FOOD FORUM

Adventist Development and Relief Agency
World Vision Relief and Development
Food for the Hungry International
Save the Children Federation
Catholic Relief Services
World SHARE
Africare
CARE

Food Aid Management, 220 I Street, NE, Suite 130, Washington, DC 20002

August 1992 Issue Thirteen

During the last two million years, human beings have faced hunger and developed technologies to decrease it. Yet the perversities of human relationships constantly undermine the advances of new technology. The news stories of the world again reflect increasingly desperate situations in Southern Africa and in Bosnia. Senator Nancy Kassebaum, after a fact-finding mission to Somalia, testified before the House Select Committee on Hunger on the major humanitarian crisis there. Relief workers feel that the famine in Somalia is more devastating than the 1984 Ethiopian famine that attracted much wider international attention. Kassebaum observed that "Somalia has moved beyond tears and cries...yet Americans and volunteers from many other nations are there now, putting their own lives at risk each day as they try to ease the suffering amidst what must be the worst humanitarian disaster in the world." Besides the obstacles of the blocking of supply routes by armed clans, banditry, and civil war, relief agencies are contending with difficulties of nature. A huge barge of badly needed food and medical supplies was mired off a coast because the waves were too rough during this monsoon season for anyone to make the short journey to collect the supplies. It is reported that hundreds of people are dying each day from starvation and from untreated tuberculosis.

It is both encouraging and frustrating to realize that the demise of hunger in the world in theoretically possible. In their article "On Ending Hunger: The Lessons of History" published in the book **Hunger in History, Food Shortage, Poverty, and Deprivation** (Basil Blackwell, Inc. 1990), Robert W. Kates and Sara Millman discuss the persistence of hunger in a world of plenty as "a deeply troubling paradox of our time." They note that we have "passed the first threshold of theoretical food sufficiency in the 1960s (enough to provide a near-vegetarian diet for all if distributed according to need)." They also observe that over the last decade progress in reducing hunger worldwide came to a halt or reversed itself as war continues to create famine and obstruct its relief. The prescriptions for hunger's demise vary widely while the desire to end hunger is universal. Kates and Millman feel that "the demise of hunger may be attainable because we are marshalling major international efforts to intervene on behalf of the food deprived..."

In this issue of FOOD FORUM we are printing a field response to Steve Hansch's article on losses. We solicit other comments on terms and categories of commodity losses. FAM is trying to clarify terminology to aid managers in standardizing recordkeeping, in advance planning, and in monitoring losses and procedures for claiming losses. FAM would like to help managers to be able to collectively measure losses accurately and to clarify present ambiguities. Please guide us in this process by sharing your observations and comments. Also in this issue Youssef Wade has written of his organization's experience with "A Granary for Every Family". We welcome these contributions and urge you to send us your opinions, experiences, and observations. Please send your articles to: Pat Weeks, Editor, FOOD FORUM, 220 I Street, N.E., Suite 130, Washington, D.C. 20002.

Operation Granary for Every Family

Yousef Wade is President of the Senegal-based Association of Youth for Development, Solidarity, and Employment (A.J.D.E.S.) which as been involved in development for over 10 years.

Operation Granary for Every Family is a pilot project that has been carried out in a village located in the Louga region, a desert-like part of Senegal that is arid and suffers from food shortages. This project, which has aided 200 families, was carried out during the time when the region was suffering from lack of rain, verging on a drought situation.

We analyzed the impact of the drought on the rural people according to economic, social and cultural standards. An initial evaluation of the different economic activities of the area revealed:

- the rural exodus of the younger population going to the cities in search of jobs
- the usury practices of certain business people who give small credits to villagers with high interest rates, sometimes as high as three times the amount of the initial loan.
- the disappearance of functional granaries.

When this study was completed, we held a general meeting with the villagers to verify and complete our report which was then presented to the membership of Youth Association for Development, Employment, and Solidarity and to their partner members. A fund-raising effort was carried out and contributions were directly deposited by the donors into the bank account for which they were given the account number. When the funds were collected, the money was divided between a regular bank account and a back-up account.

We distributed needed items to the villagers such as sugar, rice, powdered milk, soy, soy-corn blend, etc. We also lent money to help the villagers sell their milk products. The villagers will repay the loans at an interest rate 1/4 the rate the commercial bank is charging.

The project set aside a small portion of money to buy cattle and sheep from surrounding villages that are at risk of dying because of the drought. With the help of young villagers, our organization is raising them to maturity and hope to sell them at excellent prices to enable the organization to cover the bank credit and avoid incurring high interest rates.

As a result of participating in this project, each family's granary became full during this period. Our organization attempted to continue to sustain these results by employing students in our organization to teach literacy skills and simple techniques of food conservation and simple financial management.

The lessons learned from this project (which unfortunately we have been unable to duplicate due to the banking crisis affecting our country) are as follows:

- All villagers have repaid the credit extended to them after they sold their harvests.
- The dry period did not have a negative effect on the vil lagers because their granaries were full.
- They are skillful at managing their granaries.
- They are able to capably manage their agricultural products by exchanging their milk products for fish products coming from the coast.

- They have been learning to read, write, and do math calculations.
- The young villagers began moving back from the cities to remain in the village and to participate in the project.
- The donors not only received a report on how the money was used but gained different perspectives on the potential of projects of this kind.

In the future, we hope to gain funding for the continuation of this project for we gained much confidence from the success of this venture and are convinced of the validity of this approach for it uses the rersources and strengths of the people as the basic foundation. We are interested in talking with U.S. NGOs about possible sponsorship of our project.

Anyone interested in learning more should contact Youssou Wade, President, A.J.D.E.S., B.P. 21255, Dakar Ponty Siege Socini, Pikine Tally Boubess Parcelle N, 4002 Dakar, Senegal.

WFP Strengthens NGO Support

WFP has recently taken steps to strengthen its support of NGOs. It has delegated the authority to its country offices to provide food (up to 5 percent of the value of WFP resources in any individual WFP-assisted project or an annual maximum of $200,000) as an additional commitment to local NGO-assisted projects that have similar objectives and beneficiary groups as WFP-assisted projects. The use of the NGO delegation is particularly appropriate for small-scale projects which are the most successful in many situations, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and for experimentation with novel uses of food aid.

Food delivered too NGOs under these procedures comes from ongoing development projects, to be replenished subject to the availability of resources. A decision to provide WFP food to an NGO is based on the WFP country office's assessment and confidence in the NGO. The NGO is held responsible for internal transport and storage, as well as for the distribution of the commodities. It must report to WFP on the use of the commodities.

FOOD AID ALLOCATIONS-FY 1991 ($000)

	Title I	Title II	Title III	Sec. 416	Total	%
Food Insecure Countries	$ 26,000.0	$616,045.4	$188,394.8	$ 98,533.3	$928,973.5	50.6
Borderline	$122,800.0	$140,905.9	$ 88,368.2	$ 31,140.7	$383,214.8	20.9
Food-Secure Countries	$294,000.0	$ 46,301.8	$0	$183,898.4	$524,200.2	28.5
TOTAL	$442,800.0	$803,253.1	$276,763.0	$313,572.4	$1,836,288.5	100

Source: **The World Food Day Report**, The President's Report to the U.S. Congress, October 16, 1991

Quotable Quotes

As a service to our readers we often print excerpts from recent publications in the food-aid field. As always, the views presented do not necessarily reflect those of FAM. The first quote is from the book The Ethics of Aid and Trade, U.S. Food Policy, Foreign Competition, and the Social Contract, *by Paul B. Thompson, Cambridge University Press, 1992.*

Foreign aid can be rendered in four forms: emergency, development, economic, or security (military) assistance. Of these, only emergency aid and development assistance are directly relevant to food policy. Economic and security assistance are rendered under a government's mandate to preserve and protect the safety of its citizens. They consist of monetary and military support to governments deemed friendly to that purpose. Economic and security assistance are paradigm examples of foreign policy motivated by diplomacy and military imperatives. The unambiguous character of their mandate perennially influences the more tentative goals of emergency relief and development assistance.

Emergency aid is frequently a direct gift, or deep subsidy, of food for the short-term relief of famine and malnutrition. The intent is to save lives and reduce suffering. Generally, emergency assistance has not been used as a bargaining chip in a larger foreign policy gambit, at least not when genuine need has been established...

Although it is generally accepted that governments use power appropriately to render emergency short-term relief, the moral basis for long-term development assistance has been more controversial...Peter Singer's 1972 paper "Famine, Affluence, and Morality" set the terms for philosophical discussion of this controversy at whether development assistance is supported by an optional duty of charity or demanded by justice. Although the details of this debate are relevant to conclusions that follow, the alternatives of charity and justice do not exhaust the moral ground on which development assistance might be offered. An alternative account of development assistance would ground it securely in the national interest imperatives that have served as the moral basis for encouragement of trade.

The next excerpts are written by Marc Cohen for Bread for the World Institute on Hunger & Development's book, Hunger 1992. *For information about the publication wite to the organization at 802 Rhode Island Avenue N.E., Washington, D.C. 20008.*

Food Aid vs. Financial Aid

Some food aid critics argue that donors ought to provide their aid in the form of cash. In India, this would allow state governments to buy more Indian food for ICDS (Integrated Child Development Services Program) and promote rural development as well as child survival. Yet food aid enjoys a much stronger constituency than other kinds of foreign aid in donor countries, especially the United States. Farmers anxious to move surpluses off the market, food processors, and shippers, along with the PVOs which distribute food aid, form an impressive support group. Advocates of food aid point out that it is rather simplistic to assume that cash can readily substitute for food aid and the community-based services that ICDS provides, and that India's harvests are subject to year-to-year variations in the weather. Finally, according to CARE's Charles Sykes, the voluntary agencies which distribute food aid have themselves pressed hard for authority to sell or barter Food for Peace commodities so as to be able to purchase more local food.

A recent evaluation of AID's worldwide participation in maternal and child health feeding programs contends that the question is not whether the food comes from the host country or abroad but whether the supply is reliable. In the past the U.S. government has often given extremely low priority to targeted feeding programs aimed at chronically undernourished populations, such as CARE's participation in ICDS. In times of short supply, U.S. policymakers have often withdrawn resources from these programs in order to assure the availability of food for emergency relief (an objective with which it is hard to quarrel) and programs which advance foreign policy objectives (e.g. food aid to Egypt, which does little to advance humanitarian and development goals.)

Not only is food usually easier to get from abroad than cash, but CARE staff in India argue that people simply would not participate in ICDS programs in the absence of supplemental feeding. It is a major device for getting people to make use of the other ICDS services. According to a UNICEF evaluation of supplementary feeding in child survival programs, this incentive effect is the major positive feature of such feeding. Other analysts believe that well-run programs which make a difference in peoples' lives should not have to use food to get them to participate, but proponents of maternal and child health feeding point out that these programs conserve the time, energy, and health of poor pregnant and nursing mothers.

In any event, evaluations of Indian supplemental feeding programs suggest that they are effective precisely because they are tied into a package of services which have tangibly improved the lives of Indian women and children.

Project vs. Program Food Aid

Unfortunately the use of food aid to support projects which directly benefit poor people is the exception rather than the rule, especially in the case of the U.S. Food for Peace program. Between 1987 and 1990, according to the Food and Agricultural Organization of the U.N. governments of countries receiving food aid sold 54.5 percent of the commodities in local markets. While the governments may use funds from these sales for a variety of development purposes, they generally do no account precisely for the money.

This type of food aid, where the commodities are not used in specific development projects, is called "program food aid." Its major impact is to provide the recipient government with extra budget resources. Only if the government is committed to equitable and sustainable development will these resources benefit poor and hungry people. Recent studies conclude that program food aid is unlikely to have an immediate direct impact on poor people because it does not generally increase their access to food and rarely provides them with extra income....

Program food aid has attractions as a tool to support foreign policy initiatives, but it can have serious negative consequences in the recipient country. Development experts have long worried that food aid can undermine recipient country agriculture by depressing prices on local markets and hurting local farmers. Program food aid has had this effect in El Salvador. Careful management of food aid can prevent such an impact, but food aid can also create a false sense of security within the receiving country's government, discouraging the implementation of measures which promote rural development....

In 1990 Congress passed legislation making significant changes in Food for Peace which would enhance the use of U.S. food aid as a tool for combating malnutrition and promoting development. The new law also seeks to reduce the use of food aid to support foreign policy initiatives and promote exports.

Letter To The Editor

Dear Editor:

This is in response to the article written by Steve Hansch, **Commodity Losses**, that appeared in the April issue.

I fully agree that there is no standard set of terms to which PVOs can refer to when describing forms of commodity losses. My recommendation is that when discussing commodity losses (claims), it should be done in a clear and concise manner--avoid using fancy terminologies.

Enclosed is an article prepared by me on types of commodity losses and the documentation required. It is concise and to the point. I hope you will find it useful.

Sincerely yours,

Walter Middleton
Commodities Manager
World Vision International
Mozambique

TYPES OF COMMODITY LOSSES (CLAIMS), DOCUMENTATION, AND REPORTING

Commodity losses (also known as Claims in A.I.D. terminology) is a vast subject and many hours could be spent discussing it. A PVO is responsible to account to its donor for every ounce of commodities it receives. For any commodity that has been lost or damaged or not used for the purpose for which it was intended due to negligence or mismanagement, the PVO needs to file a claim against the person or party responsible. A PVO cannot exonerate itself from any blame if it fails to file claims for commodities that have been lost or damaged due to negligence.

