even if they did not need international protection. India and Pakistan were among the first appeals for support to IDPs after their partition.

3.2.1 Conflict Induced Internal Displacement

Literature attributes the majority of such internal displacements to a combination of internal fighting and direct foreign military intervention, most often linked to civil war (IDMC 2005a). The IDMC (2005a), further posits that the causes of conflict-induced displacement can be divided into root causes and proximate causes. Such conflict causes could be fuelled by deep structural problems often rooted in acute racial,

ethnic, religious and/or cultural cleavages as well as gross inequities within a country (Deng 2003). Such realities are existent in Somali societies that demonstrate clan diversities.

3.2.2. Environmentally Induced Internal displacement

Gorlick (2007), reports that UNHCR cautiously defined environmentally displaced persons as those: "who are displaced from or who feel obliged to leave their usual place of residence, because their lives, livelihoods and welfare have been placed at serious risk as a result of adverse environmental, ecological or climatic processes and events" that are naturally induced. This category of internal displacement has been countered by critics who argued that "although environmental degradation and catastrophe may be important factors in the decision to migrate (be displaced), and issues of concern in their own right, their conceptualization as a primary cause of forced displacement is unhelpful and unsound intellectually, and unnecessary in practical terms… the linkages between environmental change, conflict and displacement remain to be proven … rather, migration/displacement is… perhaps better seen as a customary coping strategy" Black (2001).

3.2.3. Internal Displacement in Benadir Region and justification

Floods and droughts have a long history in Somalia and Internal displacement has been a strategy adapted by the Somali people who are predominantly nomadic and crop cultivators especially the communities in the riverrine areas. Floods in the riverrine and swampy areas have long affected the communities resident there and seeking refuge in the highlands has been practiced for ages. The host communities take care of the displaced populations.

With the worsening climatic changes characterized by prolonged droughts, extreme floods and their associated impact on conflict exacerbation (O'Loughlin et al. 2012), IDPs have become an apparent challenge. Blattman and Miguel (2010), attributed civil conflicts and their resultant IDPs challenges to slow economic growth and low per capita income among communities. Long (2010), paints the picture that the internal Displacement 'problem' is a true reflection of an absence of state protection and inability to access the basic rights of citizenship. The above assertions can apparently be validated by current IDP developments in Benadir region where the UNHCR' IDP fact sheet (May 2013), shows that since January 2013, 9,510 people were internally displaced due to floods (6,730), evictions (1,236), lack of livelihood opportunities (1,131), insecurity (405) and incidents of fire (8). Benadir region is worst affected by the IDPs.

Internal Displacements in Somalia are largely an effect of established natural and man-made realities whose escalation is reflected in the number of IDPs. Drastic Climatic changes (Prolonged dry spells and floods which are a precursor for famine) and the civil wars born out of resource distribution inadequacies (economic factors) and ideological differences (national and international) based on perceived and real differences are the primary escalators of IDPs in Somalia.

Addressing internal displacements in Somalia presents an opportunity to address several causal factors including but not limited to the environmental challenges of climate change, economic challenges and the social factors. Besides, Somalia's Human Development Index (HDIP is worse in the Internally Displaced Person's camps. Addressing the IDP challenge is likely to improve the country's HDI status which would in the medium and long run attract Investment local and International. As a result the per capita income improves through the creation of employment opportunities hence the occurrence of conflict (Blattman and Miguel (2010).

Extant literature agrees with Majid and McDowell (2012), that majority of the IDPs approximately 96% of all IDPs in the country come from the 6 provinces with the highest expulsion figures (Bay, Bakool, Gedo, Lower Juba, Middle Juba, Lower Shabelle). These are all found in South-central zone where USAID Somalia fact sheet (2013) put the number of IDPs at 1.1 million. The Benadir region (Mogadishu), hosts the highest concentration of IDPs, it has been reported that majority the IDPs come from the southern farming communities of the Bay, Bakool, and Gedo, Lower Juba, Middle Juba, Lower Shabelle regions Magid and McDowell (2012) where farming is their major economic activity.

The Benadir region in South Central zone is sometimes referred to as Mogadishu. Mogadishu, the capital of Somalia is expanding regularly and now covers almost the whole of Benadir region. The region is possibly only reclaiming its past glory because historically A.D. Jama (1996) posits the Benadir Coast covered the three larger sites Mogadishu, Merca, Barawe and the adjacent riverrine hinterland. He adds that considering the people and their cycle of activities, the Benedir means the coast from Warsheik in the north to Barawa in the south and the immediate hinterland following the Shebelle river basin. Historically, the region covered most of the Indian Ocean coast to the Juba River. However, the Post-independence governments in Somalia divided Benadir and its original hinterland into several other administrative regions. The current Benadir was last demarcated by the Siad Barre regime who allocated it the current administrative districts territorial size. However, it is worth noting that the people and their cycle activities have never been affected by these administrative divisions. Therefore, the present Benadir region which is coextensive with Mogadishu city lies at the heart of the historical Benadir and its hinterland and is much smaller than the latter.

Benadir region is of significant importance not only to it local inhabitants but provides enormous opportunities in terms of business, humanitarian aid and other positive social economic benefits to her hinterland and beyond. The region boasts of the Mogadishu International airport, home to Hormod, Nation link and Telesom telecommunications (the leading telecommunications companies in Somalia), the Bakara market, the 2 biggest referral hospitals (Medina and Benadir hospitals) on top of the leading hotels (Peace hotel, Sahafi and Paradise hotels).This has made the region attractive to the internally displaced persons who in pursuit of better livelihoods opt to settle in Mogadishu/Benadir region.

Benadir region is the most culturally diverse region in Somalia. The region is home to the Hawiye ethnic tribes, Benadiri people, the Arabs and the minority Bantu tribes. The Hawiye ethnic tribes are the dominant group in the region and have been report to occupy key leadership positions and wield a large influence. The According to the Research Directorate, Immigration and Refugee Board, Canada (1999), the Benadiris are a Somali ethnic group from the Benadir region of Somalia: the southern coastal region including Mogadishu. Unlike most Somalis, who are nomadic, the Benadir have a long history as urbanized merchants and artisans. Until recently, Benadir exhibited a strong clan allegiance, through intra-marriage and self-governance. They are devout Sunni Moslems, and are well known for their peace-loving, non-violent ways. For all these reasons, the Benadiris consider themselves a different, elite, class from other Somalis; consequently, the region has not only been attractive to the internally displaced persons but also armed groups in Somalia.

As a host community, Benadir have experienced an influx in their region population apparently due to the IDPs. While there is no reliable data available on the population densities of the different districts that constitute Benadir, it is no secret that the IDPs create pressure on the available land and water resources due to their numbers. In terms of ethnic composition, Benadir region is one of the most ethnic diverse regions in Somalia courtesy of the displaced population. Majority of the inhabitants of Benadir are Sunni Muslims.

While specific demographic data on Benadir region could not be accessed at the time of this literature review, Benadir as a region cannot be detached from the wider Somalia realities. This is given the fact the region is a home to about 3 million people including the IDPs who come from the different parts of the country. Therefore, the national statistics could be representative of the region.

Benadir region is currently under the leadership and governance of the Federal Government of the Somali Republic. Benadir boasts of a historical significance as the region with the largest port and has been in contact with large part of interior Abyssinia as far as Borane and Hara in the contemporary Ethiopia (A. D. Jama, 1996) and A.J Ahmed (1995), markets of East Africa, Middle East, China and Persia. This is South central region is also home to the capital city Mogadishu whose major source of livelihood is trade activities.

The Mogadishu Sea Port and the vast sea shore provide an extensive opportunity for trade with the rest of the world. However, until recently, this international trade was a preserve to a few trade merchants. The domestic trade activities are dominated by livestock and livestock products but the extensive drought makes the products expensive to the local and Internally Displaced communities (Reuters, 17 September 2011; FSNAU, 13 September 2011; IRIN, 6 September 2011. The Bakara market also employs a significant number of local people in the region. Fishing is another economic source of livelihood for the coastal communities.

In terms of income sources, WFP, FSNAU and FEWSNET report (2012) indicate that the majority of urban and IDP households (57% and 61% respectively) rely on only one income source of income. About 30% in both groups were reported to rely on two sources while the rest of the urban residents and IDPs were reported to have more than two income sources. It should be noted that the IDPs' main sources of income as per the above report were casual labour (58%), humanitarian assistance (23%), petty trade (17%) and gifts (10%). The urban households' main income sources were reported as humanitarian assistance (29% of households), skilled labor (28%), casual labor (27%), remittances (24%) and petty trade (22%).

The IDPs remain highly affected by food crisis in Benadir region. The food inaccessibility is worsened by poor purchasing power by the IDPs who are impoverished by lack of employment opportunities in conflict zones. The food assistance is also sometimes reported to be diverted by some parties to the conflict and the little that which reaches the IDPs has been reportedly grabbed, stolen by the 'gatekeepers' (OCHA, 2012). It is worth noting that majority of the Internally Displaced Community in Benadir comes from the rural farming communities of the Shebelle and other southern districts and most of whom are first timers to the city environment where they find it very hard to adjust let alone adapt to the city livelihood measures. This leaves them more economically vulnerable.

The region economic activities are transacted mainly by the USD currency as a medium of exchange. The Somali Shilling keeps depreciating against the dollar as a result of protracted absence Central Bank functionaries to regulate the Forex exchange. With some private business people printing the Somali shilling at will, inflation becomes very difficult to regulate in such an economy. These conditions only give the international currency (USD) leverage in dominating the market to the disadvantage of the internally displaced whose subsistence practices only delineate them from influencing the economic activities in their economy. It is worth noting that livestock and fish exports comprise the largest the Balance of Position contributions while remittances also contribute a significant USD 1.6 billion annually.

3.2.4. Benadir Social characteristics

Education surveys in Somalia show that overall; access to basic education has remained extremely low for a number of years. By 2009 gross enrolment rates ranged from 40% in the north-west to just 22% in South-central Somalia (UNICEF, 23 September 2009).The situation remains very poor in 2011; only an estimated 30 per cent of school age children in South-central Somalia were enrolled and the armed conflict was contributing to an even further decrease (UNICEF, 9 August 2011). University education remains the highest attainable education with presence of large number of private universities. In Benadir alone over twenty universities exist though education is still regarded as expensive to the ordinary Somali. Literacy levels for Somalia remain very low at 37.8% and worse amongst women at 25.5% compared to men's 49.7% (2001 est- CIA World Fact Book 2013). The enrolment levels for a combined primary, secondary and tertiary schooling stand at a mere 7% by 2007 (Leeson 2007). This could be attributed to prevalence of war conflicts which make it very risky school going children to access schools.

