FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF SOMALIA

SOMALI NATIONAL BUREAU OF STATISTICS

SOMALIA COMPREHENSIVE FOOD SECURITY AND VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT

(CFSVA) 2026

The Federal Republic of Somalia

Somalia National Bureau of Statistics (SNBS)

Somalia Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) 2026

WFP World Food Programme | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations | FSNAU Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit - Somalia | WORLD BANK GROU

Foreword

The completion of this Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) marks a significant step in strengthening Somalia's nationally led evidence base for food security policy, planning, and programming. As Director General of the Somalia National Bureau of Statistics (SNBS), I am pleased to present this important report.

I extend my sincere appreciation to the field enumerators and supervisors who collected data under demanding logistical and security conditions across Somalia. Their commitment, professionalism, and resilience form the foundation of this assessment.

I also thank the SNBS data analysts, statisticians, and food security specialists for their valuable technical contributions. Special appreciation goes to the Production Statistics Directorate for its support throughout the process, from questionnaire design to report preparation, and for ensuring alignment with NSDS II.

I am particularly grateful to the Ministries of Planning of Puntland, Jubaland, Southwest, Galmudug, and Hirshabelle for their cooperation during implementation. Their engagement strengthened coordination and helped ensure that the findings reflect realities across Somalia's regions and population groups.

I also extend my appreciation to our partners, the World Food Programme and the Food and Agriculture Organization through FAO–FSNAU, for their technical guidance, financial support, and continued commitment to strengthening Somalia's food security monitoring systems. The FAO Statistics Division also played an important role in supporting alignment with international methodological standards, including the use of the Food Insecurity Experience Scale for SDG 2.1.2 monitoring.

This report comes at a critical time. Climate shocks, conflict, displacement, and economic vulnerability continue to affect millions of Somali households. The findings provide timely evidence to guide humanitarian response, social protection, resilience programming, and national development planning under the National Transformation Plan 2025–2029.

The Somalia National Bureau of Statistics remains committed to producing credible, timely, and policy-relevant statistics that leave no Somali behind. This report demonstrates what government institutions, Federal Member States, technical agencies, development partners, and dedicated professionals can achieve together.

Dr. Abdisalam Abdirahman Mohamed

Director General

Somalia National Bureau of Statistics

Acknowledgement

The Somalia National Bureau of Statistics (SNBS) expresses its sincere gratitude to all those who made the Somalia Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) 2026 possible from partner institutions and dedicated technical experts to tireless field teams and the thousands of Somali households who so generously opened their homes and shared their experiences.

The CFSVA 2026 was jointly implemented by SNBS, the World Food Programme (WFP), and the Food and Agriculture Organisation through FAO-FSNAU. The spirit of collaboration, mutual trust, and shared purpose that defined this partnership was evident at every stage of the process, from survey design and data collection through to analysis and the production of this final report.

Special recognition is accorded to the SNBS technical team whose leadership, expertise, and unwavering dedication gave shape and substance to this work: Mr. Mohamed Yarani Hassan, Director of Production Statistics; Dr. Hassan Aden, Senior Advisor; Mr. Abdullahi Abdulkadir Adam, Food Security Assessment and Monitoring Team Leader; Mr. Mohamed Mohamud, Senior Nutrition and Food Security Statistics Advisor; Dr. Mohamed Ahmed Adan, Food Security Assessment and Monitoring Technical Advisor; and Mohamed Abdinur Mohamed, Project Coordinator, Somali Integrated Statistics and Economic Planning Capacity Building.

Behind every figure and finding in this report stands a team of skilled statisticians who devoted countless hours to data cleaning and analysis: Sharmarke Burhan Taste, Said Mohamed Salad, Hamida Sheel, Liban Bile Mohamud, Abdirisak Abdullahi Karie, Dahir Abdi Ali, Hassan Abdi Ahmed, Ibrahim Mohamed Abdisalan, Ahmed Abdi Dahir, Abdikadir Said Yusuf, Abdidahir Ali Yusuf, Mohamed Abdullahi Mohamed Nimcale and Mohamed Abukar Omar.. Their professionalism and commitment under demanding conditions are truly commendable.

The Somali National Bureau of Statistics (SNBS) extends its sincere appreciation to the WFP Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM) team in Somalia, including Mr. Laksiri Nanayakkara, Head of VAM; Mr. Sahand Sarbast Tahir, VAM Officer - Economic, Markets and Food Security Analyst; Mr. Mohamud Amin, VAM Officer; Mr. Mohamed Muse Nur, Senior VAM Associate – Food Security & Market Analyst; Mr. Joshua Mesa, VAM Officer; and Mr. Mohamed Adam Mohamed, Senior VAM Associate, for their invaluable technical support, strategic guidance, and sustained engagement throughout the assessment process. SNBS is equally grateful for the expertise and dedication of the FAO and FSNAU team: Mr. Carlo Cafiero, Ms. Sara Viviani, and Mr. Dramane Bako of the FAO Statistics Division (ESS); Ms. Gabriela Interlenghi of the FAO Office of Emergency and Resilience (OER); Mr. Daniel Molla, Chief Technical Adviser, FSNAU/FAO; Mr. Abdi Roble, Deputy Food Security Technical Manager, FSNAU/FAO; and Mr. Ismail Awale, Capacity Development Specialist, FSNAU/FAO. Their collective knowledge and tireless efforts were truly instrumental to the success of this assessment.

SNBS is profoundly grateful to the 8,816 households across 34 districts in 17 regions of Somalia whose willingness to participate made this assessment possible. Their contribution is the foundation upon which this report is built. Sincere appreciation is also extended to regional and district authorities, community leaders, field supervisors, enumerators, and data processing teams who worked with exceptional dedication under often challenging operational and logistical conditions. Their commitment to quality and professionalism ensured the successful completion of fieldwork across all surveyed areas.

Finally, SNBS extends its deep appreciation to all development and humanitarian partners whose continued commitment to food security monitoring and evidence-based policymaking brings real and lasting change to the lives of Somalia's most vulnerable populations.

Executive Summary

The Somalia Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) 2026 provides a representative evidence base for 17 out of 18 pre-war administrative regions of Somalia (excluding Middle Juba region), covering urban, rural, and IDP populations.

The assessment was jointly implemented by the Somalia National Bureau of Statistics (SNBS), the World Food Programme (WFP), and the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) through the FAO Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU). Fieldwork was conducted between February and May 2025. The survey covered 8,816 households across 34 districts in 17 of Somalia's 18 pre-war administrative regions; Middle Juba was not covered due to access and security constraints , generating representative estimates at the regional and national levels for urban, rural, and internally displaced populations. The Middle Juba region was not covered due to access and operational constraints. Furthermore, the nomadic population were not included in the survey due to their mobile nature and the logistical challenges.

The CFSVA was designed to go beyond measuring current food consumption. It analyses Somalia's food security status, identifies the structural issues and driving forces behind vulnerability, and provides evidence for development pathways that address root causes. In doing so, it supports national efforts to advance food security, strengthen resilience, and contribute to the ambition of achieving zero hunger. It also establishes an important benchmark for future food security monitoring, national policy formulation, humanitarian and development programming, as well as monitoring progress on the Somalia National Transformation Plan (NTP).

The findings show that food insecurity in Somalia is driven by a combination of structural poverty, displacement, recurrent climatic and economic shocks, weak purchasing power, market dependence, limited savings, debt, and unequal access to basic services. While national food consumption indicators suggest that most households are still maintaining acceptable food consumption, many are doing so under fragile conditions. This means that food security cannot be assessed through food consumption alone. A broader picture, combining the Consolidated Approach for Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI), the Essential Needs Approach (ENA), Economic Capacity to Meet Essential Needs (ECMEN), coping strategies, and access to basic services, shows that many households remain highly vulnerable to deterioration.

At the time of the assessment, 29 per cent of households in the surveyed 17 regions population were classified as food insecure under the CARI framework, including 25 per cent moderately food insecure and 4 per cent severely food insecure. A further 40 per cent were marginally food secure, meaning a large share could deteriorate if exposed to additional shocks. IDP households face the most severe burden, with only 9 per cent classified as food secure and 53 per cent classified as food insecure. Rural households also face elevated food insecurity, while urban households show comparatively better outcomes. These differences confirm that displacement, rural deprivation, and limited-service access remain central drivers of vulnerability.

The Essential Needs Approach (ENA) deepens this picture by showing that vulnerability extends beyond food security outcomes alone. in the surveyed 17 regions population, 36 per cent of households are classified as highly or extremely vulnerable in their ability to meet essential needs, including 8 per cent classified as extremely vulnerable. This burden is most acute among IDP households, where 61 per cent fall into the highly or extremely vulnerable categories, compared with 45 per cent of rural households and 24 per cent of urban households. This is important because some households may not appear severely food-insecure based on food consumption indicators but still face serious constraints in other dimensions of basic needs. ENA, therefore, complements CARI by identifying households whose vulnerability may be less visible through food consumption alone but whose overall living conditions and ability to withstand shocks remain severely constrained.

Market dependence is a defining feature of food access in Somalia. Market purchases account for 68 per cent of food acquisition, leaving households highly exposed to price increases, income losses, and market disruptions. Food expenditure is also heavily concentrated on cereals, which account for 34.4 per cent of food spending, while expenditure on more nutritious foods remains limited. Many households may therefore maintain calorie intake but still struggle to afford a diverse and nutritious diet. Financial resilience is weak, with only 10 per cent of households reporting cash savings and more than half carrying debt.

Shock exposure and coping behaviour confirm the fragility of household livelihoods. Rural households report the highest overall shock exposure at 24.1 per cent, followed by IDP households at 22.2 per cent and urban

households at 13.3 per cent. Rural households are more exposed to climate-sensitive and livelihood-related shocks, including economic, natural, and agricultural shocks. IDP households report the highest level of household-specific shocks, reflecting weaker household-level resilience. Within the surveyed 17-region population, almost half of households rely on stressed or crisis-level consumption coping strategies. IDP households show the highest use of crisis and emergency coping, indicating that many displaced households are already reducing food quantity, quality, or frequency to manage shortfalls.

Households' economic capacity to meet essential needs remains constrained. Overall, 47 per cent of households fall below the full Minimum Expenditure Basket (MEB) without assistance, meaning that nearly half cannot cover the minimum cost of food and non-food essential needs. This pressure is reflected in expenditure patterns, where a high share of spending is directed toward food, leaving limited space for health, education, shelter, hygiene, energy, and other basic needs. The gap is most severe among IDP households, where 77 per cent fall below the full MEB. The food MEB shows the most acute form of deprivation, with 29 per cent of households nationally falling below the minimum food threshold, rising to 53 per cent among IDPs and 38 per cent among rural households. Humanitarian assistance has a protective effect, reducing the share below the full MEB from 47 per cent to 43 per cent and below the food MEB from 29 per cent to 25 per cent. However, these gains remain modest relative to the scale of need.

Access to essential services adds another layer to household vulnerability. Gaps in health care, sanitation, water, energy, safety, and financial inclusion collectively shape household well-being and food security. Overall, only 64.1 per cent of households report using improved toilet facilities. Access is much lower among rural households (51.3 per cent) and IDP households (58.3 per cent) compared with 72.7 per cent among urban households. Health access also remains constrained, with 39.1 per cent of households reporting that they needed health services but could not access them. This rises to 50.7 per cent among IDPs and 41.9 per cent among rural households. Although access to financial services and reported safety are relatively high nationally, IDP households report the highest exposure to insecurity or violence. These findings show that vulnerability is multidimensional, with food insecurity often overlapping with poor sanitation, constrained health access, weak service affordability, and higher exposure to shocks.

The CFSVA also fills an important evidence gap in Somalia's food security information system. While other national surveys provide broader socioeconomic, income, expenditure, and demographic evidence, the CFSVA provides a focused analysis of food security, livelihoods, shocks, agricultural production, coping behaviour, and household vulnerability. It is therefore a critical evidence product for integrated response planning, IPC analysis, SDG food security monitoring, targeting, policy dialogue, and programme design.

The findings point to five priority actions:

1. Prioritise food and cash assistance for households facing overlapping food insecurity and essential needs vulnerability, especially IDP and rural households.
2. Continuous calibration of cash assistance transfer values against MEB thresholds, market prices, functionality and household purchasing power.
3. Link food assistance more deliberately with nutrition, WASH, health, protection, and social protection systems, particularly for displaced populations.
4. Strengthen rural resilience and livelihoods through climate-smart agriculture, livestock support, market access, and shock preparedness.
5. Maintain integrated food security monitoring that combines food security and essential needs indicators, market analysis, coping capacity, climate indicators and service access to identify deterioration early and guide targeted response planning.

Overall, the CFSVA shows that Somalia's food security challenge is both humanitarian and structural. Immediate assistance remains essential for households facing food insecurity and severe gaps in essential needs, particularly among displaced populations. At the same time, durable progress will require stronger livelihoods, improved market access, shock-responsive social protection, better access to basic services, and investments that reduce household exposure to recurrent climate and economic shocks.

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List of Abbreviations

SNBS	Somalia National Bureau of Statistics
WFP	World Food Programme
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FSNAU	Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit
FAO-FSNAU	FAO Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit
SHDS	Somalia Health and Demographic Survey
IPC	Integrated Food Security Phase Classification
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
UNHCR	UN High Commissioner for Refugees
CARI	Consolidated Approach for Reporting Indicators of Food Security
ECMEN	Economic Capacity to Meet Essential Needs
ENA	Essential Needs Approach
FCS	Food Consumption Score
HDDS	Household Dietary Diversity Score
rCSI	Reduced Coping Strategies Index
LCS / LCSI	Livelihood Coping Strategies (Index)
HHS	Household Hunger Scale
FIES	Food Insecurity Experience Scale
MEB	Minimum Expenditure Basket
CBT	Cash-Based Transfer
NFI	Non-Food Items
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
EA	Enumeration Area
PSU	Primary Sampling Unit
PPS	Probability Proportional to Size
ODK	Open Data Kit
CAPI	Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing
MoP	Ministry of Planning
MoAI	Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
NEC	National Economic Council
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NTP	National Transformation Plan
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
EAC	East African Community
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
USD	United States Dollar

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND

Background

1.1 Geography

Somalia is strategically located in the Horn of Africa. It shares borders with Djibouti to the northwest, Ethiopia to the west, Kenya to the southwest, the Indian Ocean to the east and the Gulf of Aden to the north. Furthermore, it has the longest coastline (3,333 km) in Africa, with an estimated shelf area (0–200 m depth) of 32,500 km^2 [1] . This geographic position at the mouth of the Bab el-Mandeb, gateway to the Red Sea and the Suez Canal, places Somalia on major global shipping routes, giving it significant potential for maritime trade and related activities.

Somalia's land area is about 636,657 km^2. Much of the country is classified as arid or very dry, with 61.36% of land "dry" and 38.64% "very dry" [2]. The country's terrain is predominantly flat plains and plateaus, with river basins that can be used for agriculture. Detailed land-use characterisation shows 11% arable, 14% forest/woodland, 45% rangelands, and 30% desert. A small fraction of Somalia's arable land is cultivated[3] .

Four seasons characterise Somalia's climate: (1) Gu (main rainy season, April–June); (2) Hagaa/Xagaa (dry season, July–September/October); (3) Deyr (short rainy season, October–November/December); and (4) Jilaal (dry season, December–March). The Gu and Deyr rainy seasons are particularly important for agricultural production, pasture regeneration, and water availability[4] .

Rainfall distribution is highly uneven. Northeastern and central areas receive very low and erratic rainfall (often <100–300 mm annually), whereas northwestern and southern regions receive substantially higher totals (around 400–700 mm annually). This pronounced climatic variability contributes to recurrent livelihood shocks and food insecurity, as droughts and floods repeatedly disrupt crop and livestock production [5].

1.2 Natural Risks and Hazards

Somalia is among the most climate-vulnerable countries globally, facing recurrent droughts, floods, cyclones, desert locust outbreaks, and land degradation. Repeated climatic shocks have caused major disruptions to food production systems, decimated livestock herds, reduced household incomes, and driven large-scale internal displacements. Drought is one of the most severe and persistent hazards. Prolonged and more frequent droughts cause crop failures, water shortages, pasture loss, livestock losses, and famine-level crises. Case examples include the 2010–2012 famine and the 2020–2023 five-season drought[6] .

Flood risks are concentrated in riverine and low-lying areas, particularly along the Juba and Shabelle rivers. Recent major floods have affected hundreds of thousands to millions of people across multiple regions, including Belet Weyne and other riverine districts[7]. Somalia also faces environmental degradation from soil erosion, deforestation, overgrazing, and charcoal production. These degrade rangelands, reduce forest cover, and diminish agricultural productivity, thereby threatening food insecurity and long-term resilience. Ongoing and projected climate change is expected to increase the frequency and intensity of both droughts and floods. This makes disaster risk management and anticipatory action frameworks in Somalia critically important .

1 Federico Carbone and Giovanni Accordi, 'The Indian Ocean Coast of Somalia', Marine Pollution Bulletin 41, nos 1–6 (2000): 141–59.
2 Abdiaziz Hassan Nur and Abdinasir Abdullahi Mohamed, 'Spatial Assessment of Soil Erosion and Aridity in Somalia Using the CORINE Model', Asian Soil Research Journal 8, no. 4 (2024): 10–9734.
3 Mark Kipkurwa Boitt et al., 'Geospatial Agro-Climatic Characterization for Assessment of Potential Agricultural Areas in Somalia, Africa.', AGRÁRINFORMATIKA/JOURNAL OF AGRICULTURAL INFORMATICS 9, no. 3 (2018): 18–35.
4 Boitt et al., 'Geospatial Agro-Climatic Characterization for Assessment of Potential Agricultural Areas in Somalia, Africa.'
5 Bile Abdisalan Nor and Yusniliyana Yusof, 'Environmental Degradation and Food Security in Somalia', Discover Sustainability 6, no. 1 (2025): 75, https://doi.org/10.1007/s43621-024-00771-9; Mohamed Mustaf Ahmed et al., 'The Nexus of Climate Change, Food Insecurity, and Conflict in Somalia: A Comprehensive Analysis of Multifaceted Challenges and Resilience Strategies', F1000Research 13 (2024): 913; Nur and Mohamed, 'Spatial Assessment of Soil Erosion and Aridity in Somalia Using the CORINE Model'.
6 Abdullahi Ali Ibrahim et al., 'Impacts of Climate Change on Food Security in Somalia: Challenges and Adaptation Strategies', African Journal of Climate Change and Resource Sustainability 4, no. 1 (2025): 130–47; Ahmed et al., 'The Nexus of Climate Change, Food Insecurity, and Conflict in Somalia'.
7 Ibrahim et al., 'Impacts of Climate Change on Food Security in Somalia'.
8 Ibrahim et al., 'Impacts of Climate Change on Food Security in Somalia'; Ahmed et al., 'The Nexus of Climate Change, Food Insecurity, and Conflict in Somalia'.

1.3 Macroeconomic Context

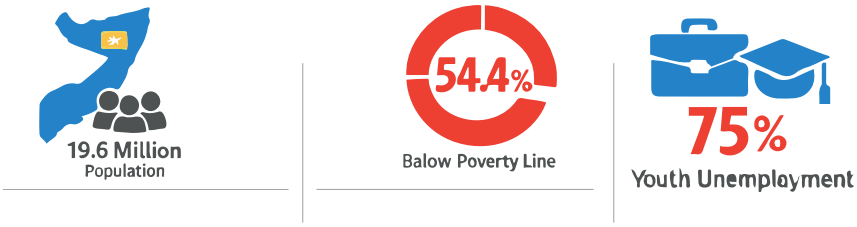
Somalia's economy has demonstrated resilience despite decades of fragility, conflict, climatic shocks, and weak institutional capacity. Recent reforms include debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative, [9] and accession to the East African Community in 2024 [10]. However, economic growth remains highly vulnerable due to reductions in foreign aid, weather shocks, insecurity, and import dependence. The economy is largely driven by services, trade, remittances, livestock exports, telecommunications, and agriculture. External flows, including remittances, humanitarian support, and donor financing, play a critical role in sustaining demand and household consumption[11].

Real GDP grew by 4.1 per cent in 2024, supported by strong household consumption, investment, and export growth, while moderate inflation masked significant food price increases that eroded purchasing power, especially for displaced and poor households. A structurally large trade deficit, driven by a heavy dependence on imported food, fuel, construction materials, pharmaceuticals, and manufactured goods, persists despite export gains [12]. Agriculture, particularly livestock, remains the backbone of export and rural livelihoods. However, productivity is constrained by limited irrigation, poor infrastructure, degraded natural resources, and recurrent climate shocks, underscoring the need for investment in climate-smart, market-oriented agricultural systems [13].

1.4 Social and Development Context

Somalia continues to face major human development challenges, including widespread poverty, fragility, conflict, and limited public service delivery [14]. According to the 2023 Somalia Poverty Report, 54.4 per cent of the population lives below the national poverty line, consuming less than US$2.06 per person per day. Poverty is significantly higher in rural and nomadic populations than in urban areas [15] .

Somalia's population was estimated at approximately 19.6 million in 2025 and continues to grow rapidly. The country has a very young demographic structure, creating both opportunities and pressures. High population growth increases demand for jobs, education, health services, food systems, housing, and urban infrastructure [16]. Urbanisation is accelerating, with increasing movement toward cities such as Mogadishu, Hargeisa, Garowe, Baidoa, Kismayo, and Bosaso. Youth employment and skills development remain key policy priorities.



9 SNBS, SOMALIA POVERTY REPORT 2023 (2023), https://nbs.gov.so/wp-content/uploads/2024/08/Somalia-Poverty-Report-2023.pdf.
10 Abdirahman Kasim Mohamed Abdullahi and Abubakar Hassan Mohamed Goomeey, 'SOMALIA'S ECONOMIC INTEGRATION INTO THE EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY: TRADE DYNAMICS, OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES (2012–2023)', Journal of Economics Finance and Accounting 12, no. 1 (2025): 41–53.
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12 Abdisalam Mohamed et al., Economy on an Upward Trajectory: Key Insights from the 2024 GDP Data Analysis, Policy brief no. 1 (2025), https://nbs.gov.so/wp-content/uploads/2025/07/policy.pdf.
13 World Bank and FAO, Rebuilding Resilient and Sustainable Agriculture in Somalia (2018), https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/781281522164647812/pdf/124651-REVISED-Somalia-CEM-Agriculture-Report-Main-Report-Revised-July-2018.pdf.
14 Mohamed Ibrahim Nor and Mohamed Mahees Raheem, 'Poor Governance and Weak Social Cohesion in Somalia's Climate-Stressed Settings: The Mediating Effects of Economic Inefficiencies and Limited Human Development', Cogent Economics & Finance 13, no. 1 (2025): 2475140, https://doi.org/10.1080/23322039.2025.2475140.
15 SNBS, SOMALIA POVERTY REPORT 2023 (2023), https://nbs.gov.so/wp-content/uploads/2024/08/Somalia-Poverty-Report-2023.pdf.
16 UNHCR, STRATEGY FOR LIVELIHOODS AND ECONOMIC INCLUSION)2025-2027 (2025), https://reliefweb.int/report/somalia/unhcr-somalia-strategy-livelihoods-and-economic-inclusion-2025-2027.

Migration and displacement are defining features of Somalia's socioeconomic landscape. The country simultaneously functions as a country of origin, transit, and destination, shaped by humanitarian, economic, and environmental factors. Internal displacement remains one of the most persistent humanitarian challenges [17]. By the end of 2024, Somalia's internally displaced persons (IDP) population stood at 3.43 million, up from 3.09 million in 2020, with women and children disproportionately affected and large concentrations in Banadir, Bay, and Gedo. In the same year, Somalia also hosted 18,963 refugees and 21,237 asylum seekers, mainly from Yemen and Ethiopia. Migrant returnees from Saudi Arabia, Yemen, and Libya include both voluntary and forced returns. These flows are dominated by working-age men, creating significant pressure on an already constrained labour market and highlighting the need for targeted reintegration[18] .

1.5 Government Policies

The Federal Government of Somalia has adopted several medium and long-term policy frameworks to support economic transformation, resilience, and poverty reduction. These include:

1. **Somalia's Centennial Vision 2060:** This vision outlines Somalia's aspiration to become a peaceful, prosperous, and middle-income country by 2060. It emphasises economic diversification, strong institutions, human capital development, infrastructure modernisation, climate resilience, and national unity. This vision provides a long-term strategic direction for future generations [19] .

2. **National Transformation Plan (NTP) 2025–2029:** The NTP is Somalia's current medium-term development framework. It focuses on inclusive growth, governance reform, social development, climate resilience, job creation, and infrastructure expansion. The World Bank notes that the NTP charts an ambitious reform agenda to help Somalia transition out of fragility [20] .

3. **National Agricultural Transformation Strategy 2025–2029:** This strategy aims to modernise agriculture, increase productivity, strengthen irrigation systems, improve livestock and fisheries value chains, enhance food security, and reduce import dependency. It supports commercialisation while promoting climate-smart and sustainable resource management approaches [21] .

4. **Somalia Social Protection Policy 2019:** This national policy framework is established to protect vulnerable households through safety nets, shock-responsive assistance, and social inclusion. Programmes such as Baxnaano have become important instruments for supporting poor households and responding to crises. Strengthening coverage, financing, targeting systems, and linkages to resilience programming remains a priority [22].

17 Jacqueline Owigo, 'Returnees and the Dilemmas of (Un) Sustainable Return and Reintegration in Somalia', African Human Mobility Review 8, no. 2 (2022): 122–38.
18 SNBS, MIGRATION STATISTICS REPORT.
19 NEC, CENTENNIAL VISION Federal Republic of Somalia: Building a Peaceful, Prosperous, and Proud Somalia by 2060 (2025), https://nec.gov.so/wp-content/uploads/2025/06/SOMALIA-Centennial-Vision-2060-FA.pdf.
20 MoP, National Transformation Plan (NTP) 2025-2029 (Ministry of Planning, Investment and Economic Development, 2025), https://mop.gov.so/national-transformation-plan-ntp-2025-2029-report/.
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CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

Methodology

The Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) 2026 was implemented as a nationally representative household survey designed to assess food security, livelihoods, shocks, coping strategies, and household resilience across Somalia. It generated representative estimates at the national level and across the three main population groups: urban, rural, and Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs).

The exercise was jointly implemented by the Somalia National Bureau of Statistics (SNBS), the World Food Programme (WFP), and the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO-FSNAU). As part of Somalia's national food security monitoring system, the CFSVA provides evidence for humanitarian planning, policy formulation, and development programming. Guided by the Food and Nutrition Security conceptual framework, which recognises food security as a multidimensional concept encompassing food availability, access, utilisation, and stability, the assessment focused on food security outcomes. However, it also collected information on livelihoods, income sources, market access, agricultural activities, shocks, coping strategies, and access to services.

The 2020 Somalia Health and Demographic Survey (SHDS) sampling frame was used to select survey areas. A three-stage stratified cluster sampling design was used to ensure representativeness of the surveyed population across 17 of Somalia's 18 administrative regions (excluding Middle Juba due to prevailing security conditions). A total sample of 8,816 households was selected from 272 Enumeration Areas (EAs) distributed across 34 districts in 17 regions of Somalia. The sample was designed to provide statistically reliable estimates at the place-of-residence and regional levels, as well as by place of residence (urban, rural and IDP).

2.1 Sampling Design

The sampling design followed a stratified multi-stage probability sampling approach. Stratification was conducted by place of residence, distinguishing urban, rural, and IDP populations. In the first stage, Enumeration Areas (EAs) were selected as Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) using Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) procedures, with size defined as the number of households within each EA. In the second stage, household listing operations were conducted in all selected EAs to establish updated household sampling frames. Information collected during the listing exercise included household identification, location details, and household composition. In the third stage, households were randomly selected from the updated household lists within each EA.

The selected households constituted the final survey sample for interviews. Survey weights were computed to account for differences in selection probabilities across strata to ensure representativeness of the target population. Weight adjustments were also applied to account for non-response and to align the sample with the population distribution across the survey domains. The survey was designed to produce estimates at the 90 percent confidence level, with a margin of error of approximately ±5 percentage points at the national level for each residential stratum: urban, rural, and IDP. A design effect of 1.5 was assumed in the sample size calculations, and the target non-response rate was set at no more than 10 per cent.

2.2 Survey Instruments

The CFSVA questionnaire consisted of several modules designed to collect information on household demographics, livelihoods, food consumption, expenditure patterns, shocks, coping strategies, agricultural production, livestock ownership, market access, and access to basic services. The questionnaire included standardized food security indicators commonly used in

international food security assessments, including the Food Consumption Score (FCS), Household Dietary Diversity indicators, Reduced Coping Strategy Index (rCSI), Livelihood Coping Strategies (LCS), and the Consolidated Approach for Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI).

The survey instruments were programmed using the Open Data Kit (ODK) platform to support electronic data collection through Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI). Automated skip patterns, validation checks, and consistency controls were integrated into the electronic questionnaire to improve data quality and minimize data entry errors. Prior to the main fieldwork, the questionnaire and electronic forms were tested and refined to ensure clarity, consistency, and operational suitability.

2.3 Staff Training and Fieldwork

Training for enumerators and supervisors was conducted before fieldwork began. The training covered survey objectives, questionnaire content, interviewing techniques, household listing procedures, research ethics, and use of CAPI devices. Field staff received practical training on the use of tablets and smartphones for data collection via the ODK platform. The training also included field practice sessions to familiarise teams with interview procedures, questionnaire flow, and data submission protocols. Supervisors received additional training in field coordination, quality assurance procedures, and data collection monitoring.

Fieldwork for the Somalia CFSVA 2026 was conducted between February and May 2025. Data collection was undertaken through face-to-face household interviews using CAPI technology. Enumerators administered the questionnaires using tablets and smartphones, while completed interviews were submitted daily to a centralised server for monitoring and review. This enabled real-time supervision of field activities and facilitated immediate identification of inconsistencies and missing information. The survey achieved an overall response rate of 95 per cent, reflecting strong field implementation and high household participation across the survey areas.