Commodity losses can be divided into two broad categories: **SHORTAGES** and **DAMAGES.** There are several types of shortages and damages. It is extremely important that commodity losses be well documented giving all facts and figures as precisely and accurately as possible so that when a claim is filed, it should be able to stand up, even in a court of law. A claim that is not well-documented could not only weaken your case for reimbursement, but could also cause you embarrassment.

First and foremost, it is essential to determine where the loss took place. There are several locations when commodity losses take place. Some of the more frequent places are as follows:

- OCEAN (MARINE) LOSS
- PORT LOSS
- TRANSIT SHED LOSS
- PORT TO WAREHOUSE LOSS
- WAREHOUSE LOSS
- WAREHOUSE TO DISTRICT/DISTRIBUTION SITE
- DISTRIBUTION SITE LOSS

TYPES OF SHORTAGES AND DOCUMENTATION REQUIRED

SHORT DELIVERY

Non receipt of full unit at destination.

Documentation Required:

Provide information about the number of units despatched and actual number of units received at destination, waybill number, date, transporter, notation of shortage made on all copies of waybilll.

SHORT WEIGHT

Units received in full and intact, but containers do not have full weight. Containers were tampered with during transportation.

Documentation required:

Provide information about number of units on waybill; number of units short weighted; the waybill number and date.

Provide a record of the containers weighed, if possible.

Describe if the units look as if they were tampered with. Have the seals been broken and resealed?

PHYSICAL SHORTAGE

Commodities not physically present when a physical count is taken.

Documentation Required:

Provide information about the book balance vs. the physical balance, and the date the physical count was done.

Complete physical count worksheet.

The storekeeper should sign the worksheet. Give explanation for physical shortage.

THEFT

Commodities stolen from the warehouse, truck, rail wagon.

Documentation required:

Give date, place, and time of theft. Attach copy of First Information Report (FIR). Maintain a "Theft Log Book" to record all thefts. If you find theft of commodities taking place in the same location on a regular basis, investigate. Something fishy might be going on. This is true in large school feeding programs where some schools may regularly report theft of commodities.

UNACCOUNTED

Commodities that have been issued (despatched) but there is no acknowledgement of their receipt.

Documentation required:

Give details of waybill numbers, date, destination, quantities, and action taken, if any, to get acknowledgement. Reasonable time should be provided before a claim is filed for unaccounted for commodities.

MIS-USE (Unauthorized Issues)

Commodities not used for intended purpose

Documentation Required:

Give details of quantity issued (despatched), waybill numbers, date, to whom issued, and reasons, if any.

TYPES OF DAMAGES

<u>Leakages</u>

Bags, drums, or cartons received in a torn, damaged, leaky condition at destination.

Documentation required:

Specify number of units received in damaged condition, the amount salvaged, the units recovered, the net weight, the reasons for the loss (was it due to poor packing or improper handling during transit or was it despatched in a damaged condition?) Note action taken to issue out reconstituted commodity on a priority basis.

Wet

Bags received in a wet condition.

Documentation required: Ascertain if bags got wet during transportation or while in storage. If during transportation, were the trucks covered? Was a notation made on all copies of the waybill? If bags became wet in storage, check to see if the warehouse is leaking. State what action has been taken to rectify the problem.

Damage Due to Natural Calamities

Commodities washed away or burnt.

Documentation required:

Newspaper clippings, government reports. (Commodity losses due to natural calamities are uncollectible.)

Unfit

- o Contaminated: Mixed with foreign material, rat droppings, etc.
- o Infested: With weevils, insects, larva, etc.
- o Spoiled: Past expiry date

Commodities that have become unfit for human consumption may be fit for animal or poultry feed. Commodities normally become unfit for human consumption due to prolonged storage (low feeding/delivery rate resulting in stockpile and eventual deterioration), or damage by rain, contamination by rodents, or the failure to issue before the expiration date.

Documentation required:

If commodities become unfit due to prolonged storage, provide details concerning when stocks were received, if the first-in, first-out procedure was followed (FIFO), if excess stocks were despatched/received, whether fumigation was done, and whether dunnage was used. In cases of rodent damage, were rodent control methods used?

Important Rule: *No damaged commodity should be disposed of without it first being declared as unfit for human consumption by a health official. Thereafter donor approval should be obtained.*

Damaged comodities may be disposed of by one of the following methods:

By Sale:

- o Get sales invoice
- o Transmit proceeds
- o Deduct expenses incurred
- o Delete marking before sale when selling U.S.A.I.D. commodities

By Donation:

- o Get donation certificate
- o Get certification of fitness for animal feed
- o Have inventory control

By Destruction:

- o Get certificate of destruction
- o Get signature of witness to destruction
- o Destroy in such a manner that commodity cannot be re-used

IN A NUTSHELL..... MIDDLETON'S MAXIMS FOR HANDLING LOSSES

BE HONEST. DON'T HIDE OR COVER UP YOUR LOSSES.

DON'T LET CLAIMS BUILD UP. KEEP UP TO DATE.

BE PRECISE, ACCURATE, AND TIMELY IN REPORTING CLAIMS.

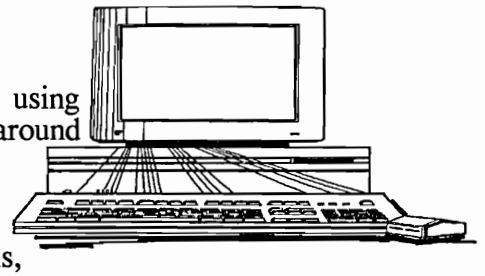
FOLLOW UP CLAIMS REGULARLY (ORIGINAL AND 2 REMINDERS).

TRY TO NEGOTIATE CLAIMS (WITH DONOR APPROVAL) FOR CLOSURE.

MAINTAIN PROPER FILES.

FILE CLAIMS FOR SMALL QUANTITIES AS WELL. (A STITCH IN TIME SAVES NINE!)

FrontDoor Mailer Software



Food Aid Management and some of its members are currently using Frontdoor Mailer Service to gather and distribute information around the world. Users can do the following:

- Send/receive private E-mail messages
- Send/receive public "conference" messages (e.g. discussions, queries, memos)
- Send files (either attached to a private E-Mail message or sent to a group or public file databank)
- Receive files from a general access databank on virtually any topic, eg., Southern Africa drought conditions, NGO/PVO issues. FAM also intends to set up it's own international food aid "conference". People from around the world will be able to send/receive the most current food aid information through this network.

Often, an easy way to explain something is to compare or contrast it to something else. By contrasting a mailer to a Bulletin Board System (BBS), eg., MCI Mail, CompuServe, PeaceNet, one can easily see the benefits of a mailer. One manually calls a BBS with a modem, logs in, and then is forced to respond to the often-confusing menus and command prompts presented by the remote system. One is manually interacting with the remote system via a live phone connection and therefore spending lots of money.

In contrast, the front-end mailer is used to transmit data automatically--the user does not have to be present or deal with the remote system at all when exchanging information. One creates one's messages, attaches any files, and makes responses "off-line." The mailer automatically calls the recipient or a hub, automatically transfers identification information, and exchanges messages, files, and other data. One does not deal with the menus, command prompts, or any other aspects of the software of the remote system. One always deals with one's own familiar off-line software, and it is the same for all networks.

There is usually no third-party billing involved; if there is, it can be minimized. If one's calls are local, then it is possible no charges at all are made if you are a member of a private network or a "free" public network. If calls are long distance, then it is possible that all one pays is regular long-distance rates. It is possible to receive messages and files that were written in Africa or Latin America and pay only the cost of a long distance call to New York City or Washington, D.C. because files/messges are transferred via network hubs around the world. The data transfers work at extraordinary speeds so that the costs are minimized even more.

The amount of time spent receiving/sending files is dependent upon one's modem's speed. To reduce this amount of time, consider buying a faster modem, i.e., 9600 or 14,400. Practical Perifereal and Intel make excellent high speed modems. They run between $200 and $400, depending on the speed and brand. The FrontDoor mailer software program costs $45 and can be purchased from the organization listed below. Of course, one also needs a computer, printer, and the communications software that comes with the modem.

Front-end mailers are clearly the wave of the future for PC-based communications. Mailers such as FrontDoor, InterMail, d'Bridge, BinkleyTerm, SEAdog, MacWoof, Opus, Fido, Dutchie, Xenolink and others all conform to the nonproprietary FTSC standards and any combination of these mailers will work on any FTSC-compatible network. If your organization is interested in learning more about this technology, contact: Mr. Mark Prado, President, PerManNet1409 Hopkins St., NW, Suite 1, Washington, D.C. 20036, Phone: (202) 466-6275, Fax: (202) 466-5352 Fax: (202) 466-5352

The following excerpts are from a draft of a policy paper that will be presented to the 1992 Annual Convention of the American Anthropology Association. Any suggestions or comments should be sent to Art Hansen, Task Force Leader, Department of Anthropology, 1350 Turlington Hall, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611. Art feels that anthropologists' work "has brought many of us into close and continued contact with Africans and given us the opportunity to learn how they live and work through good and bad years. Because of our long and intimate relationships with individuals and communities, we often become a conduit for them to voice their ideas and needs to non-local and non-Africa societies, and our experience has provided valuable insights into the dynamics of African lives and livelihoods and how they are affected by outside assistance."

SURVIVING FAMINE AND PROVIDING FOOD SECURITY IN AFRICA

The current famine is one of a recurrent series in Africa. The recurrence shows the fundamental poverty and vulnerability of many Africans and their economies. In this situation, the right to food security means that a temporary provisioning of emergency relief food is not enough. Attaining food security necessitates a prolonged and well-directed development program with the objectives of achieving sustainable economic growth and sustainable sociopolitical systems .

The separation of assistance into the two categories of relief versus development results in both being inadequate to achieve sustainable food security. Agencies then compete rather than complement and integrate each other's activities. Separating relief and development results, in part, from an incorrect concept of famine as a sudden catastrophic event rather than as a continuing process in which the issues of managing resources and people's access to those resources both in times of plenty and in times of scarcity must be addressed. This inaccurate conceptualization also results in the perception of famine victims as passive and helpless where, in reality, they continue to actively search for resources and ways to manage their own survival. They are constantly trying to improve their social and economic conditions in situations of variable and unpredictable resource deprivation. Misperceiving Africans as being only victims leads to controlling them rather than facilitating them to survive and prosper beyond famine.

The distinction between relief and development often reflects institutional, rather than local practices. From a development perspective, the distinction ignores that famine is a process rather than a sudden, catastrophic event. It also ignores the fact that famines have different consequences for households over time (thus targeting often distorts traditional coping strategies). From a relief perspective, this distinction ignores the fact that recipients of development assistance may benefit from short-term, targeted assistance to prevent future famine conditions.

International food aid is often a very important supplement to local resources, but never a complete or adequate answer. In most famine situations, most people have already relied on their own and local resouces for months or years before an emergency is declared. More months pass before the outside aid actually arrives. Even then, it provides only a portion of the needed resources. Almost always the recipients of outside aid must continue to work, exchange, and find further resources to make use of a commodity. For instance, when maize is given, recipients must find money or barter part of the grain to pay for its being ground into meal. Although aid donors and their operational agencies may complain about famine victims selling and trading their food aid and other supplies, those sales and trades are probably part of an essential attempt to manage their situation to acquire essential money and needed items or services.

When working with refugees, the organization and type of relief may also affect the refugees' vulnerability to future famines. Long-term dependence on non-local foods can distort production and consumption patterns. Long-term provision of food aid may also undemine indigenous production and local capacity. Providing foodstuffs that require long hours of preparation may diminish household productivity and increase the rate of deforestation. Sometimes relief workers ignore indigenous forms of social organization to favor young men who speak English in managing distribution. This may affect household relationships and result in waste and resource mismanagement.

It is essential that there be a recognition that the foundation of normal management (as well as famine and post-famine management) is the interaction of local people and their coping strategies. PVOs need to focus on maintaining and improving the abilities of local people to use their many cultural and household survival systems more successfully.

...And you thought your job was difficult! If anyone has encountered more steps than this procedure from the Dominican Republic, we invite you to submit it to FOOD FORUM.

PROCEDURES TO OBTAIN RELEASE OF SHIPMENTS OF COMMODITIES FROM THE PORTS

1. Request from the Secretariat of Agriculture (specifically, Department of Sanidad Vegetal) the permit of "No Objection.

2. After getting the "No Objection" permit, request the Importation permit from the Agricultural Economy Department of the Secretariat of Agriculture.

3. Prepare shipping documents and deposit them at the Department of Customs.

4. Take shipping documents to Department of Public Health to be stamped (take new form and an Internal Revenue stamp of RD $5.60.)

5. Process documents at the custom's Collector's Office and ask the shipping company to place the containers in position.

6. Proceed to open the containers in the presence of the following persons:
   Head of the Yard
   Container Opener
   Security
   Narcotics Inspector
   After containers are opened, request inspection from person in charge of Sanidad Vegetal.