The ECHO factsheet (2013) indicates that areas of South-central Somalia continue to be characterized by lack of access to food and other livelihood needs, high mortality, morbidity and malnutrition rates. Poor access to healthcare, limited access to safe water and poor hygiene practices also contribute to Somalia's high rates of malnutrition. Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM) remains at a critical level (GAM 14.3%) particularly in Benadir, Bay, Bakool, Gedo and Hiraan regions. Severe Acute Malnutrition (SAM) has reduced considerably but remains critical (SAM 3%).

Literature indicates that the cumulative effect of people's failure to access the basic necessities of life, including food, clean water, sanitation and health care has been clear since 2010, when a global child mortality survey found that Somalia had the world's highest mortality rate for children at 101.91 deaths/1,000 live births (UNICEF, 16 September 2011). Somalia still leads in mortality rates (WHO May, 2013). IDPs' vulnerability to ill health is increased by their overcrowded living conditions. Waterborne infections are common during the rainy seasons, while according to UNHCR, the temporary settlements which most IDPs were living in do not provide sufficient access to basic supplies and services. Besides only a few internally displaced women and girls had access to sanitary materials, and often in insufficient quantity and on an irregular basis. The lack of domestic and hygiene supplies prevents many women and girls in IDP settlements and host communities to participate in community functions (UNHCR, 2011) to date.

Benadir experiences threats to physical security and integrity. IDPs in the region face risks to their life, safety, security and dignity due to the living conditions they face and the ongoing violence and conflict. IDPs' camps have reportedly been attacked, internally displaced children forcibly recruited, and fighting has continued near camps. In October 2011, up to five IDPs were killed and some 45 injured when a Kenyan army plane bombed an IDP camp in the southern Somalia town of Jilib. Despite denial by the Kenyan army, both Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) reported treating civilians injured in the attack (ICRC, 1 November 2011; Aljazeera 31 October 2011; MSF 31 October 2011; Reuters, 31 October 2011)

3.2.5. The Benadir peculiar cultural characteristics

Across all the 16 districts of the Benadir region maintain formidable clan/cultural diversity. Over time, these clans in the region co-existed peacefully. It was only displacements and their resultant pressures on land, water and other resources that resulted into clan based conflicts. Literature has also pointed at the 'Other' clans' feeling as marginalized by the more powerful clans that also caused tensions to reign high. Bryd and Kamau (2012) disclosed that militia men for example in Howlwadaag district who carry guns

and have been reported to grab food supplies belonging to the IDPs from humanitarian agencies and harass IDPs but the leaders turned a blind eye to their kinsmen.

Bryd and Kamau (2012) posit that women appear to play a very active role in the social development of the community. One of the Districts (Wardhigley) reportedly has a woman District Commissioner (DC) and has earned respect for her hard work. While women's efforts especially in economic contributions are appreciated, their status, as dictated by culture, remains very low.

Many children attend Koranic schools or informal schools called *biribaati* that offer language and handwriting skills. The clan elders and chieftains enjoy the most legitimacy with the people through the governance and leadership roles as Laans, Waah and Tabelle let alone the DC and other governorship functionalities. Their main role is to mediate and provide guidance in local disputes since they are trusted and respected. It is worth observing that literature concludes the Laan, waah and Tabelle roles have been predominantly taken over by the clans with powerful militias as well as influential business men.

3.3. Detailed description of the sampling methodology

3.3.1. Option 1 –[1] Defining Clusters and Constructing the Sampling Frame

Sample sizes was as follows: IDP camps served as clusters with a total of 40 clusters of 20 households (i.e 800/40 = 20HH). At the first stage of sampling, 40 clusters were allocated to the 60 IDP camps proportionately to their estimated population. To do this list, a list of the camps was drawn, with a cumulative running total of population in the (P_1, + P_2 + ... + P_{60} = P_{tot}). A sampling rate (r) was obtained by dividing the total population in the 60 camps (P_{tot}) by the number of clusters (40). The first sampling (cluster) was determined by a random number x using random numbers generator to generate one random starting number https://www.randomizer.org/ (of the same number of digits as r, and comprised between 1 and r), with subsequent points (clusters) falling at (x+r, x+2r, ...x+10r).

Total Cumulative Size = 12759
Planned no. of clusters = 40 (a in equation)
Sampling interval = 12759/ 40= 318.975 ~319 = (1 to 319)
Random start between 1 and 319 = 292

The sampling interval defines the number range (1 to 319 as shown above) from which the random start is selected. The number generated corresponds with the numbers in the column labelled CUMM SIZE. The cluster containing the cumulative number selected is the random starting household. Using random numbers generator https://www.randomizer.org/, 292 is the randomly selected 'first household' selected from the range 1 – 319 (e.g. range defined by the sampling interval). The value in "CUMM SIZE" column corresponds with cluster 1 in the table below.

To select the second cluster, we added the sampling interval to the cumulative size given by the random start. The cluster containing the product is the second cluster. To select the third cluster, add the sampling interval to the cumulative size used to select the second cluster…..and so on until 40 clusters are selected.

[1] Thematic Guidelines: Sampling. December 2004. Sampling Guidelines for Vulnerability Analysis. ODAV (VAM) – **From Greg A. Collins (2004), WFP Sampling Guidelines for Vulnerability Analysis** WFP, Rome http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp197270.pdf

3.3.2. Selecting Clusters Inclusion in the Sample: Systematic-random sample of clusters with PPS

The statistically most efficient two-stage cluster design is one in which (1) clusters are selected with probability-proportional-to-size (PPS) at the first stage of sample selection and (2) a constant number of households is chosen from each cluster at the second stage[2] (Magnani 1999)

According to Magnani 1999, "*whenever possible, clusters should be chosen with probability-proportional-to-size in sample surveys. One reason for this is that this procedure is relatively efficient in terms of sampling precision. A second is that, if an equal number of elements is chosen in each cluster at the second stage of sample selection, the end result will be a sample in which each household has the same overall probability of selection, or is self-weighting. This is a great advantage during data analysis*"

3.3.3. Procedures for selecting sample households

According to Magnani 1999, ideally, sample households should be selected by creating a list or sampling frame of all households located within each cluster and choosing a sample of units using either simple random or systematic sampling. Creating such lists of households is likely to be unacceptably costly and time consuming. As a short-cut, three alternatives are described below: *segmentation* and two variants of a *random-walk* method (Figure 4).

At the second stage of sampling, households within each cluster was selected. To do this, teams span a pen at the centre of the camp, and walk along an imaginary line indicated by the pen until edge of the camp, counting the number of the households (n) encountered along the way. A random number x between 1 and n was selected from a table and the household corresponding to this number become the first household to be visited in this cluster.

From this point forward, teams advanced by following a criterion of proximity, i.e. the household closest to the first became the second household to be visited in the cluster and so on until the required sample in the cluster was completed. In case of equidistant households, teams systematically moved to the household on the right. Empty households were revisited within the same day, and the help of neighbours or elders will be recruited to locate for absentees.

According to **Greg A. Collins (2004), w**hen the transect line contains less than the number of households required, all households in the line are included in the sample and the data collection team returns to the centre of the cluster to pick a second random walking direction and the process is repeated. If a household without an appropriate respondent is encountered, skip it and proceed to the next selected household. This may require returning to the center and repeating the process as for transects with fewer than the number of required households[3].

[2] Magnani, Robert. 1999. Sampling Guide. Washington, D.C.: FHI 360/FANTA. Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) FHI 360 1825 Connecticut Avenue, NW Washington, DC 20009-5721 T: 202-884-8000 F: 202-884-8432 fantamail@fhi360.org www.fantaproject.org.

[3] Thematic Guidelines: Sampling. December 2004. Sampling Guidelines for Vulnerability Analysis; ODAV (VAM) – **From Greg A. Collins (2004), WFP Sampling Guidelines for Vulnerability Analysis** WFP, Rome http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp197270.pdf

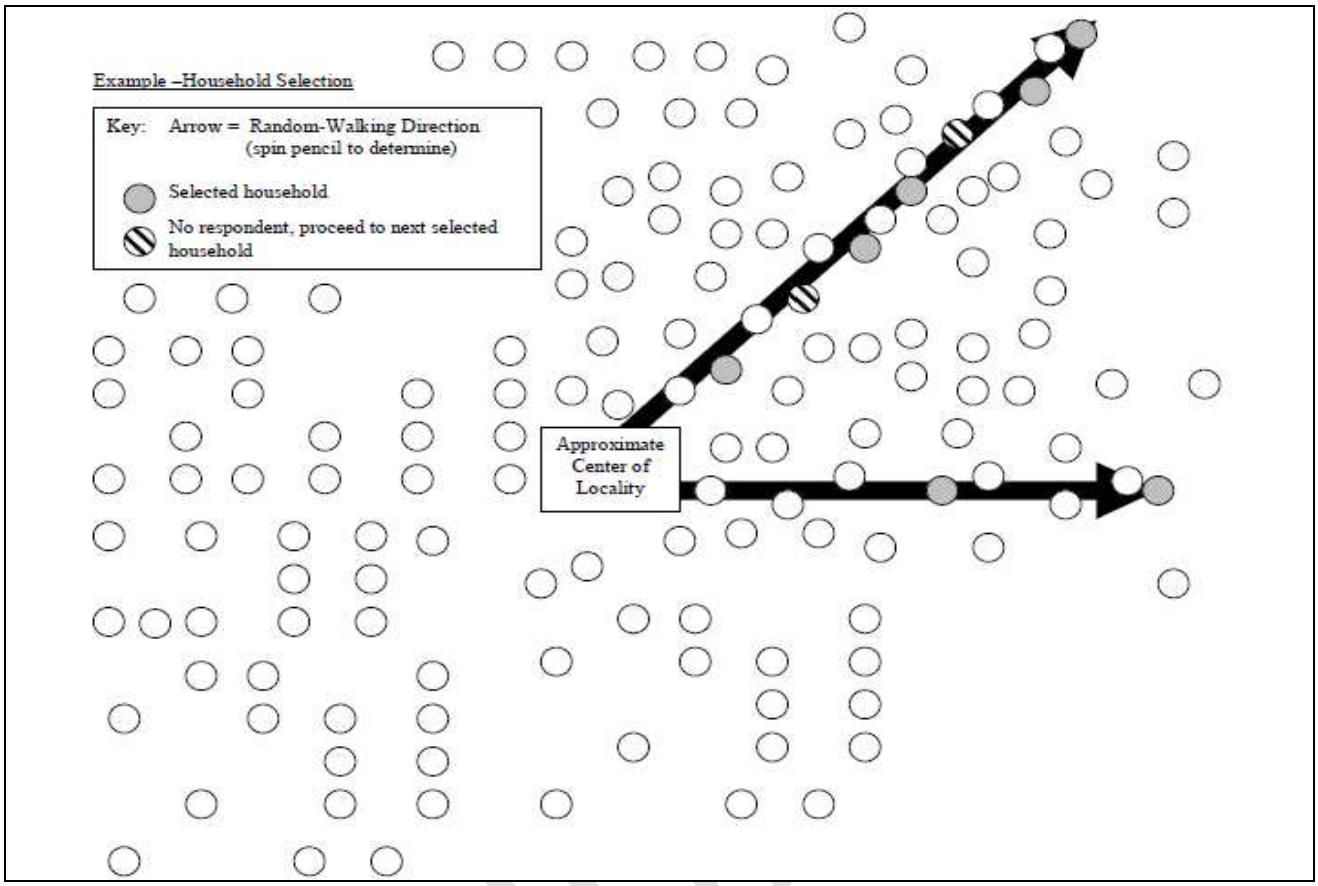

Figure 4: Sampling framework for households in the region

3.3.4. Data quality control

Various measures were implemented to ensure the quality of the data. Experienced data collectors were recruited and detail and in-depth training was given on how to approach and recruit respondents; interview technique and tools. Somali RIHub/SDRI research team closely supervised the survey. The instrument was pre-tested on 5% of similar population. One day discussion was held with data collectors and research team to discuss the pretest result. Based on the result of pre-test, a revision of the data collection tool was undertaken. Supervisors checked the completeness of the data on daily basis and necessary remedies were taken. CSPro (The Census and Survey Processing System) was used for data entry. This software was chosen because it has capabilities such as double data entry with skip rules, range and consistency checks to control data entry error.