2.4 Quality Control

Several quality assurance mechanisms were implemented throughout the survey process to ensure the accuracy, reliability, and consistency of the collected data. These measures included systematic supervisor reviews, field spot-checks, back-check interviews, and centralised monitoring of submitted questionnaires. Automated validation checks integrated within the ODK system were used to identify missing values, outliers, and logical inconsistencies during data collection. Daily data quality checks were conducted by technical teams to review completeness, consistency, and interview duration. Field supervisors regularly observed interviews and provided feedback to enumerators to reinforce adherence to survey protocols and interviewing standards.

2.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using a standard analytic framework, with the objective of computing internationally recognised food security indicators. The analysis focused on household food consumption patterns, economic vulnerability, livelihoods, shocks, coping strategies, and household resilience. The Consolidated Approach for Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI) framework was applied to classify households according to their overall food security status. The CARI approach combines indicators related to current food consumption and household coping capacity to provide an integrated measure of food insecurity severity.

Results also include the prevalence of food insecurity experienced by households, estimated using the standard FIES methodology. All statistical analyses accounted for the complex survey design, incorporated stratification, and applied the final survey weights to generate representative estimates for the target population groups.

2.6 Limitations

Although the survey was implemented using rigorous methodological procedures, some limitations should be considered when interpreting the findings. Security-related challenges and access constraints in some areas have affected field operations and overall population coverage. In addition, several indicators relied on self-reported information, which may be subject to both recall and reporting bias. Seasonal variations in livelihoods, market conditions, and food consumption patterns may also influence the interpretation of results across different time periods. Notably, nomadic populations were excluded from this data collection due to their mobile nature and logistical challenges. The Middle Juba region was also not covered due to the prevailing security situation. Despite these limitations, the survey provides a comprehensive, statistically sound, and evidence-based assessment of food security and vulnerability conditions across Somalia.

CHAPTER 3

HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

Household Characteristics

This chapter presents the demographic and socio-economic profile of surveyed households in Somalia. It examines population structure, literacy, displacement dynamics, and health-related vulnerabilities, including chronic illness, disability, and functional problems. These indicators provide crucial context for interpreting patterns of food security and vulnerability across residence groups and regions. The analysis is organised around four dimensions. First, it describes the age and sex composition of the population. Second, it reviews literacy as a key human-capital indicator. Third, it examines the duration and drivers of displacement. Fourth, it assesses chronic illness, disability, and functional difficulties.

3.1. Age, sex, and residence composition

The surveyed Somali population is predominantly young, with notable disparities across residence types (See, Table 3.1 in the appendix). Children under the age of 15 make up a large share of the population, particularly among internally displaced persons (IDPs) and rural households. The proportion of children aged 0–14 years is 51.6 per cent among IDPs and 47.9 per cent in rural areas, compared to 38.6 per cent in urban areas. Among infants (0–4 years), IDPs have the highest proportion (16.5 per cent), followed by rural populations (15.6 per cent), while urban areas have the lowest (11.1 per cent). The same pattern is observed in the 5–9 age group (19.4%) in the IDP population, the rural population (18.2%), and the urban population (14.0%). This highlights a strong concentration of minors in displacement and rural settings.

The concentration of working-age people is relatively high in urban areas. Notably, the 20–24 and 25–29 age groups together represent 18.7% of the urban population. By contrast, the rural represent 14.5%, and the IDPs represent 13.2%. Elderly populations (65+) represent a small share across all residence types, ranging from 2.0 per cent among IDPs, 2.4 per cent among the rural population, and 2.8 per cent in urban areas. The results confirm that a high dependency burden is driven by children rather than older persons.

When the population is grouped into two broad age groups: children (0–17 years) and adults (18+), the vulnerability profile becomes clearer. Children constitute the majority in both IDP households (58.5 per cent) and rural households (54.3 per cent). By contrast, urban households have a larger adult population, with adults accounting for 53.1 per cent. These differences reflect the combined effects of displacement, rural livelihoods, migration, and urban market opportunities.

The adolescent population (10–19 years) represents 25% of the population across all residence types. They account for 26.2 per cent among IDPs, 24.4 per cent in rural areas, and 26.9 per cent in urban areas. This large adolescent population has significant implications for secondary education, vocational training, youth employment, and social protection.

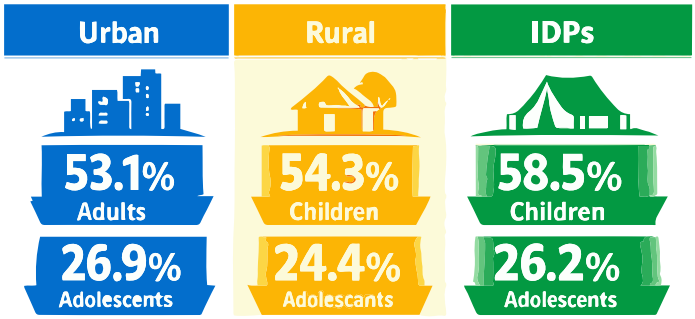
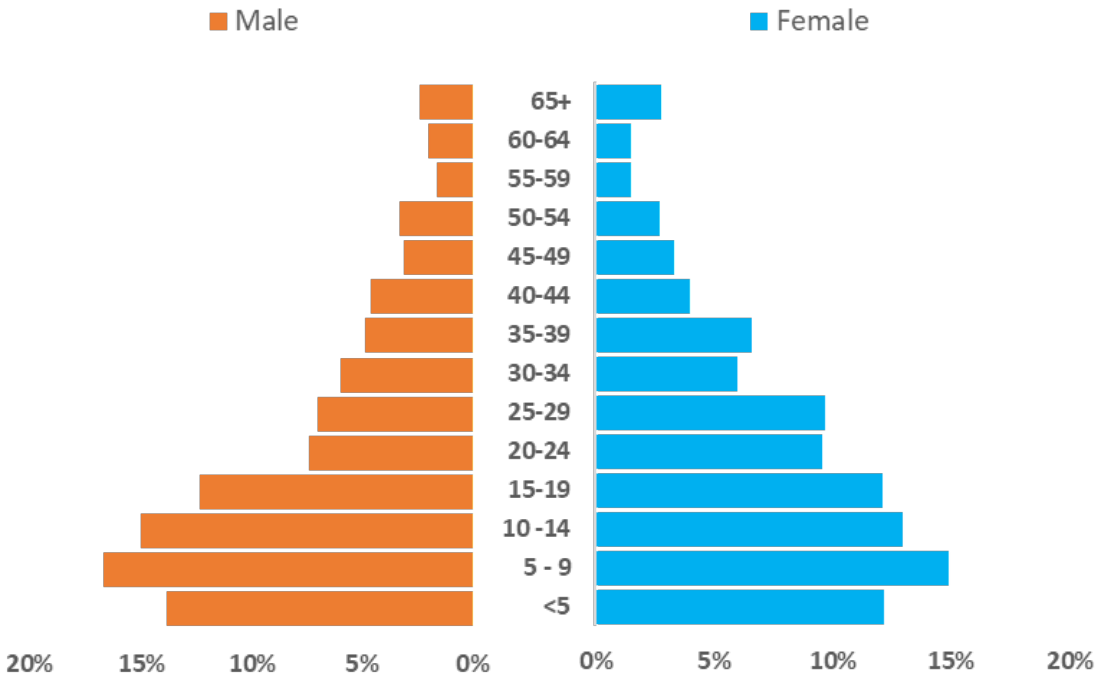


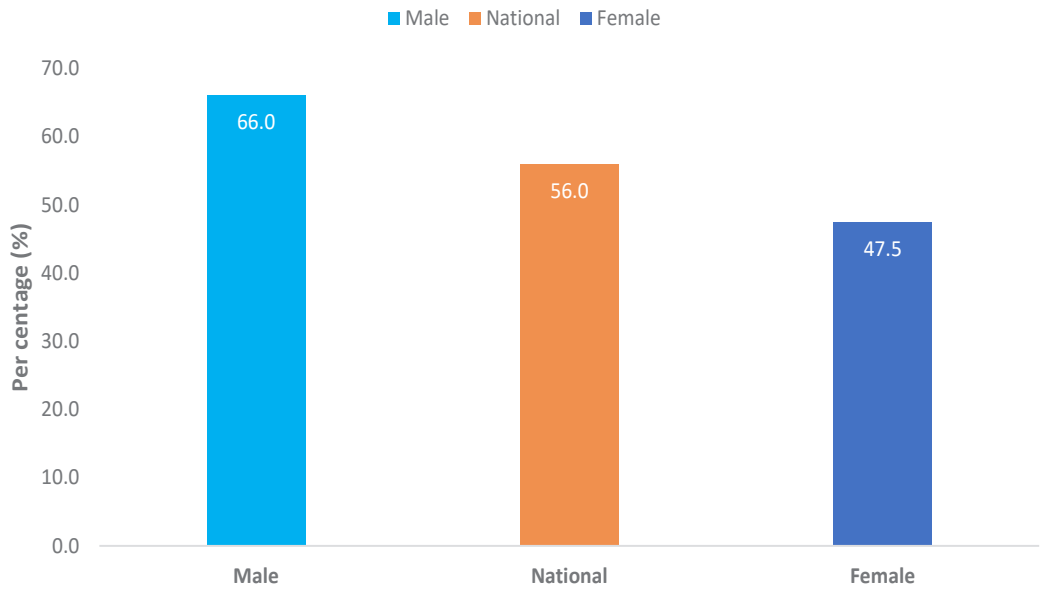
Figure 3.1. Age Distribution by gender



3.2. Literacy

Adult literacy remains limited and unevenly distributed in Somalia (See, Table 3.2 in the appendix). At the national level, 56 per cent of adults aged 15 and above are literate. The gender disparity is substantial: 66.0 per cent of men are literate, compared with 47.5 per cent of women. This gap has direct implications for access to information, financial services, and employment opportunities.

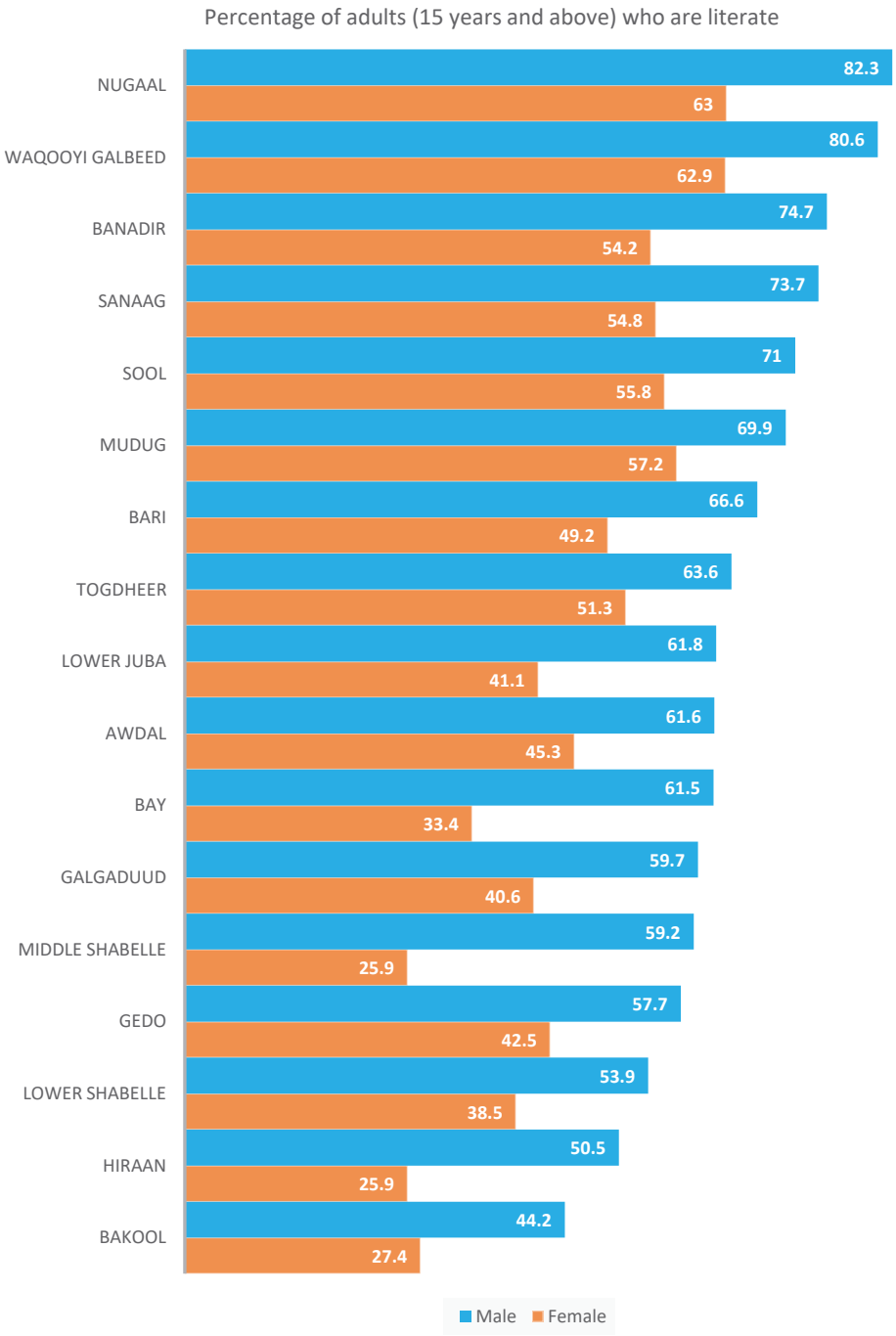
Figure 3.2. Literacy rate by gender



The literacy rate is highest among the younger age group aged 15-24, which accounts for 74.1 per cent. It declines steadily among the older age groups. Adults aged 80 and above have the lowest literacy rate, accounting for only 14.2 per cent. This pattern suggests that educational access has improved over time. However, it also signals the need for boosting adult literacy, especially among women and marginalised groups.

Residence-based disparities are also apparent. Urban areas record the highest literacy rate (63.3 per cent), compared to rural areas (43.2 per cent) and IDPs (38.7 per cent). These figures indicate that the displaced and rural populations face the greatest disadvantage in terms of lower educational access. Furthermore, regional disparities are substantial. For example, Nugaal (71.9 per cent) and Waqooyi Galbeed (70.8 per cent) have the highest literacy rates. By contrast, Bakool (35.9 per cent) and Hiraan (37.6 per cent) have the lowest literacy rate.

Figure 3.3. Literacy rate by gender and region

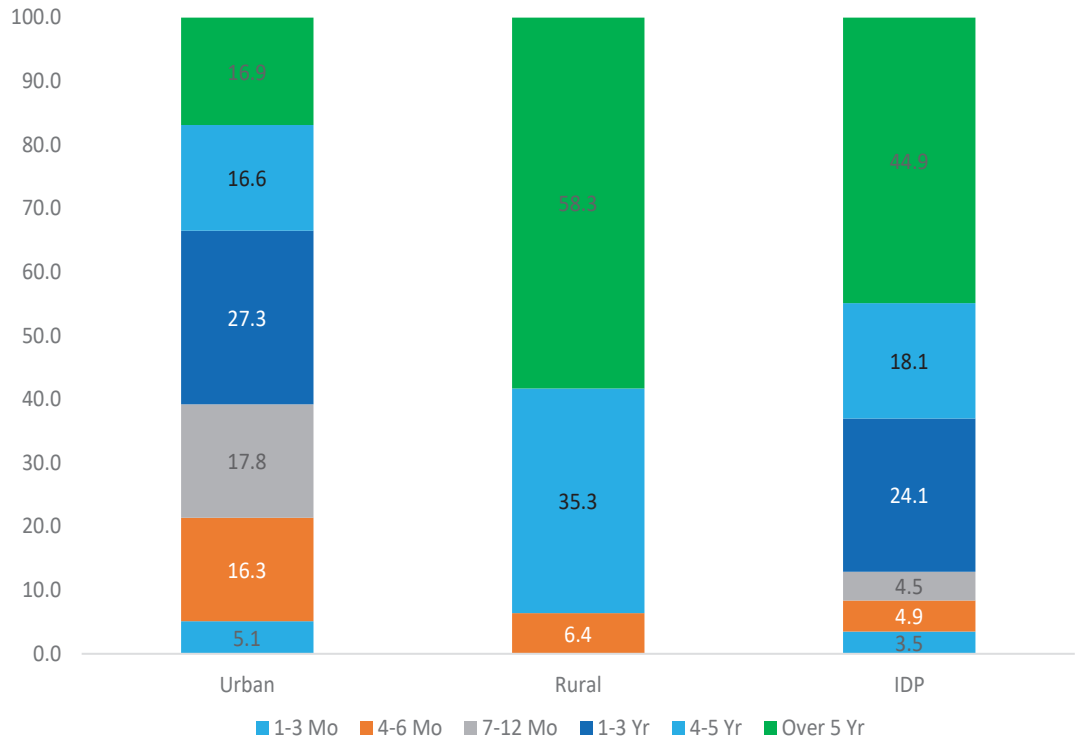


3.3. Displacement duration

Displacement in Somalia is mainly protracted. At a national level, 40.7 per cent of displaced households have been displaced for more than five years. Moreover, 19.0 per cent have been displaced for 4 to 5 years. In total, almost 60 per cent of displaced households have been in displacement for at least four years (See, Table 3.3 in the appendix). This implies that displacement in Somalia is not only a short-term situation but also a long-term condition with lasting consequences.

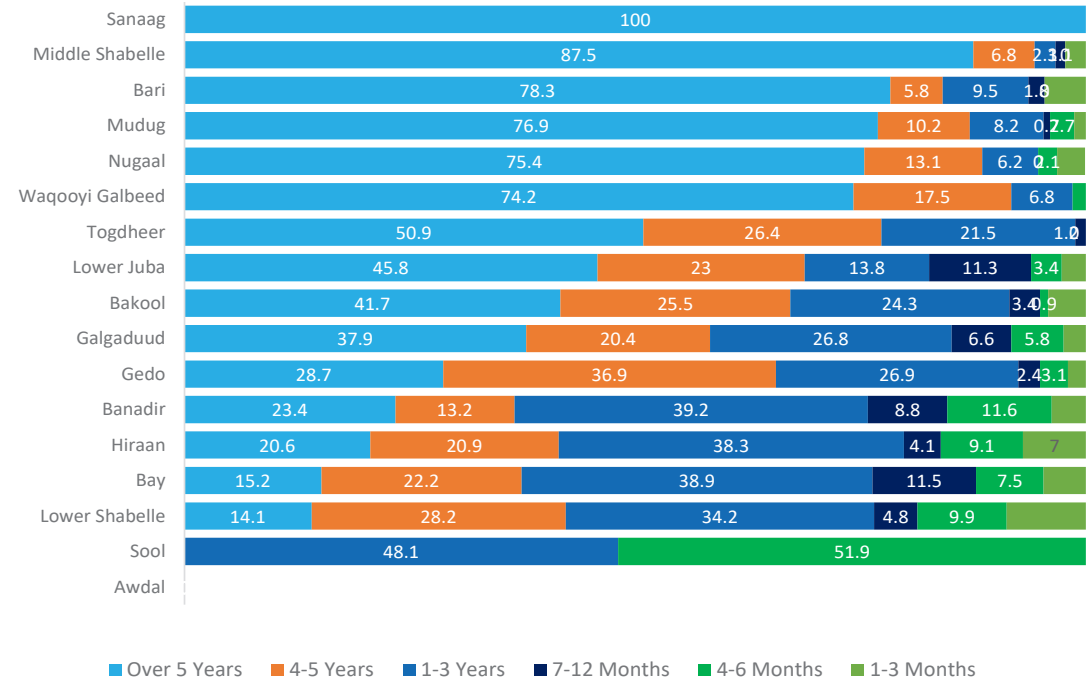
Residential disaggregation reveals significant differences in displacement duration. Rural displaced households have the longest displacement profile, with 58.3 per cent displaced for more than five years. Among the IDPs, 44.9 per cent have been displaced for over 5 years. Urban displacement is more evenly distributed, with the largest share (27.3 per cent) displaced for one to three years. This suggests that urban displacement may be more fluid, while rural and IDP displacements are more entrenched.

Figure 3.4. Displacement duration by place of residence



The regional pattern also reveals striking differences. Protracted displacement is especially high in several regions. These include: Sanaag (100 per cent), Middle Shabelle (87.5 per cent), Bari (78.3 per cent), Mudug (76.9 per cent), and Nugaal (75.4 per cent). In these areas, the vast majority of displaced households have been living in displacement for more than five years. By contrast, regions such as Sool show more recent displacement patterns, with a higher proportion of households in shorter-duration categories.

Figure 3.5. Displacement duration by region



These regional disparities reflect differences in the underlying causes of displacement and in opportunities for recovery and reintegration. Areas with high rates of protracted displacement are likely to face long-term challenges, such as insecurity, limited economic opportunities, and poor infrastructure, which hinder return or resettlement. Regions with more recent displacement may be affected by recent shocks or crises, leading to shorter displacement periods but posing a risk of protracted displacement in the future if conditions do not improve.

3.3.1 Reasons for displacement

The survey results show that drought is the most common driver nationally (46.5 per cent), followed by insecurity (28.5 per cent) and loss of livelihoods (11.3 per cent). This indicates that displacement in Somalia is largely shaped by climatic conditions and reinforced by conflicts and economic stress (See, Table 3.4 in the appendix). Among IDPs, drought accounts for 45.0 per cent of displacement, while insecurity contributes 29.8 per cent. Urban households also report high levels of drought-related displacement (38.7 per cent) and insecurity (31.7 per cent), with a significant share attributed to livelihood losses (21.9 per cent). Rural households show a more heterogeneous profile, with a large proportion categorised as "other" (57.6 per cent), reflecting localised and varied drivers of displacement.

Figure 3.6. Displacement reasons

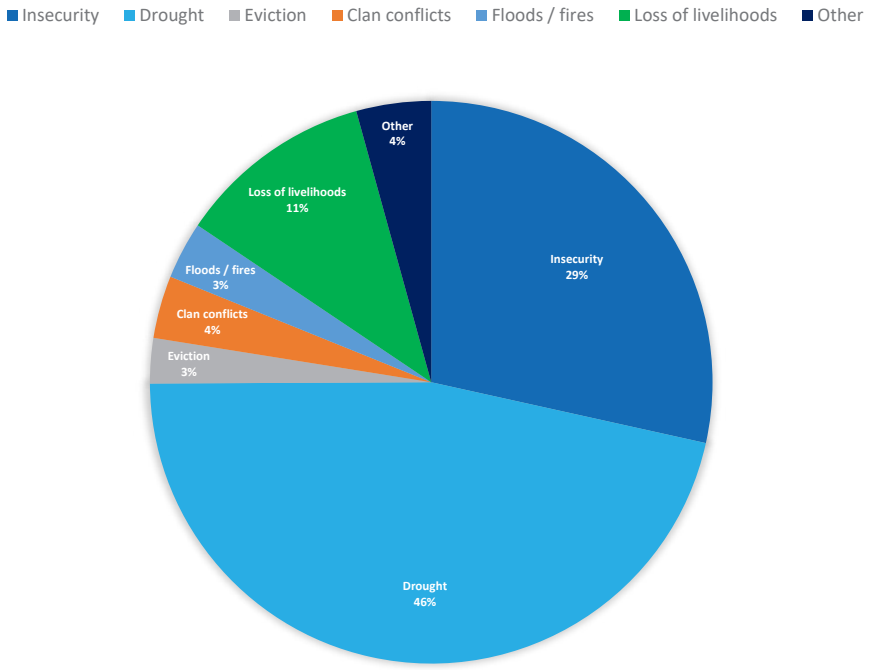
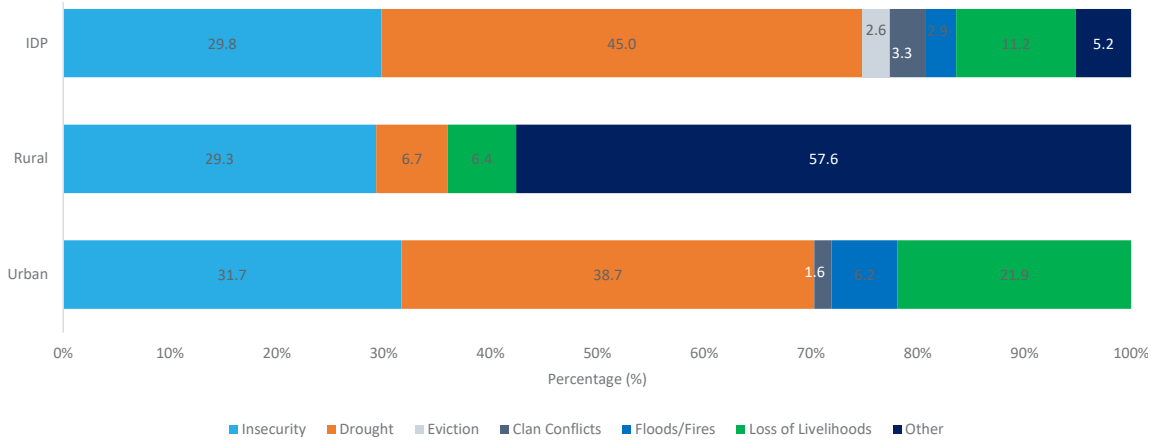
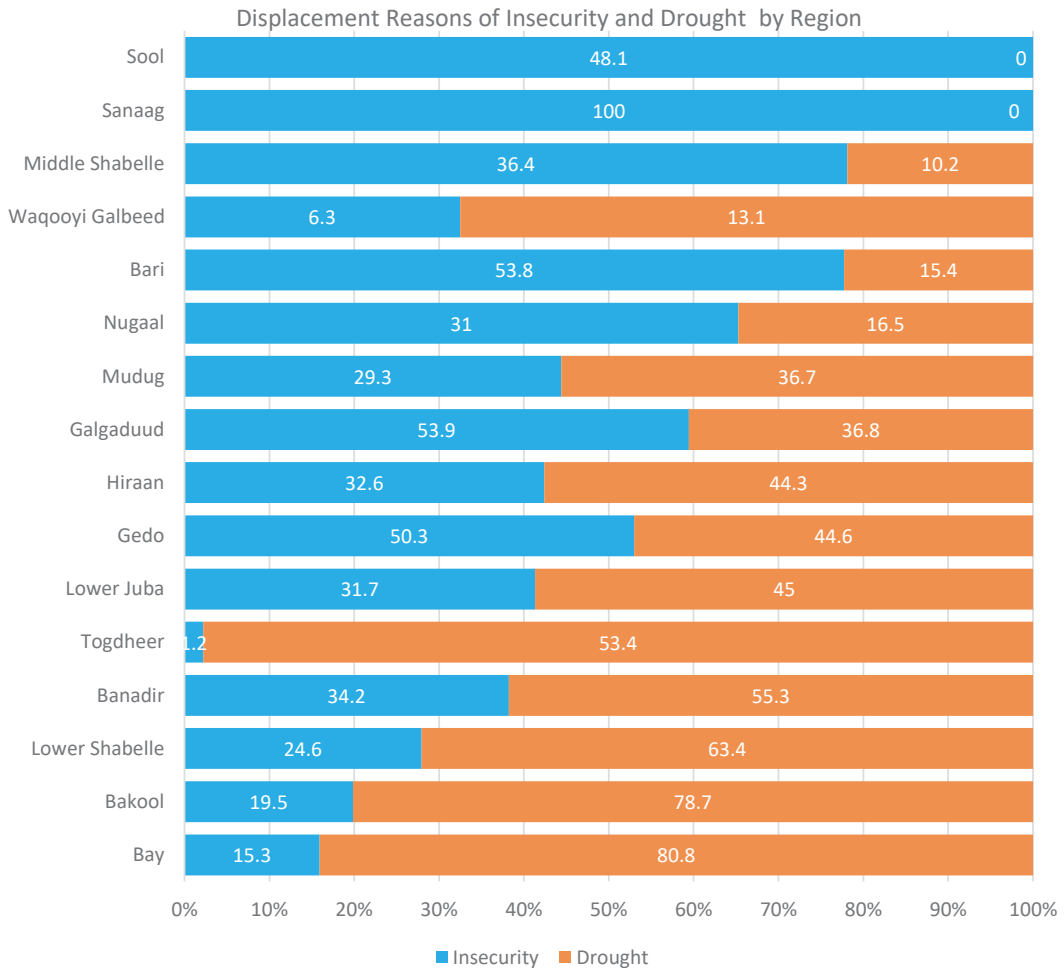


Figure 3.7. Displacement reasons by place of residence



Displacement causes vary across regions. Drought is the dominant driver in Bay, Bakool, Lower Shabelle, and Banadir, while insecurity is particularly strongest in Sanaag, Galgaduud, Bari, and Gedo. Clan conflicts are particularly notable in Sool and Middle Shabelle. These indicate that displacement is multidimensional and thus requires a diverse approach to address it.

Figure 3.8. Insecurity and drought as reasons for displacement by region



3.4 Chronic illness, disability, and functional difficulties

The breakdown of information on chronic illness and disability shows a definite pattern of vulnerability. Chronic illness increases from 0.8 per cent among children aged 0-4 to 51.5 per cent among persons aged 80 and above. Disability increases from 6.0 per cent to 78.2 per cent in the same age groups (See, Table 3.5 in the appendix). These statistics indicate that older populations bear much greater health and functional burdens, with implications for healthcare access, social protection, and household care responsibilities.

Differences by residence and sex are also noted. Urban populations report higher rates of chronic illness (5.5 per cent) and disability (10.0 per cent), compared to rural and IDP populations. This could be due to variations in age structure, reporting patterns, healthcare access, or underlying health issues. Differences between genders are not very large, but men report slightly higher levels of both chronic illness and disability than women. Regional variations are also evident. Waqooyi Galbeed has the highest prevalence of disability (18.7 per cent), while Banadir and Bay show elevated levels.