7. Sanidad Vegetal takes samples and sends them to the Main Office to be analyzed.

8. After knowing the analysis results within 2 or 3 days, proceed with the fumigation for 72 hours, if necessary.

9. After the containers are fumigated, Sanidad Vegetal again inspects the containers to make sure fumigation was effective.

10. If the commodities are fit for release from the containers, Sanidad Vegetal gives authorization for release.

11. With release permission from Sanidad Vegetal, proceed with verification from Customs authorizing final release.

12. The documents given by Customs are processed at the Duty Collection Office where they go through approximately six departments, and finally get to the Customs Collector for final approval.

13. After being signed by the Collector, the documents go to the Office of Port Authority to request the Seal of Approval, which indicates that the commodities can be released to CARE and taken to the warehouses.

14. Proceed with the transportation of commodities to our warehouses.

15. When the shipment consists of milk, the permits of Importation and of No Objection must be requested from INESPRE. This takes about one week. Finally Sanidad Vegetal checks the milk in order to avoid the entrance of certain pests.

16. If the customs verifier requests to make a trail for each container, the release of the commodities takes much more time.

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220 I St. N.E., Suite 130
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October 1992 Issue Fourteen

Autumn in the United States has traditionally been a time of rich harvest and storing of summer's bounty. The contrast of plenty to the stark reports coming from drought and war-stricken lands is always difficult to contemplate. The heartrending photographs from Somalia depict hunger at its most extreme. The country has sent out appeals to be recognized as an independent state in order to open up the country to bilateral lenders to finance the major reconstruction needed. Right now the country is in urgent need of food, health supplies, water, and sanitation, but the uncertain security brought about by the warring factions has hindered relief efforts. Only Save the Children, International Medical Corps, and ICRC have been providing assistance under the harshest of conditions, but other PVOs are making plans for food programming in this war-torn country.

Nine southern African countries are at risk of mass starvation as food supplies run out. Relief officials are concerned about the slow pace in which donors are fulfilling their pledges; only 15 percent of the pledges have been met. A recent food security update warns of looming danger in Malawi, Mozambique, Lesotho, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. Botswana and Namibia are in less immediate danger.

The Malawi government had earmarked food for one million Mozambican refugees, but has now diverted it to its own starving people. Because of the drought, prospects for an immediate agricultural recovery are bleak and will remain so until there is steady rain. There is no money to begin agricultural recovery by buying seed, fertilizer, and tools. Many cattle have died or are too weak to work.

The Mozambique government and the rebel Mozambique National Resistance signed an agreement in July to allow convoys to travel in the country to distribute emergency relief, but the two sides have not yet formalized any accords with the donor community on how to dispense the relief. Mozambique's crippling food crisis is partly the result of the destruction of food routes and storage facilities in the 14-year war and partly because of the severe drought.

Zimbabwe has had to cut its handouts from 15 kilograms to five kilograms per month because of the overwhelming need. Lesotho has received only 13,000 tons of the 275,000 tons it requested but its people are a little bit more optimistic than other countries in the region because the agricultural season has begun and there have been heavy rains. Tanzania has had to face the major logistical problems of moving 70,000 tons of maize from two areas to other parts of the country. The country hopes to receive 15,000 tons of wheat in November.

PVOs in the field of food aid are facing some of their most difficult challenges in these times of acute emergencies. We salute the compassion and dedication of our field workers who often labor in war-torn countries under dangerous and risky conditions to bring humanitarian aid to the poorest of the poor.

HOW TO LOWER FREIGHT COSTS

Thanks to low-priced carriers and middlemen that negotiate group discounts, PVOs can achieve lower freight costs. Jon Jacobs of **International Business** offers the following tips:

> In ocean shipping, the lowest rates are offered by so-called independent lines, which operate outside the collective pricing groups known as conferences and tend to charge 5% to 15% below conference rates. Most independent lines make fewer voyages than conference members and are more likely to deviate from their published schedules.
>
> Shopping around for alternate entry ports that offer lower prices is another way of cutting costs.
>
> Many enjoy bargain rates by shipping through Canada. Smart shoppers also keep an eye out for rate discounts at locations that have much more incoming than outgoing freight. Such unbalanced cargo flows create local shortages of containers and chassis; carriers often respond by cutting rates just to get their equipment to a place where it is urgently needed.

Combining commodities into fewer and larger shipments can be an effective way to limit costs. Companies save money when they hold back non-urgent freight, either for a weekly shipment or until there is enough to fill a whole container. One company made sure to load at least 34,000 pounds into each container.

Using larger shipping containers can also yield dramatic savings. Standard ocean containers are 20 or 40 feet long by 8.5 feet high by 8.5 wide. A handful of lines also offer 45-foot lengths.

"SOS: Save on Shipping", **International Business**, Sept. 1992

New Catholic Relief Services Commodity Accounting Manual

Covers Planning, Port Warehouse, Distribution, and Reporting Procedures

CRS has released its new manual on food aid management. Although written to specifically strengthen CRS operations, the book has been freely distributed to other PVOs. As stressed in the introduction, "the rules of accountability apply regardless of who is actually running the program."

The book outlines the steps in each activity involved in planning and conducting food operations, describing each requirement and its relative importance. Case studies are used to illustrate examples. Relationships between documents such as AERs and MYOPs or between port lists and bills of lading are also elaborated.

A priority toward strengthening entire programs rather than merely meeting minimal requirements is stressed as in the chapter on storage that states, "Regardless of who owns and operates a warehouse, the country program should require all warehouses to adhere to a basic system of acknowledging receipts. It is disruptive to accountability if different standards and requirements are applied."

Practical advice is also found in each section. For example, "Sometimes logistical constraints can determine the timing of calls forward. A constraint could be an irregular shipping schedule. If previous history has shown that the time of shipments can vary considerably...a program might decide to call forward a supply for 6, 9, or even 12 months. This will require increasing in-country storage...but the ability to deliver the commodities to the beneficiaries on a regular basis might ooutweigh the work and cost." If one is interested in getting the manual, write Tim Taylor, CRS, 209 West Fayette St., Baltimore, MD 212011-3403.

Natsios Discusses Food Aid Policies

Andrew Natsios, A.I.D.'s Assistant Administrator for the Bureau of Food and Humanitarian Assistance, in remarks before the Committee on Food Aid Policies and Programmes of the World Food Programme in May 1992, drew attention to the strong influence of four interest groups--the farming community, non-governmental organizations, shipping companies and food processors on U.S. food aid policies and programs,

He noted the tensions that exist, as in other donor countries, between foreign policy and development policy objectives and changes in those tensions as a result of the end of the Cold War. There is also conflict between food aid for humanitarian and relief purposes and for developmental objectives. He discussed the unanticipated consequences of increasing audit and accounting requirements that tended to deter the use of food aid and the problems of integrating food aid into the development assistance programs of the A.I.D. and the non-governmental organizations.

Natsios identified several factors that were likely to affect future United States food aid including:

- using it to fill the gap between stagnant or declining levels of financial aid and the growing demand for development assistance;
- the continued support of interest groups; the decentralization of decision-making to U.S.A.I.D. country missions;
- the broad public support for disaster relief and for humanitarian assistance for poor people during the process of countries were going through;
- the support for food security, structural adjustment, policy reform and private sector development;
- More conditions applied in the U.S. aid programs.

When asked about the use of food aid to develop private sector institutions, Natsios assured the committee that careful steps were being taken on an experimental basis and with due consideration of the beneficiaries' needs. He saw no reason why food aid might not be sold on a selective basis to people with purchasing power through the commercial market in times of disaster. That approach would help meet food needs, restrain price inflation, encourage revitalization of market institutions, and generate local currency for humanitarian and reconstruction purposes. He recognized, however, that there still would remain the need for direct food-aid distribution to people without purchasing power.

Natsios talked about the reduction of U.S. food aid provided through PVOs and NGOs in Africa to supplementary feeding programs at mother/child health centers and for schools. He said that these organizations now emphasized community-based development projects as a more effective and long-lasting way of improving the nutrition of vulnerable groups.

PORTION OF ALL DEATHS WORLDWIDE THAT ARE OF CHILDREN UNDER THE AGE OF 5 IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: 1/3

Harpers Index, March 1990

Quotable Quotes

The following quote is from a paper "Beyond the Project: The Quest for Sustainability in the Third World" by David Gow, June 1988 which was commissioned by A.I.D. This paper was used as a resource paper for a workshop on sustainability during A.I.D.'s recent PVO week.

There is a growing consensus that one of the challenges facing development administration theorists and practitioners is to find a way to close the large gap between current practice and what is known about effective developmental management...Some of the reasons for this discrepancy are structural, others are philosophical. Within the field of international development, prestige accrues to those who make development policy rather than to those who actually make development come about--the practitioners and technicians (Montgomery 1979, 56).

As encountered in current literature on public policy, implementation refers to the task of carrying out policies and programs made elsewhere. Policy studies are the "big sciences", for reasons that are not altogether self-evident, implementation is often thought of as a subordinate function, lacking in social consequence or intellectual distinction.

There are several possible explanations for this discrimination. The first is simply intellectual arrogance. Those who make policy or help others make it often regard themselves as an elite, entitled to look down their noses at those who implement development projects and programs, whom they regard as the uninformed, the second-rate, "mere" technicians. A second explanation is that those who actually work at development may be working far from the centers of power, information, and learning, while those who make policy are right at the center (Grayzel 1986, 163-164).

This dichotomy is often reinforced by the prevailing incentive system. The reward for good field performance, for example--however it may be defined--is often a promotion that entails greater responsibility and authority. Almost invariably, this involves a move toward the locus of power within the agency or ministry concerned and thus a physical move toward a regional or national capital....

A third explanation is that in general few incentives are offered for effective implementation of development. In the U.S. Agency for International Development (AID), the incentive structure is still focused on "pushing money"--that is, on achieving the overall disbursement targets for particular development programs. Rewards come primarily from getting funds committed and projects approved and into the implementation stage. Those within AID responsible for administering implementation are usually lower-level staff who often have neither the authority nor the experience to do the job effectively (Morss and Morss 1982, 84-85).

Referring to this basic division of labor that now pervades the whole development effort, Dorner (1983, 297) has made the following sage observation:

There is the world of physical work and action; there is the world of ideas–the intellectual enterprise; and there is the world of public decision making–the public policy enterprise. They are not isolated activities; they are closely linked and interdependent...a recognition of the role and importance of these different functions–as well as their limitations–should be sufficient ground for approaching this complex task of development with a sense of humility.

...two main camps in the field of Third World development...that of the political economists, most of them social scientists and academics, who explain rural poverty, environmental degradation, and inequitable economic growth primarily as manifestations of social relations and structural factors. The second group includes the technocrats and the natural scientists, who regard such problems as arising out of physical and biological factors.

Concerned with change and getting things done, they firmly believe there are practical solutions to complex problems, often by means of a "technical fix".

The following excerpt is from **Hunger in History, Food Shortage, Poverty, and Deprivation,** *edited by Lucile F. Newman, Basil Blackwell, Inc., 1990. The quote is from Chapter 14, "Food Entitlements and Economic Chains" by Amartya Sen.*

Two different aspects of the prevalence of hunger have to be clearly distinguished. There is, first, the problem of periodic famines, acute starvation, and mass mortality. Despite the enormous increase in productive abilities and national income in the world, there have been persistently severe famines across the globe. Famines in Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan, Mozambique, the Sahel countries, Biafra, Bangladesh, and Kampuchea are just a few examples--many more can be given.

This problem of the persistence of famines has to be distinguished from that of the unrelieved continuation of food deprivation, hunger, and undernourishment in a large part of the world. Most often, in fact, hunger does not take its toll in a dramatic manner at all with millions dying in a visible way (as happens in famines). Instead, endemic hunger kills in a more concealed manner. People suffer from nutritional deficiency and from greater susceptibility to illness and disease. The insufficiency of food, along with the the inadequacy of related commodities...enhance both morbidity and mortality. It all happens rather quietly without any clearly visible deaths from hunger. Indeed so quiet can this process be that it is easy to overlook that such a terrible sequence of deprivation and decimation is taking place, covering--in difference degrees--much of the population of the poorer countries in the world.

In understanding the causation of regular and hunger and chronic under-nourishment on the one hand, and severe famines on the other, that failures of entitlement have to be correspondingly examined. While regular hunger is largely a result of inadequate entitlements on a continuing basis, famines are the result of disastrous declines of entitlements which typically occur rather suddenly. The landless laborer in a poor agricultural economy may be in a chronic shortage of command over food, and this will be reflected in persistent under-nourishment of families in such occupation groups. This need not lead to dramatic starvation and immediate mortality, but the food deprivation makes the families more prone to disease, leading to a higher probability of death at an early age.

Seasonal unemployment, low wages, and other economic deprivations become, thus, reflected in health conditions and demographic facts. But all this may happen quite gently. In contrast, members of the same occupation group of landless laborers may die in large numbers suddenly if there is a dramatic decline in employment or if there is a sharp rise in food prices, ushering in a famine. In this case the entitlement failure takes a much sharper and more severe form. ...The economic processes involved in regular hunger and transient famine may well be quite distinct, but they both involve failure of entitlement over food and related commodities, in different forms.