3.3.5. Data Sharing, dissemination of result and publication policy

The data collected under this study was shared openly with stakeholders as per the guidance of Resilience Africa Network (RAN). The ethical considerations were observed to ensure maximum protection for the all human subjects involved in this study. The research is to be presented in national and international conferences, as appropriate. A manuscript has been prepared and will be published in reputable peer-reviewed international journals. USAID has been acknowledged in the manuscript.

3.2.6. Enumerator selection and training

A total of twenty enumerators were involved in the data collection. The selections of the enumerators were based on a number of factors, among them their education levels, past experiences in data collection and general enthusiasm in research and resilience. Given that the exercise was being undertaken in collaboration with Benadir University, most of the enumerators were graduate students in their final year of study with interest in research. . The selected enumerators had prior exposure to aspects of research and had good inter personal communication skills. An enumerators' workshop was conducted prior the data collection exercise. During the workshop the enumerators were taken through the data collection tool/ instrument, ethical considerations during data collection, communication and survey interviewing skills The training also covered data validation and general handling and management of the collected data to ensure that data quality and integrity is maintained.

3.2.7. Field work

All the field work was coordinated centrally by Somalia RIHub/SDRI. The field work terms of reference were subject to an IRB committee approval, questionnaire was subjected to the IRB and pilot testing. An introduction letter was developed and availed to all the Enumerators and their supervisors while in the field. A field guide schedule supported the field activity scheduling to ensure systematic movement and coverage by the Enumerators. In addition, all respondents had a sign a voluntary interview consent form prior to participating in the survey interview.

3.2.8. Survey tool

The survey used a household questionnaire as the primary data collection tool. A questionnaire was preferred due to its efficiency in terms of having a well defined structure, timeliness and reliability and validity due to rigor and quality check inbuilt into the tool during its development. The tool was supplemented with a general observations form where the data collection supervisor recorded any community or household characteristics that were considered relevant to the survey objectives.

3.2.9. Ethical issues

To meet the required ethical standards, the enumerators sought **consent from each and every** participant in this survey before being interviewed. The participants signed a consent form confirm that they voluntarily agreed to be interviewed. In addition, codes were used to identify each respondents to achieve **privacy and confidentiality of their responses.**

3.2.10. Data analysis

Data analysis was undertaken in two stages, the first stage involved the use of descriptive statistics while the second stage Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Structural Equation Model (Pathway Analysis) to derive salient dimensions of resilience that were used to identify pathways and entry points for resilience and innovative interventions.

4.0. RESULTS

4.1. DEMOGRAPHICS AND OTHER SOCIAL-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN BENADIR REGION

Overall, a total of 788 households were evaluated with the majority of the respondents being women (81.9 %) and are married (Figure 6). However, the education levels are still wanting. More than 78.3% of the respondents indicated that they are unable to access education (Figure 7). This is reflected in the illiteracy levels that are as high 68.47%. Employment is a major challenge with more than 75.85% of the respondents lacking employment (Figure 8). For those that are employed, only 29% obtain salaries and wages as their major source of income. Most people do not depend on the common sources of employment common in Africa (Table 1). This is worsened by limited access to land as reflected by more than 80% of the people. Few households get a boost for income. About 18.9% are able to access remittances from outside the community. Others obtain income from sale of agriculture products. Only a small percentage (5-6%) of people are involved in agribusinesses such as livestock and poultry.

In terms of livestock ownership, 12.64% own small sized livestock (such as chicken and rabbits), 3.5% medium-sized livestock (such as goats and sheep) and only 1% own large-sized livestock (cattle, donkeys). There is limited ownership of machinery and some of the farm machines commonly used include wheelbarrows, bicycles and hand-tools for digging, cutting and weeding related activities (Figure 9). In agriculture, few farmers access extension services. The services are mainly from the Ministry of Agriculture and NGOs. Access to social capital was equally challenging to the people in the region with majority (>94%) unable to be part of the social groups (Figure 10).