Figure 3.9. Prevalence of Chronic illness and Disability by Place of residence

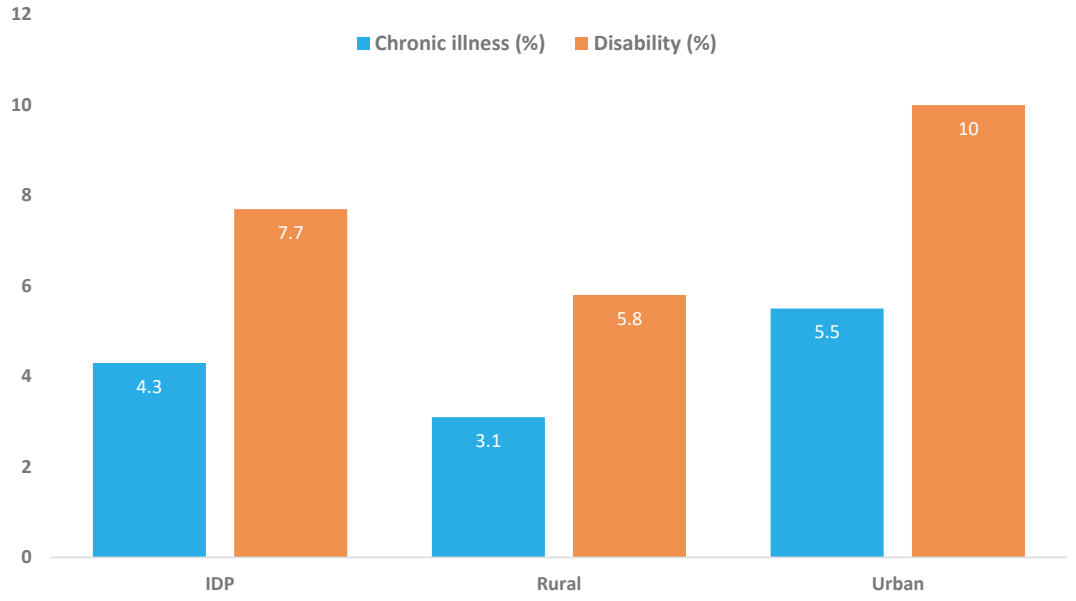
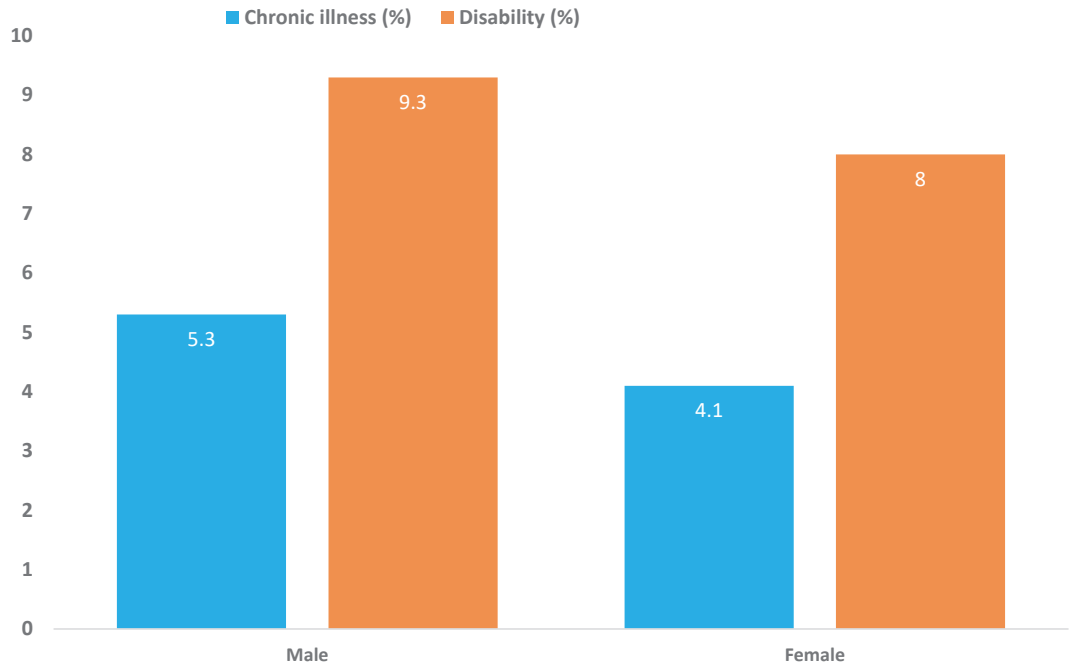


Figure 3.10. Prevalence of Chronic illness and Disability by gender



CHAPTER 4

PHYSICAL ACCESS TO FOOD

Physical Access to Food

This chapter examines the extent to which households and communities can physically access food across the surveyed regions. Access to food is shaped not only by food availability in markets but also by whether communities are connected to year-round road networks, whether households can reach functioning markets or shops, and whether market systems operate reliably enough to supply essential household needs. The analysis specifically focuses on interrelated dimensions: road connectivity; year-round access to functioning markets or shops; market access constraints; and market functionality.

4.1. Measurement of physical access indicators

Year-round community accessibility is measured at the community level. A community is considered accessible by vehicle throughout the year if the community informant responded "yes" to the question, "Is your community/village accessible by vehicle throughout the year?"

Market accessibility is measured through household access to a functioning shop or market for household needs throughout the year. A household is considered to have market access if the informant responded "yes" to the question "Do this household have access to a functioning shop or market for household needs throughout the year?"

Market challenges capture practical constraints that limit the effective use of markets. These include long distances to the nearest market, high transportation costs, poor road conditions, limited availability of food items, and a lack of cash to purchase food. Although some of these constraints are economic, they are included here because they affect households' ability to use markets to obtain food.

4.2. Road and market access conditions

Table 4.1 below provides an overview of road and market access conditions by place of residence. Overall, 84 per cent of communities are accessible by vehicle year-round. However, access conditions vary across residence groups. Rural areas report the weakest road connectivity, with 79 per cent accessible year-round and 13 per cent requiring more than one hour to reach the nearest motorable road.

Table 4.1. Road and market access conditions

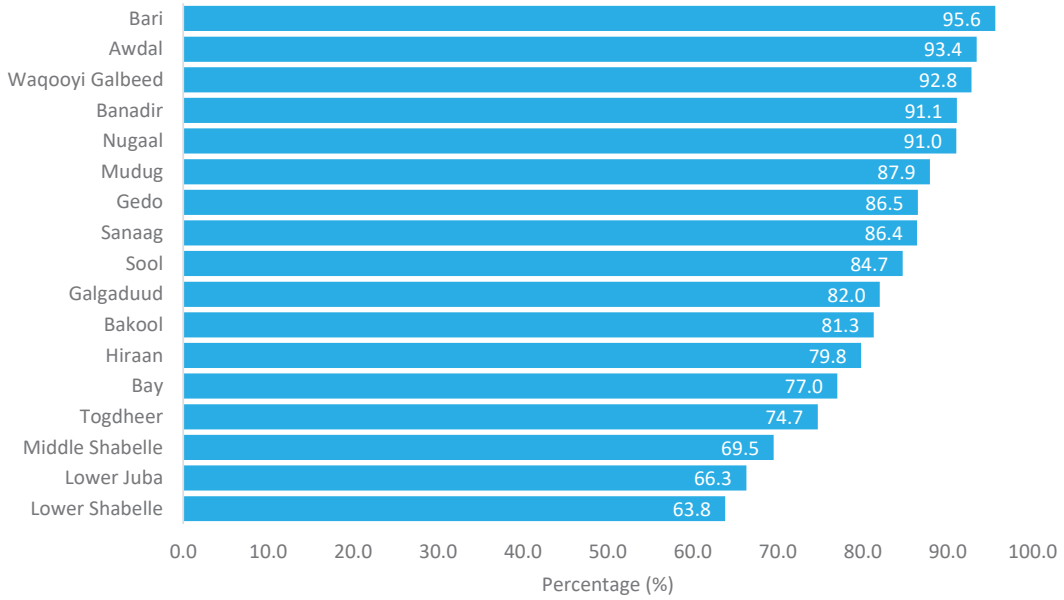
	IDP	Rural	Urban	Overall
Community accessible by vehicle year-round	85%	79%	86%	84%
Market accessible year-round	82%	60%	87%	79%
Any market challenge reported	22%	32%	12%	19%
Access becomes difficult during part of the year	37%	49%	29%	35%
Nearest motorable road <15 minutes	57%	46%	73%	64%
Nearest motorable road >1 hour	4%	13%	2%	5%
Market goods rated good or excellent	41%	44%	54%	50%
Market goods rated poor quality	4%	8%	2%	4%

Market accessibility follows a similar pattern. Only 60.0 per cent of rural communities report year-round access to a market or shop, compared to 86.5 per cent in urban areas and 87 per cent among IDPs. Rural households also report the highest prevalence of market challenges (32 per cent) and the highest level of seasonal accessibility constraints (49 per cent). These findings indicate that food accessibility constraints extend beyond physical distance to include seasonality, infrastructure conditions, and market functionality. Rural communities experience the greatest concentration of these challenges.

4.3. Year-round road accessibility by region

Figure 4.1 below shows regional disparities in road accessibility. Bari (95.6 per cent), Awdal (93.4 per cent), and Waqooyi Galbeed (92.8 per cent) report the highest levels of year-round access. By contrast, Lower Shabelle records the lowest access, with 36.2 per cent of communities lacking year-round connectivity, followed by Lower Juba (33.7 per cent) and Middle Shabelle (30.5 per cent).

Figure 4.1. Community accessibility to the nearest motorable road throughout the year by region

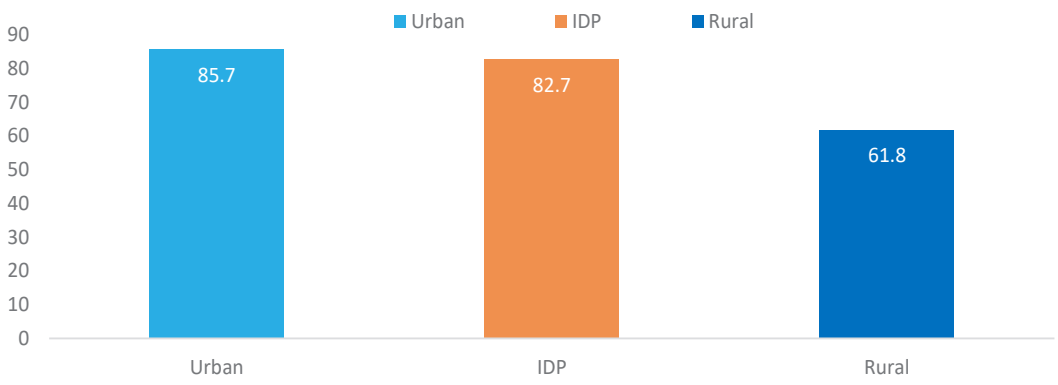


These regional differences reflect uneven infrastructure conditions, geography, and climatic factors. Communities with weaker road connectivity are more likely to experience seasonal isolation, affecting the movement of goods and access to services. This signals that food access interventions need to be adapted to the connectivity conditions of each region.

4.4. Year-round market accessibility

Figure 4.2 below shows differences in market accessibility across residence groups. Urban communities report the highest market access (85.7 per cent), followed by IDP settlements (82.7 per cent). Rural areas record substantially lower access, with only 61.8 per cent of communities reporting reliable market access, while 38.2 per cent lack adequate access.

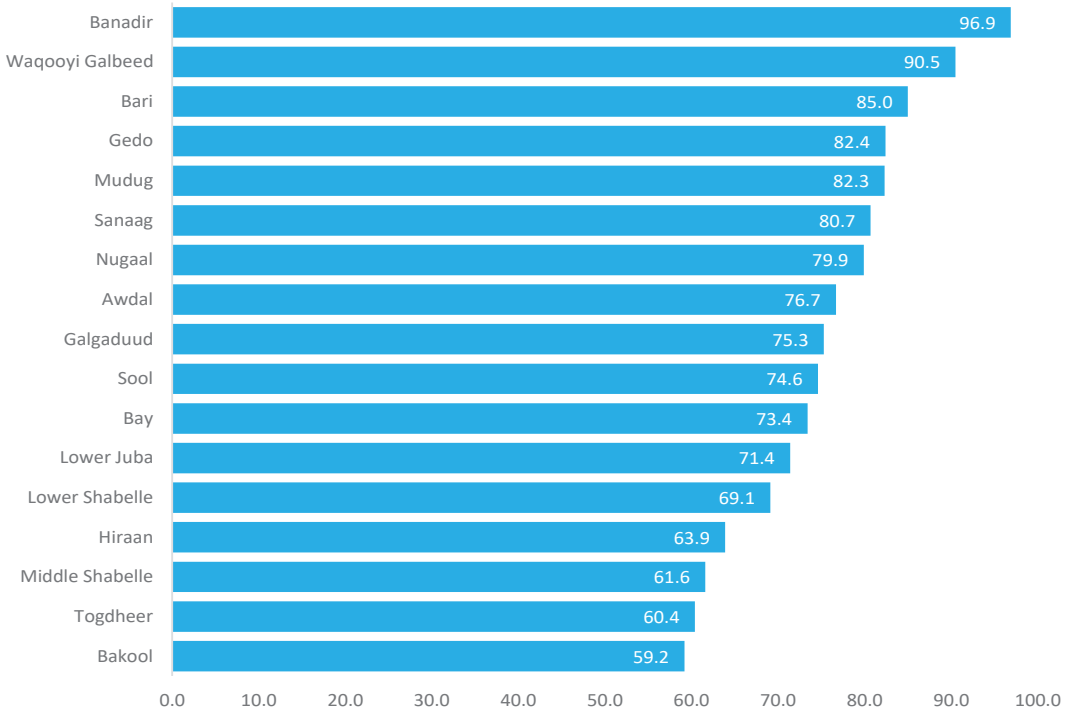
Figure 4.2. Market accessibility by place of residence



The rural access gap is important for security analysis. Limited market can reduce the range of food available to households, increase transaction costs and weaken households' ability to respond to price changes or supply disruptions. Urban and IDP households appear to be more integrated into market systems, partly because many are located closer to commercial centres and trading networks.

When we consider market accessibility by regions, there is an evident disparity. As figure 4.3 below shows, Banadir records the highest market access (96.9 per cent), followed by Waqooyi Galbeed (90.5 per cent) and Bari (85.0 per cent). The lowest access is reported in Bakool (59.2 per cent), Togdheer (60.4 per cent), and Middle Shabelle (61.6 per cent).

Figure 4.3. Market accessibility by region



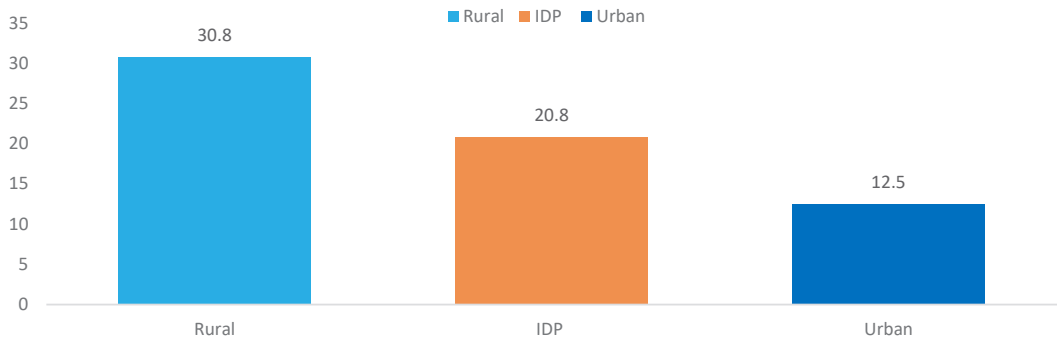
These patterns suggest that market access is closely linked to infrastructure, settlement patterns and regional economic integration. Regions with weaker market access may face higher food prices, lower availability of diverse foods and more limited access to essential household goods. In such areas, market-based interventions may require complementary measures to strengthen supply chains and reduce access barriers.

4.5. Market access constraints and functionality

Physical proximity to a market does not automatically translate into effective access to food. Households may still face barriers if markets are distant, transport is costly, roads are poor, food items are unavailable, or households lack the cash needed to purchase food. For this reason, the analysis of market challenges is important for understanding the practical functionality of market access.

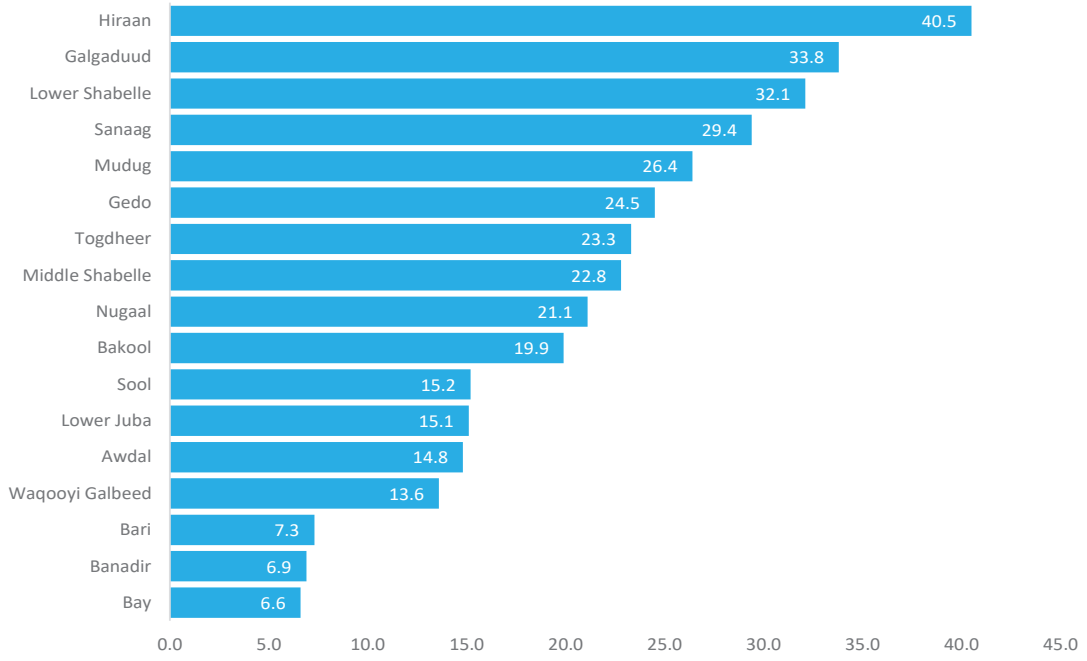
Figure 4.4 below shows that rural households experience the highest prevalence of market access challenges. About 30.8 per cent of rural households report market-related difficulties, compared with 20.8 per cent among IDP households and 12.5 per cent in urban areas. This confirms that market presence alone is not sufficient. Rural households face a combination of distance, transport, supply, and affordability constraints that can reduce their access to adequate food. These constraints may be especially severe during rainy seasons, periods of price increases, or episodes of insecurity that disrupt trade routes.

Figure 4.4. Market challenges by place of residence



When market access challenges in regions are considered, there is considerable differences. As figure 4.5 below shows, Hiraan records the highest prevalence (40.5 per cent), followed by Galgaduud (33.8 per cent) and Lower Shabelle (32.1 per cent). The lowest levels of access challenges are reported in Bay (6.6 per cent), Banadir (6.9 per cent), and Bari (7.3 per cent).

Figure 4.5. Market challenges by region



These differences suggest that market functionality varies considerably across regions. Regions with high levels of market challenges may face weaker trader networks, supply shortages, transport barriers or price instability. These conditions can reduce household purchasing power and undermine the reliability of market-based food access.

CHAPTER 5

LIVELIHOODS, INCOME, AND ECONOMIC RESILIENCE

Livelihoods, Income, and Economic Resilience

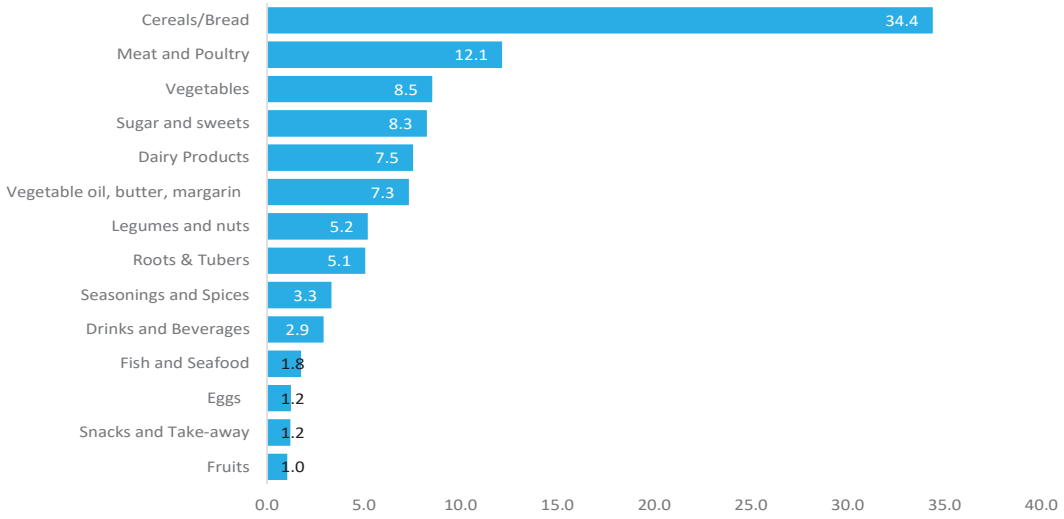
This chapter examines household livelihoods, expenditure patterns, income sources and economic resilience among surveyed households. Household food security is closely linked to income generation, purchasing power, market access, and households' capacity to absorb economic and climatic shocks. The analysis is organised around five dimensions. First, it reviews household food expenditure patterns. Second, it examines non-food expenditure priorities. Third, it assesses the main income sources reported by households across regions and places of residence. Fourth, it summarises income changes over the 12 months preceding the survey. Finally, it examines selected indicators of household financial resilience, including savings, access to credit, borrowing and debt.

Expenditure data in this report are based on simplified recall questions capturing approximate household spending over the past 7 days on food and selected non-food items. Income-source and resilience indicators are similarly based on the relevant CFSVA questions rather than on the comprehensive modules used in household income, consumption, and expenditure surveys. These estimates are therefore indicative of expenditure patterns, livelihood sources and financial pressures and should not be interpreted as full measures of household income, expenditure, or poverty.

5.1. Food expenditure patterns

Household food expenditure is concentrated on a small number of staple and commonly consumed food groups Cereals and bread account for the largest share of food spending, at 34.4 per cent of reported food expenditure. Meat and poultry follow at 12.1 per cent, while vegetables, sugar and sweets, and dairy products each account for between 7.5 and 8.5 per cent.

Figure 5.1. Reported average share of food expenditure by food group

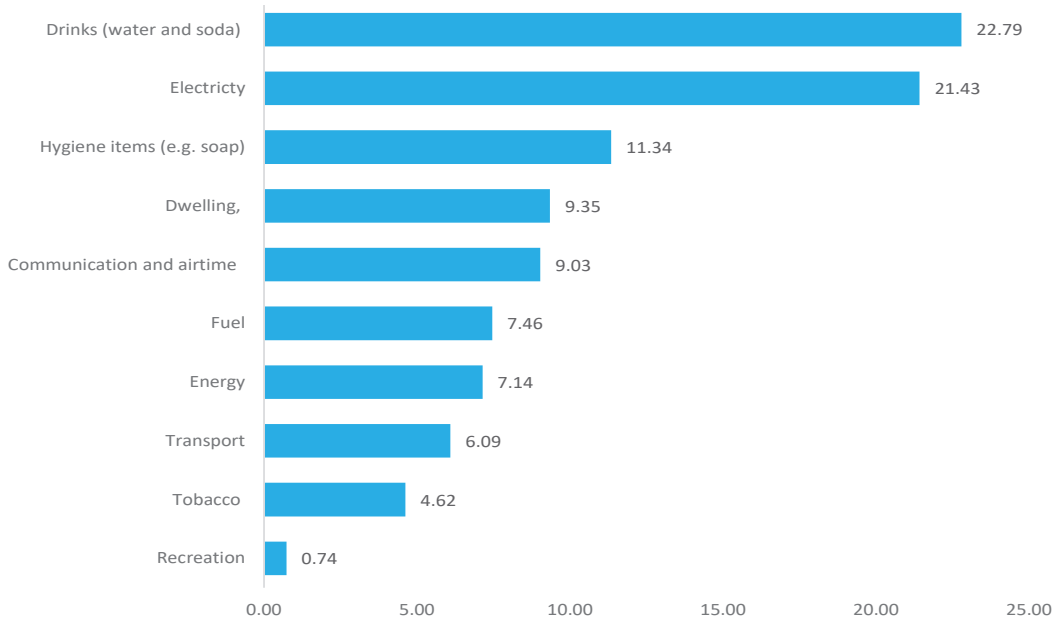


The above, Figure 5.1, shows that expenditure on fruits, eggs, fish, and seafood remains low. Fruits account for only 1.0 per cent of reported food expenditure, while eggs account for 1.2 per cent and fish and seafood for 1.8 per cent. This pattern suggests that many households allocate a large share of limited food resources to staples that are more affordable, filling and widely available. These findings point to a strong dependence on staple foods and comparatively lower spending on nutrient-rich foods. The pattern may reflect a combination of constrained purchasing power, food prices, market availability and seasonal factors, particularly for households in rural or remote areas where some food groups may be less consistently available.

5.2. Non-food expenditure patterns

Figure 5.2 below presents detailed break-down of a household non-food expenditure, which is also concentrated on basic goods and services (See, Table 5.2 in the appendix). Drinks, including water and soda, account for the largest share of non-food spending at 22.8 per cent, followed by electricity at 21.4 per cent. Other major expenditure categories include hygiene items (11.3 per cent), dwelling-related costs (9.3 per cent), communication and airtime (9.0 per cent), and fuel and energy-related costs.

Figure 5.2. Non-food Items (NFI) expenditure shares

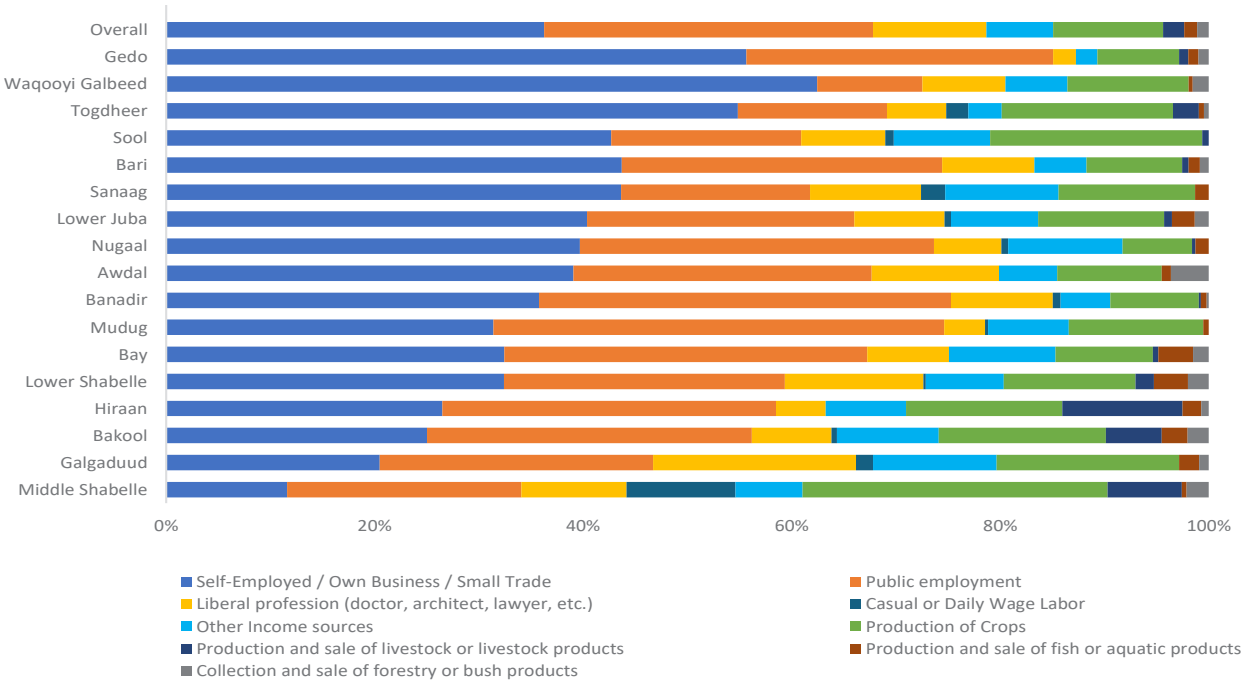


Recreation accounts for only 0.7 per cent of reported non-food expenditure, indicating very limited spending on non-essential items. The results suggest that households allocate most non-food resources toward basic living needs and essential services. High spending on utilities, water, hygiene, and dwelling-related costs may reduce the resources available for food consumption, particularly among poorer households.

5.3. Household main income sources

Household income sources vary considerably across regions (See, Table 5.1 in the appendix). Using the revised income-source labels aligned with labour and occupational categories, own-account workers and employers constitute the largest income category nationally, accounting for 34.1 per cent of households. This source is particularly important in Gedo (51.1 per cent), Waqooyi Galbeed (48.4 per cent), Togdheer (46.4 per cent) and Sool (41.7 per cent).

Figure 5.3 Household main income sources by region (aligned income source categories)



Casual employees and elementary occupations also represents a major income source, accounting for 28.8 per cent nationally and reaching 42.2 per cent in Mudug. Public sector employment accounts for 9.4 per cent nationally, with higher shares in Waqooyi Galbeed (22.5 per cent), Togdheer (16.6 per cent) and Sanaag (11.1 per cent). Professionals and skilled specialists account for 9.7 per cent nationally and are particularly prominent in Galgaduud (19.2 per cent).

Agriculture remains important in selected regions. Crop farming is especially significant in Middle Shabelle, where the revised crop-farming category accounts for 38 percent of households, and in Bakool, where it accounts for 21.5 per cent. Livestock farming and pastoralism are most prominent in Galgaduud (13.5 per cent), while non-employment transfer income is relatively high in Sool, Togdheer and Sanaag. These patterns reflect differences in livelihood systems, market integration, agricultural potential, and access to employment opportunities across regions.