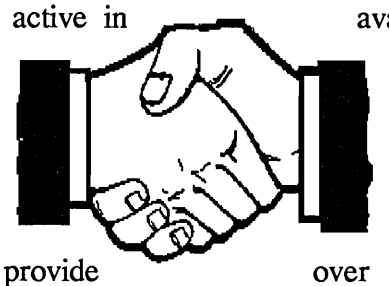
The next quote and accompanying chart are from "Food Security Discussion Paper" prepared for U.S.A.I.D. by Luther Tweeten, John Mellor, Shlomo Reutlinger, and James Pines and published in May 1992.

Food aid should not be used to subvert appropriate food security policies, yet this is precisely what occurs when food aid, like other commodity aid, is monetized inappropriately or haphazardly. For instance, wheat aid that is sold to a mill for less than the price of wheat available from other sources (commercial imports or domestic procurement) in effect provides a food subsidy at the same time that USAID and other external assistance agencies have negotiated long and hard for the abolition of such subsidies.

If most of Title I, Title II, and Title III food aid is to be monetized, some basic food marketing issues must be addressed; the timing of sales, the mode of selling (through auctions, etc.) and the utilization and control of funds from the proceeds of the sales. The PVOs handling most of Title II food aid have so far enjoyed much independence, with rights encoded in U.S. food aid legislation. There needs to be dialogue between U.S.A.I.D. and the PVOs if there is to be greater coordination on monetization and the implementation of a consistent policy for improving food security.

PVO Activity in the NIS

On September 14, 1992 the United States offered $250 million in food aid and other kinds of assistance as part of a $1.15 billion package to the former Soviet Union. It is anticipated that the $250 million will be distributed through the PVOs. The PVO community has been active in working with the Newly Independent States (NIS).



Currently ADRA has an agreement with USDA to distribute $12 million worth of food to people in the Urals. ADRA Germany is seeking a grant to provide food to the European parts of the former Soviet Union, including the Baltic republics, Belarussia, Georgia, Moldova, the Ukraine, and western Russia, including Moscow. The project is proposed to run from February to April and is worth close to $3 million. The food will be targeted to help children, orphans, the elderly, pregnant and nursing women, the homeless and the unemployed. Dry milk, butter oil, beans, lentils, bulgur, and rice will be distributed.

The American Joint Jewish Distribution Committee has signed an agreement with USDA to deliver $9 million worth of non-fat dry milk, peas, rice, beans, vegetable oil, and powdered infant formula to Russia. On August 5, 1992, a AJJDC airlift arrived in Sarajevo. AJJDC worked with IRC to get the 5 tons of food into the besieged city. Once in Sarajevo, members of the Jewish community worked with Caritas and others to distribute the food to those in need.

Brother's Brother Foundation received a $17 million grant from USDA to send food to Russia. Distribution of the food in Moscow has begun.

CARE is doing a distribution program in the Urals region of western-central Russia through a grant from USDA valued at over $14 million. Food deliveries, scheduled to begin in May, will go to approximately 200,000 beneficiaries. Distribution will continue for five months and provide flour, vegetable oil, beans, and powdered milk to pensioners, the elderly, shut-ins, and to institutions. CARE will also monitor general food availability in its areas of operation to gather systematic data on conditions in the CIS, CARE has signed two agreements with the U.S. Government to provide food and technical assistance to the CIS over the next 10 months. USAID/OFDA will fund a $2 million program in which CARE will provide technical assistance and logistical support to U.S. PVOs providing over $100 million worth of food to Russia and several other republics of the CIS.

Catholic Relief Services has signed an agreement with USDA to deliver 30,000 metric tons worth of commodities to Vladisvostok, Khabarovsk, and Kosomolsk. CRS hopes to reach at least a million people regularly through this project.

Mercy Corps has an agreement with USDA to distribute 3,000 metric tons of wheat flour to direct feeding programs in Kazakahstan.

Salvation Army has 18 feeding stations in Moscow, feeding 6,000 people a day. The food was provided by the U.S. Government in Operation Provide Hope. The are also working with World Vision to distribute that agency's food in Moscow.

World Vision Relief and Development has an agreement with USDA to distribute $7.5 million metric tons of food in Armenia. They have distributed privately funded family food packs to vulnerable groups in Ural Mountain region cities, Armenia, and southern Belarus. Almost 2100 metric tons of food totaling $800,000 has been distributed.

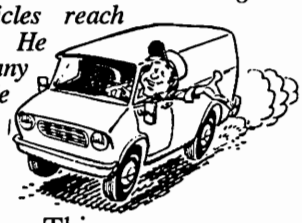
Estimated Value of PL 480 Exports by State

State	FY 1990 $ in millions Amount
Alabama	4.3
Arizona	5.0
Arkansas	76.7
California	54.6
Colorado	27.6
Delaware	1.1
Florida	1.7
Georgia	10.7
Idaho	40.2
Ilinois	105.0
Indiana	50.9
Iowa	75.8
Kansas	97.8
Kentucky	14.0
Louisiana	24.5
Maine	0.1
Maryland	3.3
Michigan	25.7
Minnesota	62.7
Mississippi	23.8
Missouri	49.8
Montana	38.3
Nebraska	54.9
New Jersey	0.7
New Mexico	0.9
New York	1.7
N.Carolina	11.8
N.Dakota	47.0
Ohio	41.7
Oklahoma	58.8
Oregon	26.2
Pennsylvania	2.2
S. Carolina	3.2
S. Dakota	33.7
Tennessee	5.2
Texas	55.7
Utah	0.3
Virginia	5.9
Washington	52.0
Wisconsin	10.6
Wyoming	2.0
Total:	1,207.9

"Why Foreign Aid?" U.S.A.I.D., April 1992

Vehicle Maintenance Tips

Vehicle maintenance is a crucial component of any food distribution project. Dre Brungardt, the editor of Nuts and Bolts has given us some important hints to help vehicles reach 100,000 mileage mark and beyond. He has generously offered to answer any questions you might have about vehicle maintenance as a regular feature in our publication. Send your inquiries to FOOD FORUM.



Making sudden starts and stops: This causes needless wear to your engine, transmission, and brakes.

Downshifting needlessly: In the early days of automobiles, drivers shifted into a lower gear when descending hills or approaching busy intersections. This is hard on the engine and transmission. Use your brakes--they are much less costly to repair.

Driving with a cold engine: Drive off slowly. Don't be in a hurry when first starting. The engine should be under light load when it is warming up. Accelerate slowly. Flooring the gas pedal when the engine is cold is a major reason for blown head gaskets. Jackrabbit starts are to be avoided like the plague. Wide open throttle operation is to be reserved only for avoiding huge trucks. Drive as if you have an egg between your foot and the gas pedal.

Shifting gears haphazardly: Using gears to slow down should be done only when descending a long grade to keep the brakes from fading. At all other times, use the brakes to slow the car down. Brakes are cheaper to replace than transmissions and clutches. Shifting too soon or late is bad. Lugging and overrevving causes unnecessary wear. Try to keep the engine between 2000 and 3000 rpms. Treat the clutch like a hot potato, using it sparingly. Don't keep the clutch pedal pressed any more than necessary. Downshift into first gear only after shifting into second gear. This helps the first gear synchronizers work better and they will last longer. Do the same for reverse. Keep your hand off the gear shifter when driving. This causes the transmission selector forks to wear off.

Changing oil regularly: Change motor oil once every three months or 3,000 miles. This is cheap insurance against engine wear. To keep oil clean between changes, select the biggest oil filter that will fit under your hood.

Replacing the battery: Replace a battery 6 months before its effective life is up. This will prevent the charging system from running all the time as it would have to do to keep charging an old, weak battery.

FOOD AID MONETIZATION FOR FAMINE RELIEF

Steve Hansch is FAM's Program Director and wrote the paper, from which this section is excerpted, as a background paper on the subject of monetization.

The application of Title II food aid monetization to respond to famines is relatively new, but it makes a lot of sense. Moving large volumes of food, in a great urgency, to broad, rural areas where millions of people share a common risk from a lack of local food supplies puts an enormous strain on PVO. It is expensive for a PVO to drop into place a distribution network with a large truck fleet, accounting practices, tracking procedures, and the support staff to service the transport and conduct the distribution and administration. In the worst famines, PVOs often spend more donated money on transporting food than the food is worth to begin with. By monetizing food aid, the PVOs are taking advantage of, preserving, and re-stimulating the local, natural distribution networks. Local merchants do not need lead times or start-up costs to begin immediately moving food throughout the indigenous, diffuse market network that normally provides goods and is appropriately matched to population densities. In ungoverned areas such as southeastern Ethiopia (where PVO staff have recently been robbed, shot, and killed) using extant market mechanisms, through monetization, may be the **only** way to move food to needy people.

"In the worst famines, PVOs often spend more donated money on transporting food than the food is worth to begin with."

Thus monetization in famines directly addresses the food supply issue, making more food available to everyone. Both the PVOs and the World Food Programme are monetizing food now in Liberia to help that country through its period of emergency.

Monetization also addresses the main symptom of famines: high food prices. Some famines occur precisely because the fear of famine drives up food prices in a speculative frenzy. The more the threat of famine looms in local peoples' minds, the more they store and hide their food. Food traders, watching food prices rise, naturally hold back from selling their food stocks until food prices have reached their peak. Ironically, this rise in prices can result more from fear and a bidding war than on actual food supplies or on peoples' needs. In 1943, more than 3 million people died in the famous Bengal Famine in India. Yet the region had a better-than-average crop that year. But the prices rose because of fears about government interventions in markets and the possibility of a Japanese invasion. As food prices rose, millions of the working poor lost their jobs, lost all ability to purchase food, and starved to death.

Another important function is to help stabilize prices. This can be accomplished by:

- Increasing overall supply, which naturally drives prices lower.
- Signalling to speculators that the price spiral has ended which helps spiral bidding prices come down and thus helps release private stocks immediately.
- Signalling to retailers that more food (aid) is on the way and therefore they begin to move inventory.
- Strengthening the role of the small retailers and merchants in distributing food and reducing the role of those who would sequester food or inhibit trade for personal gain.
- Beginning to improve food security at the household and individual levels helps to diminish the feelings of desperation and psychological fears about future starvation

thus reducing recourse to banditry and violence.

Food aid monetization is particularly appropriate for addressing the current food shortage in Somalia. Monetization can bring large quantities of food into a range of local markets throughout Somalia faster than any other mechanism available to aid agencies. Food monetized by one PVO last year up in the northern coast of Somalia was found feeding people far to the south in Belet Huen. The larger merchant wholesalers have their own security forces to protect their shipments to areas of highest need. Food losses and pilfering is lowest for food moved through these private channels.

Monetization in Somalia will help release other local food supplies and bring all food prices back down to where the very poor can afford to barter or purchase food again. The cash generated from this will be used to help PVOs distribute food to the most vulnerable groups such as the elderly, infants, pregnant and lactating women, orphans, and the handicapped. The International Community of the Red Cross operates hundreds of kitchens giving hot meals throughout Somalia and is greatly in need of other PVOs and resources to accompany this effort.

Most importantly, monetization will return the country to a point where neighbors are no longer pitted against neighbors in acts of desperate violence over small quantities of precious food.

A recent paper entitled "Issues in Food Aid and Nutrition" was written recently for the World Food Programme. In this and following issues of FOOD FORUM, we will be publishing some of the issues and invite your comments or reactions. These issues are among those currently under discussion in the effort to improve the effectiveness of targeted food aid. This excerpt is about sharing and displacement.

Foods distributed to households as take-home rations or fed to individuals on site do not necessarily constitute additional consumption--they might be shared with other household or community members or replace foods that otherwise would have been eaten. While adequate data on the occurrence and effects of displacement and sharing are not available, a few assumptions have been verified.

- When sharing takes place, it is often with other needy members of the household.
- While school children may receive less food at home because parents assume that are adequately fed at school, the net effect is likely to be positive, as the household food withheld is usually less than the food provided at school. In addition, the food thus saved is usually given to pre-school-aged children, who also benefit from the additional consumption.
- On-site feeding of vulnerable groups becomes additional consumption if the food is not provided at usual mealtimes. Food given to school children mid-morning, for example, is considered to be a snack by the household; thus it is less likely to displace home-provided food that the same food given at "breakfast" or "lunch" times.

As is apparent from the above, increments in the household food supply tend to be disproportionately benefit children. Sometimes this is due to the fact that food items have different status in all societies. Some foods, those that are cheaper or easier to acquire and those that are unfamiliar, are of lower status than more expensive or familiar foods. Lower-status foods are usually given to women and children. Since food provided as aid is often considered to be of low status, it may specifically contribute to increased consumption by vulnerable groups.

Nevertheless, more information is needed on household practices in sharing available food supplies and the effects of food aid on such practices under different situations. The issues include increased knowledge about the following factors:

- the effects of specific food aid commodities on household food sharing and consumption;
- the effects of different distribution systems (e.g., individual or family rations, take-home rations, or on-site feeding) on household food sharing and consumption;
- the effects of distribution of cash or food or a mix of cash and food on household nutrition;
- the effects of timing of food distribution (e.g., different times of day, week, or year) on household food sharing and consumption.