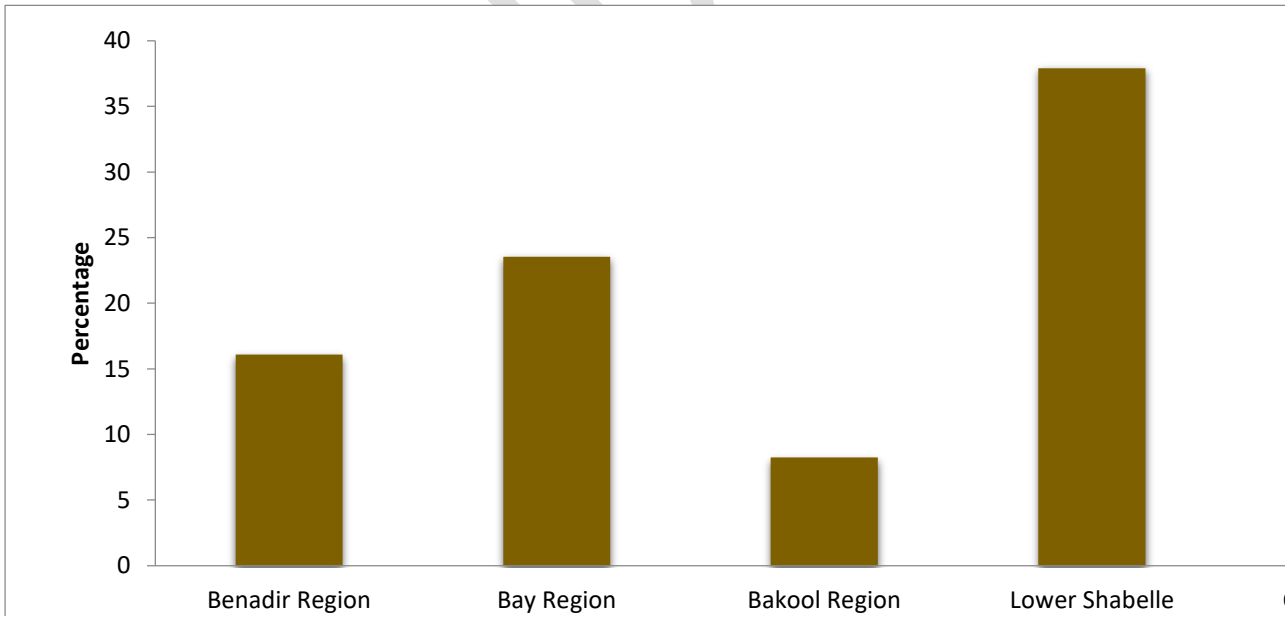

Figure 5: The distribution of households and respondents in Benadir region

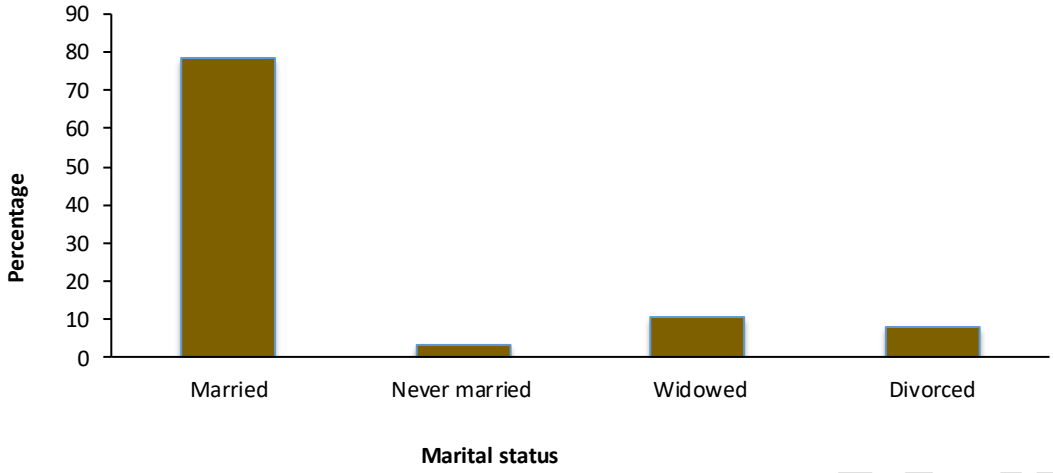

Figure 6: The marital status of sampled households in Benadir region

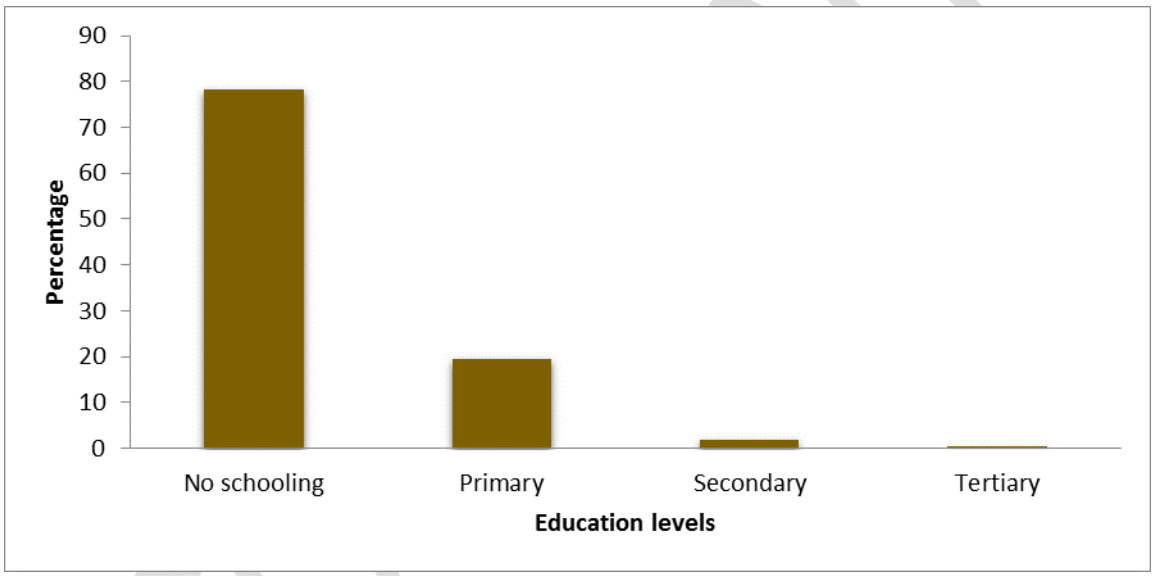

Figure 7: The state of education in Benadir region

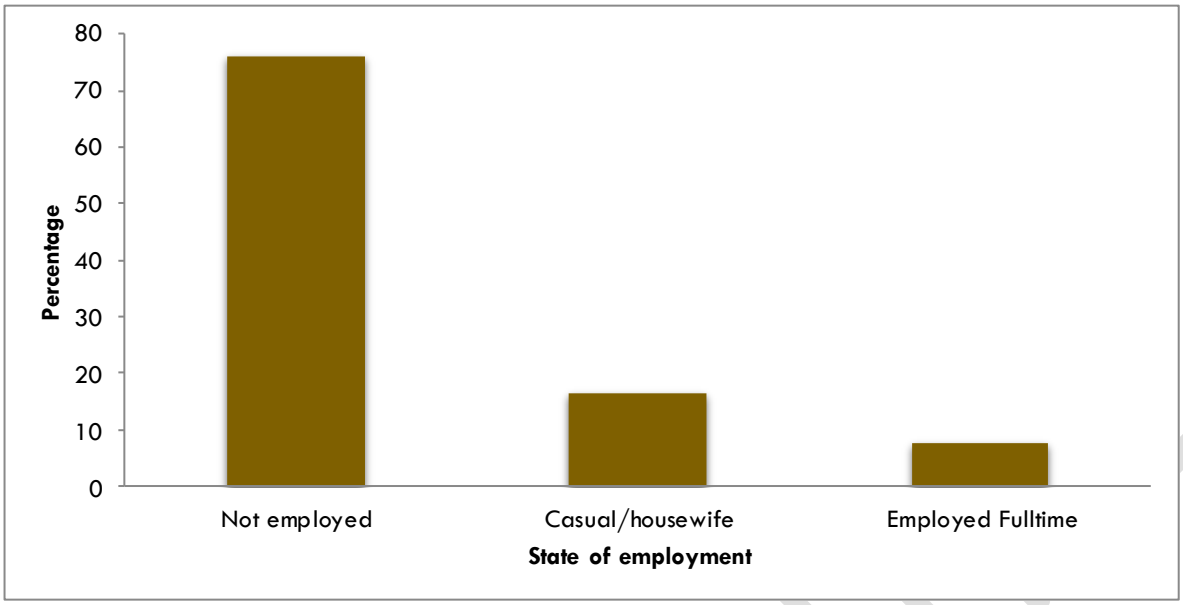

Figure 8: Current state of employment in Benadir region

Table 1. Employment sources for people in Benadir region, Somali

Employment sources	% engaged	% not engaged
Crop Farming	2.28	97.72
Agricultural Enterprise	1.27	98.73
Non-agricultural Enterprise	0.63	99.37
Rent from building property	0.38	99.62
Rent from land	0.89	99.11
Interest from current account	0.38	99.62
Pension	0.51	99.49

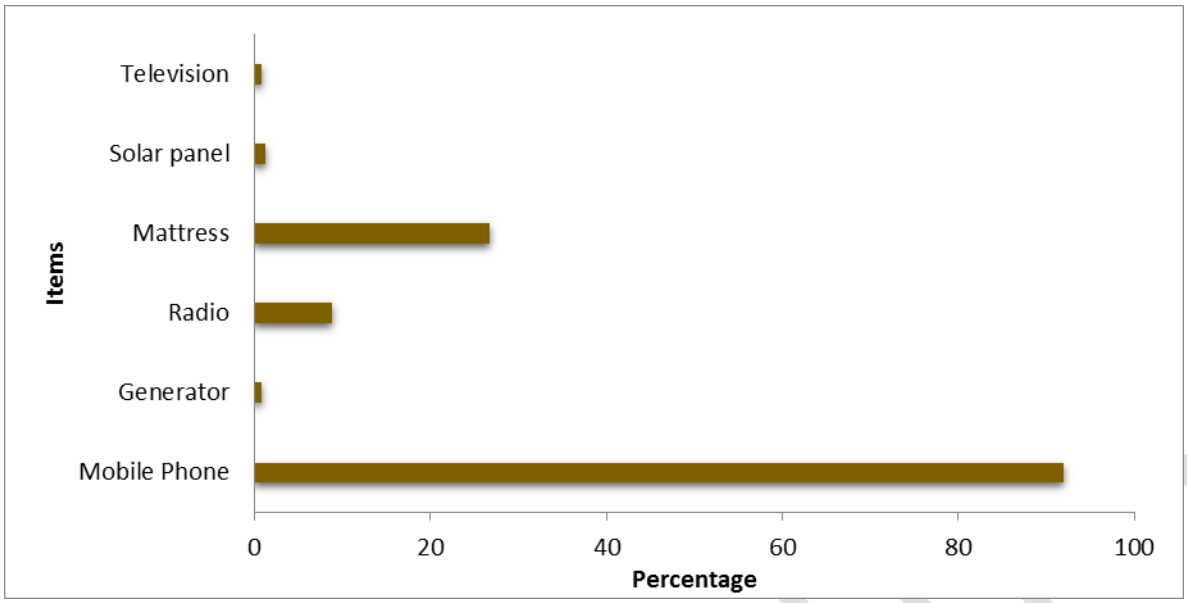

Figure 9: Access to the different assets in Benadir region

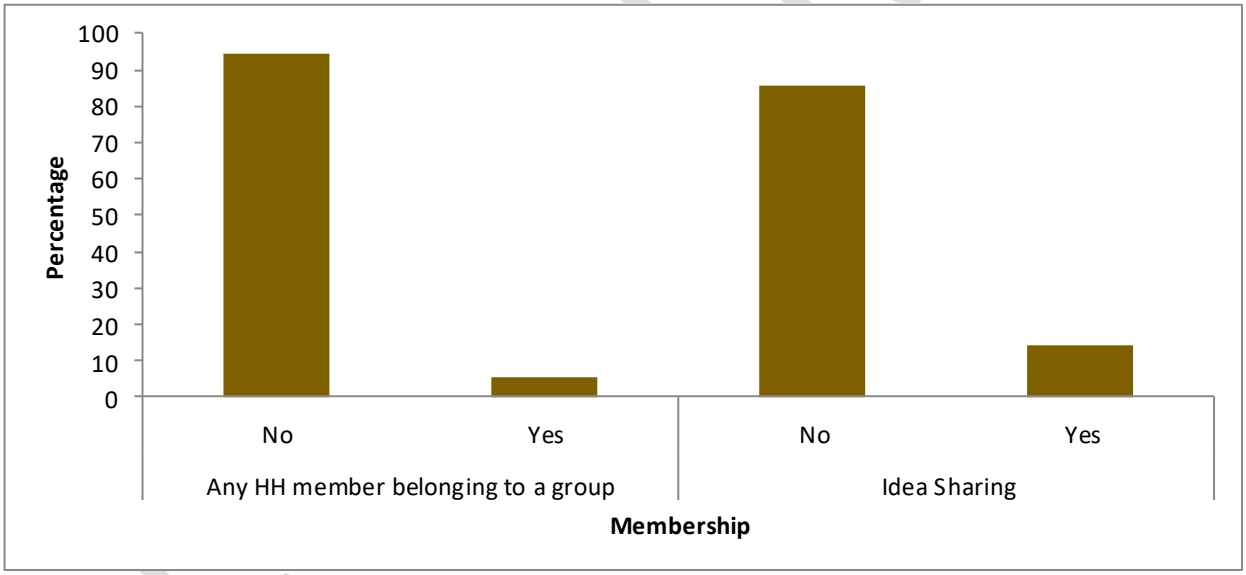

Figure 10: Access to the social capital in different groups in Benadir region

4.2. RESILIENCE DIMENSIONS AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO OVERALL HOUSEHOLD RESILIENCE OF THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED COMMUNITIES IN BENADIR REGION

4.2.1. Wealth Dimension

The wealth index was calculated using PCA based on income sources and asset ownership. The first principal component accounted for 25% of the total variance. The rotated component matrix shows the loading of each variable on the PCA (Table 2). A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was 0.679.

First principal component captured financial incomes from investments such as bank deposit, rents from land and buildings, pension and non-agriculture enterprises, given that these are IDPs, these investments were undertaken before they became IDPs and probably in their place of origin. The second principal component is made up of relatively heavy machinery assets, third principal component is made up of farm related tools and the fourth PC is small and large livestock types as part of food security and small income generation. The fifth PC is made up of heavy household tools (generator and wheelbarrow), this is probably for those IDPs who are using these tools as income sources. The electricity from generator is used to make products that are distributed using the wheelbarrows.

Table 2. The wealth index calculated using PCA with reference to the baseline survey

The wealth index calculated using PCA with reference to the baseline survey

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Components				
	1	2	3	4	5
Musharakah from bank account	**.902**	.034	-.076	.005	-.007
Musharakah from other accounts	**.851**	.021	-.143	.016	.036
Rent from building property	**.822**	.026	.280	-.019	.048
Pension	**.743**	.026	-.009	-.010	-.016
Non-agric enterprise	**.663**	.005	.205	-.021	-.009
Rent from land	**.594**	.099	.292	.007	.161
Do you own hand tools for cutting	.133	**.765**	-.148	.065	-.015
Own power machines e.g. hand tiller, tractor, milling machine	-.050	**.764**	.172	-.009	.000
Own hand tools for digging or weeding	.150	**.729**	.014	.003	.097
Own a plough	-.061	**.596**	.042	.084	-.027
Crop farming	.321	.161	**.770**	.194	-.020
Agricultural enterprise	.452	.134	**.668**	-.030	.188
Own television	-.074	-.058	**.323**	-.038	-.102
Own large sized livestock eg., donkeys, cattle	.012	.015	-.018	**.856**	-.134
Own medium sized livestock e.g. goats, sheep	-.063	.153	.072	**.666**	.328
Own generator	-.068	.053	.037	-.071	**.770**
Own a bicycle or a wheelbarrow	.170	-.047	-.140	.157	**.659**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

4.2.2. Health dimension

The health dimension index was derived based on concerns related to access and quality of health services, access to clean water, general hygiene and waste management. The first principal component accounted for 20.9% of the total variance. The rotated component matrix shows the loading of each variable on the PCA (**Table 3).** A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was 0.650

The first PC is made up of concerns related to access and quality of health services the second PC is about water sources. Similar to the first PC, the third was also about access to health services but more on distance and perception on personal health.