5.4. Household income changes over the past 12 months

Almost half of households (49.0 per cent) report that their income remained unchanged during the 12 months preceding the survey (See, Table 5.3 in the appendix). However, 24.0 per cent report slightly lower income, while 8.0 per cent report income that was a lot lower than the previous year. By contrast, only 14.0 per cent report slightly higher income and 3.0 per cent report substantially higher income.

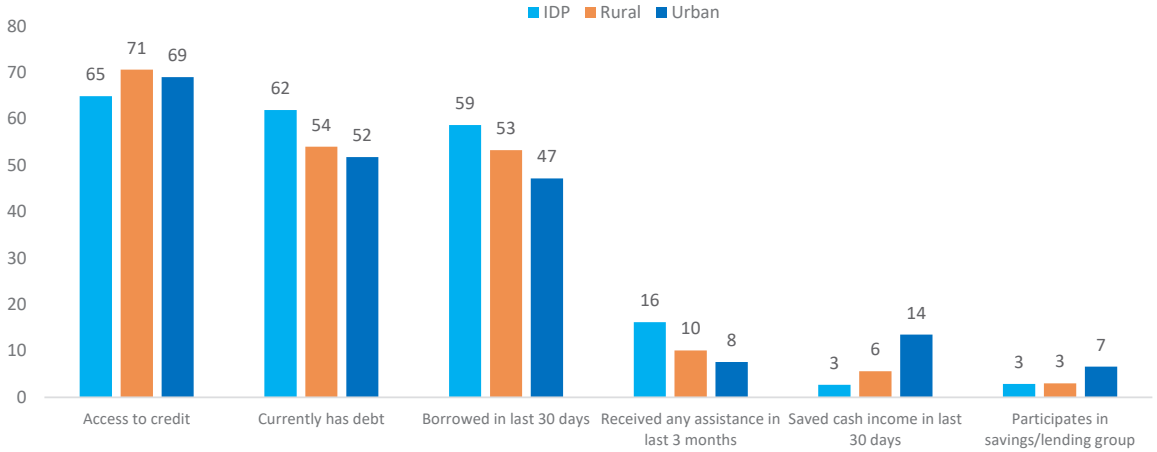
Differences are observed across residence groups. IDP households report the highest levels of declining income, with 31.0 per cent reporting slightly lower income and 10.0 per cent reporting much lower income. Urban households show relatively better outcomes, with 51.0 per cent reporting stable income and 17.0 per cent reporting slightly improved income.

Regional variation is also evident. Waqooyi Galbeed (59.0 per cent), Banadir (58.0 per cent), and Togdheer (57.0 per cent) report the highest shares of households with stable income. By contrast, Bakool (48.0 per cent) and Gedo (44.0 per cent) record the highest shares of households reporting slightly lower income. These findings point to uneven economic conditions across residence groups and regions, with declining incomes likely to reduce purchasing power and increase vulnerability among households with unstable livelihoods.

5.5. Household economic resilience

Household resilience indicators show that saving levels remain low, while borrowing and debt are widespread (See, Table 5.4 in the appendix). Only 10.0 per cent of households report saving cash income during the last 30 days, and participation in savings or lending groups remains limited at 5.2 per cent nationally.

Figure 5.4. Household resilience profile by residence



Access to credit is relatively widespread, with 69 per cent of urban households reporting access to credit. 47 per cent of urban households report borrowing during the previous 30 days, and 52 per cent report current debt obligations. IDP households show the weakest resilience profile, with the lowest savings rate 2.7 per cent and the highest prevalence of current debt 61.9 per cent.

Table 5.4. Household resilience indicators by residence and household-head sex

	IDP	Rural	Urban	Female-headed	Male-headed	Overall
Saved cash income in last 30 days	2.7	5.6	13.5	9.5	10.4	10.0
Participates in savings/lending group	2.9	3.0	6.6	5.1	5.2	5.2
Has access to credit	64.9	70.6	69.0	69.5	68.5	68.9
Borrowed in last 30 days	58.7	53.3	47.2	49.4	50.9	50.3
Currently has debt	61.9	54.0	51.8	54.3	53.3	53.7
Received any assistance in last 3 months	16.2	10.1	7.6	9.8	9.2	9.4

Urban households show comparatively stronger resilience indicators, including higher rates of savings and participation in savings groups. Differences by sex of household head are relatively limited, although female-headed households report slightly lower levels of savings and credit access. Overall, the findings indicate that many households rely heavily on borrowing and debt as coping mechanisms, while limited savings reduce their ability to withstand future economic shocks.

5.6 Agriculture, livestock and fishing livelihoods

Agriculture, livestock and fishing remain important parts of household livelihoods in Somalia. They support food availability, income generation and household resilience, especially among rural and agro-pastoral households. However, access to these livelihood assets is uneven. Rural households are more connected to land, crop cultivation and livestock ownership, while IDP and urban households generally have lower access to productive assets and depend more heavily on markets and other income sources.

5.6.1Access to Productive Land and Crop Cultivation

Overall, 19.1 per cent of households report access to productive land, while 45.4 per cent report cultivating land. Rural households have the highest access to productive land, at 41.2 per cent, compared with 10.0 per cent among IDPs and 9.7 per cent among urban households. Crop cultivation is also highest among rural households at 48.4 per cent. Urban households report a similar level of crop cultivation at 47.2 per cent, while IDP households report a much lower level at 16.4 per cent.

Figure 5.5. Agriculture-related livelihood indicators by place of residence

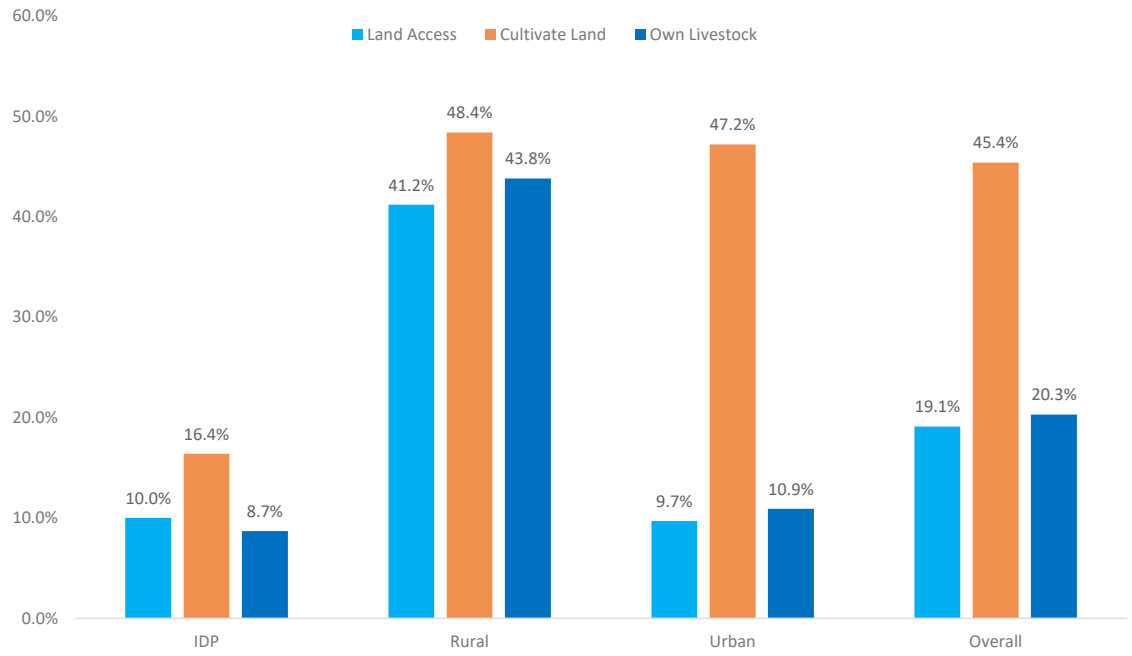


Figure 5.5 shows a clear residence-based pattern. Rural households are more likely to have land, cultivate crops and own livestock. IDP households have the weakest access to these productive assets, which limits their ability to produce food directly and increases their dependence on markets, assistance and informal support.

5.6.2 Main Crops and Agricultural Production Patterns

Crop production is concentrated around a small number of staple crops. Maize is the most commonly cultivated crop, accounting for 39.3 per cent of reported main crops, followed by millet at 23.9 per cent. Sorghum accounts for 6.1 per cent, while peas, barley, beans, tomatoes, rice, sesame and onions each account for smaller shares.

5.6.3 Irrigation Systems and Crop Utilization

Rainfed production accounts for 46 per cent of main crop irrigation sources, followed by groundwater at 38 per cent and natural surface water at 13 per cent. Constructed water points and public water supply systems account for much smaller shares. The predominance of rainfed production highlights the continued exposure of agricultural livelihoods to drought, rainfall variability and seasonal production shocks.

Figure 5.6. Main crop irrigation sources

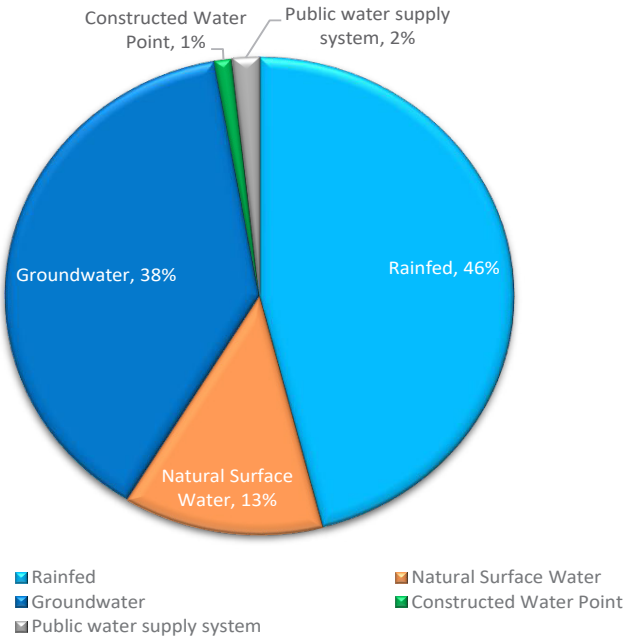
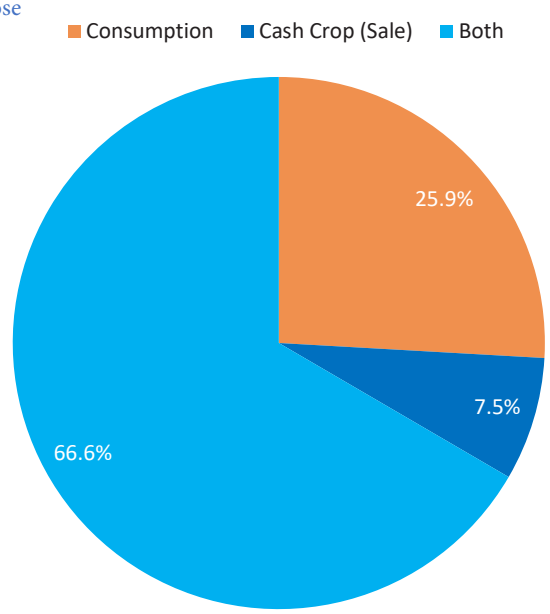


Figure 5.7. Main crop purpose

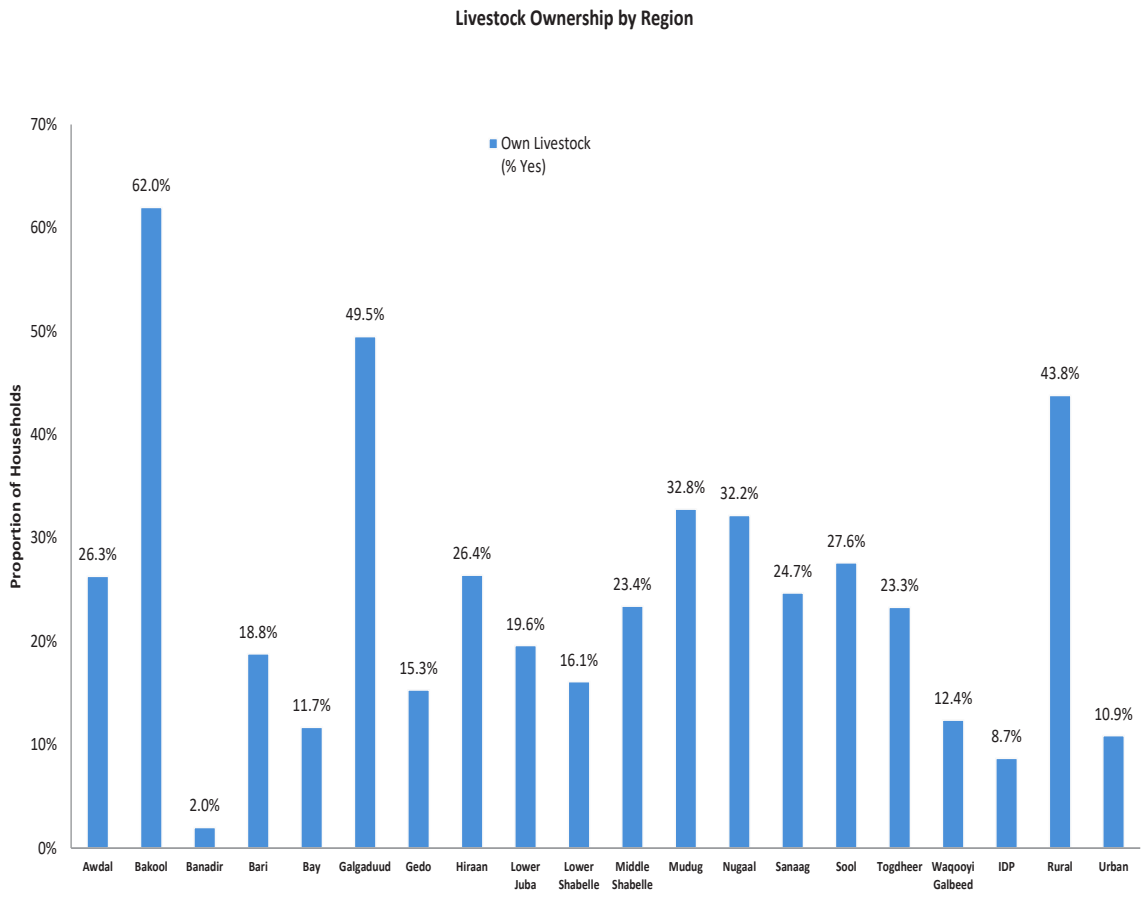


Most crop-producing households use their main crop for both consumption and sale. About 66.6 per cent report that the main crop serves both purposes, while 25.9 per cent produce mainly for household consumption and 7.5 per cent mainly for sale. This suggests that crop production contributes to both household food access and cash income, even when the scale of production remains limited.

5.6.4 Livestock ownership and Pastoral assets

Livestock ownership is an important livelihood asset, particularly for rural and pastoral households. Overall, 20.3 per cent of households own or raise livestock. Rural households report the highest ownership rate at 43.8 per cent, compared with 10.9 per cent among urban households and 8.7 per cent among IDPs. Regionally, ownership is highest in Bakool at 62.0 per cent and Galgaduud at 49.5 per cent, while Banadir records the lowest level at 2.0 per cent. These differences reflect the strong role of pastoral and agro-pastoral livelihoods in several regions and the limited role of livestock in more urbanised settings.

Figure 5.8. Livestock ownership by place of residence and region

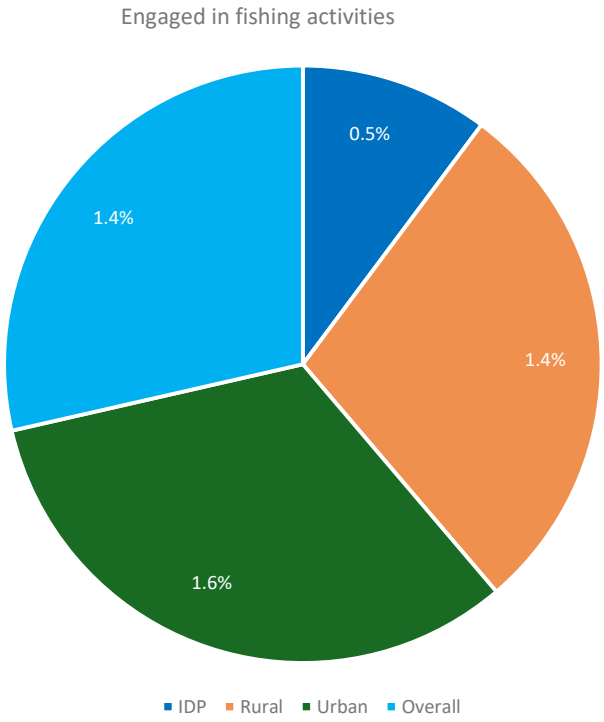


5.6.5 Fishing activities and aquatic livelihoods

(We had a small sample size for coastal areas and this might bring some questions about the overall fishing activities practices).

Fishing and aquaculture are less common than crop and livestock activities but remain relevant in coastal and riverine areas. Overall, 1.4 per cent of households report engagement in fishing activities. Engagement is slightly higher among urban households at 1.6 per cent and rural households at 1.4 per cent, compared with 0.5 per cent among IDP households.

Figure 5.9. fishing engagement activities by place of residence and region



Among fishing households, near coastal, delta or lagoon fishing is the most common type, followed by offshore sea fishing and freshwater fishing. The main production constraint is that fish are harder to find, reported by about two-thirds of fishing households. Other constraints include access to fishing areas because of weather or security conditions, limited fuel access and damage to boats or fishing gear.

5.6.6 Summary interpretation

Overall, agriculture, livestock and fishing contribute to household livelihoods, but access to these productive activities is uneven. Rural households have stronger links to land, cultivation and livestock. The limited ownership of productive assets among IDP households reduces opportunities for own-food production and increases dependence on market purchases, humanitarian assistance and casual labor income.

The findings highlight substantial differences in access to productive livelihood assets across population groups and livelihood systems, with implications for household resilience, food access and vulnerability to climatic and economic shocks.

CHAPTER 6

CONSUMPTION AND DIETARY DIVERSITY

Consumption and Dietary Diversity

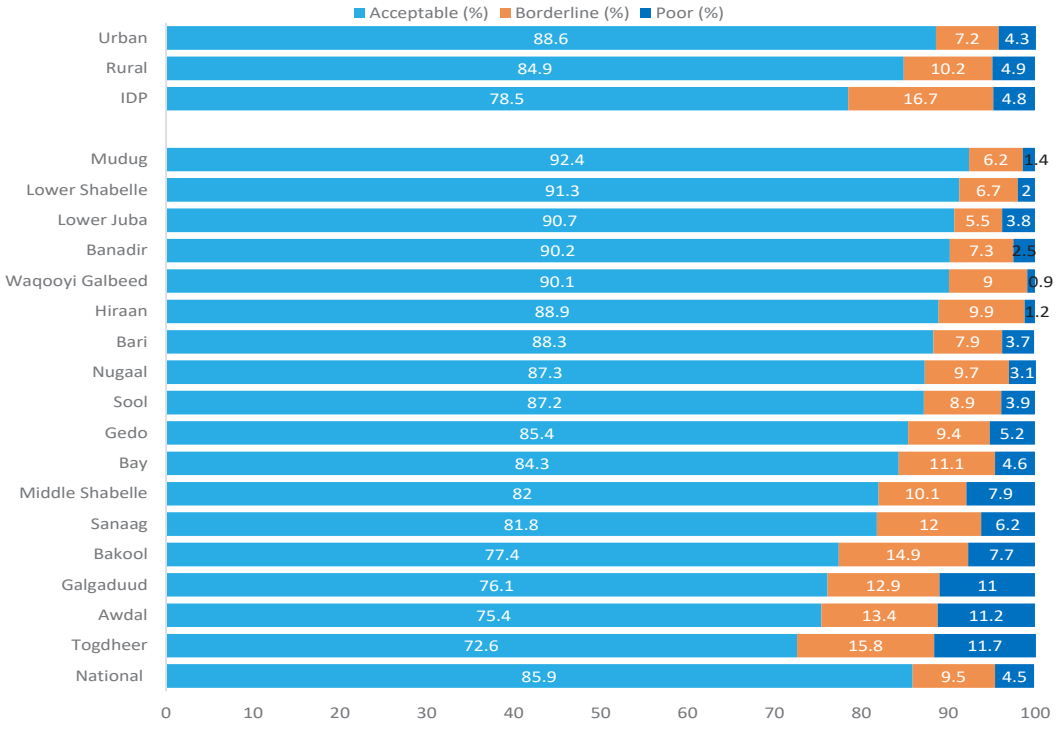
This chapter examines household food consumption, dietary diversity and food acquisition patterns in Somalia. The analysis focuses on three dimensions. First, it presents the Food Consumption Score (FCS), which summarises the frequency of consumption of different food groups over the previous seven days. Second, it reviews the Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS), which provides an indication of the range of food groups consumed by households. Third, it examines the main sources through which households obtain food, including market purchases, own production, borrowing, assistance and community support.

The FCS classifies households into poor, borderline and acceptable food consumption categories using standard thresholds. In this report, "acceptable" refers to the FCS threshold and should not be interpreted as full food security. Households may meet the acceptable FCS threshold while still relying on negative coping behaviours such as borrowing, reducing non-food expenditure or using savings and debt. The HDDS categories used in this chapter are descriptive dietary diversity groupings and should not be interpreted as IPC phase classifications.

6.1. Food Consumption Score

Figure 6.1 shows most households fall within the acceptable Food Consumption Score category (See, Table 6.1 in the appendix). Nationally, 85.9 per cent of households meet the acceptable FCS threshold, while 9.5 per cent are classified as borderline and 4.5 per cent as poor.

Figure 6.1. Food consumption score by residence and region



Differences are observed across place of residence and regions. Urban households are more frequently classified as having acceptable food consumption 88.6 per cent classified as having acceptable food consumption as defined by the FCS indicator compared with 84.9 per cent among rural households and 78.5 per cent among IDPs. Borderline consumption is highest among IDPs, at 16.7 per cent. Poor consumption is highest in Togdheer 11.7 per cent, Awdal 11.2 per cent and Galgaduud (11.0 per cent).

These findings indicate that a relatively high proportion of households meet the acceptable FCS threshold nationally, but important differences persist across places of residence and regions. IDP households continue to report comparatively weaker food consumption outcomes, reflecting greater economic vulnerability and reduced coping capacity. Regional disparities may also reflect differences in livelihood systems, market access and exposure to climatic and economic shocks.

6.2. Household Dietary Diversity Score

Household dietary diversity outcomes are concentrated in the minimal-stressed category across residence groups (See, Table 6.1 in the appendix). Nationally, 95.0 per cent of households are classified in the minimal-stressed HDDS category, while 4.0 per cent are in the crisis category and 1.0 per cent are in the emergency-catastrophe category.

Figure 6.2. household dietary diversity (HDDS) by place of residence

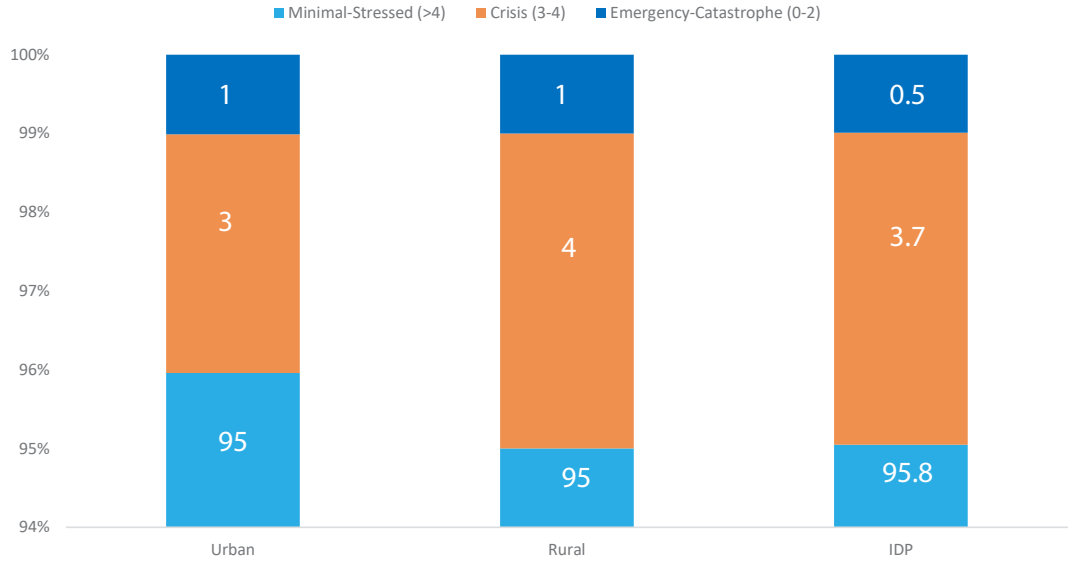


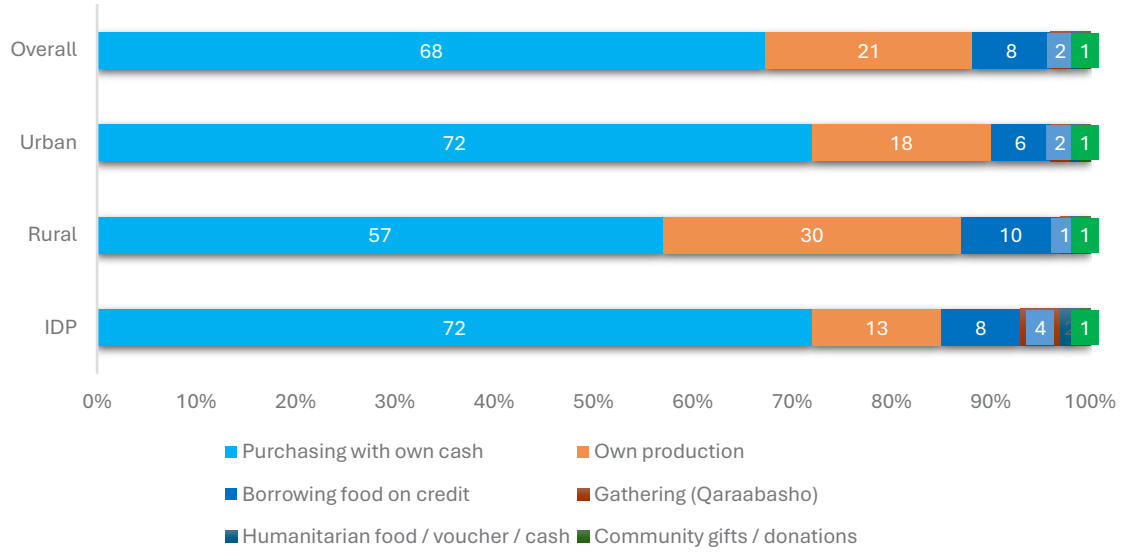
Figure 6.2 above shows that the differences by residence are limited. Urban and rural households each record 95.0 per cent in the minimal-stressed category, while IDPs record 96.0 per cent. The small differences across residence groups suggest that national dietary diversity outcomes are broadly similar by residence, although this does not rule out localised vulnerabilities or differences in the quality, quantity, and stability of diets.

The results should therefore be interpreted alongside other indicators, including food consumption, market dependence, coping strategies, and economic resilience. A household may report minimal-stress dietary diversity while still facing affordability constraints, debt pressure, or unstable food access.

6.3. Main food sources by place of residence

Food acquisition is strongly market-oriented across all places of residence (See Table 6.2 in the appendix). Purchasing food with own cash represents the dominant source of food acquisition the surveyed populations, accounting for 68.0 per cent of households. This source is particularly important among urban and IDP households, each at 72.0 per cent.

Figure 6.3: Main food sources by place of residence



Rural households report a more diversified pattern of food acquisition. Own production accounts for 30 per cent of rural households, compared with 18 per cent among urban households and 13 per cent among IDPs. Borrowing food on credit is also notable, particularly among rural households (10 per cent) and IDPs (8 per cent).

These findings show that markets play a central role in household food access across all places of residence. Rural households maintain greater reliance on own production, while urban and displaced populations are more dependent on purchasing power and market access. This dependence exposes households to changes in food prices, income availability and market functionality.

6.4. Main food sources by region

Food acquisition patterns vary considerably across regions (See, Table 6.2 in the appendix). Among the surveyed population, purchasing food with own cash accounts for 68.0 per cent of food acquisition, followed by own production at 21.0 per cent and borrowing food on credit at 8.0 per cent.