Urban Food for Work Reviewed in Bolivia

Food for Work programs can improve local food security by successfully self-targeting the poor and creating valuable infrastructure, according to Jim Pines and Nina Schlossman at a recent presentation of the results of their study, "An Assessment of the Income, Food Security, and Nutrition Consequences of Urban Food for Work in Bolivia" commissioned by the Women and Infant Nutrition Support Project in Washington, D.C. The authors felt that it is imperative to examine the personal costs of participation to food-for-work-participants in assessing the overall benefits. The authors identified a number of cautioning factors they feel should apply to any Food for Work project:

Nutrition and food security can be enhanced if the projects target low income areas; the poorest workers, and public works activities such as sanitation;

More important than the content of the ratio are the time and energy required to perform the tasks to earn it; and the number of rations per month that a family is permitted to earn;

Successful infrastructure projects provide benefits directly evident within the workers' own communities;

The setting of tasks required for earning rations should be reviewed regularly to equal payment for equal work within and between projects;

PVOs should reduce the time burdens on participants, for instance by not having them travel far from their homes for payment certification;

PVOs should minimize other costs to participants by providing tools, credit funds, accident insurance, and making dental insurance optional.

Alternate Foreign Aid Budget Proposed

With all the talk during the election season of overhauling U.S. foreign aid, it it is interesting to note that a plan already exists. In a recent analysis of U.S. foreign aid by the Overseas Development Council, titled **Challenges and Priorities in the 1990s**, the authors propose an alternative budget that stays within the current $22 billion spending level but:

- Increases debt relief;
- Increases overseas refugee and peacekeeping assistance spending;
- Doubles the number of Peace Corps Volunteers;
- Increases the child survival budget;
- Creates a sustainable development fund of $2 billion that focuses on rural poverty through public works and employment generation;
- Eliminates security-related and military financing aid;
- Lessens the size of A.I.D.

"I must do something" will always solve more problems than "Something must be done."

Recent FARM Acquisitions

The Food Aid Resource Materials (FARM)library provides the PVO community, A.I.D., and interested individuals a resource to locate and acquire valuable documentation on international food aid. The library continues to grow at an average of five documents weekly. It includes historical material, books, recent evaluations, workshop reports, field manuals, etc. Contact Jeff Farr at 202-544-6972 (phone) or 202-544-7065 (fax). The following are a sampling of our most recent additions:

#535: **Access to Food Assistance: Strategies for Improvement**, Refugee Policy Group, March 1992.

#540: **CRS Commodity Management Manual.**

#545: **Policy Determination: Definition of Food Security**, A.I.D.

#552: **The Political Economy of African Famine**, Downs, R.E.

#564: **Challenges and Priorities in the 1990s**, Sewell, John W.

#571: **Targeting Food Subsidies**, A.I.D.

#578: **Food Security Discussion Paper**, A.I.D.

#584 **Food Aid in Africa: An Agenda for the 1990s**, A Joint Study by the World Bank and WFP, World Bank.

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April-May 1996 Issue Number 32

FOOD FORUM

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A 2020 Vision for Food, Agriculture and the Environment

Around 90 million people–equivalent to Mexico's population in 1990–are likely to be added to the world's population every year in the next quarter century, the largest annual population increase in history.

Two-thirds of the world's degraded lands are found in Asia and Africa, but human-induced degradation is most severe in Africa, where 30 percent of the agricultural land, pastures, forests, and woodlands are degraded, followed by Asia (27 percent) and Latin America (18 percent).

The International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), in collaboration with several national and international institutions, launched an initiative on A 2020 Vision for Food, Agricultural, and the Environment. The initiative has two objectives: 1) to develop and promote a vision for eradicating hunger and malnutrition while protecting the environment; and 2) to generate information and encourage debate to influence action by national governments, nongovernmental organizations, the private sector, and international development institutions to realize the 2020 Vision.

Recommended Action

The problems and challenges of the 2020 vision–eradication of hunger and malnutrition, sustainable management of natural resources, and efficient, effective, and low-cost agricultural systems–will be realized only if broad-based economic development is accelerated, particularly in low-income developing countries; if sound practices for managing natural resources are adopted; if investments in research, technology, and infrastructure are enhanced; if competitive markets are encouraged; if women have a greater voice in decision making at all levels; if low-income people, especially women, gain greater access to remunerative employment, productive assets, markets, education, and health care; and if armed conflicts and civil strife are limited.

Agriculture's dual contribution in fostering broad-based sustainable economic development and meeting future food needs must be better recognized and exploited. Agriculture is a major contributor to overall economic development in developing countries, especially the lowest-income ones where it provides three-quarters of employment, nearly half of GDP, and more than half of all export earnings. The recent tendency by international development institutions and developing-country governments to reduce investments in agriculture because the global food supply situation is sufficient to meet current market demand fails to recognize that many people go hungry because they are too poor to convert their food needs into effective market demand. It also fails to recognize the tremendous opportunities the agriculture sector offers for accelerating broad-based economic development and reducing poverty in both rural and urban areas, thereby improving food security. Developing countries must take advantage of the opportunities offered by the agriculture sector to realize the 2020 Vision.

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FAM

Recommended Action

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No magic solution will make the 2020 Vision a reality. The action needed is not new, but it will require joint efforts by and new or strengthened partnerships between individuals, households, farmers, local communities, the private sector, civil society, national governments, and the international community. It will require a change in behavior, priorities, and policies. And it will require strengthened cooperation between industrialized and developing countries as well as among developing countries.

Each country must design its own action program. As a general guideline, however, research and consultations identified the need for sustained action in six priority areas to realize the 2020 Vision. These recommendations may serve as a point of departure for the design of country-specific strategies and action:

1. Strengthen the capacity of developing country governments to perform appropriate functions;
2. Enhance the productivity, health, and nutrition of low-income people and increase their access to employment and productive assets;
3. Strengthen agricultural research and extension systems in and for developing countries; enveloping
4. Promote sustainable agricultural intensification and sound management of natural resources, with increased emphasis on areas with agricultural potential, fragile soils, limited rainfall,ill, and widespread poverty;
5. Develop efficient, effective, and lowcost agricultural input and output markets; and
6. Expand international cooperation and assistance and improve its efficiency and effectiveness.

The strategy discussed here is focussed mostly on developing-country governments; however, it should be recognized that industrialized countries have a responsibility to maintain policies, including agriculture and trade policies, that facilitate, rather than impede, the realization of the 2020 Vision.

"For the 2020 Vision to be realized, the efforts and contributions of civil society must be fully recognized and supported and a more effective coordination and distribution of labor between government and civil society must be achieved."

Strengthening the Capacity of Developing-Country Governments to Perform Their Appropriate Functions

More effective national and local governments are essential to realize the 2020 Vision. The other partners-individuals, households, farmers, private sector, NGOs, and other members of civil society-cannot realize the 2020 Vision on their own. The success of their efforts depends on the economic, social, and political conditions created or supported by governments.

A transition in the role of governments has been under way in a number of countries in recent years, but there remains considerable confusion and disagreement about their role. Current efforts to reform the public sector threaten to weaken the ability and capacity of many governments to carry out the activities they should undertake. Each country must identify the appropriate functions of its government vis-a-vis other parts of society. The government's capacity to perform these functions must be strengthened while it relinquishes those functions better performed by others. Predictability and transparency in policy making and enforcement, currently lacking in many countries, are critical to assist the private sector to anticipate the investment environment. Continuity in policy design and implementation is also important.

Improved security and personal safety in rural and urban areas are prerequisites for realizing the 2020 Vision; governments must maintain law and order. Where armed conflicts and civil strife are occurring or are imminent, civil society, governments, and the international community must give priority to conflict resolution and prevention. International development institutions, in partnership with

"The 2020 Vision will not be realized unless developing countries invest in poor people to improve their well-being, increase their productivity, and enhance their access to remunerative employment and productive assets."

governments and communities, should expand and strengthen early warning systems and response mechanisms for food and political crises. National and international development agencies should incorporate conflict prevention into program and project planning by identifying areas where the potential for conflict is high and defusing them by delivering aid in a manner that avoids competition and fosters or demands cooperation among groups or communities; by directing resources to those areas that might be conflict-prone; by finding and promoting "engines of growth" to overcome perceived scarcities and to move people beyond scarcities; and by providing opportunities for men and women from conflict-affected areas to participate in project planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Governments must develop and enforce rules, regulations, standards, and measures in private-sector markets and promote and assure competition in these markets. States play an important role in assuring that conditions necessary for competition in private-sector markets are present. Governments must also invest in or facilitate private-sector investment in education, health care, agricultural research, infrastructure, and other public goods.

Policies to support the 2020 Vision should be guided by a long-term national strategy for food security, human nutrition agricultural development, and management of natural resources. The agricultural system (including production, processing, distribution, and related activities) is likely to be the most appropriate cornerstone of such a strategy, especially in low-income developing countries, given its pivotal role in food production, income generation, employment provision, export earnings, and general economic development.

If, as many countries have agreed, freedom from hunger is a basic human right, governments should live up to this commitment by facilitating a social and economic environment that provides all citizens with the opportunity to obtain adequate food. Rather than striving for national self-sufficiency in food (by producing all of the food needed to meet market demand), countries should strive for sustainable self-reliance in food (by producing or importing enough food to meet market demand at reasonable prices).

An appropriate macroeconomic environment is essential to realize the 2020 Vision. Governments must maintain exchange rates and monetary and fiscal policies appropriate for accelerated broad based economic development. Subsidies (explicit and implicit), policies, and regulations that lower the cost of capital relative to labor and promote capital-intensive growth where labor is relatively cheap must be avoided. Macroeconomic reforms and structural adjustment programs should be continued, but redesigned where necessary to promote enhance their access to international markets through bilateral and multilateral trade negotiations and regional integration. They should push for full and timely implementation of the recently concluded GATT agreement, and press for further reform of global trade in agriculture and other sectors to accelerate income growth and assure that the increasing trend toward regional trade or economic arrangements is compatible with subsequent international trade liberalization. At the same time, they should implement existing regional integration agreements in a manner that does not preclude subsequent global integration.

As governments strengthen their capacity to fulfil their proper role, they must let go of activities best done by other groups in society, such as private enterprise or NGOs. In many countries, NGOs and other parts of civil society have come to play a much more important role in areas traditionally covered by government, such as poverty relief and other transfer programs for low income people, health care and nutrition programs, income-generation schemes, credit programs for low-income rural households, management of natural resources, and agricultural extension. NGOs have also been effective in influencing government action through advocacy For the 2020 Vision to be realized, the efforts and

Strengthening the Capacity...
Cont'd. pg. 5

NGO Consultation on Humanitarian and Food Assistance in the Greater Horn of Africa

The International NGO Consultation on Humanitarian and Food Assistance in the Greater Horn of Africa was convened by Save the Children Federation (USA) and the InterAfrica Group from October 23 to October 27, 1995 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

This consultation provided an informal setting for the international NGOs who provide humanitarian assistance in the Greater Hom of Africa to analyze their work. The principal theme of the meeting was food security and the use of food assistance in humanitarian crises. Under this broad theme, three interrelated topics were discussed:

1. A need to reassess our community's collective impact on humanitarian crises in various countries of the Greater Horn over the past decade and to achieve greater perspective on how humanitarian interventions in "complete" emergencies have both positive, life-saving outcomes and negative effects on the ability of nations and communities to rebuild.

2. A perception that international NGOs in the Greater Horn face a changing environment, in which governments in the region as well as donors are looking more critically at such organization's humanitarian activities and raising questions as to their commitment to accountability and to enhancing local crisis-response capacity.

3. A need to examine in greater depth the issue of vulnerability assessment, especially to food security emergencies, and to exchange information on the early warning and vulnerabilility assessment tools being used in various situations throughout the region.

The international NGOs working in the Greater Horn have had to acknowledge the changing role of the regional governments and donors, leading towards greater empowerment of the regional governments. NGOs have also had to contend with areas in which the nation state has collapsed and waring parties are motivated not by ideology but by crass self-interest. Western military interventions and the use of local mercenaries by NGOs have led to a blurring of the humanitarian-military roles and a loss of the integrity of humanitarian symbols.

As a result, there is a need for more sophisticated approaches to the structuring of humanitarian support and to the mechanics of the delivery of relief assistance, using as a starting point the principle of "first, do no harm." Greater attention needs to be paid to community dynamics and to "negative externalities" that can color even the most straightforward relief assistance. There may, in many cases, be reasons for a radical rethinking of approach and in some situations for forgoing outside intervention altogether.

It is also clear that new, more coordinated approaches are needed in the assesment of vulnerability and for projecting likely emergency needs at the regional and community levels. Many international NGOs have developed sophisticated field survey methodologies to identify the capacities and vulnerabilities of target communities. The resulting data helps them target resources and better understand a community's food security strategy. A number of approaches currently in use were presented to the consultation. These need to be developed in ways that encourage partnership among NGOs and that build on and strengthen governmental initiatives where these exist (e.g., Ethiopia and Eritrea), rather than encouraging parallel structures and redundancy.