Table 3. The health dimensions index based on the survey

Rotated Component Matrix[a]					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Health concern - long waiting time	**.795**	.050	-.003	-.036	-.152
Health concern - medicine/supplies not available	**.749**	-.094	-.237	.082	.029
Health concern - open hours not convenient	**.644**	.085	.305	.034	.012
Health concern - poor quality services	**.607**	.185	.361	.225	.171
Health concern - limited range of services	**.567**	.176	.490	.202	.197
Main source of water for other uses	.053	**.938**	.044	.065	-.014
Main source of drinking water for the household	.126	**.936**	.047	-.005	.052
Health concern - culture related issues	.138	.210	**.619**	-.155	.213
Health concern- long distance	.255	-.018	**.589**	-.033	-.286
Distance to the nearest health facility in km	.022	.057	**.582**	.166	-.138
How would you rate your present health?	.270	.196	**-.445**	.099	-.085
The last time your child passed stools - what was to dispose the stool?	-.046	.078	-.091	**.769**	-.140
Do you treat you water in any way to make it safer to drink?	-.069	-.066	.006	**-.656**	-.051
Health concern – expensive	.251	-.124	.165	.474	.168
Does any member of household have health insurance coverage?	-.081	.137	.020	.079	**.724**
Do you access to solid waste disposal?	-.152	.338	.127	.091	-.478

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

4.2.3. Infrastructure dimension

The infrastructure dimension index based on the type and state of the nearest road and housing infrastructure. The first principal component accounted for 39.6% of the total variance. All the three indicators loaded on the first principal component (Table 4). A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was -0.191. Due to low reliability problem, this dimension was be excluded from further analysis. This was

understandable given that road infrastructure is a function of the government with minimal input from the IDPs.

Table 4. The infrastructure dimensions index based on the survey

Component Matrix[a]	
	Component
	1
What is the current state of the road/bridge?	-.768
What is the major material for the floor?	.551
What is the type of the nearest road/bridge?	.544

Extraction method: principal component analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

4.2.4. Governance Dimension

The governance dimension index based on the respondents local and central government. All the two indicators loaded on the first principal component accounting for 75.7% of the total variation on the data. A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was 0.679 (Table 5).

Table 5. The governance dimensions index based on the survey data

Component Matrix[a]	
	Component
	1
To what extend do you think the decision of Government in the district or S/C reflect your own priories opinion?	.870
To what extend do you think the decision of those in Central Government reflect your own priority?	.870

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

4.2.5. Human Capital Dimension

Human capital index was derived based on the access to vocational studies, cases of school dropouts, employment status and distance to the nearest school. The first principal component accounted for 23.3% of the total variation in the data. A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was -0.121. It was not possible to get a satisfactory reliability results and therefore this dimension was excluded from further analysis (Table 6).

Table 6. Human capital index was derived based on the baseline

Rotated Component Matrix[a]			
	Component		
	1	2	3
Cases of school dropout following occurrence of disaster	.712	-.026	-.206

Do members in this community have access to technical and vocational training?	.710	.043	.185
Is the household head having any formal employment?	-.228	.772	-.031
what is the distance to nearest primary school?	-.261	-.729	-.005
what is your current employment status?	-.009	-.024	.965

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

4.2.6. Psychosocial Dimension

Psychosocial index was derived based on six indicator variables assessing the respondents self-perception and attitude (Table 7). The first principal component accounted for 37% of the total variation in the data. A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was 0.631. The first principal component captured more about the individual's self perception and confidence while the second PC included indicators on the IDPs perceptiosn about the future life.

Table 7. Psychosocial index based baseline survey

Rotated Component Matrix[a]		
	Component	
	1	2
In the last month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle personal problems?	**.741**	.012
In the last month, how often have you felt things were going your way?	**.729**	.073
Do you usually feel your daily life is a source of personal satisfaction?	**.664**	.158
Do you usually see solutions to problems that other people find hopeless?	**.664**	.040
Have you adapted to living with the main stressor?	-.061	**.932**
Are you positive about life going forward?	.403	**.451**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

4.2.7. Social Safety Network/Social Capital

Social capital dimension was based on ten indicators measuring the level of trust towards neighbors and the extent to which the individual relies on support from neighbors and distant relatives. The first principal component accounted for 30.4% of the total variation in the data. A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was 0.726. The findings suggests the importance the IDPs attach to the social network and support (**Table 8**).

Table 8. Social capital dimension based on survey data

Rotated Component Matrix[a]	
	Component

	1	2	3
Does this household entrust/leave children with neighbours?	.805	.021	.009
Does this household have people you can turn to for help?	.770	.007	.194
Do members of this household share food and non food items with others?	.742	.021	.122
Do members receive help from relatives/ friends when you have problems?	.697	.175	-.124
Do your household members trust people beyond this household?	.692	-.091	.274
Does every member of the household have people in the community to share ideas and work with?	-.035	.860	-.028
Has any member ever received money/remittance from outside this community?	.240	.744	-.101
Does any member of the household belong to any community/social group?	-.064	.604	.147
Will you be able to rely on same or other household during other times of need?	.081	-.080	.797
During last drought did you depend on others for financial or food support?	.153	.145	.787

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

4.2.8. Security/Protection

Security dimension was assessed using indicators measuring the respondents perception on self-security, access to security apparatus and security mechanism within the community (Table 9). The first principal component accounted for 39.5% of the total variation in the data. A reliability test with Cronbach's Alphas was -0.02. This dimension was not be included in further analysis due to low alpha value.

Table 9. Security dimension assessment from the baseline survey

Rotated Component Matrix[a]		
	Component	
	1	2
Do you feel you or your family are not safe where you live?	**.827**	.266
Does your household have access to security?	**-.689**	.469
What are the main security mechanism in your community?	.066	**.898**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

4.2.9. Environment Dimension

Environmental dimension was assessed based on access to water, pasture and waste disposal facilities (Table 10). The first principal component accounted for 53.4% of the total variation in the data. A reliability test of using Cronbach's Alphas was 0.562.

Table 10. Environmental dimension assessment from the baseline survey

Component Matrix[a]

	Component
	1
Water is always available for livestock his household	.825
There is always pasture available for animals that belong to this household	.789
there is good waste disposal in this camp	.548

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

4.3. ANALYSIS OF RESILIENCE DIMENSIONS BY STRATA

4.3.1. Resilience by gender

There were observable gender differences in most dimensions where male respondents scored positively in health and governance while female respondents scored negatively. Female respondents scored high in psychosocial and environment dimensions and neutral on wealth dimension (Table 11, Figure 11). There was no gender difference on the social capital dimension. It is worth noting that neutral perception both men and women displayed on the social safety dimension.

Table 11. Resilience dimension scores by gender

Resilience dimension	Gender of respondent	
	Male	Female
Wealth'	0.03	0
Health	0.09	-0.03
Governance	0.23	-0.04
Psychosocial	-0.08	0.02
Social safety	0	0
Environment	-0.08	0.02

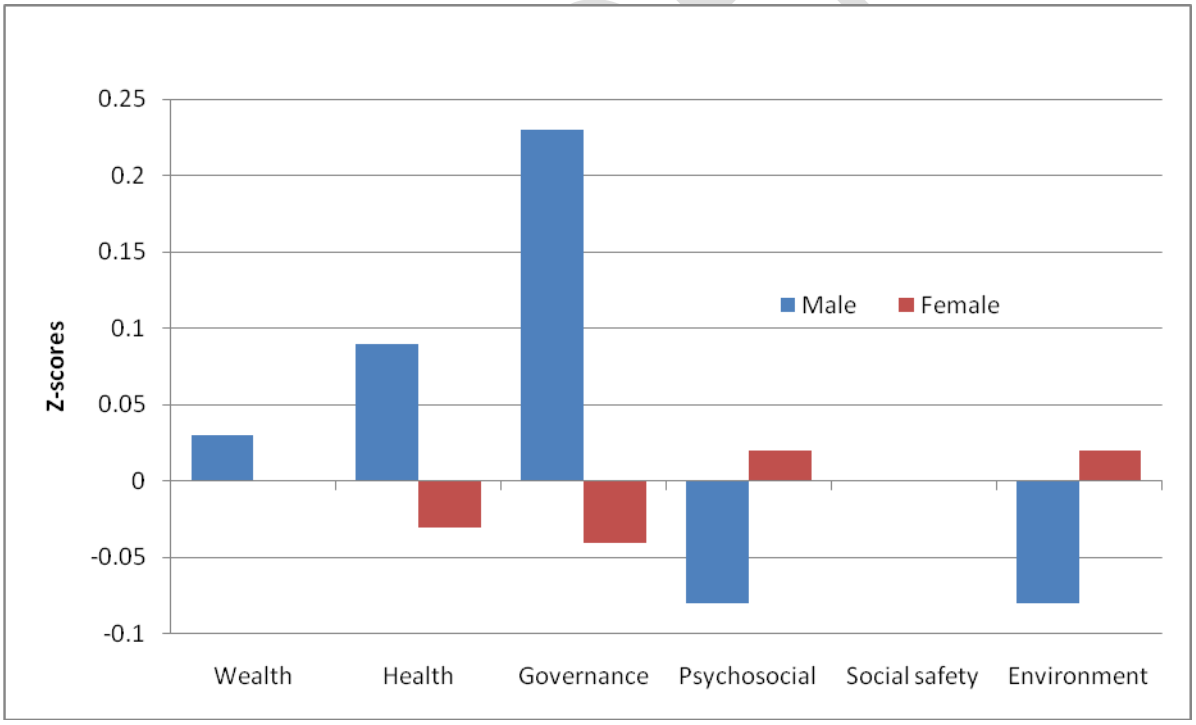

Figure 11: Resilience dimension scores by gender in the Benadir region, Somalia

4.3.2. Resilience by education level

The literate respondents score positively in wealth, health and psychosocial dimension while the illiterate scored positively in social capital and environment highlighting the importance of education in these dimensions. The conspicuous differences between the illiterate and literate respondents on social network indicates that those with low wealth and health scores rely on the social network as a cushion against negative effects associated with poverty and health challenges.(Table 12, Figure 12).