Figure 6.4: Main food sources by region

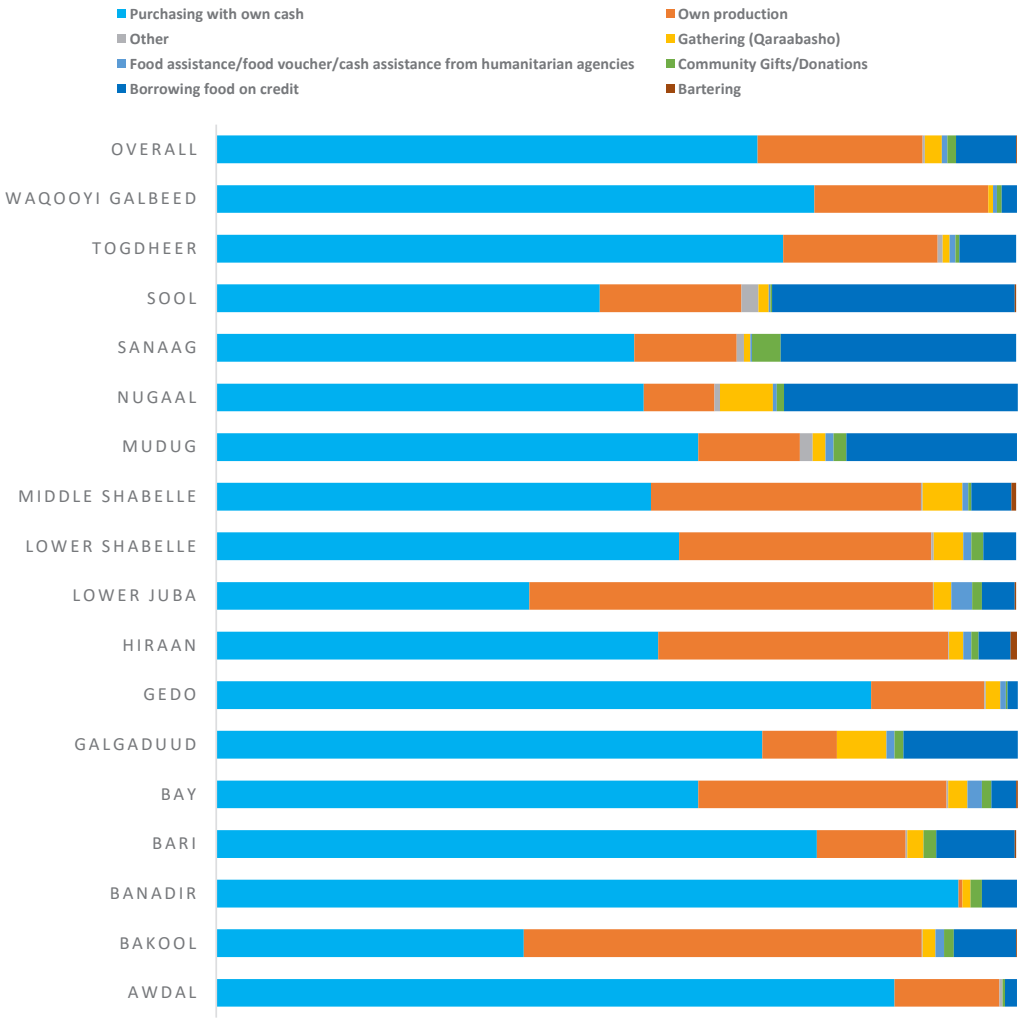


Figure 6.4 above shows that Banadir records the highest dependence on market purchases at 93 per cent, followed by Awdal at 85 per cent, Gedo at 82.0 per cent, and Bari and Waqooyi Galbeed at 75 per cent each. By contrast, own production is highest in Bakool and Lower Juba, both at 50 per cent, followed by Hiraan at 36 per cent and Middle Shabelle at 34 per cent.

Borrowing food on credit is particularly high in Sool (30 per cent), Nugaal (29 per cent), Sanaag (29 per cent), and Mudug (21 per cent). These patterns indicate substantial regional variation in food-acquisition systems. Urbanised regions remain strongly market-dependent, while agricultural and agro-pastoral regions continue to rely more heavily on own production. Higher dependence on borrowing in some regions may indicate increased economic pressure and weaker household purchasing capacity.

CHAPTER 7

SHOCKS AND COPING STRATEGIES

Shocks and Coping Strategies

This chapter presents the types and intensities of shocks affecting households in Somalia, as well as the coping strategies they adopt in response. The analysis examines household exposure to economic, environmental, agricultural, security, and livelihood shocks across residence groups and regions. Household resilience is further assessed using the Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI), the Livelihood Coping Strategies Index (LCSI), and the Household Hunger Scale (HHS). The rCSI measures short-term food consumption coping behaviours, while the LCSI captures livelihood-related coping strategies that may affect future resilience. The HHS measures the severity of household hunger and food deprivation. The findings indicate that rural and internally displaced households are more exposed to shocks and are more likely to adopt negative coping strategies. Significant regional disparities are also observed across several indicators.

7.1 Shock Types Affecting Households

Household shock exposure varies considerably across residence groups and regions (See, Table 7.1 in the appendix). Rural households report the highest overall shock exposure at 24.1 per cent, followed by IDP households at 22.2 per cent and urban households at 13.3 per cent. IDP households report the highest levels of household-specific shocks at 12.9 per cent, while rural households are disproportionately affected by economic shocks at 8.9 per cent, natural shocks at 8.4 per cent, and agricultural shocks at 4.7 per cent. Urban households report comparatively lower exposure across most shock categories.

These findings suggest that rural and displaced populations face more severe and complex shock burdens than urban households. Rural households remain more exposed to climate-sensitive and livelihood-related shocks, while displaced populations continue to experience elevated social and household vulnerability.

Regional disparities are equally pronounced. Middle Shabelle records the highest overall shock exposure at 37.4 per cent, followed by Hiraan at 31 per cent, Lower Shabelle at 27.6 per cent, and Bakool at 26 per cent. Middle Shabelle also reports particularly severe economic and agricultural shocks, while Lower Shabelle and Hiraan report elevated exposure to natural shocks. These findings indicate that shock exposure remains geographically uneven across Somalia, with the central and southern regions experiencing relatively greater vulnerability.

Figure 7.1 Shock Types by Place of Residence

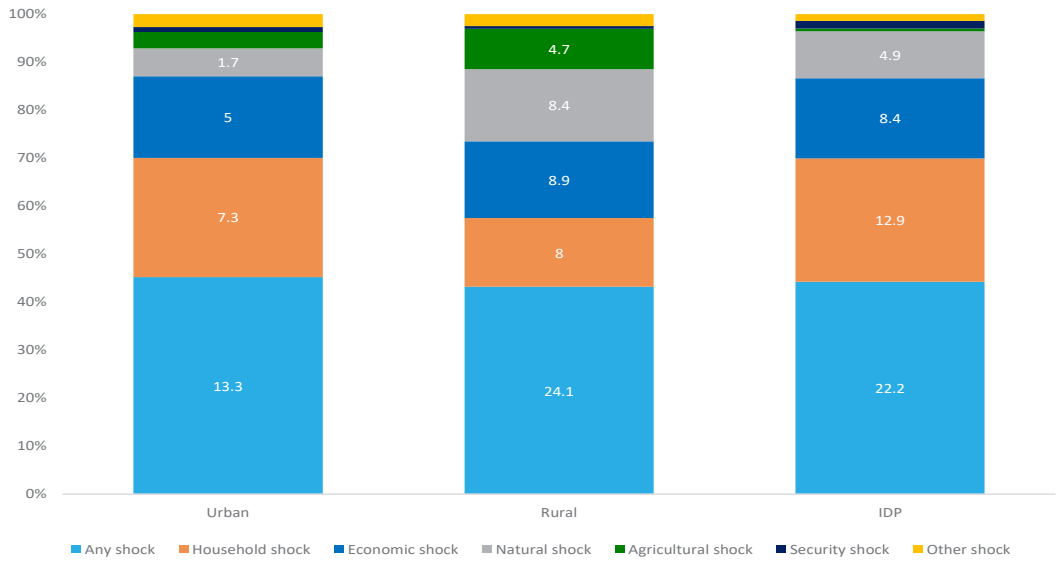


Figure 7.1 further illustrates differences in vulnerability across residence groups (See, Table 7.1 in the appendix). Economic shocks remain the most common category among rural households, while household-specific shocks are most prevalent among IDP households.

Agricultural shocks remain concentrated within rural populations, reflecting stronger dependence on crop and livestock production systems. Security-related shocks remain comparatively low across all residence groups. These patterns suggest that livelihood structure and settlement type continue to shape household exposure to different forms of shocks and stress.

7.2 Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI)

The Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI) measures the frequency and severity of consumption-based coping strategies adopted by households when faced with food access constraints. rCSI scores are classified into three categories aligned with the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) acute food insecurity severity levels: minimal coping (rCSI of 0–3), indicating little or no reliance on coping strategies; stressed coping (rCSI of 4–18), reflecting moderate reliance on consumption-based coping strategies; and crisis-emergency coping (rCSI above 18), indicating severe and frequent reliance on harmful consumption-based strategies that compromise dietary quality and household resilience.

Overall, 52 per cent of households fall within the minimal coping category, while 28.4 per cent are classified within the stressed coping category and 19.7 per cent within the crisis-emergency coping category (See, Table 7.2 in the appendix).

Urban households are more frequently classified in the minimal coping category (59.7 per cent), compared to 48.9 per cent among rural households and 30.4 per cent among IDP households. IDP households record the highest proportion within the crisis-emergency coping category at 35.6 per cent, compared to 17.2 per cent among rural households and 16.5 per cent among urban households. These disparities reflect greater food consumption stress and reduced coping capacity among displaced populations, where livelihood instability, limited income opportunities, and restricted access to food and services heighten vulnerability.

Regional differences are equally pronounced. Waqooyi Galbeed records the strongest coping profile, with 87.8 per cent within the minimal coping category, followed by Togdheer at 82.8 per cent and Awdal at 74.9 per cent. In contrast, Middle Shabelle records the lowest minimal coping rate at 23.1 per cent and one of the highest crisis-emergency levels at 29.6 per cent. Galgaduud also records elevated crisis-emergency coping at 29.2 per cent. These findings indicate a clear regional divide in household coping conditions, with several central and southern regions recording comparatively higher levels of food consumption stress.

Figure 7.2 Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI) by Place of Residence

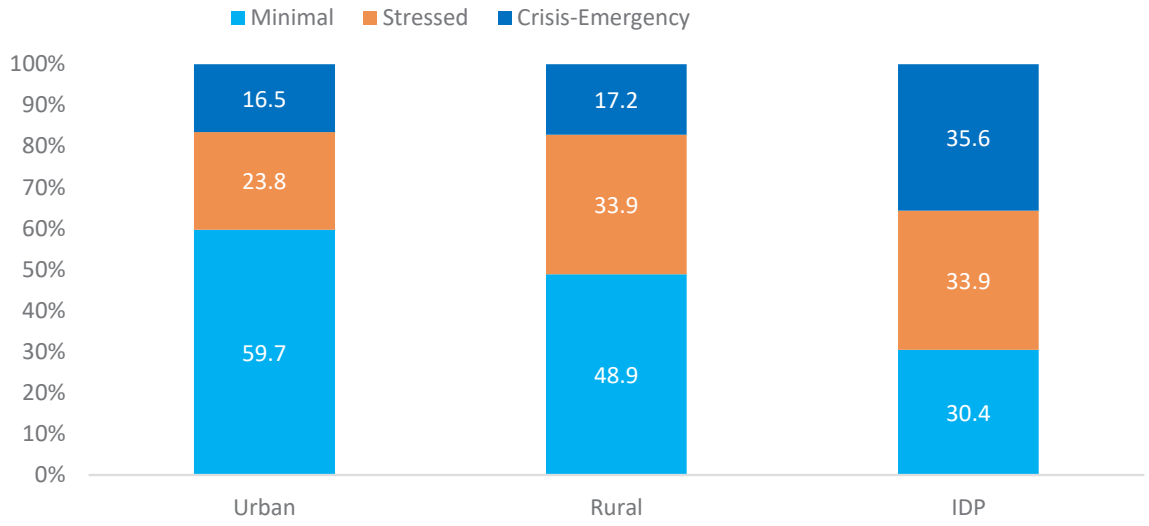


Figure 7.2 further illustrates disparities in household coping conditions across residence groups. (See, Table 7.2 in the appendix). Urban households are most frequently classified within the minimal coping category, while IDP households record the highest concentration within the crisis-emergency coping category.

Stressed coping strategies are equally prevalent among rural and IDP households, each recording 33.9 per cent, indicating continued pressure on household food access and consumption stability. Displaced populations remain the most vulnerable to food consumption stress, while rural households also continue to face notable coping pressures relative to their urban counterparts.

7.3 Livelihood Coping Strategies Index

The Livelihood Coping Strategies Index (LCSI) reveals significant differences across residence groups (See, Table 7.3 in the appendix). Overall, 46.9 per cent of households report no livelihood coping strategies, while 21.1 per cent report stress coping, 20.8 per cent crisis coping, and 11.1 per cent emergency coping strategies.

Urban households report the highest share with no livelihood coping at 52.5 per cent, followed by rural households at 44.4 per cent and IDP households at 32.4 per cent. By contrast, IDP households record the highest prevalence of emergency coping strategies at 20.4 per cent, compared with 9.7 per cent among urban households and 8.9 per cent among rural households.

Stress and crisis coping strategies are also more prevalent among displaced households. These findings indicate comparatively weaker livelihood resilience among IDPs, who are more likely to adopt severe coping mechanisms during periods of economic and food stress. The distribution of livelihood coping strategies also suggests important differences in household resilience capacity across residence groups. Urban households generally report stronger coping conditions, while displaced households continue to face elevated livelihood pressures and reduced recovery capacity.

Figure 7.3 Livelihood Coping Strategies Index (LCSI) by Place of Residence

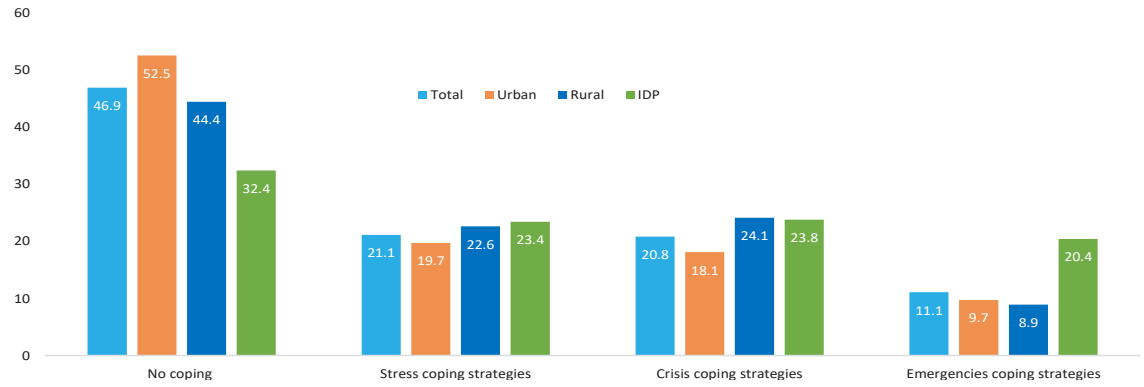


Figure 7.3 illustrates notable differences in livelihood coping patterns across residence groups (See, Table 7.3 in the appendix). Emergency coping strategies are most concentrated among IDP households, while urban households report the highest proportion with no coping strategies.

Rural households remain positioned between urban and displaced populations across all coping categories. Crisis coping strategies account for 24.1 per cent among rural households and 23.8 per cent among IDP households. These findings suggest that displaced populations continue to experience the greatest livelihood stress, while rural households also remain exposed to significant economic and food security pressures.

7.4 Household Hunger Scale (HHS) Classification

The Household Hunger Scale (HHS) measures the frequency and severity of food deprivation experienced by households over a 30-day recall period. HHS scores are classified into five categories aligned with the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) acute food insecurity severity levels: no hunger (HHS of 0), indicating no reported food deprivation; stressed (HHS of 1), reflecting mild and infrequent food deprivation; crisis (HHS of 2–3), indicating moderate and recurring food deprivation; emergency (HHS of 4), reflecting severe and frequent food deprivation; and catastrophe (HHS of 5–6), indicating extreme and near-total food deprivation with potential life-threatening consequences.

Overall, 62 per cent of households are classified as no-hunger households, while 10 per cent are classified as stressed households. However, 21 per cent are classified within crisis conditions, 5 per cent within emergency, and 3 per cent within catastrophe conditions (See, Table 7.4 in the appendix).

Urban households record the strongest conditions, with 70 per cent classified within the no hunger category. Rural households record comparatively weaker outcomes, with 59 per cent within no hunger and 31 per cent within crisis or worse conditions. IDP households record the most severe conditions, with only 37 per cent within no hunger and 50 per cent classified within crisis or worse categories. Emergency and catastrophe conditions are also highest among IDP households at 11 per cent and 7 per cent respectively. These findings indicate that displaced populations continue to face the most severe food access and consumption deficits.

Regional disparities remain substantial. Waqooyi Galbeed records the strongest profile, with 87 per cent within the no hunger category, followed by Togdheer at 83 per cent and Awdal at 79 per cent. In contrast, Middle Shabelle records only 41 per cent within the no hunger category, while Bakool records 42 per cent. Middle Shabelle and Bakool also record the highest crisis levels at 33 per cent and 34 per cent, respectively. Lower Juba and Banadir record elevated emergency levels at 8 per cent and 10 per cent respectively. Severe hunger conditions remain concentrated within several central and southern regions, while northern regions generally record comparatively stronger outcomes.

Figure 7.4 Household Hunger Scale by place of residence

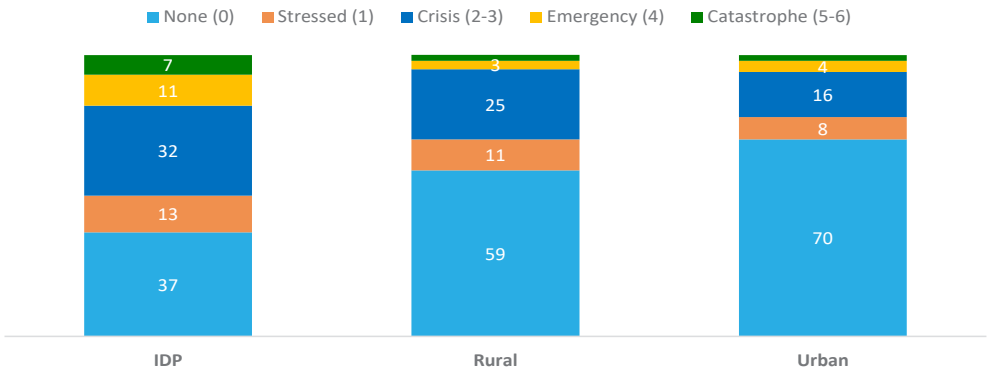


Figure 7.4 further illustrates differences in household hunger conditions across residence groups. No hunger conditions remain highest among urban households at 70 per cent and lowest among IDP households at 37 per cent. Crisis, emergency, and catastrophe conditions are considerably more pronounced among displaced populations, with 50 per cent classified within crisis or worse categories. Rural households also record elevated crisis conditions at 31 per cent, compared to 22 per cent among urban households. These findings confirm continued disparities in food access and household consumption adequacy across residence groups, with displaced populations facing the most severe hunger burden.

CHAPTER 8

FOOD SECURITY AND VULNERABILITY

Food Security and Vulnerability

This chapter presents analyses using two distinct but complementary conceptual frameworks for food security measurement. Sections 8.1 to 8.3, drawing on CARI, ENA, and ECMEN, apply the acute food insecurity framework as operationalised within humanitarian and emergency response settings, including the IPC methodology. Acute food insecurity refers specifically to food insecurity of a severity that threatens lives or livelihoods within a defined reference period, and the associated classifications differ fundamentally from the broader SDG-aligned food security indicators used in global monitoring. Section 8.4 presents findings from the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES), which is the measurement instrument underlying SDG indicator 2.1.2 and reflects a more general, experience-based measure of food insecurity applicable to both acute and chronic conditions. Readers are encouraged to interpret findings from each framework within their respective conceptual boundaries and to avoid direct comparisons across frameworks without accounting for these definitional differences.

8.1 CARI Classifications

The CARI classification used in this report is designed for acute food insecurity assessment within humanitarian response frameworks. The four CARI categories of food secure, marginally food secure, moderately food insecure, and severely food insecure are defined based on household food consumption scores (FCS and HDDS), livelihood-based coping strategy index (LCSI), and economic vulnerability to food insecurity. These categories reflect a household's current food security status relative to an acute food insecurity threshold and are conceptually distinct from the 'moderate food insecurity' and 'severe food insecurity' categories derived from the FIES and used for SDG 2.1.2 reporting. The latter are based on self-reported experiences of food access constraints over a 12-month reference period. Direct numerical comparisons between CARI-based and FIES-based prevalence estimates should be avoided, as they measure different dimensions and severities of food insecurity.

Food security status varies considerably across residence groups and regions (See, Table 8.1 in the appendix). Nationally, 31 per cent of households are classified as food secure, while 40 per cent are marginally food secure. However, 25 per cent are moderately food insecure and 4 per cent are severely food insecure. Urban households report the strongest outcomes, with 43 per cent classified as food secure and 21 per cent as moderately or severely food insecure. Rural households report weaker conditions, with only 22 per cent food-secure and 33 per cent moderately or severely food-insecure. IDP households record the most severe outcomes, with only 9 per cent food-secure and 53 per cent classified as moderately or severely food insecure.

These findings indicate that displaced and rural populations continue to experience comparatively higher levels of food insecurity. Differences across residence groups may reflect variations in livelihood stability, income opportunities, displacement status, and access to markets and services.

Regional disparities are equally pronounced. Waqooyi Galbeed records the strongest food security profile, with 67 per cent classified as food secure and only 13 per cent food insecure. Awdal and Gedo also report comparatively stronger outcomes at 49 per cent and 42 per cent food secure respectively. By contrast, Middle Shabelle records the weakest conditions, with only 6 per cent classified as food secure and 56 per cent food insecure. Bakool records 51 per cent food insecurity, while Galgaduud records 46 per cent. These findings indicate that food insecurity remains concentrated in several central and southern regions, reflecting persistent structural and livelihood vulnerabilities.

Figure 8.1 CARI Food security Status by Place of Residence

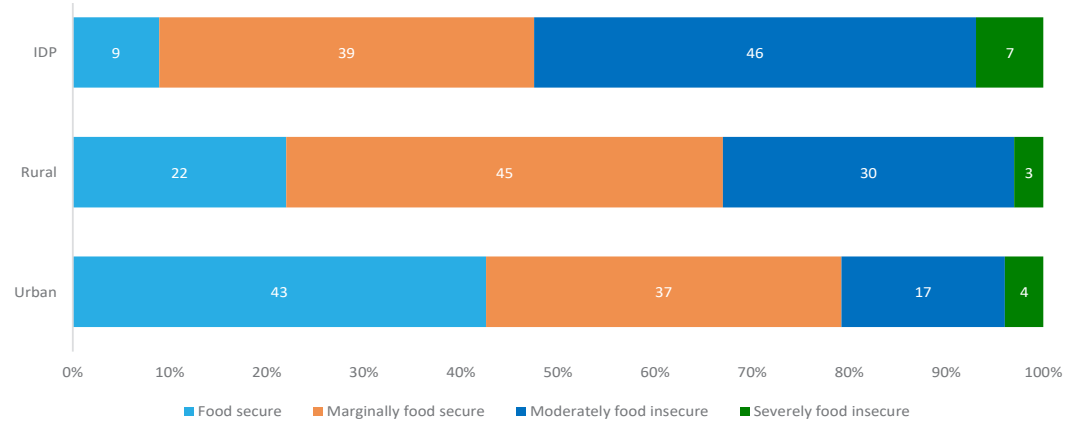


Figure 8.1 further illustrates disparities in food security status across residence groups (See, Table 8.1 in the appendix). Urban households report the highest proportion of food-secure households, while displaced populations record the highest concentration in the moderate and severe food insecurity categories.

Marginal food security remains relatively high across all residence groups, particularly among rural households at 45 per cent and IDPs at 39 per cent. This suggests that a substantial proportion of households remain vulnerable to deterioration during periods of economic or climatic stress. These patterns indicate that food insecurity continues to affect displaced and rural populations disproportionately relative to urban households.

8.2 Essential Needs Assessment (ENA)

The Essential Needs Assessment (ENA) vulnerability index reveals substantial differences in household vulnerability across surveyed regions (See, Table 8.2 in the appendix). Nationally, 31 per cent of households are classified as not vulnerable, while 33 per cent are moderately vulnerable. However, 36 per cent fall within highly or extremely vulnerable categories.

Figure 8.2 Essential Needs Vulnerability by Place of Residence

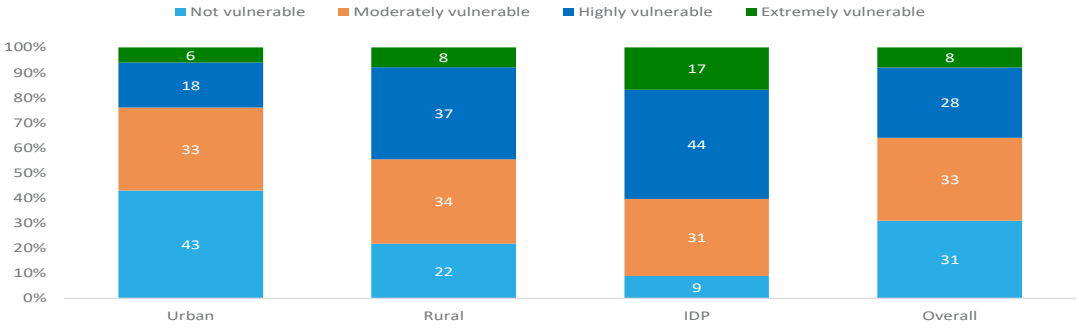


Figure 8.2 shows that IDP households report the highest levels of vulnerability. Only 9 per cent are classified as not vulnerable, while 61 per cent fall within highly or extremely vulnerable categories. Rural households also report elevated vulnerability, with 45 per cent classified as higher-vulnerability categories. Urban households record comparatively stronger outcomes, with 43 per cent classified as not vulnerable and 24 per cent within highly or extremely vulnerable categories.

These findings indicate strong links between displacement, rural deprivation, and limited access to essential services and living conditions. Differences across residence groups also suggest important inequalities in household resilience and economic capacity.

Figure 8.3 Essential Needs Vulnerability by region

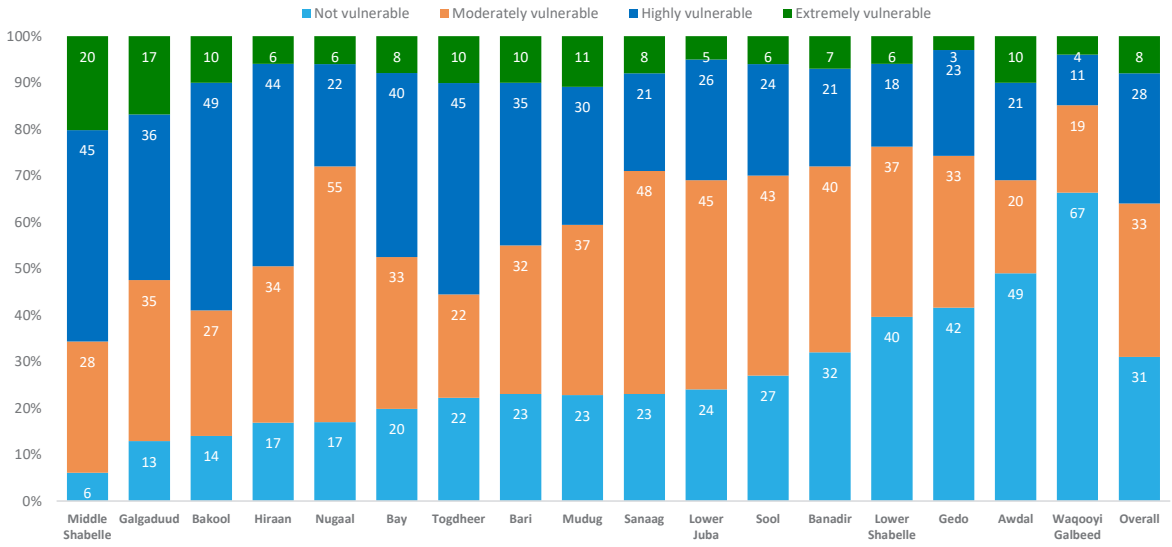


Figure 8.3 indicates substantial regional disparities. Waqooyi Galbeed records the strongest outcomes, with 67 per cent classified as not vulnerable and only 15 per cent highly or extremely vulnerable. Awdal and Gedo also report comparatively favorable conditions.

By contrast, Middle Shabelle records the most severe vulnerability profile, with only 6 per cent classified as not vulnerable and 65 per cent highly or extremely vulnerable. Bakool records 59 per cent highly or extremely vulnerable households, while Hiraan and Togdheer report 50 per cent and 55 per cent respectively.

Galgaduud records the highest proportion of extremely vulnerable households at 17 per cent, alongside IDP households. These findings indicate that vulnerability remains heavily concentrated within several central and southern regions.

8.3 Economic Capacity to Meet Essential Needs (ECMEN)

The Economic Capacity to Meet Essential Needs (ECMEN) measures household ability to meet the Minimum Expenditure Basket (MEB) and food MEB thresholds both with and without humanitarian assistance (See, Table 8.3 in the appendix).

Nationally, 53 per cent of households remain above the MEB without assistance, while 29 per cent fall below the food MEB. When humanitarian assistance is included, the proportion above the MEB increases to 57 per cent, while the proportion below the food MEB declines to 25 per cent. These findings indicate that humanitarian assistance contributes to improving household economic capacity, although a substantial proportion of households continue to face difficulties meeting minimum food and non-food needs.

Figures 8.4 and 8.5 illustrate differences across residence groups. Urban households record the strongest economic capacity, with 67 per cent above the MEB without assistance and 70 per cent above the MEB with assistance. Rural households report weaker conditions: 38 per cent remain below the food MEB without assistance, and 34 per cent remain below the threshold after assistance. IDP households record the most severe economic constraints, with 53 per cent below the food MEB without assistance and 43 per cent remaining below the threshold even after assistance. These findings indicate that displaced populations continue to face the greatest economic vulnerability despite humanitarian support. Rural households also remain economically constrained relative to urban households.

Regional disparities are also substantial. Middle Shabelle records the highest proportion below the food MEB without assistance at 57 per cent, followed by Togdheer at 54 per cent and Bakool at 53 per cent. Similar patterns persist even after humanitarian assistance. By contrast, Lower Shabelle records the strongest economic conditions, with only 14 per cent below the food MEB without assistance and 6 per cent after assistance. Waqooyi Galbeed, Banadir, and Lower Juba also report comparatively stronger outcomes. These findings indicate considerable geographic variation in household economic capacity across regions, with central and several southern regions remaining comparatively more economically vulnerable.