Discussion also centered around the need for a greater contextualization of relief strategies by NGOs, taking local social, political, military and economic dynamics into account. For this to happen NGOs must improve their internal capacities (a) in the analysis and understanding of the context of emergency situa-

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Washington Legislative Outlook
STATUS OF FOOD AID LEGISLATION

by Ellen Levinson,
Coalition for Food Aid
March 8, 1996

The statutory authority for AID and USDA to enter into agreements under P.L. 480 and Food for Progress expired on December 31, 1995. The U.S. Congress is currently working on the final draft of legislation that would reauthorize these programs through 2002 as part of the so-called "Farm Bill" which would revise a wide range of agriculture-related programs. The Congress hopes to pass a final bill by April, 1996, which would be a combination of provisions from a House-passed bill (H.R. 2854) and a Senate-passed bill (S. 1541).

Cooperating Sponsors have been actively involved in hearings and discussions before the Congress on the future of international food aid programs. The Coalition For Food Aid and its members led a campaign to assure continued and strong support for these programs and many of the concerns expressed by coalition members will be addressed in the Farm Bill. Key provisions in both the House and Senate versions, and therefore likely to be included in the final bill, include:

1. Conversion of the current Food Security Wheat Reserve into a Commodity Reserve that will permit up to 500,000 mt of commodities to be made available for emergency needs each year (until the Reserve runs out) in addition to P.L. 480-funded programs).

2. Extension of the minimum tonnage requirement of 1.025 mmt under title II for each fiscal year, of which 1.55 mmt is for non-emergency PVO, cooperative and WFP programs. A new provision is added that the AID Administrator cannot waive these minimum levels before the beginning of each fiscal year.

3. A statement that a title II proposal by an eligible organization cannot be denied merely because the program would be carried out in a country where there is no AIDS mission or the program does not fit into AID's strategy for the targeted country.

4. Title II commodities may be sold in one country and the local currencies used in that country or other countries in the region. The minimum level for monetization would be increased from 10 to 15% of the commodities made available for non-emergency programs.

5. The maximum amount of funds that can be made available for administrative, transportation, and other program costs under the 202(e) grant program would be increased from $13.5 to $28 million each year. In addition to PVOs and cooperatives, WFP would be eligible to receive some of these funds. The funds would not necessarily have to be used in association with a specific program and therefore could be used for institutional support related to title II.

6. The annual "docket" determination would be simplified. Currently, when the Secretary of Agriculture determines the types and amounts of commodities that can be purchased during a particular fiscal year with P.L. 480 funds, the determination includes consideration of U.S. domestic supplies, carryover stocks and commercial exports. Under the new legislation, only domestic supplies and carryover will have to be taken into consideration.

7. Under Food for Progress, it would be clarified that technical assistance costs for monetization programs can be covered with administrative funds.

There are quite a few outstanding issues that need to be resolved before a final Farm Bill is passed by the Congress and signed by the President. And, while the authorizing legislation is being finalized, the FY 1997 appropriations level for P.L. 480 will also be under consideration by the Congress. So, stay tuned...

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contributions of civil society must be fully recognized and supported and a more effective coordination and distribution of labor between government and civil society must be achieved.

National governments must delegate more policy responsibility and authority to provincial and local governments and encourage fuller participation by local people in local decisions. This will make government policies and public-sector spending more effective and responsive to local needs and resources while providing a better foundation for interaction between government and civil society

The international assistance agencies, including bilateral donors and multilateral institutions, should support these actions through technical and financial assistance.

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Cont'd. from pg. 4

tions; and (b) in their "tradecraft"–in the practical skills related to delivering resources in ways that minimizes leakages, maxirnize appropriate targeting, and involve communities in ways that promote equity and fairness..

While the consultation did not formally endorse a series of recommendations, most participants agreed that NGOs need to do better at cooperating with each other and with new policy enviroments to ensure comparability and complimentarity among NGO efforts as well as with local efforts by governments and others. Where significant sources are being devoted to these efforts, greater heed must be paid to their sustainability and to whether they are indeed serving overall to enhance long-term analytical and planning capacity among local partners.

Aid on the Front Line

The World Food Program reported that on December 20, 1995, grenades were thrown through the windows of the residences of World Food Program and International Federation of the Red Cross staff in Burundi. In one of the two explosions, two expatriate staff of Action International Contre la Faim (AICF) were injured. The incident resulted in all international relief staff being evacuated from the Ngozi and Kirundo regions where the incidents took place.

At a seemingly increasing rate, international aid workers are finding themselves at the center of heated national and regional conflicts and their nonpartisan role is being questioned. The *Washington Post's* Stephen Rosenfeld followed these events in Burundi with these comments:

"The heavy rap on the providers of care is that, while humanitarian aid has saved millions of lives, on repeated occasions it has also unwittingly or helplessly, exacerbated the very conflicts it means to ease. Mull, for instance, the extreme case of CARE Canada's stewardship of a refuge camp in Zaire that harbors, among needy others, well-ensconced perpetrators of Rwanda's genocide.

"A major problem occurs when food and supplies intended for a civilian population are 'taxed,' levied or stolen by a warring party. This not only deprives hungry civilians of food, turning a program for peace into an instrument of war. It also happens that aid provided by the international agencies frees up similar resources within a given country for warring parties to use to further their own goals.

"Then–adds Mary B. Anderson, who runs Collaborative for Development Action in Cambridge, Mass.–the agencies inevitably convey 'ethical messages' in their provision of humanitarian aid. When agencies negotiate with warring parties to gain access to civilians, hire armed guards to protect their staffs and deliver goods or use stories of war atrocities to educate and raise funding back home, they themselves become parties to the conflict and convey an implicit message that it is legitimate for arms to decide who gets access to aid.

"Finally, the agencies inevitably take on some official coloration. Donors–governments and U.N. agencies–increasingly rely on them to act as their agents in making aid arrangements and reporting on local conditions. This can raise questions among recipients and warring parties about the independence and neutrality of the agencies. Working as they do under contract for donors with interests extending far beyond relief, supported by them and sometimes protected by them, they are hardly free agents in dealing with these issues.

"It is tough on the agencies. In the hollowed-out countries where they practice, they are not simply on the leading edge of the 'social work' side of American foreign policy but close to the heart and the sum of it. They are literally on the front line. The current dilemma of foreign aid workers in Burundi is whether to honor their mission and face personal attack or to leave for safety and abandon the people they came to save. They have a moral and sometimes an explicitly religious aspect that

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Asian NGOs Issue Food Security Declaration

In September 1995, a broad range of sustainable agriculture, consumer, development and women's nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) met in Bangkok, Thailand, to formulate food security strategies at a conference organized by the Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ANGOC). Part-icipants expressed concern that food insecurity and scarcity continue to exist in Asia despite the region's economic growth, and issued a declaration in preparation for the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) World Food Summit 1996.

The declaration "Food for All" examines key elements of food security, emphasizing that access to nutritious food is best assured when it is locally produced, processed, stored and distributed. The Declaration further states that food security implies an array of social, economic and environmental goals, including incorporation of women into decision-making processes, just distribution of land and production assets, adequate food safety standards and enforcement, and the right of communities to make informed choices regarding healthful eating patterns. Food security requires agricultural systems that maintain farm worker health, biological diversity, farmers' access to genetic resources, soil fertility and watershed protection.

Participants at the ANGOC conference identified unequal distribution of wealth, power and resources as major barriers to food security. Other constraints include: certification of food; environmental degradation; trade agreements that encourage cash cropping rather than food production; and misguided agricultural research, which is often carried out by international agricultural research institutions without farmer participation. The NGO Declaration points out that Green Revolution technologies, promoted by international agricultural institutions, have displaced indigenous knowledge of agriculture and nutrition.

The Declaration also provides an agenda for local, national and international policy changes to improve food security. For example, it requires that poor rural communities be given access to and control over land for food production through agrarian land reform and assistance in capacity-building organizations such as seed banks. Agricultural trade policies under GATT must be changed to prevent cheap imported foods from destroying markets for local production, and intellectual property rights systems must be reformed to take into account farmer's rights. The central role of women to long-term food self-sufficiency also must be recognized, and women's access to land, extension services and technological expertise must be ensured.

Enhancing the Productivity, Health, and Nutrition of Low-income People and Increasing Their Access to Employment and Productive Assets

In summary, the 2020 Vision initiative recommends that governments should:

- Assure access to and support for a complete primary education for all children, with immediate emphasis on female and rural children;
- Assure access to primary health care, including reproductive health services, for all people;
- Improve access to clean water and sanitation for all people;
- Provide training in literacy and skill development for adults;
- Strengthen and enforce legislation and provide incentives to empower women;
- Improve access by the poor to productive resources;
- Improve targeting of programs to the poor; and
- Maintain support for effective early warning systems and other disaster preparedness and management systems.

Madrid Humanitarian Summit Declaration

On 14 December, 1995, the Humanitarian Summit was held in Madrid, Spain. The Summit was convened by Emma Bonino, European Commissioner for Humanitarian Aid. Signatories to the following declaration include the USAID Administrator, Executive Director of UNICEF, Executive Director of WFP, European Commissioner for Humanitarian Aid, President of the Liaison Committee of Development NGO's to the European Union, United Nations Under Secretary General for Humanitarian Affairs, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, President of Medecins Sans Frontiers, President of the International Committee for the Red Cross, and President of Interaction.

The high points of the Declaration are as follows:

We, leaders and representatives of prominent humanitarian agencies and donors, met this day, the 14th of December 1995, for a Humanitarian Summit.

RECALLING

1.1 That in response to ever-growing needs, global humanitarian assistance has increased many-fold in the past five years to exceed today 4 billion dollars. In 1994 an estimated 45 million people depended on humanitarian assistance.

1.2 That in line with our respective mandates and responsibilities, we remain committed to relieve the plight of victims of man-made and natural disasters when and where we can, and to support and encourage local and regional initiatives to address crises.

1.3 That since the end of the Cold War, the world is torn by some 50 armed conflicts.

1.4 That too often the cases of humanitarian disasters still lie deep in the social and economic injustice existing within and between nations.

1.5 That the work of humanitarian organizations is guided by the principles of humanity, impartiality, neutrality and independence.

WE APPEAL TO THE INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY AT LARGE FOR:

2.1 Determination to take whatever resolute decisive action may be necessary to resolve crisis situations and not to use humanitarian activities as a substitute for political action.

2.2 The development of a global system of proactive crisis prevention.

2.3 A new and imaginative commitment to development assistance.

2.4 A global campaign against hunger which afflicts one out of every seven people on earth.

2.5 Greater stress on and support for preparedness measures, especially for natural disaster.

2.6 Resources to bring relief and political solutions also to the many "forgotten" crises which do not hit, or quickly slip from, the international headlines.

2.7 Urgent steps to address the deliberate targeting of civilians, in today's conflicts.

2.8 Measures to address the specific protection and assistance needs of the millions of people who have fled within their own countries as a result of conflict.

2.9 Urgent attention to be given to the needs and protection of all victims, with priority to women, children and the elderly, who are invariably the vast majority of all victims of armed conflict.

2.10 Resources to remain available to meet the challenge of rebuilding war-shattered societies and thus consolidate a peace settlement and prevent the seeds of future disaster from being sown.

2.11 All concerned to respect the humanitarian and non-political nature of our work, as well as our respective mandates to give us full access to all persons in need, to ensure the safety of humanitarian personnel, and to provide us with a more secure basis for funding.

Food Security Resource Center News....

As the Technical Information Specialist currently charged with setting up and managing the Food Security Resource Center (FSRC), improved information exchange, particularly for field staff, is my top priority. With a variety of activities developing, the first quarter at the Food Security Resource Center was a successful one by all counts.

Between October 1994 and December 1995 over 25 information packages were sent out from the FSRC. Topics included monetization of food aid, causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia, designing school feeding programs, commodity import statistics for various countries, impact indicators for agroforestry projects, role of women in food production in sub-Saharan Africa and current U.S. food aid policy guidelines, among others. The FSRC also locates and refers our users to appropriate contact people in public and private sector agencies for any requests beyond the scope of our Center. In addition to responding to information requests, other current activities at the FSRC include updating databases and exploring potential for online access; operationalizing office systems; organizing and updating resource materials; outreach to the PVO community and field staff.

One of my major goals at the FSRC is to foster better linkages between other individuals and organizations involved in information generation and dissemination, particularly as it relates to food security issues. Anyone in the information business knows that there is an incredible amount of information continually being produced. The challenge is to not only locate the appropriate information but to get it into the hands of the people who most need it and to do so in the most efficient manner. By developing strong linkages with related information centers such as the International Famine Center at Tufts, the National Drought Mitigation Center at Nebraska, and the USDA Center for Information Research and Analysis, the FSRC hopes to avoid redundancy, concentrate efforts and move the development community towards improved food security for all.

In addition to our linkages with related information resources, what makes the FSRC so unique is the numerous unpublished reports, data sets and internal agency documentation that exists in our collection. This material exists for its users so I encourage you to submit your own documentation, comments and suggestions and of course your specific information requests.

In an upcoming issue of Food Forum I plan to highlight information discussing natural resource management and the environment and its relationship to long term food security. If you have done work in this area or have suggestions for appropriate information sources, please contact me. In the meantime, I look forward to your requests.

For more information contact Doreen Robinson, Information Specialist, Food Security Resource Center, 300 I St. NE, Washington DC 20002, 202-544-6972, 202-544-7065 Fax, drobinso@ag.gov

New Acquisitions

The Migration Experience in Africa. 1995. Jonathan Baker & Tade Akin Aina [eds]. Nordiska Arikaninstitutet, Uppsala, 353 p.