Table 12. Resilience scores by level of education

	Level of literacy	
	Literate	**Illiterate**
Wealth	0.07	-0.03
Health	0.08	-0.03
Governance	-0.04	0
Psychosocial	0.01	-0.01
Social safety	-0.08	0.04
Environment	-0.02	0.01

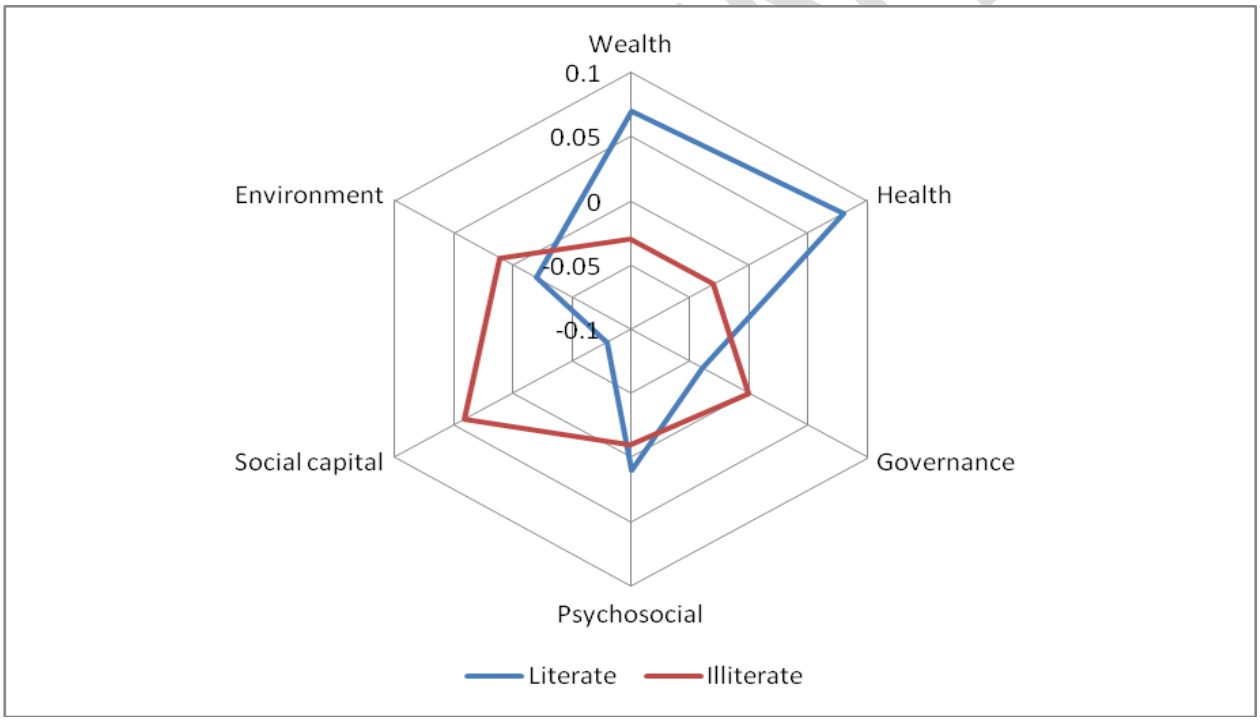

Figure 12: Resilience scores by level of education

4.3.3. Resilience by region of origin

Region of origin was captured based on the reported place of birth. Some respondents were unwilling to disclose their place of birth and were classified as unspecified in the report. Three distinct patterns could be observed on the regional effect. The respondents from Benadir scored highly on health, governance and wealth (Table 13; Figure 13). The second group are respondents from Bay region who scored highly in wealth, environment social capital. Then there are those from Lower Shabelle and those unwilling to specify there origin who scored less than zero in all dimensions.

Table 13. Resilience by IDPs home region

DIMENSION	Region of birth				
	Benadir	Bay	Bakool	Lower Shabelle	Unspecified
Wealth	-0.02	0.19	-0.1	-0.06	-0.07
Health	0.32	-0.07	0.05	-0.13	0.02
Governance	0.05	0.02	0.1	0.01	-0.18
Psychosocial	0.03	-0.02	0.09	-0.02	-0.07
Social safety	0.1	0.15	0.04	-0.07	-0.07
Environment	-0.17	0.12	-0.07	0.02	-0.01

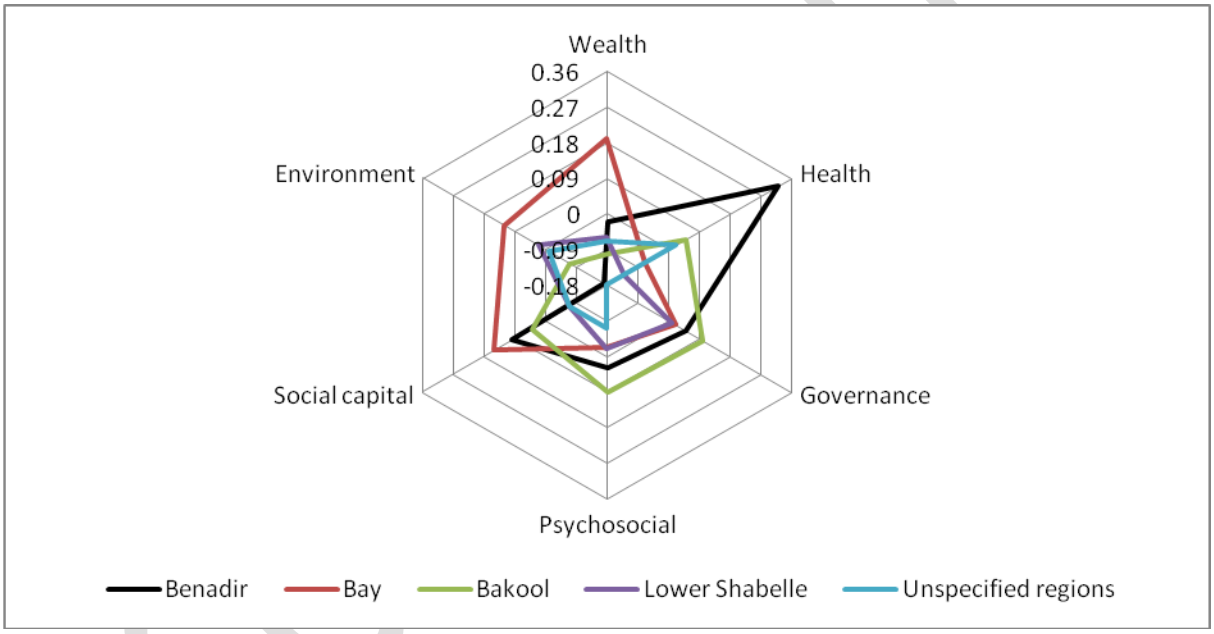

Figure 13: Dimension scores by region of origin in relation to the baseline data

4.3.4. Resilience by willingness to return home

The willingness of IDPs to return home was assessed based on their reasons for not going back home. The three mentioned reasons were lack of transport, insecurity in the home region and lack of basic services (Table 14, Figure 14). There were a set of IDPs who simply had no intention of returning home and therefore they consider the question not applicable. It is interesting to note that those mentioning lack of services rated the almost all resilient dimensions positively and were doing better than all the others except for health where those who were in the camps due to lack of transport scored higher. It is puzzling that those who have no plans to return home scored negatively in all dimensions except wealth.

Table 14. Resilience by reason of unwillingness to return home

Reason not willing to return home	Wealth	Health	Governance	Psychosocial	Social safety	Environment
Not applicable	.07	-.35	-.35	-.31	-.59	-.16
No transport home	-.09	.32	-.19	.23	-.32	.02
Lack of basic services in place of origin	.07	.04	.33	-.04	.37	.05
Insecurity does not allow	-.08	-.04	-.10	.15	.08	.02

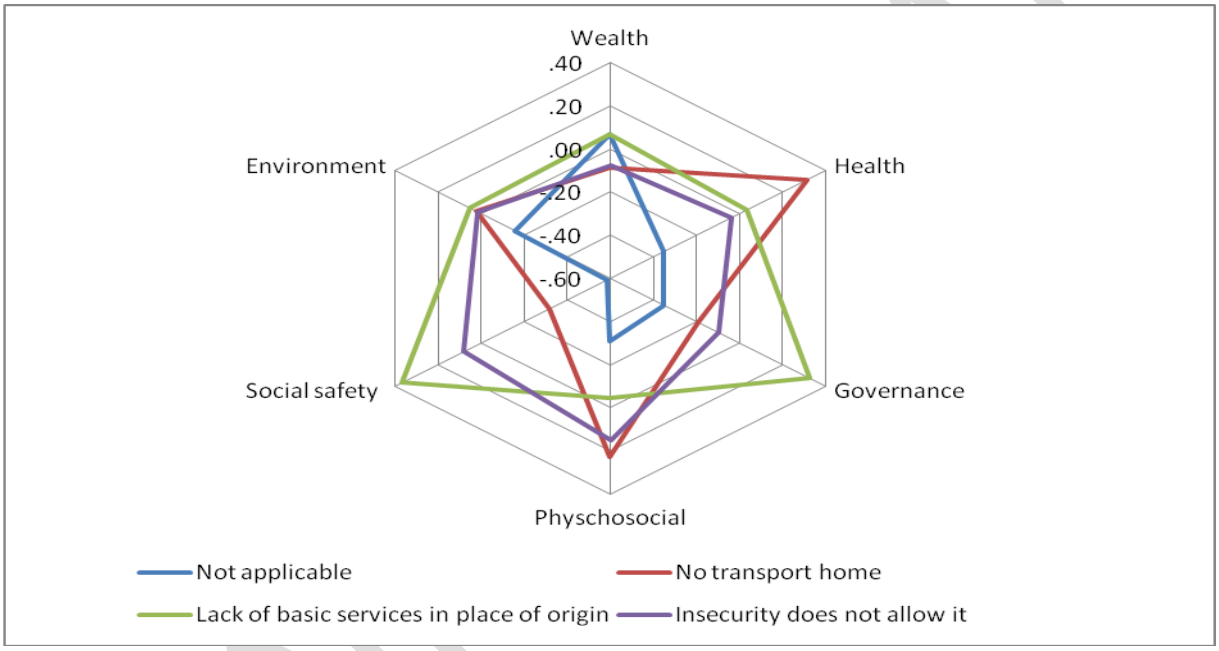

Figure 14: Resilience by reasons for not returning home

4.4. CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF RESILIENCE DIMENSIONS AND VULNERABILITY INDICATORS

Household food security (HFS) score was derived using modified FANTA methodology (Ballard et. al, 2011) but modified slightly to achieve positive ranking as follows. The frequencies of times a household skipped meals were turned into scores of between 0 and 6. The derived scores were then categorized into three hunger levels whereby a score 0 – 1 =2 indicating "Little or no hunger", 2- 4=1 indicating "Moderate Hunger" and 5 – 6 =0 indicating "Severe Hunger". The hunger scale ranking was reversed to be consistent with other indicators where high values indicate the desirable outcomes. Household Dietary Diversity (HDDS) was derived as the number of food groups consumed by the household out of the recommended 12 food groups.

Household dietary diversity was significantly correlated with environment only (Table 15). Other notable correlations were those between household food security and health, psychosocial, governance and Social safety. It was surprising that wealth was not correlated with any of the vulnerability indicators.