Figure 8.4. Food MEB Without Humanitarian Assistance by Place of Residence

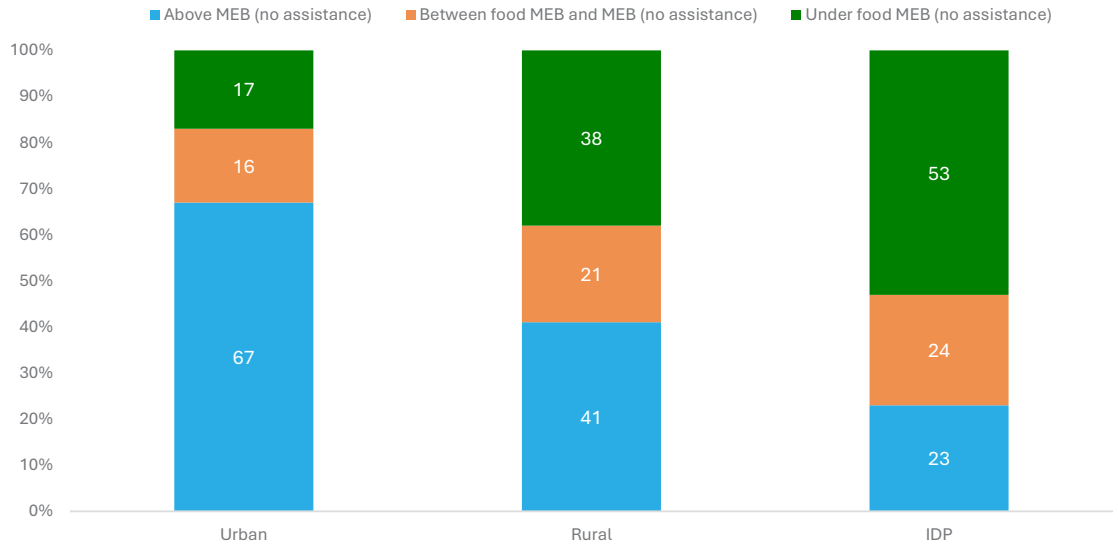


Figure 8.4 further highlights disparities in household economic conditions across residence groups (See, Table 8.3 in the appendix). IDP households report the highest proportion below the food MEB without assistance, followed by rural households.Urban households remain comparatively better positioned economically, with a substantially larger proportion remaining above the MEB threshold. These patterns suggest that displacement and rural livelihood pressures continue to constrain household purchasing power and economic resilience.

Figure 8.5. Food MEB With Humanitarian Assistance by Place of Residence

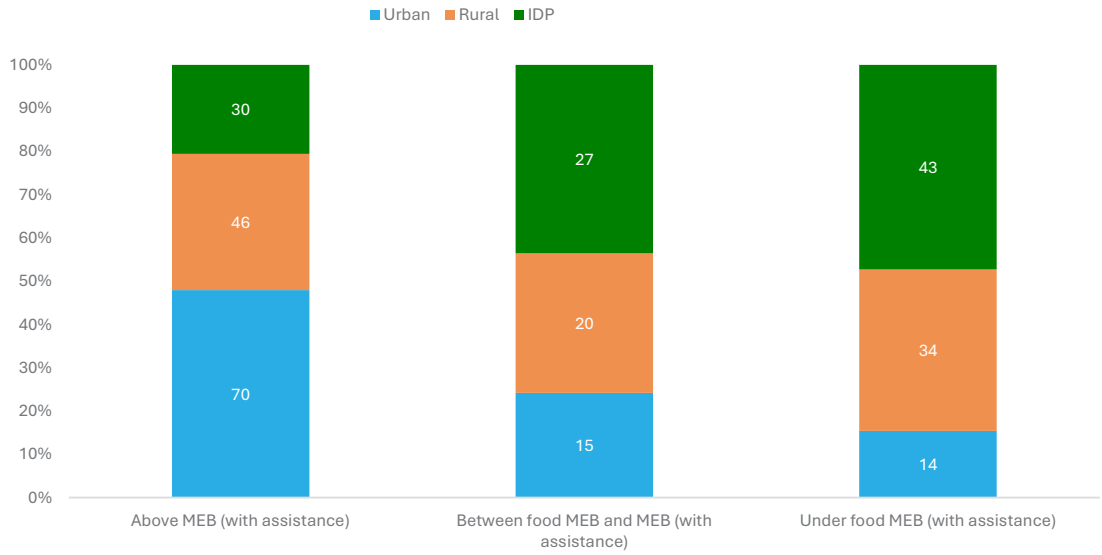


Figure 8.5 shows that humanitarian assistance contributes to improved economic capacity across all residence groups (See, Table 8.3 in the appendix). However, important gaps persist, particularly among displaced households. Despite assistance, 43 per cent of IDP households remain below the food MEB, compared with 34 per cent among rural households and 14 per cent among urban households. These findings indicate that humanitarian assistance partially improves household economic access to essential needs, although significant vulnerability remains among displaced and rural populations.

8.4. Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES)

The Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) is a globally validated experience-based measure developed by FAO. Unlike CARI and FCS, FIES provides the basis for estimating internationally comparable indicators of moderate or severe food insecurity and severe food insecurity under SDG Indicator 2.1.2. It measures people's lived experiences of constrained access to food due to a lack of money or other resources. In this report, FIES is used to complement CARI, ECMEN, HHS, and food consumption indicators by providing a global-standard measure of food insecurity prevalence.

The FIES captures the lived experiences of food insecurity associated with limited ability to obtain food due to lack of money or other resources through eight questions that cover a range of severity, from worrying about food availability to experiencing hunger. The analysis provides critical insights into the prevalence and severity of food insecurity across Somalia, disaggregated by region and place of residence. The FIES module uses eight standard questions to measure household experiences of food insecurity during the 12 months before the survey. The questions move from worrying about not having enough food to more severe experiences such as skipping meals or going a whole day without eating. This helps show the severity of constrained access to food.

In line with the recommended FIES methodology, the results are presented as probability-based prevalence estimates for two indicators: moderate or severe household food insecurity and severe household food insecurity. The analysis does not classify individual households into severity groups using raw-score cut-offs; instead, it estimates the share of households above the relevant FIES severity thresholds. Item-level results are not presented separately because individual items have limited discriminatory power on their own; the FIES is interpreted through the joint analysis of all eight items.

8.4.1. Key Findings

- At national level, approximately 44.3% (±2.2 per centage points) of households experienced moderate or severe food insecurity, meaning that they were forced to compromise on the quality and/or quantity of food consumed.
- Around 14.6% (±1.3 per centage points) of households experienced severe food insecurity, reflecting more serious experiences such as running out of food and, at worst, going a whole day without eating.
- FIES results vary strongly by residence. IDP households have the highest prevalence of both moderate or severe and severe food insecurity, followed by rural households, while urban households are comparatively better off.
- Regional differences are also important, with higher prevalence estimates in parts of south-central Somalia and lower estimates in several northern regions.

8.4.2. FIES Prevalence by Place of Residence

At national level, FIES shows that many households still experience food-related stress even when the most severe experiences are less common. Moderate or severe food insecurity captures households that had to compromise on food quality and/or quantity, while severe food insecurity reflects more serious hunger-related experiences.

By residence, the estimates show a clear vulnerability gradient. IDP households record the highest levels of food insecurity, followed by rural households, while urban households have lower prevalence. This pattern is consistent with other food security indicators in the report, which also show that displaced households face the greatest food security stress.

Table 8.6. Prevalence of household food insecurity based on FIES by place of residence and overall

Residence	Moderate or severe household food insecurity (%)	Severe household food insecurity (%)
IDP	69.0% (±5.0)	27,7% (±3.7)
Rural	49.0% (±4.6)	16.0% (±3.1)
Urban	34.6% (±2.5)	10.1% (±1.3)
Overall	44.3% (±2.2)	14.6% (±1.3)

Note: Estimates are weighted. National uncertainty intervals are shown in parentheses. Margins of error based on 90% confidence intervals and accounting for both sampling and measurement errors are reported in brackets.

8.4.3. FIES Prevalence by Region

Regional FIES results show that food insecurity is a national concern, but the level of food insecurity differs substantially by place. The highest moderate or severe household food insecurity estimates are observed in Middle Shabelle, Bakool, Lower Shabelle, Mudug, and Nugaal, while the lowest estimates are observed in Waqooyi Galbeed, Togdheer, and Awdal. Regional results should be read together with CARI, HHS, and ECMEN findings to identify where food access, affordability, and hunger is most severe.

Table 8.7. Prevalence of household food insecurity based on FIES by region

Region	Moderate or severe food insecurity (%)	Severe food insecurity (%)
Middle Shabelle	68.2 (±6.9)	21.3 (±5.9)
Bakool	60.5 (±8.4)	17.5 (±5.7)
Lower Shabelle	57.0 (±9.1)	22.5 (±6.4)
Mudug	54.8 (±8.8)	24.0 (±6.9)
Nugaal	55.2 (±7.6)	17.1 (±5.0)
Banadir	54.2 (±6.6)	18.4 (±4.3)
Lower Juba	54.0 (±6.9)	16.7 (±4.5)
Sanaag	51.1 (±8.5)	12.4 (±4.4)
Bari	51.4 (±7.6)	11.9 (±4.3)
Bay	50.8 (±7.5)	12.3 (±3.8)
Galgaduud	50.8 (±8.0)	15.4 (±4.8)
Sool	46.7 (±7.9)	25.8 (±6.1)
Hiraan	43.9 (±8.4)	12.5 (±4.8)
Gedo	30.3 (±6.3)	13.2 (±4.1)
Awdal	23.6 (±7.4)	7.2 (±4.2)
Togdheer	15.9 (±6.2)	5.1 (±3.1)
Waqooyi Galbeed	12.9 (±5.4)	3.6 (±2.8)

Note: Regions are ordered by the prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity. Estimates are weighted.

8.4.4. Comparison with Other Food Security Indicators

FIES complements CARI, HHS, FCS, and ECMEN because it measures the lived experience of constrained food access. When these indicators are read together, they show that food insecurity is driven by a mix of displacement, weak purchasing power, shocks, and limited resilience. FIES adds an experience-based perspective by showing how households report food-related stress and hunger over the 12 months before the survey.

A cross-indicator comparison reveals important areas of convergence and divergence. At residence-group level, the vulnerability gradient is consistent across all frameworks: IDPs are the most food insecure, followed by rural households, with urban households comparatively better positioned. This convergence across CARI, ECMEN, ENA, and FIES strengthens confidence in the finding and reduces the likelihood that any single indicator is driving a spurious result. However, the absolute magnitudes differ across indicators in ways that reflect methodological design rather than measurement error.

Overall, FIES confirms that food insecurity remains a major challenge in Somalia, with 44.3 per cent of households experiencing moderate or severe food insecurity and 14.6 per cent experiencing severe food insecurity at national level. The results point to two complementary needs: broad national action to reduce food insecurity and targeted support for the most vulnerable groups, especially IDPs and populations in high-burden regions of south-central Somalia. The probability-based FIES estimates should be used alongside CARI, HHS, FCS, and ECMEN to support geographic and residence-based targeting. with the understanding that each indicator captures a distinct dimension of food insecurity.

CHAPTER 9

HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

Humanitarian Assistance

This chapter examines the coverage, targeting, and distribution of humanitarian assistance across surveyed regions, with particular focus on cash-based transfers. The analysis assesses the proportion of households receiving assistance and variations in coverage across residence groups and regions. It also examines the distribution of transfer values among beneficiary households. The findings indicate that assistance coverage remains relatively limited and uneven across the country. Internally displaced households are more likely to receive assistance than rural and urban households, although important disparities persist across regions and transfer categories.

9.1 Cash-Based Assistance

Cash-based humanitarian assistance coverage remains limited across households. (See, Table 9.1 in the appendix). Overall, 7.5 per cent of households report receiving cash-based assistance. Coverage varies across residence groups. IDP households report the highest access at 12.9 per cent, followed by rural households at 7.4 per cent and urban households at 6.0 per cent. These findings indicate that displaced populations are more frequently targeted for assistance, although overall coverage remains limited relative to levels of vulnerability.

Transfer values are concentrated within the lower and middle transfer categories across all residence groups. The 51–100 USD category represents the largest share of transfers, particularly among IDP households at 56.9 per cent and rural households at 51.7 per cent. Urban households report a more diversified transfer distribution, with 17.7 per cent receiving transfers of 200 USD or more. These findings suggest that while cash assistance remains an important source of support for vulnerable households, transfer values and overall coverage vary considerably across residence groups.

Figure 9.1 Cash Assistance by Place of Residence

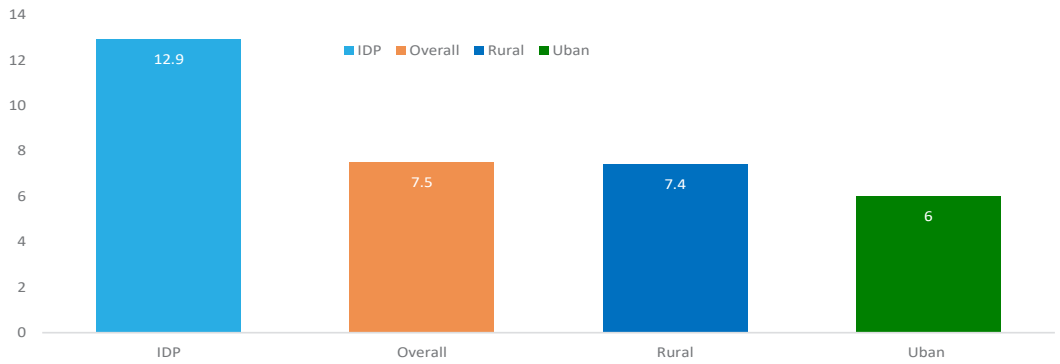
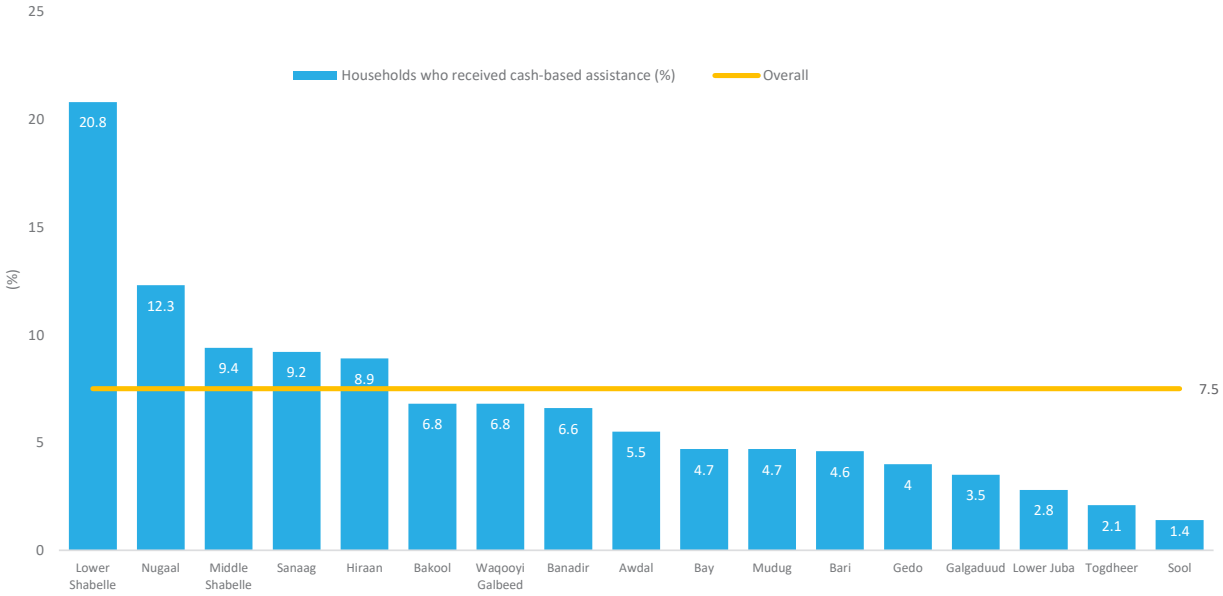


Figure 9.1 further illustrates differences in cash assistance coverage across residence groups (See, Table 9.1 in the appendix). IDP households consistently report higher levels of assistance receipt compared with rural and urban households. Urban households report the lowest overall coverage, although they also record comparatively higher shares of larger transfer values. Rural households remain concentrated within mid-range transfer categories. These patterns indicate that assistance targeting, and transfer distribution differ across settlement groups, reflecting variations in vulnerability profiles and household needs.

Figure 9.2 Cash Assistance by Region



Substantial regional disparities are observed in cash-based assistance coverage across the surveyed regions (See, Table 9.2 in the appendix). Lower Shabelle records the highest assistance coverage at 20.8 per cent, followed by Nugaal at 12.3 per cent, Middle Shabelle at 9.4 per cent, and Sanaag at 9.2 per cent. By contrast, Sool records the lowest coverage at 1.4 per cent, followed by Togdheer at 2.1 per cent and Lower Juba at 2.8 per cent. These findings indicate considerable geographic variation in the reach of assistance across regions.

Transfer size distribution also varies substantially. Togdheer records the highest concentration within the 1–50 USD category at 89.1 per cent, while Bakool records 91.2 per cent in the 51–100 USD category. By contrast, Banadir, Nugaal, and Sool record comparatively larger shares of transfers above 200 USD at 24.8 per cent, 24.3 per cent, and 33.8 per cent respectively. These findings suggest that both access to humanitarian assistance and transfer values remain uneven across Somalia. Regional disparities in assistance coverage and transfer distribution may influence household food access and economic capacity differently across regions.

CHAPTER 10

WASH AND INFRASTRUCTURE

Wash and Infrastructure

This chapter examines household access to essential services and infrastructure across surveyed regions in Somalia. The analysis covers sanitation, drinking water, cooking and lighting energy sources, safety perceptions, exposure to insecurity, health service access, financial inclusion, and household decision-making patterns. These indicators are important components of household well-being and food security, as they influence health conditions, resilience, livelihood opportunities, and overall living standards.

The findings indicate substantial disparities across residence groups and regions. Rural and internally displaced households continue to report comparatively weaker access to WASH services, clean energy, and health services, while urban households generally report stronger outcomes. Regional inequalities also remain pronounced across several indicators.

10. 1 Sanitation and Toilet Facilities

Sanitation conditions vary considerably across residence groups and regions. Overall, 64.1 per cent of households report using improved toilet facilities. Urban households record the highest access to improved sanitation at 72.7 per cent, followed by IDP households at 58.3 per cent and rural households at 51.3 per cent. Rural populations remain comparatively more dependent on unimproved sanitation facilities.

These findings indicate substantial differences in sanitation access across settlement groups. Lower access to improved sanitation among rural and displaced households may increase exposure to health and environmental risks that affect overall household well-being and food utilisation conditions.

Figure 10.1 Toilet facility by place of residence

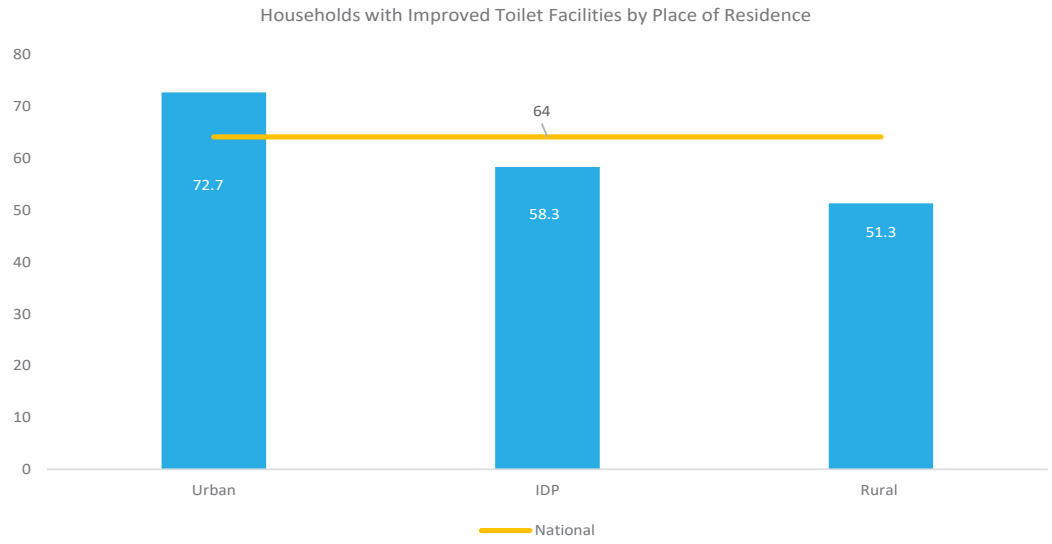
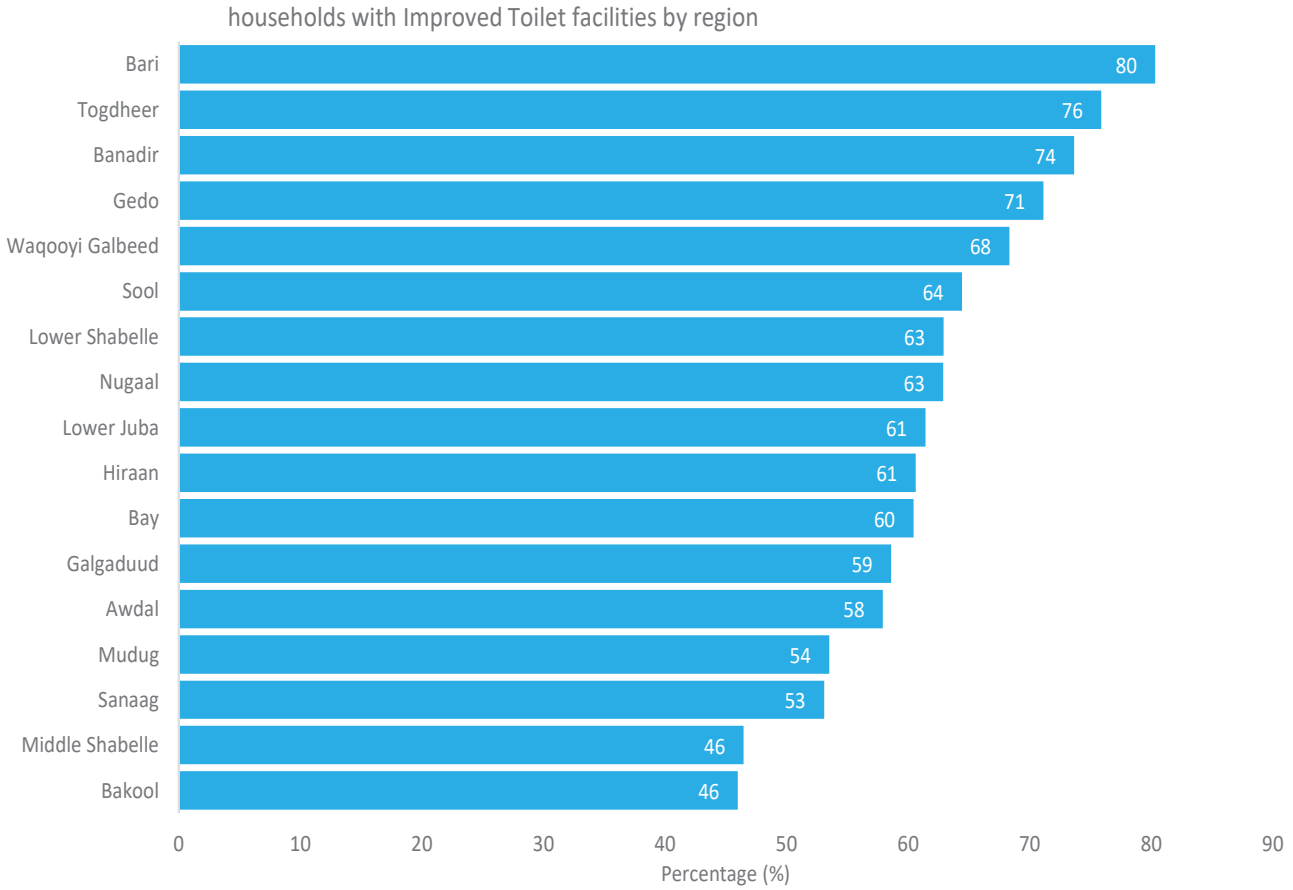


Figure 10.1 further illustrates disparities in sanitation access across residence groups. Urban households demonstrate comparatively stronger sanitation conditions, while rural households record the weakest access to improved facilities. IDP households remain positioned between rural and urban households, although important sanitation gaps persist among displaced populations. These patterns indicate continued inequalities in access to basic sanitation infrastructure across regions.

Figure 10.2 Toilet facility by region



Regional disparities in sanitation access are also substantial. Bari records the highest access to improved sanitation at 80 per cent, followed by Togdheer at 76 per cent and Banadir at 74 per cent.

By contrast, Bakool and Middle Shabelle record the weakest sanitation coverage at 46 per cent each, followed by Sanaag at 53 per cent. These findings indicate considerable geographic variation in access to improved sanitation services. Regions with lower sanitation coverage may face comparatively greater public health and environmental vulnerability pressures.

10.2 Access to Drinking Water

Access to safe drinking water remains uneven across residence groups and regions (See, Table 10.1 in the appendix). Overall, 55.6 per cent of households rely on piped or protected well water sources.

Urban households report the highest access at 68.3 per cent, compared with 47.8 per cent among IDP households and 36.3 per cent among rural households. Rural and displaced populations also report comparatively higher dependence on surface water sources at 23.1 per cent and 23 per cent respectively. These findings indicate substantial differences in access to safe water infrastructure across settlement groups. Greater dependence on surface water among rural and displaced populations may increase vulnerability to water-related health risks and environmental shocks.

Figure 10.3 Piped/protected well water source by place of residence

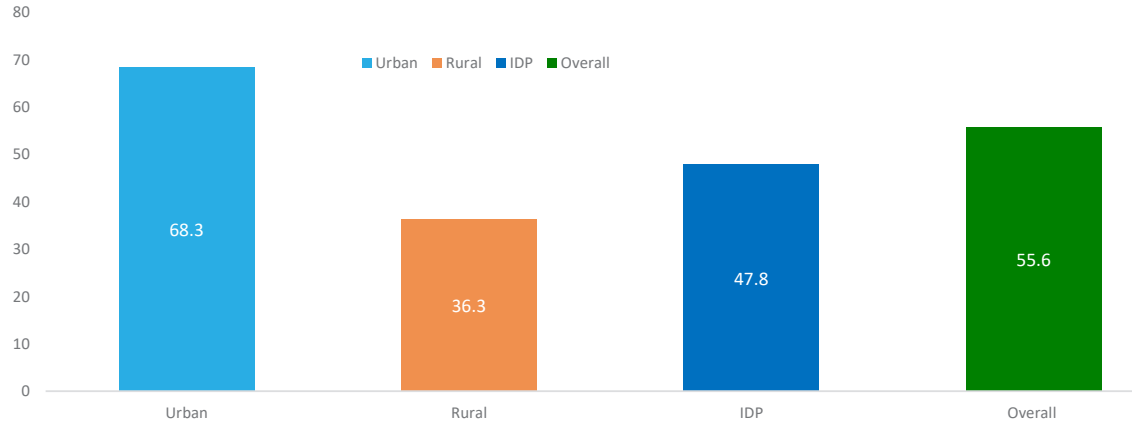


Figure 10.3 further highlights disparities in water access conditions across residence groups (See, Table 10.1 in the appendix). Urban households remain comparatively better connected to protected water infrastructure, while rural households report the lowest access. IDP households also continue to face important water access constraints relative to urban populations.

Regional disparities are also pronounced. Banadir records the highest access to piped or protected well water at 97.1 per cent, followed by Lower Shabelle at 86.9 per cent, Galgaduud at 76 per cent, and Awdal at 73 per cent. By contrast, Bakool records the highest dependence on unprotected wells at 84.5 per cent, while Sanaag and Sool report the highest reliance on surface water sources at 81 per cent and 71.1 per cent respectively. These findings indicate substantial geographic inequalities in water access infrastructure and service conditions.

10.3 Cooking Energy Source

Access to modern cooking energy remains limited across regions (See, Table 10.2 in the appendix). Overall, only 16.4 per cent of households report using modern cooking fuels. Urban households record the highest access to modern fuels at 23.7 per cent, while rural and IDP households each report only 7.5 per cent. Rural and displaced populations remain heavily dependent on wood and biomass fuels at 44 per cent and 46.9 per cent respectively. These findings indicate substantial differences in household energy access across residence groups. Greater dependence on traditional fuels among rural and displaced populations may increase exposure to environmental and health-related risks.

Figure 10.4 Modern cooking energy by place of residence

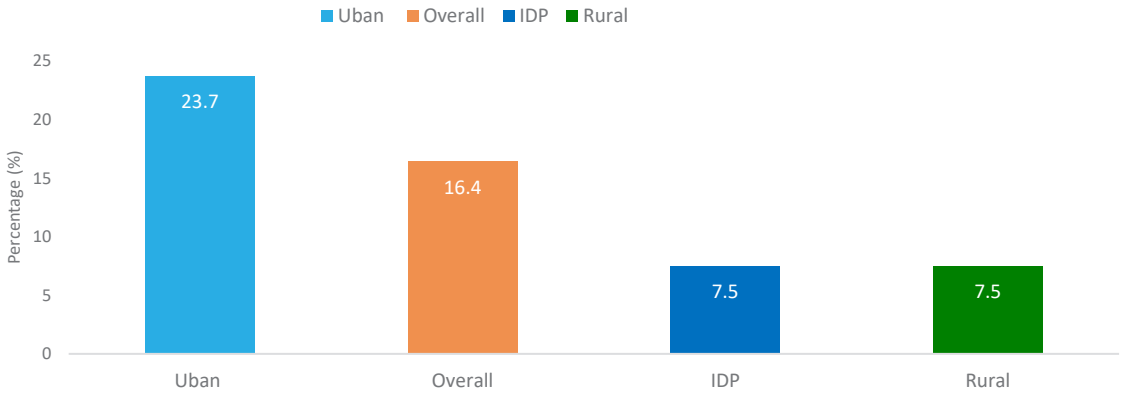


Figure 10.4 further illustrates disparities in cooking energy access across residence groups (See, Table 10.2 in the appendix). Urban households report comparatively greater use of modern fuels, while rural and IDP households remain highly dependent on biomass and charcoal.

Regional disparities are also considerable. Bari records the highest use of modern fuels at 58.1 per cent, followed by Waqooyi Galbeed at 33.7 per cent and Awdal at 24.3 per cent. By contrast, Bakool records the lowest reliance on modern fuels at 1.7 per cent, followed by Gedo at 2.5 per cent and Middle Shabelle at 2.8 per cent. Hiraan and Middle Shabelle also record the highest dependence on wood and biomass fuels at 54.7 per cent and 54.8 per cent respectively. These findings indicate substantial geographic variation in household cooking energy access and fuel dependence. Additionally, the findings also indicate differences in infrastructure access, household economic conditions, and availability of modern energy services across settlement groups.