Inducing Food Insecurity: Perspectives on Food Policies in Eastern and Southern Africa. 1994. Nordiska Arikaninstitutet, Uppsala, 236 p.

Enriching Lives: Overcoming Vitamin and Mineral Malnutrition in Developing Countries. 1994. World Bank, Washington D.C., 73 p.

@t Ease With E-mail: A Handbook on Using Electronic Mail for NGOs in Developing Countries. 1995. United Nations, New York, 108 p.

Refugee and Labour Movements in Sub-Saharan Africa. 1995. Jonathan Baker & Roger Zetter. Nordiska Arikaninstitutet, Uppsala, 26 p.

CARE Food Resources Manual. 1995. CARE, Atlanta.

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makes them especially vulnerable to the contradictions of their plight.

"The body of aid professionals, chastened by catastrophes in Africa and elsewhere, is now siezed by this problem. To confront it, there is a category of ambitious general suggestions on the order of planning ahead and building up local organizations to prevent military factions from dominating relief. The category of more modest, specific proposals includes providing less popular, less lootable sorghum rather than highly desirable, lootable rice. Concern is widespread that furnishing aid should not be permitted to undermine long-term economic development and the promotion of peace.

"But the most intriguing ideas come from Mary Anderson. These post-Cold War conflicts, she believes, are caused not by ancient tensions but by the evocation and manipulation of them by power-hungry leaders. She sense a readiness on the part of peoples to break free. Hence, "every decision that an (agency) makes about its programming in a conflict setting–its decisions about whether to intervene, when to intervene, how, with whom, where, with what–all can be made in ways that either reinforce conflict or offer options to the attitudes and actions of conflict..."

(Stephen Rosenfeld, *The Washington Post,* January, 1996)

Disaster Management Course

Cranfield Disaster Preparedness Centre

The Cranfield DPC will be mounting its ninth annual Disaster Management Course in conjunction with the Oxford Centre for Disaster Studies. The course runs from 23 July 1996 to 29 August. Fully inclusive fees for the Disaster Management Course costs are £4,500 with a further £2,400 for full board residential accommodation.

The DMC is designed for session/middle management in the range of government, public services, armed forces and non-governmental organizations whose responsibilities embrace pre-disaster planning and response to disasters and emergencies from both natural and man-made causes.

For full details, advice on application for vacancies and funding sources :
Director
Disaster Preparedness Centre
Cranfield University
RMCS S
Shrivenham
Swindon, SN68LA
United Kingdom
tel: 44 (0)1793 785287 / 785313
fax: 44 (0) 1793 782179 / 783878
e-mail:
disprep@rmcs.cranfield.ac.uk

Natural Resources Institute

Grain Storage Management Training Course

The NHI will be teaching a course in the principles, practices and management of stored cereals, pulses, seeds and a range of other durable commodities at producer, trader processor and national levels. The training focuses on the skills required to evaluate critically commodity management systems in order to formulate and implement operational improvements. An intensive series of lectures, case histories, syndicates, and laboratory practicals provide the main learning framework.

The course runs annually, 1996 course runs 2 September - 17 December (PGDipl), 18-20 December and 6-17 January 1997 (Research Methodology unit of Msc Degree). The *Target Audience* for the course is staff of commercial, government and educational organizations typically involved in applied research, teaching and extension, pest control, grain storage management, quality control or agricultural development and planning. Applicants should have a degree or equivalent professional qualification in an appropriate subject and should have experience of post-harvest management systems. *Location is* NHI Catham.
The **Course Cost** is £8,000 for the Postgraduate Diploma (PGDipl)/MSc validated by the University of Greenwich(PBDipl), or plus £2,400 (MSc) if the participant does not with to register with the University, NHI Specialist Short Course Certificate.

For more information, contact:
Training Contracts Officer
Natural Resource Institute
Central Avenue
Chatham Maritime
Kent ME4 4TB
United Kingdom

ONE-MINUTE MISMANAGER

From time to time, every professional journal publishes articles to aid their members in a particular field. Much has been written on Project Management, however, certain aspects are often overlooked. These are the practical, everyday, down-to-earth aids that make a project move. In an attempt to fill this void, the following three aids are offered to assist in obtaining irreproducible results.

Project Vocabulary

Knowing the terminology is the first key step in project management.

Project: an assignment that can't be completed by either walking across the hall or by making one telephone call.
To activate a project: make additional copies and add to the distribution list.
To implement a project: acquire all the physical space available and assign responsibilities to anyone in sight.
Consultant (or Expert): anyone more than 50 miles from home.
Coordinator: the guy who really doesn't know what's going on.
Channels: the people you wouldn't see or write to if your life depended on it.
Expedite: to contribute to the present chaos.
Conference (or Meeting): that activity that brings all work and progress to a standstill.
Negotiate: shouting demands interspersed with gnashing of teeth.
Reorientation: starting to work again.
Making a survey: most of the personnel are on a boondoggle.
Under consideration: never heard of it.
Under active consideration: the memo is lost and is being looked for.
Will be looked into: maybe the whole thing will be forgotten by the next meeting.
Reliable source: the guy you just met.
Informed source: the guy who introduced you.
Unimpeachable source: the guy who started the rumor.
Read and initial: to spread the responsibility in case everything goes wrong.
The other viewpoint: let them get it off their chest so they'll shut up.
Clarification: muddy the water so they can't see bottom.
See me later on this: I am as confused as you are.
Will advise you in due course: when we figure it out, we'll tell you.
In process: trying to get through the paper mill.
Modification: a complete redesign.
Orientation: confusing a new member of the project.
Reorganization: assigning someone new to save the project.

Commandments for the Project Manager

These are the rules by which the Project Manager must run his project.

1. Strive to look tremendously important.
2. Attempt to be seen with important people.
3. Speak with authority; however, only expound on the obvious and proven facts.
4. Don't engage in arguments but, if cornered, ask an irrelevant question and lean back with a satisfied grin while your opponent tries to figure out what's going on–then quickly change the subject.
5. Listen intently while others are arguing the problem. Pounce on a trite statement and bury them with it.
6. If a subordinate asks you a pertinent question, look at him as if he had lost his senses. When he looks down, paraphrase the question back at him.
7. Obtain a brilliant assistant, but keep him out of sight and out of the limelight.
8. Walk at a fast pace when out of the office–this keeps questions from subordinates and superiors at a minimum.
9. Always keep the office door closed–this puts visitors on the defensive and also makes it look as if you are always in an important conference.
10. Give all orders verbally. Never write anything down that might go into a "Pearl Harbor File."

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Measuring Household Livelihood Security: An Approach for Reducing Absolute Poverty

By Timothy R. Frankenberger
Senior Food Security Advisor
CARE-USA

I. Introduction

Large scale poverty persists in the world today due to a number of interrelated economic, political, social, and environmental change processes taking place within developing countries and globally. Economic crises experienced in the last two decades have forced many developing countries to make cutbacks in social services, weakening the ability of governments to provide social safety nets for their poor populations. Job creation has not kept pace with population growth, and inequalities in the distribution of income, resources and opportunities have increased. Political changes in the 1980s and 1990s have resulted in instability and military insecurity, contributing to increased global poverty. Complex emergencies having both political and natural dimensions are on the rise, such that 59 million people have been directly affected. In addition, population growth rates have outstripped the environmental carrying capacity in most parts of the world, leading to tremendous environmental degradation. This is manifested in the destruction of tropical forests, the loss of biodiversity, and water and air pollution. These environmental pressures have also increased the intensity and frequency of natural disasters. Finally, the HIV/AIDS pandemic has reached crisis proportion in the developing world. By the Year 2000, 90% of the infections (estimated to be over 90 million cases) will be in the developing world.

As a result of these interrelated factors, poor peoples' basic livelihoods are being, threatened the world over, especially in South Asia and Africa. **In 1992, 1.3 billion people (more than 20% of the world's population) lived in absolute poverty, and were not able to meet their basic needs in terms of access to adequate food, clean water, shelter, education, and basic health care.** Nearly two-thirds of these people live in South Asia or Africa. By the year 2010, the numbers in absolute poverty in the world could reach 1.8 billion.

To help the poor maintain or achieve secure livelihoods in order to meet their basic needs, CARE must take into account the broader socioeconomic context of development, but rather gives emphasis to the development of strong sector-specific programs that are linked synergistically in a shared framework.

The advantages of using a common framework include: 1) the various sectors can share resources in conducting joint assessments and baselines, and measuring program impact; 2) intervention priorities can be established cross-sectorally depending upon the major constraints facing households; and 3) sector-specific programs can be targeted to the same regions to obtain a multiplier effect on the beneficiary population.

II. Measuring Poverty

A. Conventional Income Approaches to Poverty

Poverty is a complex phenomenon making the development of effective strategies for poverty alleviation a very

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difficult task. This is because the roots of poverty are multiple, and may result from war, overpopulation, epidemics, lack of skills and education, etc. Because of this complexity, the term "poverty" has different meanings for different people (Baulch, 1996). These different perceptions manifest themselves in the debates about poverty measurement and the strategies adhered to for poverty alleviation.

Conventional approaches for poverty alleviation developed by economists define poverty primarily in financial terms, that is, the availability of income per capita. These economic approaches use estimates of income or consumption expenditure levels that are required to meet the minimum food energy needs per capita to construct summary measures of the extent of absolute poverty in the population.

The problem with these conventional income/consumption approaches is that they primarily view poverty from a "means" perspective; giving greater concern to the adequacy of resources at the disposal of the poor rather than the outcomes of the deprivation. Differing cultural, political and social norms can constrain the extent to which different subpopulations of the poor are able to convert rises in income into improvements in individual well-being (Baulch 1996). An "ends" perspective is also needed to determine the extent to which basic needs are not met.

B. A Basic Needs Approach to Poverty

Conceptualizing poverty as an inseparable relationship between means and ends, the following definition of absolute poverty provided by Gross et.al., 1995 is appropriate:

Absolute poverty exists when individuals or groups are not able to satisfy their basic needs adequately.

Needs are basic if they must be satisfied in order to secure the physical development of the individual according to their genetic potential (Gross et. al., 1995). Basic needs consist of food, health services, favorable environmental conditions (potable water, shelter), primary education, and community participation. Inadequate access to any of these related essential resources means absolute poverty.

Making these essential resources available does not mean that households or individuals can access them. Households may lack the finances, skills, time or social position that enables them to obtain the essential resources necessary to meet their basic needs. Thus, poverty alleviation measures must not only focus on making essential social services available, but also the means to secure them.

A households' or individual's social position in a community or society also has a determining affect on their access to essential resources. Differences in gender, cultural values, ethnic or religious affiliation can contribute to unequal expenditures and chances of accessibility to resources (Gross et. al., 1995).

To summarize, absolute poverty has three dimensions: 1) the availability of essential resources to meet basic needs; 2) the financial and other means of households and individuals to access these essential resources; and 3) the physical, social and cultural status and position of households and individuals that influences their access. The degree of absolute poverty is the collective gap between the availability of the essential resources and the households ability to meet basic needs (Gross et. al., 1995). An effective poverty alleviation strategy must address all three dimensions.

C. Optimization Problems Facing Households in Meeting Basic Needs

When the availability of essential resources for meeting basic needs are not readily available, and a household's means are limited, households may be forced to make difficult trade-offs in the satisfaction of different needs. For example, spending income for primary education which is located a considerable distance from the village may limit the resources available to a household for spending on health services. Similarly, if resources for education were saved from reduced food expenditure, hunger may hamper the success of the education program. In addition, people with sufficient social status in a community may have easier access to opportunities to meeting basic needs than households with relatively low status. The cost of meeting basic needs would be higher for these poorer households. Thus, when calculating the minimum income required for meeting basic needs, it is important to take into account these differences in the availability of essential resources and means.

Balanced approaches to poverty alleviation must address the means and ends simultaneously. To do this effectively, a conceptual framework is required that will enable development practitioners to take all of the dimensions of poverty into account in diagnosis, problem analysis, and intervention selection. The household livelihood security approach provides such a framework.

III. Household Livelihood Security: A Conceptual Framework

A. A Definition of Household Livelihood Security

Household livelihood security is defined, in general terms, as adequate and sustainable access to income and other resources to enable households to meet basic needs (including adequate access to food, potable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, time for community participation and social integration, etc.). More specifically, livelihoods can be seen to consist of a range of on-farm and off-farm activities which together provide a variety of procurement strategies for food and cash. Thus, each household can have several possible sources of entitlement which constitute its livelihood. These entitlements are based on a household's endowments, and its

position in the legal, political, and social fabric of society (Drinkwater and McEwan 1992). The risk of livelihood failure determines the level of vulnerability of a household to income, food, health and nutritional insecurity. The greater the share of resources devoted to food and health services acquisition, the higher the vulnerability of the household to food and nutrition insecurity. Therefore, livelihoods are secure when households have secure ownership of, or access to, resources and income earning activities, including reserves and assets, to off-set risks, ease shocks, and meet contingencies (Chambers 1988).