Table 15. Correlation analysis of resilient dimensions and vulnerability indicators

		HDDS	HFS	Wealth	Health	Governance	Psychosocial	Social safety	Environment
HDDS	rho		-.039	-.007	-.052	-.025	-.022	-.044	.125**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.270	**.839**	.152	.477	**.540**	.217	.001
HFS	rho	-.039		.026	.146**	.195**	-.191**	.329**	.059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.270		.467	.000	.000	.000	.000	.102
Wealth	rho	-.007	.026		-.058	.007	-.001	.073*	.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**.839**	.467		.115	**.842**	**.980**	.043	**.764**
Health	rho	-.052	.146**	-.058		.139**	.067	-.047	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.152	.000	.115		.000	.072	.205	.813
Governance	rho	-.025	.195**	.007	.139**		-.133**	.139**	.096**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.477	.000	**.842**	.000		.000	.000	.008
Psychosocial	rho	-.022	-.191**	-.001	.067	-.133**		-.082*	.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.540	.000	**.980**	.072	.000		.024	.231
Social safety	rho	-.044	.329**	.073*	-.047	.139**	-.082*		.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.217	.000	.043	.205	.000	.024		**.832**
Environment	rho	.125**	.059	.011	.009	.096**	.044	.008	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.102	**.764**	**.813**	.008	.231	**.832**	

****. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)/*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)., HFS-Household Food Security, HDDS- Household Dietary Diversity**

4.5. REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS FOR HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY AGAINST RESILIENCE

Following the correlation analysis, a regression model was implemented with the household food security as the dependent variable and resilience indicators as independent variables controlling for the gender of the respondent (Table 16). Health, governance, social capital were significantly associated with household food security. Although psychosocial status was marginally significant (p=0.05) it had interesting revelation whereby those IDPs with low psychosocial scores had higher food security scores (negative coefficient).

Table 16. Regression coefficients for household food security against resilience dimensions

					95% Confidence Interval	
Parameter	**B**	**Std. Error**	**t**	**Sig.**	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Intercept	.704	.030	23.762	.000	.645	.762
Wealth	-.037	.025	-1.474	.141	-.086	.012
Health	.135	.027	5.044	.000	.082	.187
Governance	.069	.028	2.519	.012	.015	.123
Psychosocial	-.052	.027	-1.932	.054	-.104	.001
Social Safety	.243	.028	8.729	.000	.188	.297
Environment	.039	.025	1.512	.131	-.012	.089
[gender=1]	.075	.069	1.082	.280	-.061	.210
[gender= 2]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

5.0 DISCUSSIONS

5.1. CONTRIBUTION OF RESILIENCE DIMENSIONS TO OVERALL HOUSEHOLD RESILIENCE IN BENADIR REGION

One of the major goals of this baseline study was to explore how the different dimensions contribute to the overall resilience of the internally displaced communities in Benadir region, Somalia. The demographics and social-economic status of Benadir region (Figures 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10) further confirmed the state of the IDP camps in terms of income, education, ownership of assets, access to land, state of social capital etc. The IDPs camps are clearly very vulnerable to disaster risks thus a need for household resilience related interventions.

The different dimensions explored in this study explain some of the challenges faced by households in the displacement camps. Interventions to help alleviate negative impacts of these challenges can be developed for such communities. The interrelationship between these dimensions provided critical empirical justification for intervention paths. The assessment indicates the capacity of the people in the IDP to get back to their previous level of well-being (for instance food security) after a shock of displacement.

From the findings, interesting aspects were brought to light in relation to wealth, health, human capital, psychosocial status, social capital, security/protection, and environment. All these factors have direct and indirect effects on the chronically displaced individuals in terms of education levels, length of stay in camp, likely sources of income, capacity to access credit/loans, access to food/consumption per day, poverty levels, and capacity to access health services. The findings from the survey provided insights into household's resilience and how they cope with shocks and stressors.

Somali is a region that currently faces different challenges in relation to poverty, insecurity, conflicts, hunger exacerbated by the limited access to infrastructure, technology or markets etc From the findings, the liquid financial capital from some of the IDPs can obtain income from rented property which is an indicator that is can be difficult to obtain wealth using other local means (Table 2). Earlier studies by RAN (2014) suggested that threats of fear still prevails in the war-tone regions affecting income generation activities. The overall limited possession of agricultural and non-agricultural equipment provides important insight on the livelihood conditions among IDPs. The IDPs seem to lack mechanisms of how to quickly recover from the shocks since the major physical pillar of resilience, that is assets which is needed to reinforce resilience among the local community was not a major element for the IDP camps.

The health dimension demonstrated that quality and access were a major concern for the IDPs in Somali region (Table 3). Access to health services is one of the major critical pillars of resilience for displaced communities and also demonstrates whether a household is able to meet its needs. The health status quo in the IDPs suggests that some interventions need to be established. There is probability for increased frequency of risk to diseases for most people especially the most vulnerable.

Other elements such infrastructure, human capital and security (Table 4, Table 6, Table 9) did not actually provide satisfactory reliability results. The perceptions of the people were not producing meaningful statement.

However, the participants seem to suggest that governance issues by the Central government were satisfying (Table 5). The governance factor is critical since it affects all the pillars of resilience such as social safety nets, the assets, the social services and can subsequently affect the adaptive capacity as IDPS try a new situation and/or attempt to develop new sources of livelihood. For the Somalia, it is promising that people have some confidence in the government and this can boost all efforts of resilience for the IDPS.

The psychosocial dimension further provide some indication on the level of self-esteem and attitude of self. The respondents were unexpectedly very optimistic about themselves (Table 7). This positive attitude on some of the shocks and stresses of life clearly suggests that this community has built it resilience. Such a community of the IDPs seems to be less sensitive since it has been continuously been affected by similar shocks in the recent past.

For the Social Safety Nets (SSN), the findings suggested that there is often some social mechanism to exchange food and other items among the IDPS (Table 8). This clearly showed that the community in the IDPS could obtain reliable and timely support from the neighbors, friends, NGOS, government and relatives. The concept of sharing items such as food has often been a tradition in some African systems. In Somalia, it is a culture to share but it is a good mechanism for boosting resilience among the communities. Both the formal and the informal SSNs can help improve insurance of the people in the IDPs since access to resources is possible from friends or organized systems. In Somalia, the SSNs approach can help the poor, and can protect some assets/property with no or minimum debt. This findings from SSN is evidently working for Somalia and has the potential to be a good platform for absorbing shock.

5.2. ANALYSIS BY STRATA OF THE DIFFERENT RESILIENCE DIMENSIONS

There were observable gender differences in most dimensions where male respondents scores positively in health and governance while female respondents scored negatively (Table 11). The gender differences is an indicator that there are differences in preferences and this ought to be respected. The disaggregating processes unveiled the fact that male or female headed households may have distinct issues to be addressed. For example women were associated with psychosocial challenges than men.. These differences could explain the e observed low self-esteem among women. This gender issues must be considered always so that any interventions on resilience appropriately target men and women to achieve desired results and outcomes.

The education strata (Table 12) provided important insights on how education plays a critical role in resilience studies enhancing the commonly held assertion that the higher the literacy rate, the higher the capacity to respond or adapt. The literate people in the IDPS seem highly skilled and knowledgeable with high access to wealth, health and psychologically with high positive attitude. The less educated who are the lower skilled members of a society seemed to be most vulnerable

under the IDP stresses. It is therefore important to explore respondent's knowledge and ability to adopt new strategies to cope with any shocks.

5.3. CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF RESILIENCE DIMENSIONS AND VULNERABILITY INDICATORS

The findings cleared showed that Household dietary diversity was significantly correlated with environment h (Table 15). Other correlations between HDDS and resilience dimensions were notable not significant. However, household food security showed significant correlation with a number of resilience dimensions which included health, psychosocial and social safety this could be due to the fact that HDDS depends on both availability and access to food types. The correlation between health and governance dimension is 0.139 and is significant (Table 15).

From the qualitative, it was established that governance was an enabling dimension for health and therefore it is understandable that those with good self-health perception also rated the governance positively. Contextually, the governance facilitates access to health services and puts in place mechanism to improve the quality of service and products (rehabilitation of major hospitals in collaboration between Somali government and friendly partners). There is a significant correlation between household food security scores and social capital (rho=0.329, p=0.000) implying that those respondents who experienced no hunger or little hunger had strong social capital networks. From the qualitative analysis, it was found that social network were a major source of food in terms of remittances and general financial support that is used to purchase food products.

Table 17. Correlation analysis of resilience dimensions factors

		HDDS	HFS	Wealth	Health	Governance	Psychosocial	Social safety	Environment
HDDS	rho		-.039	-.007	-.052	-.025	-.022	-.044	.125**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.270	**.839**	.152	.477	**.540**	.217	.001
HFS	rho	-.039		.026	.146**	.195**	-.191**	.329**	.059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.270		.467	.000	.000	.000	.000	.102
Wealth	rho	-.007	.026		-.058	.007	-.001	.073*	.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**.839**	.467		.115	**.842**	**.980**	.043	**.764**
Health	rho	-.052	.146**	-.058		.139**	.067	-.047	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.152	.000	.115		.000	.072	.205	.813
Governance	rho	-.025	.195**	.007	.139**		-.133**	.139**	.096**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.477	.000	**.842**	.000		.000	.000	.008
Psychosocial	rho	-.022	-.191**	-.001	.067	-.133**		-.082*	.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.540	.000	**.980**	.072	.000		.024	.231
Social safety	rho	-.044	.329**	.073*	-.047	.139**	-.082*		.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.217	.000	.043	.205	.000	.024		**.832**
Environment	rho	.125**	.059	.011	.009	.096**	.044	.008	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.102	**.764**	**.813**	.008	.231	**.832**	

Although the quantitative data provided important information on the different dimensions of resilience, we compared the datasets with qualitative information probed during data collection. Detailed qualitative assessments from the survey was conducted using quotes from the transcripts coded for different dimensions. Information related to the dimensions of Natural Resources/Environment and Wealth (including food security and dietary diversity) were frequently mentioned simultaneously, yielding the high code co-occurrences. Participants highlighted the dimensions of Natural Resources/Environment and Wealth as underlying drivers of vulnerability as well as enablers of adaptation and resilience. Fragile environment and natural resources have always been a threat for most communities in the world. In regions like Somalia, climate shocks can lead to prolonged drought. The increase in intensity and frequency of such factors can result in a decrease in the coping ability of an already vulnerable community such as the IDPS. To mitigate these problems, intervention strategies that integrate local indigenous knowledge with geospatial data and scientific analysis in environmental planning, as well as capacity building of government are relevant. The element of wealth which is linked to poverty ought to be prioritized so that the welfare of vulnerable communities is improved. The region in focus was notably characteristic of high food prices which force communities to cut both their daily food intake and family expenses, and this lowers their human development indicators. The poor communities in IDPS become very vulnerable to hunger and undernourishment. Other services such as the health and education services remain for the private sector, and most respondents indicated they cannot afford payment of the fees. This reduces the resilience of a community especially in cases where access to education remains a challenge.