10.4 Lighting Energy Source

Lighting energy sources remain an important indicator of household infrastructure and economic conditions (See, Table 10.3 in the appendix). Overall, electricity and solar energy account for 76.1 per cent of household lighting sources. Urban households record the highest reliance on electricity and solar energy at 89 per cent, followed by rural households at 62.7 per cent and IDP households at 55.9 per cent. These differences indicate substantial inequalities in household access to modern lighting services. Urban households continue to report comparatively stronger infrastructure conditions, while rural and displaced populations face comparatively weaker access.

Figure 10.5 Electricity/Solar for lighting by place of residence

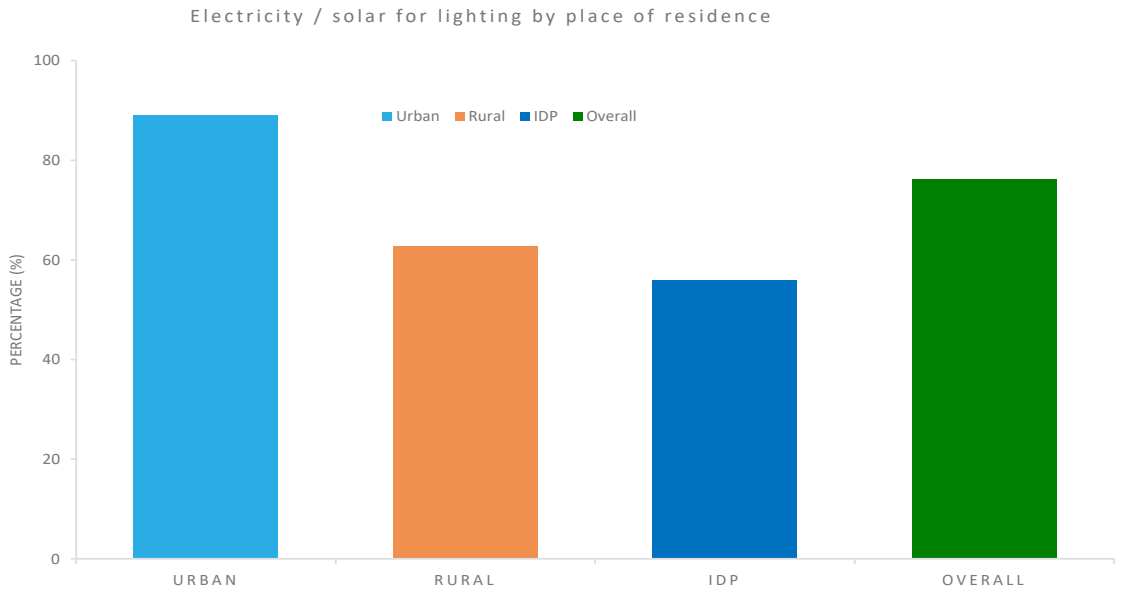


Figure 10.5 further illustrates differences in household lighting sources across residence groups (See, Table 10.3 in the appendix). Rural and displaced populations remain more dependent on torches and alternative lighting sources than urban households.

Regional disparities are also substantial. Waqooyi Galbeed records the highest reliance on electricity and solar energy at 95.9 per cent, followed by Banadir at 93 per cent and Lower Shabelle at 87.2 per cent. By contrast, Bakool records the lowest access at 21 per cent, with 65.8 per cent of households relying on torches or flashlights. Galgaduud also records comparatively lower access to electricity and solar energy at 47.6 per cent. These findings indicate significant geographic inequalities in household lighting infrastructure and energy access.

10.5 Household Safety Perception

Perceptions of safety remain generally high across Somalia (See, Table 10.4 in the appendix). Overall, 95.9 per cent of households report feeling safe. IDP households record the highest perception of safety at 97.7 per cent, followed by rural households at 96.1 per cent and urban households at 95.3 per cent. These findings suggest that perceived security conditions remain relatively stable across residence groups.

Figure 10.6 Households feeling safe by place of residence

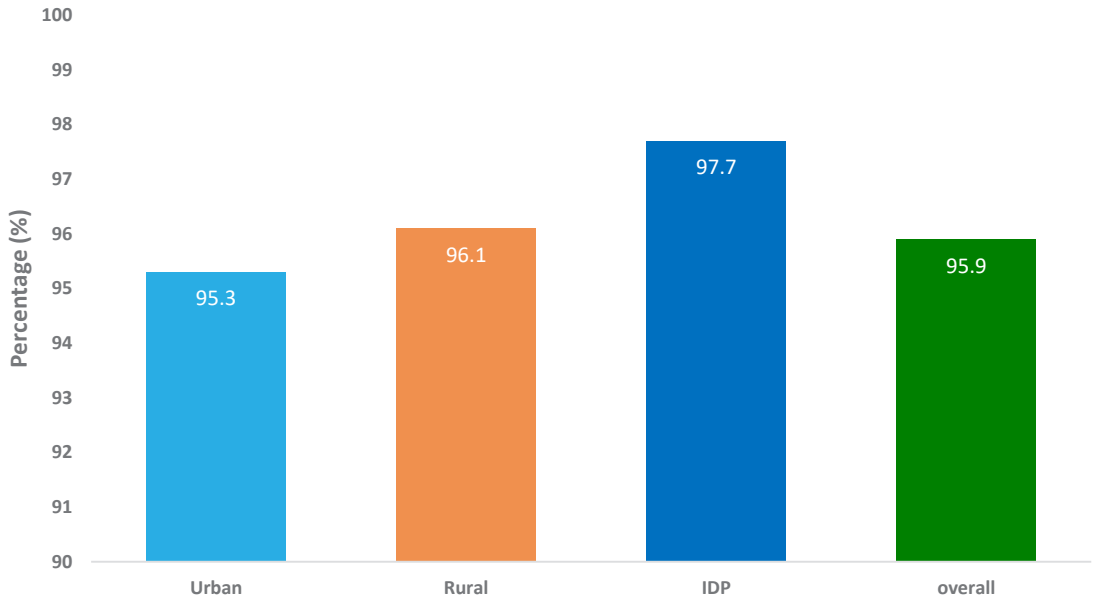


Figure 10.6 further highlights household safety perceptions across residence groups (See, Table 10.4 in the appendix). Although perceptions remain broadly positive overall, some regional variation remains evident.

Sanaag, Waqooyi Galbeed, Awdal, and Bari report the highest levels of perceived safety, all above 99 per cent. By contrast, Hiraan records the lowest perception of safety at 85.1 per cent, followed by Togdheer at 90.1 per cent and Lower Shabelle at 92.7 per cent. These findings indicate that localised differences in perceived safety conditions remain evident across some regions.

10.6 Household Exposure to Insecurity

Household exposure to insecurity or violence remains relatively limited overall, although important regional differences are observed. (See, Table 10.5 in the appendix). Overall, 4.6 per cent of households report exposure to insecurity or violence during the previous year. IDP households record the highest exposure at 6.2 per cent, followed by rural households at 4.3 per cent and urban households at 4.2 per cent. These findings indicate comparatively higher exposure among displaced populations.

Figure 10.7 Violence exposure by place of residence

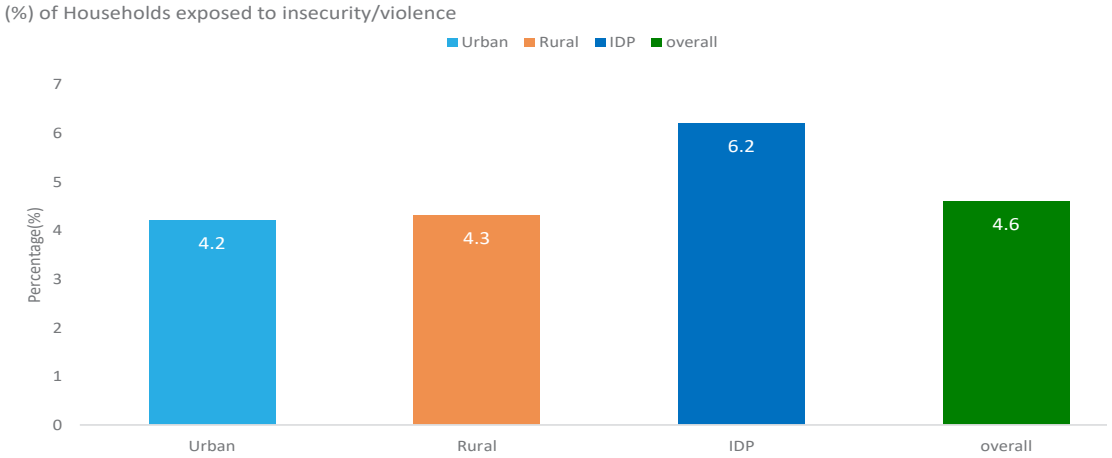


Figure 10.7 further illustrates differences in household exposure to insecurity across residence groups (See, Table 10.5 in the appendix). Regional disparities remain pronounced. Lower Shabelle records the highest exposure at 13.2 per cent, followed by Nugaal at 10.4 per cent and Hiraan at 8.9 per cent. Banadir and Lower Juba also report comparatively elevated exposure levels. By contrast, Awdal, Togdheer, and Galgaduud report very low levels of exposure to insecurity or violence. These findings indicate that insecurity exposure remains geographically concentrated within a limited number of regions.

Figure 10.8 Household decision-making on assistance and income use

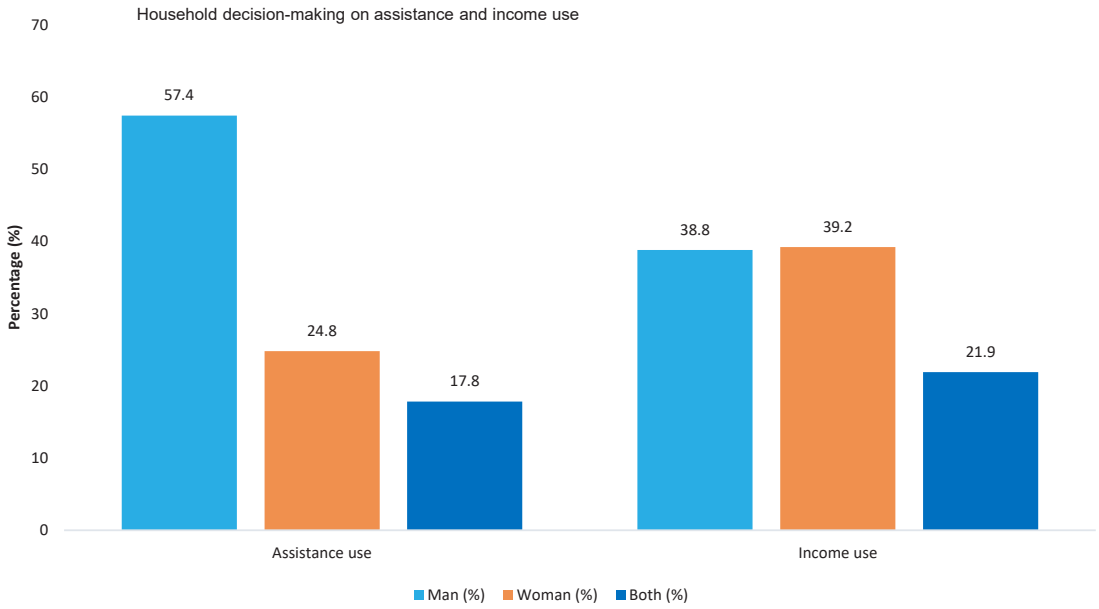


Figure 10.8 illustrates decision-making authority over assistance use and household income by gender. Men account for 57.4 per cent of decisions related to assistance use, while women account for 24.8 per cent and joint decision-making for 17.8 per cent. Income use decisions are comparatively more balanced. Women account for 39.2 per cent of decisions, men for 38.8 per cent, and joint decision-making for 21.9 per cent.

These findings indicate differences in household decision-making patterns between assistance management and income use. Decision-making over assistance remains predominantly male-controlled, while earned income decisions appear relatively more evenly distributed between men and women.

10.7 Household Socio-Economic Well-Being and Security Indicators

Access to basic services and financial inclusion remains relatively widespread overall, although disparities persist across residence groups. (See, Table 10.6 in the appendix). Overall, 39.1 per cent of households report being unable to access needed health services, while 91.7 per cent report access to financial services and 96.4 per cent report feeling safe.

IDP households report the highest barriers to health access at 50.7 per cent and the highest exposure to insecurity at 7.0 per cent. Rural households also report elevated health access constraints at 41.9 per cent, compared with 35.4 per cent among urban households. Differences by sex of household head remain relatively limited. Female-headed households report slightly lower exposure to insecurity but slightly higher barriers to health service access. These findings indicate that health access constraints remain an important component of household vulnerability, particularly among displaced and rural populations.

Figure 10.9 Household Socio-Economic Well-Being and Security Indicators by place of residence

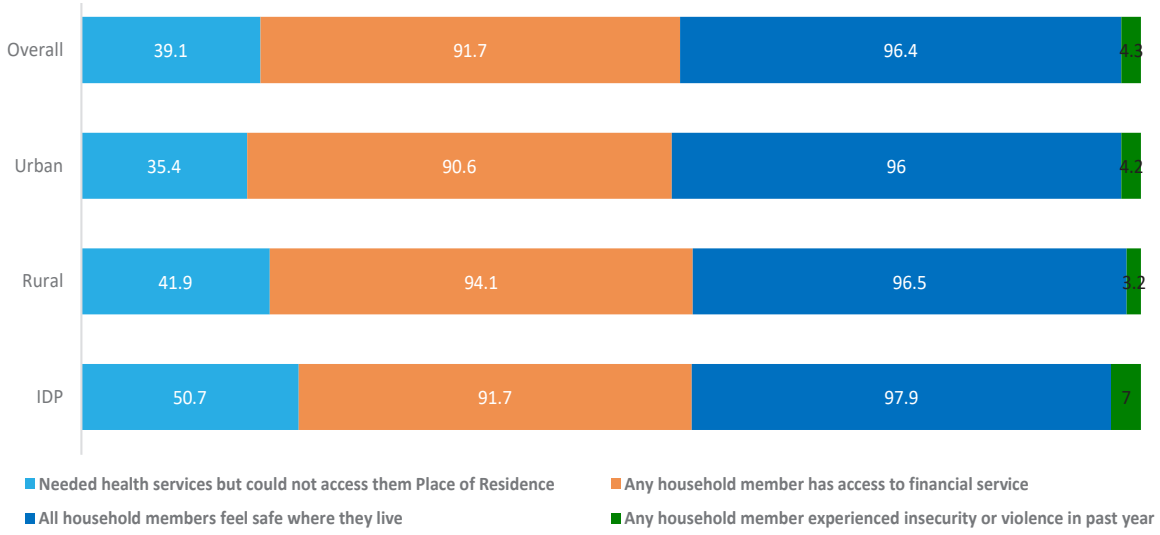
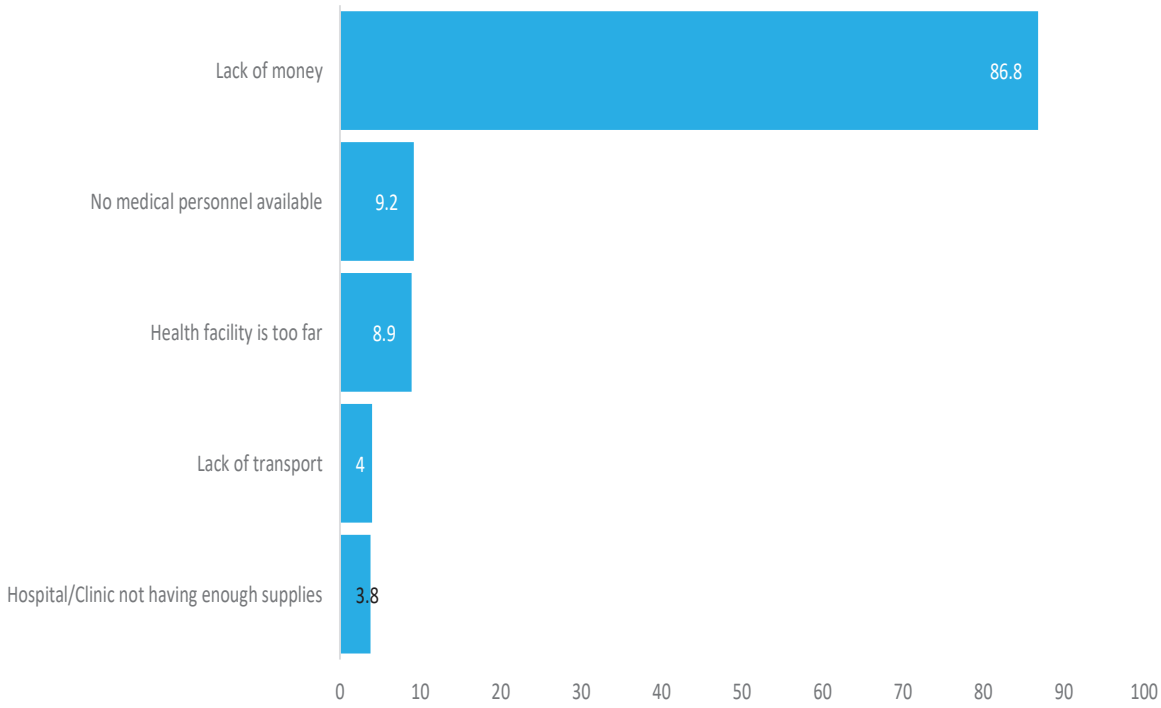


Figure 10.9 further illustrates disparities in household access to services across residence groups (See, Table 10.6 in the appendix). Financial inclusion and perceptions of safety remain generally high across all groups, while barriers to health service access remain comparatively elevated. IDP households continue to report the weakest outcomes across several indicators, particularly in relation to health access and insecurity exposure. These findings suggest continued inequalities in access to essential services and household well-being conditions.

10.8 Main Reason for Unmet Access to Health Services

Economic barriers remain the primary constraint to health service access across Somalia (See, Table 10.7 in the appendix). Overall, 86.8 per cent of households report lack of money as the main reason for unmet health needs. Other reported barriers include lack of medical personnel at 9.2 per cent, long distance to facilities at 8.9 per cent, lack of transport at 4.0 per cent, and insufficient medical supplies at 3.8 per cent.

Figure 10.10. Main Reported Reasons for Unmet Access to Health Services



These findings indicate that affordability remains the dominant obstacle to health service access, while infrastructure and service availability constraints also continue to affect some households.

CHAPTER 11

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1 Conclusion

The Somalia Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) 2026 confirms that food insecurity and household vulnerability remain widespread across Somalia and are driven by a combination of structural poverty, climatic shocks, displacement, weak livelihood systems, and limited access to essential services. Although a large proportion of households continue to maintain acceptable food consumption levels, the findings show that many households are doing so under increasingly fragile conditions characterised by high market dependence, declining purchasing power, indebtedness, and limited resilience capacity.

The assessment demonstrates that food security in Somalia cannot be understood through food consumption indicators alone. The combined analysis of CARI, ENA, ECMEN, coping strategies, and access to basic services reveals that a significant share of households remain vulnerable to further deterioration even where food consumption outcomes appear relatively stable. Nearly one-third of households are classified as food insecure under the CARI framework, while many more fall within marginally food secure or economically vulnerable categories. Vulnerability is particularly severe among internally displaced persons (IDPs) and rural populations, where food insecurity overlaps with poor access to health services, sanitation, water, financial resources, and livelihood opportunities.

The findings further confirm the central role of recurrent shocks in shaping Somalia's food security situation. Drought remains the leading driver of displacement and livelihood disruption, while insecurity, floods, and economic shocks continue to erode household resilience. The widespread use of stress and crisis coping strategies indicates that many households are already compromising consumption quality, reducing expenditure on essential services, or depleting productive assets to manage shortfalls. Protracted displacement remains a defining feature of vulnerability, particularly among IDP populations who continue to experience the most severe food security and economic constraints.

The assessment also highlights the importance of economic access and market functionality. Somali households rely heavily on markets for food acquisition, making them highly exposed to inflation, food price increases, and income fluctuations. A substantial proportion of households remain below the Minimum Expenditure Basket (MEB), indicating that many cannot meet minimum food and non-food needs without support. While humanitarian assistance continues to play a protective role, the scale and persistence of vulnerability demonstrate the need for longer-term resilience-oriented interventions alongside emergency assistance.

Overall, the CFSVA 2026 shows that Somalia's food security challenges are both humanitarian and structural. Sustainable improvements in food security will require integrated approaches that strengthen livelihoods, improve economic resilience, expand access to basic services, support climate adaptation, and reinforce national food security monitoring systems. The assessment provides an important evidence base for policy formulation, humanitarian planning, resilience programming, and monitoring progress toward national development priorities.

11.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the Somalia CFSVA 2026, the following recommendations are proposed:

Strengthen government-led integrated security, nutrition, and IPC monitoring systems.

The government should continue strengthening nationally led food security and nutrition monitoring systems, including government-led IPC data collection, analysis, and coordination mechanisms. Increased investment is needed to strengthen the technical, operational, and institutional capacity of government institutions, particularly the Somalia National Bureau of Statistics (SNBS), to lead integrated food security assessments, IPC analysis, nutrition surveillance, market monitoring, climate and shock monitoring, and early warning systems in collaboration with national and international partners. This will support timely detection of emerging crises, strengthen anticipatory action and response planning, and improve evidence-based policymaking for humanitarian, resilience, and development programming in Somalia.

Strengthen targeted food and cash assistance programmes

Humanitarian assistance should continue prioritising households facing overlapping food insecurity and essential needs vulnerability, particularly IDP and rural households. Assistance mechanisms should remain responsive to changing market conditions and seasonal shocks.

Enhance livelihood resilience and climate adaptation

Investments should focus on strengthening climate-resilient livelihoods through improved agricultural production, livestock support, irrigation systems, fisheries development, rangeland management, and diversified income-generating activities. Expanding climate adaptation and disaster preparedness measures is critical given the recurrent nature of droughts and floods.

Improve economic access and household purchasing power

Programmes aimed at increasing household incomes, employment opportunities, and market participation should be strengthened, particularly for youth, women, and displaced populations. Continuous monitoring and calibration of cash transfer values against MEB thresholds and market prices should be maintained to preserve household purchasing power.

Expand social protection systems

Shock-responsive social protection systems should be strengthened and expanded to support vulnerable households during periods of crisis. Greater integration between humanitarian assistance and national social protection programmes will be important for improving sustainability and reducing chronic vulnerability.

Improve access to basic services

Increased investment is needed in water, sanitation, hygiene (WASH), health, education, energy, and financial services, especially in rural and displacement-affected areas. Improving access to these services will contribute directly to household well-being, nutrition, and resilience.

Support durable solutions for displaced populations

Given the high prevalence of protracted displacement, greater emphasis should be placed on durable solutions that improve housing, livelihoods, social services, and economic integration for displaced households and host communities.

Promote integrated humanitarian-development approaches

Food security interventions should increasingly adopt integrated approaches linking humanitarian response with resilience, recovery, and development programming. Stronger coordination among government institutions, humanitarian actors, and development partners will be essential to address the structural drivers of food insecurity and vulnerability in Somalia.

Appendices

Table 3.1. Household population by age group, sex, and place of residence

Age group	IDP			Rural			Urban			National		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
<5	15.6	17.4	16.5	14.7	16.5	15.6	10.5	11.8	11.1	12.2	13.8	13
5-9	19.8	19	19.4	17	19.4	18.2	13	15.1	14	14.9	16.7	15.7
10-14	13.6	17.8	15.7	13.7	14.5	14.1	12.6	14.6	13.6	13	15	14
15-19	10.4	10.7	10.5	10.1	10.6	10.4	13.3	13.4	13.3	12.1	12.3	12.2
20-24	7	5.8	6.4	8.6	5.3	6.9	10.5	8.6	9.6	9.6	7.4	8.5
25-29	8.2	5.4	6.8	8.9	6.3	7.6	10.4	7.7	9.1	9.7	7	8.4
30-34	4.9	4.7	4.8	6.5	6.4	6.5	6.1	6.1	6.1	6	6	6
35-39	6.7	3.7	5.2	6.5	4.7	5.6	6.5	5.3	5.9	6.6	4.9	5.8
40-44	4.3	5.2	4.8	3.6	4.6	4.1	4.1	4.5	4.3	4.1	4.6	4.3
45-49	3.1	2.7	2.9	2.8	3.2	3	3.6	3.1	3.4	3.3	3.1	3.2
50-54	1.9	2.4	2.1	2.5	3.4	2.9	2.9	3.5	3.2	2.7	3.3	3
55-59	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.1	1	1.1	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.5	1.5
60-64	1.3	1.8	1.6	1.3	2	1.6	1.7	2	1.8	1.5	2	1.8
65+	2	2	2	2.7	2.1	2.4	3	2.5	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.6
Dependency age group												
0-14	49	54.2	51.6	45.4	50.4	47.9	36.1	41.5	38.6	40.1	45.5	42.7
15-64	49	43.7	46.4	51.9	47.4	49.7	60.9	56	58.6	57.1	52.1	54.7
65+	2	2	2	2.7	2.1	2.4	3	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.6
Child and adult group												
0-17	55.7	61.5	58.5	52	56.8	54.3	44	50	46.9	47.5	53.3	50.3
18+	44.3	38.5	41.5	48	43.2	45.7	56	50	53.1	52.5	46.7	49.7
Adolescents												
Adolescents 10-19	24	28.5	26.2	23.8	25.1	24.4	25.9	28	26.9	25.1	27.3	26.2

Table 3.2. Percentage of adults (15 years and above) who are literate, by background characteristics

Background characteristic	Male	Female	Total
15-19	81.4	73.5	77.4
20-24	76.8	64.3	69.5
25-29	71.0	52.6	59.9
30-34	64.9	41.7	52.8
35-39	63.4	34.1	46.0
40-44	53.4	27.0	40.6
45-49	52.1	29.4	39.9
50-54	51.0	25.0	38.9
55-59	51.5	20.7	35.6
60-64	48.3	15.2	33.2
65-69	35.2	11.1	21.4
70-74	33.9	8.6	21.2
75-79	49.1	8.2	22.4
80+	27.1	5.4	14.2
Youth			
15-24	79.7	69.5	74.1
Place of Residence			
IDP	50.2	28.8	38.7
Rural	53.4	34.3	43.2
Urban	73.2	55.0	63.3
Regions			
Awdal	61.6	45.3	52.7
Bakool	44.2	27.4	35.9
Banadir	74.7	54.2	63.4
Bari	66.6	49.2	56.7
Bay	61.5	33.4	47.0
Galgaduud	59.7	40.6	49.2
Gedo	57.7	42.5	49.8
Hiraan	50.5	25.9	37.6
Lower Juba	61.8	41.1	50.5
Lower Shabelle	53.9	38.5	45.6
Middle Shabelle	59.2	25.9	42.9
Mudug	69.9	57.2	62.6
Nugaal	82.3	63.0	71.9
Sanaag	73.7	54.8	62.9
Sool	71.0	55.8	62.8
Togdheer	63.6	51.3	57.1
Waqooyi Galbeed	80.6	62.9	70.8
Total	**66.0**	**47.5**	**56.0**

1 Refers to household members who can read or write a whole sentence or part of a sentence in any language.

Table 3.3. Displacement duration by place of residence

Category	1-3 Months	4-6 Months	7-12 Months	1-3 Years	4-5 Years	Over 5 Years
Urban	5.1	16.3	17.8	27.3	16.6	16.9
Rural	0.0	6.4	0.0	0.0	35.3	58.3
IDP	3.5	4.9	4.5	24.1	18.1	44.9
Displacement duration by region						
Awdal	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bakool	4.3	0.9	3.4	24.3	25.5	41.7
Banadir	3.8	11.6	8.8	39.2	13.2	23.4
Bari	4.7	0.0	1.8	9.5	5.8	78.3
Bay	4.7	7.5	11.5	38.9	22.2	15.2
Galgaduud	2.5	5.8	6.6	26.8	20.4	37.9
Gedo	2.1	3.1	2.4	26.9	36.9	28.7
Hiraan	7.0	9.1	4.1	38.3	20.9	20.6
Lower Juba	2.8	3.4	11.3	13.8	23.0	45.8
Lower Shabelle	8.8	9.9	4.8	34.2	28.2	14.1
Middle Shabelle	2.3	0.0	1.1	2.3	6.8	87.5
Mudug	1.4	2.7	0.7	8.2	10.2	76.9
Nugaal	3.1	2.1	0.0	6.2	13.1	75.4
Sanaag	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Sool	0.0	51.9	0.0	48.1	0.0	0.0
Togdheer	0.0	0.0	1.2	21.5	26.4	50.9
Waqooyi Galbeed	0.0	1.5	0.0	6.8	17.5	74.2
Overall	**4.0**	**5.4**	**5.5**	**25.4**	**19.0**	**40.7**

Table 3.4. Displacement reasons by place of residence

Category	Insecurity	Drought	Eviction	Clan conflicts	Floods / fires	Loss of livelihoods	Other
Urban	31.7	38.7	0	1.6	6.2	21.9	0
Rural	29.3	6.7	0	0	0	6.4	57.6
IDP	29.8	45	2.6	3.3	2.9	11.2	5.2
Region							
Awdal	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bakool	19.5	78.7	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Banadir	34.2	55.3	2.0	0.9	1.9	4.0	1.8
Bari	53.8	15.4	1.9	2.6	0.0	16.1	10.2
Bay	15.3	80.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	0.0
Galgaduud	53.9	36.8	0.8	1.7	0.0	1.7	5.0
Gedo	50.3	44.6	0.0	2.3	0.0	2.9	0.0
Hiraan	32.6	44.3	0.0	1.0	4.1	12.0	6.0
Lower Juba	31.7	45.0	0.0	3.5	10.7	8.5	0.6
Lower Shabelle	24.6	63.4	0.0	1.8	7.1	1.0	2.1
Middle Shabelle	36.4	10.2	0.0	33.3	15.6	4.5	0.0
Mudug	29.3	36.7	0.7	4.1	6.8	15.6	6.8
Nugaal	31.0	16.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	35.9	16.5
Sanaag	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sool	48.1	0.0	0.0	51.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
Togdheer	1.2	53.4	4.2	0.0	0.0	33.7	7.4
Waqooyi Galbeed	6.3	13.1	17.4	8.7	2.9	23.9	27.6
Overall	**28.5**	**46.5**	**2.6**	**3.6**	**3.3**	**11.3**	**4.3**

Table 3.5. Prevalence of chronic illness and disability by background characteristics (%)

Background characteristic	Chronic illness (%)	Disability (%)
Age group (years)		
0-4	0.8	6.0
5-9	1.1	6.3
10-14	1.3	3.8
15-19	1.3	4.0
20-24	2.0	4.7
25-29	1.8	6.1
30-34	3.5	6.0
35-39	5.5	7.1
40-44	9.8	11.8
45-49	10.4	12.6
50-54	19.0	22.6
55-59	23.6	26.9
60-64	28.6	34.5
65-69	34.7	43.0
70-74	45.7	63.9
75-79	41.0	72.1
80+	51.5	78.2
Place of residence		
IDP	4.3	7.7
Rural	3.1	5.8
Urban	5.5	10.0
Sex		
Male	5.3	9.3
Female	4.1	8.0
Region		
Awdal	5.3	6.4
Bakool	1.9	4.4
Banadir	6.4	11.0
Bari	5.5	5.1
Bay	3.2	14.5
Galgaduud	2.6	5.5
Gedo	1.7	2.6
Hiraan	2.6	6.9
Lower Juba	4.7	8.0
Lower Shabelle	4.6	6.7
Middle Shabelle	3.7	7.0
Mudug	4.7	4.2
Nugaal	6.2	8.0
Sanaag	7.0	8.3
Sool	6.2	6.5
Togdheer	2.4	6.0
Waqooyi Galbeed	7.2	18.7
Total	**4.7**	**8.7**

Table 3.6. Disability Type by background characteristics

Background characteristic	Walking /climbing	Remembering/concentrating	Hearing	Seeing	Communication	Self-care	Anxiety/depression
Age group (years)							
0-4	2.8	3	1	0.7	3.5	7.8	3.7
5-9	2.8	2.8	1.6	2.4	4	6.7	4.8
10-14	1.6	1.7	1.5	2	2.1	1.8	2.5
15-19	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.3	1.1	1.1	1.8
20-24	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.8	1	1.1	2.3
25-29	1.3	0.8	1.2	2.7	0.8	1	2
30-34	1.1	0.8	0.9	1.8	0.6	0.6	1.7
35-39	1.8	1.2	1	2	1	0.8	1.6
40-44	2.4	1.1	1.3	3	0.9	0.7	1.4
45-49	2.3	0.8	0.9	2.3	0.5	0.4	1.1
50-54	3.6	1.2	1.6	4.4	1	0.8	1.7
55-59	2.3	1	1.2	2.9	0.6	0.5	0.9
60-64	4.4	1.3	2.3	4.3	1.2	0.9	1.1
65-69	3.1	1.4	1	2.9	0.8	0.9	0.7
70-74	4.9	2.5	2.9	4.9	1.9	1.8	1.9
75-79	1.9	0.8	1.3	2.2	0.6	0.8	0.5
80+	3.8	2.6	2.4	3.5	2	2.5	1.8
Sex							
Male	25.8	13.9	13.7	27.5	12.6	16	17.4
Female	16.7	11.1	10.7	18.6	11	14.4	13.8
Place of residence							
IDP	5	3.1	2.5	4.2	3.3	4.6	3.7
Rural	6.8	3.6	4.2	8.2	3.7	4.5	3.3
Urban	30.7	18.2	17.7	33.6	16.7	21.3	24.2
Region							
Awdal	1.8	1.2	0.9	1.8	1	1	1.4
Bakool	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3
Banadir	9.2	5.8	3.6	8.8	5.9	8	8.5
Bari	2	0.8	0.9	1.9	0.7	0.7	0.7
Bay	6.2	5.9	5.4	5.7	5.2	6	6.4
Galgaduud	1.3	0.6	0.7	1.1	0.5	0.7	0.6
Gedo	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2
Hiraan	1.2	0.3	0.9	1.7	0.5	1.9	0.5
Lower Juba	1.6	0.8	0.8	1.1	0.8	1.4	1
Lower Shabelle	2.9	1.6	1.1	2.9	1.3	1.3	1.4
Middle Shabelle	1.7	0.8	1	2	0.7	0.9	1.1
Mudug	1.4	0.5	0.6	1.5	0.6	0.9	0.7
Nugaal	1.6	0.6	0.8	1.5	0.6	1	0.7
Sanaag	2.1	1.4	1.1	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.2
Sool	0.9	0.4	0.5	1	0.3	0.5	0.3
Togdheer	1.7	0.5	0.8	1.8	0.5	1.2	0.5
Waqooyi Galbeed	5.5	2.9	4.3	10.7	3.3	3.1	5.8
Overall	**42.5**	**25**	**24.4**	**46.1**	**23.6**	**30.3**	**31.2**

TABLE 4.2. COMMUNITY AND MARKET ACCESS INDICATORS BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

	IDP	Rural	Urban	Overall
Community accessible by vehicle year-round	85	79	86	**84**
Market accessible year-round	82	60	87	**79**
Any market challenge reported	22	32	12	**19**
Access becomes difficult during part of the year	37	49	29	**35**
Nearest motorable road <15 minutes	57	46	73	**64**
Nearest motorable road >1 hour	4	13	2	**5**
Market goods rated good or excellent	41	44	54	**50**
Market goods rated poor quality	4	8	2	**4**

Table 5.1: Main source of Income by region

	workers and employers	employees	Professionals	elementary occupations	employment — transfer income	workers — crop production	workers — livestock	classified
Awdal	35.4	9.2	11.1	26.4	6.7	6.7	2.8	1.7
Bakool	28.3	5.1	7.1	30.1	3.6	21.5	3.4	0.9
Banadir	33.9	6.7	9.2	37	11.9	0.4	0	0.9
Bari	41.6	6.1	8.3	28.8	10.3	2.5	0.7	1.6
Bay	30.7	5.7	7.3	33.6	8.7	9.3	1.4	3.3
Galgaduud	20.2	3.2	19.2	25.8	14.7	1.6	13.5	1.8
Gedo	51.8	8	2	27.2	5.2	2.9	2.5	0.4
Hiraan	35.9	3.6	4.5	30.9	5.8	14.2	1.8	3.3
Lower_Juba	39.4	3.9	8.3	25.1	7.1	9.7	1.9	4.4
Lower_Shabelle	30.4	4.7	11.9	26.3	11.3	13.3	0.7	1.4
Middle_Shabelle	19.5	0.7	10.5	25.9	2.3	38	2.8	0.3
Mudug	30.4	3.2	3.8	42.2	13.9	1.2	2.4	2.7
Nugaal	37.1	7.7	6	31.6	10.3	4.5	1.7	1.1
Sanaag	39.7	11.1	9.7	16.7	19.6	0.2	2.6	0.4
Sool	42.3	3.1	7.9	17.8	19.6	1.4	5	2.9
Togdheer	48.4	16.6	4.8	12.5	13	2.5	0.5	1.7
Waqooyi_Galbeed	48.2	22.5	6.2	7.8	10.5	1.7	0.5	2.6
Total	**34.1**	**9.4**	**9.7**	**28.8**	**6.4**	**7.7**	**2.1**	**1.7**

Table 5.2. Household income change over the past 12 months by place of residence

Category	more than 50.0%)	more	Same	less	as much)	answer	Know
IDP	1.0	12.0	45.0	31.0	10.0	0.0	2.0
Rural	2.0	11.0	48.0	30.0	8.0	0.0	2.0
Urban	4.0	17.0	51.0	20.0	7.0	0.0	2.0
Region							
Awdal	4.0	23.0	55.0	16.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
Bakool	1.0	9.0	23.0	48.0	16.0	0.0	4.0
Banadir	1.0	12.0	58.0	20.0	9.0	0.0	0.0
Bari	3.0	21.0	33.0	24.0	18.0	0.0	1.0
Bay	4.0	9.0	50.0	25.0	10.0	0.0	2.0
Galgaduud	2.0	13.0	51.0	22.0	9.0	0.0	3.0
Gedo	4.0	13.0	23.0	44.0	17.0	0.0	0.0
Hiraan	5.0	10.0	46.0	34.0	4.0	0.0	2.0
Lower Juba	3.0	21.0	44.0	24.0	6.0	0.0	1.0
Lower Shabelle	6.0	15.0	55.0	19.0	3.0	1.0	2.0
Middle Shabelle	5.0	14.0	38.0	33.0	10.0	0.0	0.0
Mudug	0.0	12.0	54.0	29.0	6.0	0.0	0.0
Nugaal	1.0	11.0	36.0	36.0	17.0	0.0	0.0
Sanaag	2.0	7.0	44.0	31.0	16.0	0.0	1.0
Sool	4.0	11.0	56.0	18.0	10.0	0.0	1.0
Togdheer	2.0	16.0	57.0	17.0	3.0	0.0	5.0
Waqooyi Galbeed	1.0	18.0	59.0	16.0	4.0	0.0	3.0
Overall	**3.0**	**14.0**	**49.0**	**24.0**	**8.0**	**0.0**	**2.0**

TABLE 6.1 HOUSEHOLD DIETARY DIVERSITY SCORE (HDDS) BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND REGION

Category	Minimal-Stressed (>4)	Crisis (3-4)	Emergency-Catastrophe (0-2)
Urban	95.0	3.0	1.0
Rural	95.0	4.0	1.0
IDP	96.0	4.0	1.0
Region			
Awdal	93.0	7.0	0.0
Bakool	94.0	5.0	1.0
Banadir	98.0	2.0	0.0
Bari	97.0	3.0	0.0
Bay	96.0	4.0	1.0
Galgaduud	86.0	10.0	4.0
Gedo	95.0	5.0	1.0
Hiraan	92.0	4.0	4.0
Lower Juba	95.0	3.0	2.0
Lower Shabelle	97.0	1.0	1.0
Middle Shabelle	90.0	5.0	5.0
Mudug	97.0	2.0	1.0
Nugaal	96.0	4.0	0.0
Sanaag	95.0	5.0	1.0
Sool	95.0	5.0	0.0
Togdheer	92.0	6.0	3.0
Waqooyi Galbeed	99.0	1.0	0.0
Overall	**95.0**	**4.0**	**1.0**

Table 6.2 Main sources of food Acquisition by Place of residence and region

Category	Own production	Purchasing with own cash	Borrowing food on credit	Community gifts / donations	Humanitarian food / voucher / cash	Bartering	Gathering (Qaraabasho)
IDP	13.0	72.0	8.0	1.0	2.0	0.0	4.0
Rural	30.0	57.0	10.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	1.0
Urban	18.0	72.0	6.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	2.0
Region							
Awdal	13.0	85.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bakool	50.0	38.0	8.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	2.0
Banadir	1.0	93.0	4.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
Bari	11.0	75.0	10.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
Bay	31.0	60.0	3.0	1.0	2.0	0.0	2.0
Galgaduud	9.0	68.0	14.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	6.0
Gedo	14.0	82.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	2.0
Hiraan	36.0	55.0	4.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0
Lower Juba	50.0	39.0	4.0	1.0	3.0	0.0	2.0
Lower Shabelle	32.0	58.0	4.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	4.0
Middle Shabelle	34.0	54.0	5.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	5.0
Mudug	13.0	60.0	21.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	2.0
Nugaal	9.0	53.0	29.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	7.0
Sanaag	13.0	52.0	29.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
Sool	18.0	48.0	30.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
Togdheer	19.0	71.0	7.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	1.0
Waqooyi Galbeed	22.0	75.0	2.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	1.0
Overall	**21.0**	**68.0**	**8.0**	**1.0**	**1.0**	**0.0**	**2.0**

Table 7.1 Shock types by place of residence and region

Place of residence	Household shock	Economic shock	Agricultural shock	Natural shock	Security shock	Other shock	Any shock
Urban	7.3	5.0	1.0	1.7	0.3	0.8	13.3
Rural	8.0	8.9	4.7	8.4	0.3	1.4	24.1
IDP	12.9	8.4	0.3	4.9	0.8	0.7	22.2
Region							
Awdal	1.5	0.8	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.3	2.9
Bakool	5.8	17.1	6.1	11.9	0.6	1.0	26
Banadir	7.8	1.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	9.1
Bari	13.0	3.6	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.6	15.2
Bay	8.4	6.3	1.5	3.3	0.4	0.4	15.2
Galgaduud	9.0	8.1	2.6	6.8	0.1	1.3	18.8
Gedo	10.3	9.5	0.1	0	0.0	0.0	19.4
Hiraan	8.2	7.7	4.7	10.2	0.3	5.8	31
Lower Juba	10.6	8.9	4.0	3.3	0.1	1.4	20.8
Lower Shabelle	5.8	9.7	4.1	17.3	0.8	1.1	27.6
Middle Shabelle	13.9	17.5	7.8	5.8	0.2	0.9	37.4
Mudug	8.0	2.8	0.5	0.8	0.2	0.1	10.4
Nugaal	16.0	11.4	0.4	1.7	0.8	0.5	24.7
Sanaag	7.3	8.5	2.0	5	3.5	4.0	25.3
Sool	4.4	1.7	1.4	0.3	1.5	0.2	8.3
Togdheer	2.0	9.1	0.4	1.7	0.0	0.1	13.3
Total	**12.6**	**5.0**	**1.4**	**0.7**	**0.0**	**0.7**	**16.7**

Table 7.2 Reduced Coping Strategies (rCSI) by Place of Residence and Region

Place of residence	Minimal	Stressed	Crisis-Emergency
Urban	59.7	23.8	16.5
Rural	48.9	33.9	17.2
IDP	30.4	33.9	35.6
Region			
Awdal	74.9	20.7	4.4
Bakool	40.2	41.6	18.2
Banadir	35.3	27.5	37.2
Bari	51.0	35.7	13.3
Bay	49.0	35.0	16.0
Galgaduud	43.4	27.4	29.2
Gedo	63.5	24.9	11.6
Hiraan	44.5	37.4	18.1
Lower Juba	35.6	37.0	27.4
Lower Shabelle	48.8	29.2	22.0
Middle Shabelle	23.1	47.3	29.6
Mudug	39.2	37.6	23.2
Nugaal	38.7	35.1	26.2
Sanaag	38.7	36.3	25.0
Sool	48.0	34.0	18.0
Togdheer	82.8	13.2	4.0
Waqooyi Galbeed	87.8	7.2	5.0
Total	**52.0**	**28.4**	**19.7**

Table 7.3 Livelihood Coping Strategies (LCSI) by Place of Residence

	No coping	Stress coping	Crisis coping	Emergency coping
Place of residence				
Urban	52.5	19.7	18.1	9.7
Rural	44.4	22.6	24.1	8.9
IDP	32.4	23.4	23.8	20.4
Overall	**46.9**	**21.1**	**20.8**	**11.1**

Table 7.4 Household Hunger Scale (HHS) Classification by Place of Residence and Region

Place of Residence	None (0)	Stressed (1)	Crisis (2-3)	Emergency (4)	Catastrophe (5-6)
IDP	37	13	32	11	7
Rural	59	11	25	3	3
Urban	70	8	16	4	2
Region					
Awdal	79	5	14	1	1
Bakool	42	15	34	6	3
Banadir	54	10	22	10	5
Bari	56	17	19	5	3
Bay	58	13	23	4	2
Galgaduud	58	12	20	4	6
Gedo	71	6	19	2	3
Hiraan	66	5	23	3	3
Lower Juba	52	10	26	8	5
Lower Shabelle	57	8	30	3	2
Middle Shabelle	41	14	33	8	3
Mudug	52	11	26	5	5
Nugaal	48	15	28	6	4
Sanaag	57	11	23	5	4
Sool	56	5	29	6	3
Togdheer	83	5	8	2	2
Waqooyi Galbeed	87	6	5	1	1
Total	**62.0**	**10.0**	**21.0**	**5.0**	**3.0**

Table 8.1 CARI Classifications by Place of Residence and Region

Place of Residence	Food secure	Marginally food secure	Moderately food insecure	Severely food insecure
Urban	43	37	17	4
Rural	22	45	30	3
IDP	9	39	46	7
Region				
Awdal	49	27	20	4
Bakool	14	35	46	5
Banadir	32	37	28	3
Bari	23	43	30	5
Bay	20	52	22	7
Galgaduud	13	42	38	8
Gedo	42	37	19	2
Hiraan	17	47	35	1
Lower Juba	24	50	22	4
Lower Shabelle	40	42	16	3
Middle Shabelle	6	37	49	7
Mudug	23	44	29	5
Nugaal	17	49	30	5
Sanaag	23	47	22	8
Sool	27	47	22	4
Togdheer	22	49	26	3
Waqooyi Galbeed	67	21	11	2
Total	**31**	**40**	**25**	**4**

CARI "moderately food insecure" and "severely food insecure" are acute food insecurity classifications and should not be aggregated or compared with SDG-aligned FIES estimates.

Table 8.2 Essential Needs Assessment Vulnerability by Place of Residence and Region

Place of Residence	*Not vulnerable*	*Moderately vulnerable*	*Highly vulnerable*	*Extremely vulnerable*
Urban	43	33	18	6
Rural	22	34	37	8
IDP	9	31	44	17
Region				
Awdal	49	20	21	10
Bakool	14	27	49	10
Banadir	32	40	21	7
Bari	23	32	35	10
Bay	20	33	40	8
Galgaduud	13	35	36	17
Gedo	42	33	23	3
Hiraan	17	34	44	6
Lower Juba	24	45	26	5
Lower Shabelle	40	37	18	6
Middle Shabelle	6	28	45	20
Mudug	23	37	30	11
Nugaal	17	55	22	6
Sanaag	23	48	21	8
Sool	27	43	24	6
Togdheer	22	22	45	10
Waqooyi Galbeed	67	19	11	4
Total	**31**	**33**	**28**	**8**

Table 8.3 Economic Capacity to Meet Essential Needs - ECMEN by Place of Residence and Region

Place of Residence	Above MEB (no assistance)	Between food MEB and MEB (no assistance)	Under food MEB (no assistance)	Above MEB (with assistance)	Between food MEB and MEB (with assistance)	Under food MEB (with assistance)
Urban	67	16	17	70	15	14
Rural	41	21	38	46	20	34
IDP	23	24	53	30	27	43
Region						
Awdal	61	14	25	63	15	22
Bakool	27	19	53	30	19	51
Banadir	63	20	17	67	20	13
Bari	38	23	39	44	22	34
Bay	41	17	42	44	18	38
Galgaduud	27	24	49	29	26	46
Gedo	61	18	21	63	18	19
Hiraan	34	21	45	38	24	38
Lower Juba	62	17	21	65	18	17
Lower Shabelle	74	12	14	85	9	6
Middle Shabelle	28	15	57	31	17	53
Mudug	44	25	31	52	24	25
Nugaal	44	31	25	50	31	20
Sanaag	58	19	24	62	17	20
Sool	52	25	24	54	25	22
Togdheer	26	20	54	28	22	50
Waqooyi Galbeed	74	15	11	76	15	9
Total	**53**	**19**	**29**	**57**	**19**	**25**

Table 8.4.1 Prevalence of household food insecurity based on FIES by place of residence

Residence	Moderate or severe household food insecurity (%)	Severe household food insecurity (%)
IDP	69.0% (±5.0)	27,7% (±3.7)
Rural	49.0% (±4.6)	16.0% (±3.1)
Urban	34.6% (±2.5)	10.1% (±1.3)
Overall	**44.3% (±2.2)**	**14.6% (±1.3)**

Table 8.4.2 Prevalence of household food insecurity based on FIES by region

Region	Moderate or severe food insecurity (%)	Severe food insecurity (%)
Middle Shabelle	68.2 (±6.9)	21.3 (±5.9)
Bakool	60.5 (±8.4)	17.5 (±5.7)
Lower Shabelle	57.0 (±9.1)	22.5 (±6.4)
Mudug	54.8 (±8.8)	24.0 (±6.9)
Nugaal	55.2 (±7.6)	17.1 (±5.0)
Banadir	54.2 (±6.6)	18.4 (±4.3)
Lower Juba	54.0 (±6.9)	16.7 (±4.5)
Sanaag	51.1 (±8.5)	12.4 (±4.4)
Bari	51.4 (±7.6)	11.9 (±4.3)
Bay	50.8 (±7.5)	12.3 (±3.8)
Galgaduud	50.8 (±8.0)	15.4 (±4.8)
Sool	46.7 (±7.9)	25.8 (±6.1)
Hiraan	43.9 (±8.4)	12.5 (±4.8)
Gedo	30.3 (±6.3)	13.2 (±4.1)
Awdal	23.6 (±7.4)	7.2 (±4.2)
Togdheer	15.9 (±6.2)	5.1 (±3.1)
Waqooyi Galbeed	12.9 (±5.4)	3.6 (±2.8)

Table 9.1 Cash-Based Transfer Assistance by Place of Residence and Region

Category	Percentage who received cash-based assistance (%)	Percentage distribution of households who received CBT amount categories				
		1-50 USD	51-100 USD	101-150 USD	151-200 USD	>200 USD
Urban	6	18	40.2	15.1	9	17.7
Rural	7.4	19.7	51.7	19.9	4.5	4.2
IDP	12.9	15.9	56.9	14.7	3.3	9.3
Region						
Awdal	5.5	25.3	71.4	0	0	3.2
Bakool	6.8	8.8	91.2	0	0	0
Banadir	6.6	24.9	17.4	18.2	14.7	24.8
Bari	4.6	15.9	46.7	9.5	4.8	23
Bay	4.7	6.3	69.8	9.1	10.2	4.5
Galgaduud	3.5	24.6	64	9.3	2.1	0
Gedo	4	34.2	49.8	13.2	0	2.7
Hiraan	8.9	20.4	61.8	4.7	3.8	9.2
Lower Juba	2.8	50.7	14.9	5.9	12.9	15.6
Lower Shabelle	20.8	12.4	47.1	27.4	4.3	8.8
Middle Shabelle	9.4	12.6	56.9	18.2	5.6	6.7
Mudug	4.7	2.6	60.9	12.8	5.3	18.4
Nugaal	12.3	23.1	25.1	13.7	13.8	24.3
Sanaag	9.2	43.1	36.2	12.9	1.9	5.8
Sool	1.4	0	47.5	18.7	0	33.8
Togdheer	2.1	89.1	10.9	0	0	0
Waqooyi Galbeed	6.8	4.5	62.5	6.1	11.4	6.8
Total	**7.5**	**17.9**	**48**	**16.4**	**6.2**	**11.5**

Table 10.1 Main Household Water Source by Place of Residence and Region

Place of residence	Piped/protected well	Unprotected well	Surface water	Rainwater	Bottled / vendor	Water truck/delivery	Desalinated/filtered	Other improved	Don't know/missing
Urban	68.3	9.6	15.6	0.1	0.1	0.5	3.2	1.4	1.3
Rural	36.3	17.6	23.1	0.0	0.5	0.7	10.4	8.4	3.1
IDP	47.8	19.7	23.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	3.3	0.9	5.2
Region									
Awdal	73.0	3.2	4.7	0.0	0.0	0.6	9.2	0.4	8.9
Bakool	2.8	84.5	0.8	0.0	0.1	3.4	0.2	4.2	4.1
Banadir	97.1	1.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3
Bari	26.3	7.3	44.9	0.0	0.0	0.3	17.3	3.5	0.5
Bay	34.7	49.6	5.0	0.1	0.0	2.4	4.2	2.2	1.9
Galgaduud	76.0	5.0	11.8	0.0	0.2	0.1	5.4	0.0	1.5
Gedo	70.0	2.8	8.7	0.0	0.2	0.0	14.7	1.4	2.2
Hiraan	54.4	3.2	4.4	0.0	1.8	0.7	0.1	27.1	8.2
Lower Juba	47.2	30.6	5.8	0.0	0.6	0.5	2.9	10.3	2.1
Lower Shabelle	86.9	9.3	1.6	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.0
Middle Shabelle	40.3	38.7	1.7	0.0	0.2	0.5	2.9	10.8	5.0
Mudug	51.2	2.3	24.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	19.7	0.0	2.8
Nugaal	31.7	5.5	43.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	17.3	0.0	2.0
Sanaag	3.5	6.7	81.0	0.4	0.0	1.2	5.5	0.1	1.6
Sool	17.9	3.3	71.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	6.5	0.4	0.5
Togdheer	31.5	21.2	34.2	0.0	0.0	0.3	6.3	6.1	0.4
Waqooyi Galbeed	41.4	0.2	53.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.8	1.7
Total	**55.6**	**13.6**	**19**	**0**	**0.2**	**0.5**	**5.4**	**3.4**	**2.4**

Table 10.2 Cooking Energy Source by Place of Residence and Region

Place of Residence	Modern fuels	Coal/charcoal	Wood/biomass	Other	Total
Urban	23.7	65.4	10.6	0.4	100
Rural	7.5	47.9	44.0	0.5	100
IDP	7.5	43.9	46.9	1.7	100
Region					
Awdal	24.3	66.5	9.3	0.0	100
Bakool	1.7	28.8	69.6	0.0	100
Banadir	20.1	67.1	12.8	0.0	100
Bari	58.1	18.2	23.7	0.0	100
Bay	3.8	46.4	44.5	5.3	100
Galgaduud	5.6	51.9	42.2	0.2	100
Gedo	2.5	72.4	24.9	0.2	100
Hiraan	8.3	35.5	54.7	1.5	100
Lower Juba	11.7	49.1	37.4	1.8	100
Lower Shabelle	8.4	74.7	16.9	0.0	100
Middle Shabelle	2.8	42.4	54.8	0.0	100
Mudug	21.1	52.9	25.7	0.2	100
Nugaal	12.9	47.3	39.6	0.2	100
Sanaag	12.1	61.4	26.5	0.0	100
Sool	24.1	48.8	27.1	0.0	100
Togdheer	6.9	72.7	20.4	0.0	100
Waqooyi Galbeed	33.7	62.7	3.1	0.5	100
Total	**16.4**	**56.9**	**26.2**	**0.6**	**100**

Table 10.3 Lighting Energy Source by Place of Residence and Region

Place of Residence	Electricity / solar	Torches / flashlights	Fuel-based lamps	Traditional / low-tech	Other
Urban	89.0	7.6	1.7	1.6	0.1
Rural	62.7	33.9	2.2	1.1	0.2
IDP	55.9	39.4	3.3	1.0	0.3
Region					
Awdal	82.4	11.7	5.9	0.0	0.0
Bakool	21.0	65.8	7.3	5.7	0.1
Banadir	93.0	6.6	0.2	0.2	0.0
Bari	80.4	17.8	0.5	1.3	0.0
Bay	54.6	37.4	1.1	6.8	0.1
Galgaduud	47.6	48.1	1.9	1.0	1.5
Gedo	63.8	30.3	1.1	4.8	0.0
Hiraan	52.4	44.4	1.4	1.4	0.4
Lower Juba	73.6	23.2	2.2	1.0	0.0
Lower Shabelle	87.2	6.8	4.4	1.4	0.2
Middle Shabelle	70.7	26.9	2.2	0.1	0.1
Mudug	71.2	27.6	1.1	0.0	0.1
Nugaal	83.2	15.8	0.5	0.2	0.3
Sanaag	84.2	12.2	2.8	0.8	0.0
Sool	75.8	23.4	0.5	0.0	0.2
Togdheer	75.7	23.3	0.9	0.0	0.0
Waqooyi Galbeed	95.9	1.6	2.2	0.3	0.0
Total	**76.1**	**20.3**	**2.1**	**1.4**	**0.1**

Table 10.4 Household Safety Perception by Place of Residence and Region

Category	Households reporting, they feel safe (%)
Place of Residence	
Urban	95.3
Rural	96.1
IDP	97.7
Region	
Awdal	99.5
Bakool	96.0
Banadir	98.2
Bari	99.3
Bay	93.9
Galgaduud	96.5
Gedo	98.6
Hiraan	85.1
Lower Juba	95.6
Lower Shabelle	92.7
Middle Shabelle	95.2
Mudug	94.2
Nugaal	96.6
Sanaag	99.7
Sool	98.1
Togdheer	90.1
Waqooyi Galbeed	99.6
Total	**95.9**

Table 10.5 Household Exposure to Insecurity or Violence Within the Past Year by Place of Residence and Region

Category	Households exposed to insecurity/violence (%)
Place of Residence	
Urban	4.2
Rural	4.3
IDP	6.2
Region	
Awdal	0.1
Bakool	4.4
Banadir	5.1
Bari	0.7
Bay	1.9
Galgaduud	0.5
Gedo	1.0
Hiraan	8.9
Lower Juba	4.9
Lower Shabelle	13.2
Middle Shabelle	3.8
Mudug	4.6
Nugaal	10.4
Sanaag	1.2
Sool	2.2
Togdheer	0.2
Waqooyi Galbeed	4.6
Total	**4.6**

Table 10.6 Basic Services, Financial Inclusion, and Safety Indicators by Residence and Household-head Sex

Indicator	Needed health services but could not access them	Any household member has access to financial service	All household members feel safe where they live	Any household member experienced insecurity or violence in past year
Place of Residence				
IDP	50.7	91.7	97.9	7.0
Rural	41.9	94.1	96.5	3.2
Urban	35.4	90.6	96.0	4.2
Sex				
Female-headed	40.3	91.5	96.0	3.5
Male-headed	38.3	91.7	96.6	4.8
Overall	**39.1**	**91.7**	**96.4**	**4.3**

Table 10.7. Main Reported Reasons for Unmet Access to Health Services

Main reason for unmet health access	Overall
Lack of money	86.8
No medical personnel available	9.2
Health facility is too far	8.9
Lack of transport	4.0
Hospital/Clinic not having enough supplies	3.8

The Federal Republic of Somalia
National Bureau of Statistics (NBS)

Somalia Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) 2026