Other analysis from the qualitative data further highlighted that conflict and drought are the main triggers (shocks) of chronic internal displacement. Water and pasture stress ignite conflicts over resources and food insecurity (crop failure), which cause human and livestock deaths. The data showed that Governance was central in the community resilience domain even though participants were discouraged by governance failures and expect both national and international interventions to restore governance, peace and security to reduce the effects of armed conflicts and internal displacement. The Governance dimension directly relates and impacts communities' food security, standards of living, peace and security, law and order, judiciary systems and infrastructure. The survey revealed that good governance can result in improved management and regulatory basis for natural resource security, access to health and education services, infrastructure and economic development to help communities overcome poverty. In Somalia, stable governance would result in basic security, access to justice and protection of human rights which are vital and currently remain missing link to building communities' resilience.

Psychosocial dimension shows that all other dimensions does not improve the psychosocial status of an IDP person and therefore more is needed to address this aspect of IDP resilience. The qualitative data showed no exception to the psychosocial effects of chronic internal displacements. Before displacement, communities faced harsh conditions that involved critical losses of lives and assets. During conflicts, both adults and children are traumatized, which increases mental health problems. IDPs face risks to their lives from the ongoing violence and conflict as well as from appalling and undignified living conditions within internally displacement camps. Furthermore, the qualitative revealed that women, children and the elderly are most vulnerable to the direct and indirect effects of internal displacement and among the hardest hit by psychosocial problems. Female respondents said that in addition to fear of rape and sexual

violence, some women suffer from trauma-induced mental illness because of their financially constrained situation. Participants emphasized that having families in IDP camps is distressing.

The findings in this study (quanlitative) established that there is a strong inter-dimensional relationship between Psychosocial Wellbeing and other dimensions. Shocks such as armed conflict causes fear and stress, and recurrent drought and food shortages cause depression and anxiety. The combined trauma of direct attacks, ongoing terror, illness, food deficits, and other hostile acts has caused permanent mental impairment among some IDPs. These effects were captures under other dimensions such as Wealth, Health, and Social Capital/Community Networks which contributed to psychosocial problems. Food insecurity caused extreme stress and anxiety. Stress and anxiety lead to reduced earnings, which leads to depression. Parents' stress also affects children, which coupled with the violent environment they grow up in, can cause aggressive and destructive behavior. Internal displacement reduces people's ability to earn a decent living. Conflict and drought as such remain the main triggers of chronic internal displacement, resulting in loss of life, livelihoods and human dignity. The impacts in Somali can be enormous. Drought can potentially decrease trust among clans as they struggle over increasingly scarce resources. In IDP camps, communities may scuffle over humanitarian assistance. Conflict and recurrent drought also affect the ability of individuals and households to build coping strategies. More vulnerable households, which do not have assets or savings, have the most difficulty accessing markets and employment.

Chronic internal displacement in such areas of Somalia also clearly affects large and extended families. Armed civil conflict and natural disasters have direct and indirect costs that have affected the living conditions of large and extended households on the way to and in the IDP camps. People who can feed themselves sufficiently cannot provide enough food as well to the family members, leading to malnutrition. Poor families, who are dependent on social support, also suffer when shocks disrupt the income sources of their supporters.

With regards to wealth, the qualitative study found that wealth linked well with social capital. Social capital was identified as a community attachment method to cope with the effects of chronic internal displacement. On a larger scale, communities rely on one another through remittances, gifts, charity and other in-kind assistance during both the pre- and post-displacement phases. In extreme conditions of food insecurity, communities borrow money to buy food or receive food from family members or neighbors. Most of the FGD and KII participants indicated that households resort to cooking whatever food is available at home or reduce their food intake. Participants in the FGDs and KIIs in this study discussed the depletion of IDPs' assets and sources of income. The IDPs have little access to stable employment and little or no access to services such as health, education, water and sanitation, loans or microcredit. Poverty is one of the causes of vulnerability to chronic internal displacement.

The qualitative study further revealed that chronic internal displacement created critical conditions of vulnerability among communities, including limited access to food, shelter, water, health care and sanitation. For instance, IDPs live in makeshift shelters that provide little protection; their health and nutritional status are poor. Recurrent displacement, conflict and drought have dissolved much of the social support network, depleted household assets and disrupted livelihood systems and sources, perpetuating lack of access to food and wealth. Further, chronic internal displacement causes psychological problems, especially for mothers and children who live in fear of armed conflict. Besides, men also reported psychological problems related to their status of

being unemployed within in the IDP camps which also increases their psychological stress as result of depletion and loss of wealth and livelihood assets. Additionally, the qualitative revealed that the harsh living condition of families fostered disputes that escalated to separation and divorce within the communities.

Looking at the inter-dimensional relationship between Health and other resilience dimensions using the qualitative data, the study that the relationship was complex. For example, women, children and the elderly can go days without food, leading to malnutrition and increased susceptibility to disease. Shelters built by IDPs do not protect them from the scorching sun, rain and wind. Young girls and women travel long distances to fetch water, which is sometimes dangerous for them, especially if they are unaccompanied by men. Participants in the FGDs and KIIs said that the years of unrest in Somalia had weakened the health system, quality of services and access to health care, as well as causing health personnel shortages increased rates of diseases such as malaria, diarrhea, parasites, giardia, hepatitis and tuberculosis.

5.4. SOMALIA IDP RESILIENCE PATHWAY MODEL: IMPORTANT PATHWAYS TO IDP RESETTLEMENT

Building on the Somalia IDP context qualitative study in 2015, which identified nine important resilience dimensions, a quantitative survey was undertaken to empirically identify important pathways to resilience amongst internally displaced persons in Benadir region of Somalia.

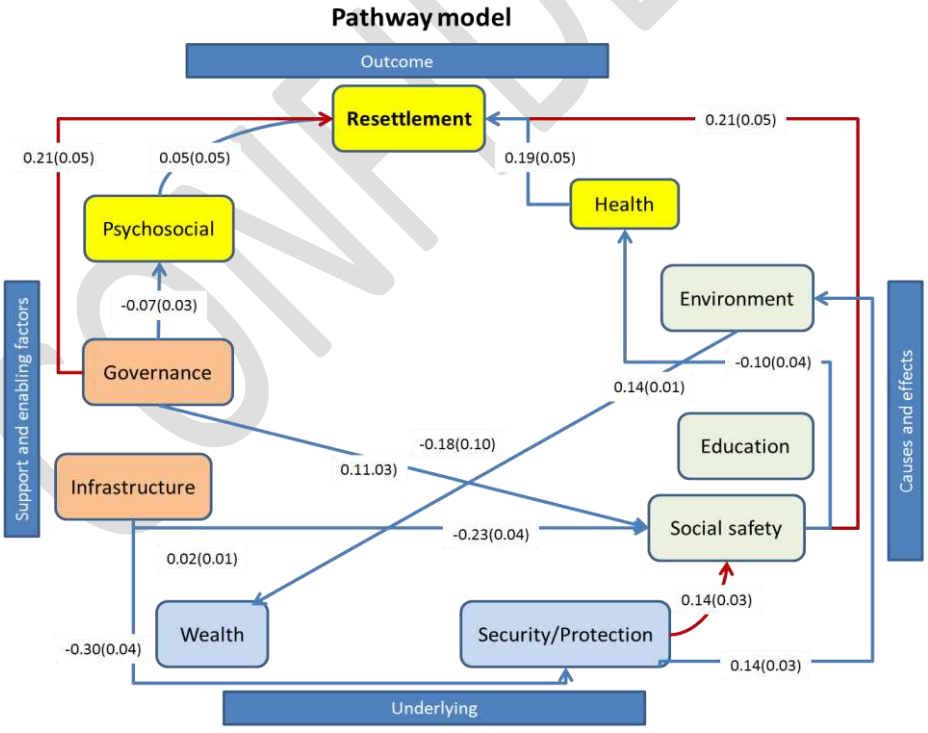

Figure 15. Pathway to resettlement among Somalia IDP in Benadir Region

The quantitative analysis established the relationship between dimensions and their linkage to three outcome dimensions, Health, Psychosocial, and resettlement. The study identified the significant pathways to resettlement, which is a recovery strategy from the shocks. The pathway establishes important underlying dimensions and causes that can be targeted by humanitarian and government institution as key intervention points as demonstrated by the pathway chart (Figure 15).

One of the biggest desires of any displaced person is to return to their place of origin or get resettlement amongst the host community (IOM, 2014). Therefore it is necessary to identify resilience pathway to resettlement. From this study, it was established that the main pathway to resettlement is ***Security/Protection→Social safety→Resettlement.*** T Improved security in the home of origin or amongst the host community is an important consideration that influences the IDPs decision to get resettled while social safety is an indicator of acceptance by the host community and an importance boost the IDPs sense of belonging. Any intervention that addresses the security situation within the host community or the home of origin and includes activities that promote social safety will achieve the desired results of resettlement. TThe social safety dimension provides the IDPs with a sense of belonging and social security that is important during the times of need.

A second important pathway to resettlement is ***Governance→Resettlement*** which plays an important role in giving IDPs confidence that the situation has improved enough for them to restart their lives again. Governance (local administration) provides an avenue for the IDPs to interact with the local administration and express their concerns.

6.0. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the findings obtained from the baseline, the following can be inferred on the status of resilience of the internally displaced communities in Benadir region:

- The overall resilience of the IDP community in Benadir is very low and majority of dimensions of resilience were inter-related. It is critical that communities are supported to have stronger mechanisms to recover from shocks without necessarily compromising the long-term livelihood strategies. Reinforcing resilience is a key factor that need to be considered in all efforts aimed at addressing the challenges in the IDPs.

- The major underlying causes of increase in vulnerability are mainly wealth and environmental dimensions. Any interventions would require that the two elements are closely observed to have meaningful interventions.

- However, there were apparent disparities in resilience capacity between different people in the IDPs as influenced by the education levels. Efforts are needed in improving access to knowledge and skills for the IDP communities so that the resilience to shocks and stresses is increased.

- Gender issues were clearly important in the IDPs with different levels of perceptions on the dimensions of resilience. This was an indicator that the differences in preferences ought to be respected as women were more concerned with the psychosocial dimensions than men.

- The main resilience pathway to resettlement was established to be security/protection, social safety, and resettlement. Improved security or protection proved to positively correlate with social safety which is also positively correlated with willingness to get resettled. Other mechanisms such as diversification of the income sources cannot be underrated since the wealth issues proved very key drivers of vulnerability. This will of course have positive effect on resilience and food insecurity.

- In general, broad-based development strategies are important for per capita income growth. These strategies can help to achieve sustainable growth, because they imply diversification of the economy as well as participation of the broadest range of Somali households in the development process.

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