A livelihood is sustainable, according to Chambers and Conway (1992), when it "can cope with and recover from the stress and shocks, maintain its capability and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation..." (Frankenberaer 1992). Sustainable refers to the maintenance or enhancement of resource productivity on a long-term basis (Chambers 1988: 1). Unfortunately, not all households are equal in their ability to cope with stresses and shocks. Poor people balance competing needs for asset preservation, income generation, and present and future food supplies in complex ways (Maxwell et al. 1992). People may go hungry up to a point to meet another objective. For example, de Waal (1989) found during the 1984-85 famine in Darfur, Sudan that people chose to go hungry to preserve their assets and future livelihoods. People will tolerate a considerable degree of hunger to preserve seed for planting, cultivate their own fields, or avoid selling animals. Similarly, Corbett (1988) found that in the sequential ordering of behavioral responses employed in periods of stress in a number of African and Asian countries, preservation of assets takes priority over meeting immediate food needs until the point of destitution.

Thus, food and nutritional security are subsets of livelihood security; food needs are not necessarily more important than other basic needs or aspects of subsistence and survival within households juggle among a range of requirements, including immediate consumption and future capacity to produce.

Livelihood systems in many areas of the world are likely to become more structurally vulnerable due to one or a combination of the following factors: 1) increasing population growth out-stripping, the carrying capacity of local resources; 2) recurrent droughts; 3) loss of economic opportunities during transitional periods of market liberalization (e.g., structural adjustment measures); and 4) complex emergencies where political instability has increased. In addition, the HIV/AIDS pandemic has taken its toll on the productive members of poor households. A number of communities are experiencing a progressive erosion of their basis of subsistence, leading to the further degradation of their natural resource base to compensate for these shortfalls. Community level buffers against periodic income and food shortages are beginning to disappear. At the same time, the allocation of government resources to social services, food transfers and agricultural development have been significantly affected both by structural adjustment measures and by resource allocation to emergency or drought relief operations. As a result, livelihood systems in many parts of the world are becoming less sustainable through time.

B. The Relief-Development Continuum

CARE recognizes that poor households are not static in their ability to make a living.. A range of intervention options need to be made available for the various circumstances that face poor populations. To enhance the livelihood security of vulnerable populations found at different levels, a three pronged approach can be used. This livelihood systems approach is based on the notion that relief, rehabilitation/mitigation and development interventions are a continuum of related activities, not separate and discrete initiatives @See figure 4). Household food, nutrition and income security can be enhanced by one or a combination of the following three intervention strategies.

Livelihood Promotion-involves improving, the resilience of household livelihoods to meet food and other basic needs on a sustainable basis (development). Interventions of this type often aim to reduce the structural vulnerability of livelihood systems by focusing on: 1) improving production to stabilize yields through diversification into agro-ecologically appropriate crops, and through soil and water conservation measures (agriculture and natural resource-type measures); 2) creating alternative income generating activities (small economic activity development-type interventions); 3) reinforcing coping strategies-that are economically and environmentally sustainable (e.a., seasonally appropriate off-farm employment); 3) improving on-farm storage capacity to increase the availability of buffer stocks; and 4) improving common property management through community participation. Promotion-type interventions could also deal with meso-level development, where the linkages between food surplus areas and food deficit areas could be strengthened through investment in regional infrastructure and market organization. Such interventions could help improve the terms-of-trade for the poor by improving local access to income, food availability and lowering food prices. In addition, livelihood promotion activities could focus on preventive measures that improve the health and sanitation conditions and the population/resource balance to insure that any income and production gains are not lost to disease and unchecked population growth.

Livelihood Protection-involves protecting household livelihood systems to prevent an erosion of productive assets or to assist in their recovery (rehabilitation/mitigation). These types of interventions entail timely food and income transfers that can reduce long-term vulnerabilities resulting from the forced selling- of productive assets to meet immediate food and other needs. The negative

impacts of livelihood insecurity can be reduced by: 1) timely detection of where livelihood and food insecurity are likely to occur; and 2) establishing, contingency plans that can be implemented in a timely fashion before a significant erosion of household assets occurs and other erosive coping strategies are activated. The capacity to detect changes in livelihood and food insecurity at an early stage and to respond in a timely fashion could considerably reduce the costs of dealing with a full blown emergency. Protection-type interventions include infrastructural improvements or soil and water conservation measures carried out through food or cash for-work or some other means, to enhance the longer-term viability and resilience of the communities. Child survival and other timely health interventions that prevent the population from becoming more vulnerable to disease and malnutrition would also fall under this type of intervention approach. Recovery measures such as infrastructure repair and rehabilitation, distribution of seeds and tools, reforestation, and repair of water sites are also included in this intervention set. The types of interventions pursued would be selected and implemented by the communities themselves.

Livelihood Provisioning-involves providing food and meeting other essential needs for households to maintain nutritional levels and save lives. These types of interventions usually entail food and health relief for people in an emergency or people who are chronically vulnerable. Chronic vulnerability is usually long-term in nature. Targeted food and health relief is critical and should be combined with promotion interventions, where possible, to phase out the food transfers. In relief situations where people have been displaced from their homes (refugees and internally displaced populations) promotion interventions will be limited to those that can be brought to the camps (e.g., health and nutrition education and family planning initiatives). Community focused interventions may be necessary for chronically vulnerable populations (e.g., MCH programs) to allow for the provisioning activities to be taken over by the community on a sustainable basis.

This three-pronged approach should be seen as a whole rather than as separate parts, since the ultimate goal of any development intervention is to promote sustainable livelihood systems in targeted areas. This has often not been the case with most development agencies which view relief activities as distinct from development. Especially in emergency situations, provisioning of relief food and health measures has tended to be seen as an end in itself, rather than as part of a continuum oriented towards securing beneficiaries' livelihoods.

To help households meet their basic needs, three types of interventions will be given emphasis. These are: 1) interventions focusing on expanding the income and resource base of the poor (means); 2) interventions focused on empowering households and communities to improve their access to services through expanded educational opportunities, community mobilization, and political advocacy; and 3) interventions focusing on expanding the access of poor households to basic services. In addition to these micro-focused interventions, Country Offices and CARE Headquarters will give increasing attention to the role of advocacy and broader development initiatives in improving the opportunities of households in meeting their basic needs.

It is important to note that households are considered one unit of analysis, and impact will be measured at this level. However, households are not necessarily the only unit of analysis, level of impact or intervention. Thus, improvements in household livelihood security can be brought about by interventions operating at various levels—at the household or community level through improved access to income, resources or services; at the regional level through improved access to markets, employment and services; at the national level through improved policy changes that affect the poor; and at the international level through improved policy changes of donor governments. The utility of the household livelihood security concept is that basic needs can be met through improving the immediate conditions for participants and their families, strengthening community organizations and local support networks, and/or influencing public policies, practices and attitudes to confront the causes of poverty rather than merely alleviating the symptoms.

IV. A Phased Approach to Household Livelihood Security Interventions

To effectively implement a household livelihood security approach, the following steps are proposed.

1) The first activity involves identifying potential regions for program targeting (geographical targeting)- by utilizing existing secondary data to identify areas where absolute poverty is concentrated.

2) The second phase involves identifying the various vulnerable groups in the area and the major livelihood constraints they face. This information would be collected through a cross-sectoral rapid livelihood security assessment. During this phase, decisions are made on which target groups will be focused on, what set of interventions are most appropriate for enhancing livelihood security, and the minimal data set to be collected in a baseline.

3) The third phase involves collecting a baseline and identifying a set of indicators that will be monitored and evaluated for measuring impact.

4) The fourth phase involves selecting the set of communities for program interventions. These communities should be chosen in such a way that they have similar characteristics to a larger group of communities in order to maximize the multiplier effect of successful interventions.

By using such an approach to targeting and design, the opportunity for cross-sectoral synergy and integration can

be enhanced. Instead of having an incremental or single-sector approach that results in widely dispersed project sites, areas of concentration can be chosen for coordinated sectoral programming to achieve a multiplier effect on the beneficiary population. Even in regions where CARE sectors are not jointly operating, coordinated programming can be pursued with other institutions such as other NGOs or government agencies. The main objective is to enhance the livelihood security of the local population through coordinated programming.

V. Measuring Household Livelihood Security Impact

Indicators used in a household livelihood security approach to poverty alleviation must serve a variety of purposes. They are used for identifying poor populations; measuring the magnitude and severity of poverty; providing information on the specific causes, nature and effects of poverty; serving as criteria for the selection of certain households or individuals to include in project activities; and to give valid and reliable information on the success or failure of poverty alleviation efforts. One indicator alone cannot provide all of the required information. Thus in selecting the indicator to use, it is important to know what the purpose of the indicator is, the decision that will be based on the use of the indicator, the level of specificity required, and how quickly the information is needed.

In designing monitoring and evaluation systems using a livelihood security perspective, indicators will need to be identified at three levels. The first two levels will be project and site specific, while the third level will apply across projects. The first level will consist of indicators that measure project delivery and output. These indicators measure the results of project activities (e.g. goods and services), and are usually quantified and have timeframes. The second level consists of indicators that measure the effect of the project (e.g. intermediate goal level). These are changes in knowledge, attitudes or practices that result from the use of goods and services provided by the project. The third level will consist of indicators that measure impact, or the fundamental change in human conditions or "well being". This is the final goal level for most CARE projects.

A. Potential Conditional Level Indicators

1) Nutritional Security as an Overall Measure of Well-Being

If absolute poverty is to be defined as a condition in which basic needs of human beings are not met, anthropometric data from pre-school children (the most vulnerable part of the population) should be used as the key indicator for measuring poverty outcomes (Gross et. al., 1995). This is because anthropometric indices represent the cumulative effect of access to food, access to health services, environmental health conditions and education. The height for-age index of children 6 months to 5 years is recommended as the key indicator because it represents long-term deprivation. This index can only be used for a classification of a population. Portions of the population that fall 2 standard deviations below the reference population are at high risk, and should be classified as being below the absolute poverty line.

In terms of short-term nutritional monitoring, especially under emergency conditions, weight for-age and weight for-height may also be used for targeting and monitoring purposes. Weight-for-height is the preferred measure for emergency situations because it is sensitive to short-term changes in nutritional status. Weight-for-age does not discriminate between long and short-term changes in nutritional status.

Although height-for-age is a good measure of poverty outcomes, it does not reveal the causes for poverty. For this reason this measure is suitable for identifying poor populations, the magnitude of absolute poverty, and measuring changes in malnutrition. Another set of indicators is required to analyze the causes of absolute poverty.

2) Indicators that Reflect the Causes of Absolute Poverty

Other indicators that can be used for measuring improvements in well-being are directly tied to the specific basic needs and the means to obtain them. These can be grouped into indices that reflect health security, food security, educational security and economic security. Although these indices are still being formulated, the following indicators are possible candidates.

a) Health Security - Four sets of indicators might be compiled under this index. These could include **health service access** (measured in distance or time); **health service use patterns** (immunization, MCH referral for ORT and ARI); **environmental health** (access to sufficient quantities of potable water, access to latrines, maintenance of facilities); and **birth spacing** (% under 24 months).

b) Food Security - Three sets of indicators could be compiled under this index. These include a food security index (frequency and severity of coping strategies); **dietary intake** to get at changes in quantity and quality of food consumed (24 hour recall); and **% change in self-provisioning point** (a change in the proportion of household consumption that is met by household production).

c) Educational Security - The indicators that might be used in this index could include **literacy rate** (disaggregated by gender); **% of children under 16 years of age completing the 4th level** (disaggregated by gender); and **% of wastage** (drop and repetition) (disaggregated by gender).

d) Economic Security - The types of indicators that could be considered for this index might include **access to assets; diversity and importance of income sources; productivity per unit of land; per capita household food expenditure; change in the number of retail businesses in the target area; % of eligible children in school; and % of loans given directly to women.**

The same set of indicators can be used across projects because conditional changes can be brought about by improved availability of services or improved access to income and resources. By measuring these well-being or livelihood security indicators across projects, we can monitor program impact. If improvements occur at the outcome and effect level but are not recorded at the conditional level, then additional interventions may be required to .address the constraints overlooked in existing projects. These interventions can be either at the micro or macro level.

It is unrealistic to expect all field offices to be able to move on measurement of household livelihood security impact at equal speed given the variation that exists in data collection, staff skills and geographic spread of projects. A more realistic expectation is to establish the process for measuring impact and begin to implement this strategy over the next three years.

Finally, in the promotion of good household livelihood security monitoring systems, it is important to give equal emphasis to both qualitative and quantitative measures. As CARE strives to strengthen its quantitative skills, it is important to recognize that qualitative measures help interpret the quantitative information through the identification of trends and disruptive events. Thus both types of skills need to be embedded in CARE's country offices.

VI. Summary

Absolute poverty must be viewed both from a means and ends perspective; poor people lack adequate resources and suffer from the consequences of deprivation. Absolute poverty exists when households are not able to satisfy their basic needs adequately. The three dimensions of absolute poverty that must be addressed in any poverty alleviation strategy include: 1) the availability of essential resources to meet basic needs; 2) the financial and other means of households used to meet needs; and 3) the social and cultural status and position of households in the community that influences their access to needs. The degree of poverty is the collective gap between the availability of the essential resources and the households ability to meet their basic needs.

Balanced approaches to poverty alleviation must address the means and ends simultaneously. The household livelihood security approach being developed by CARE provides a conceptual framework that will enable development practitioners to take all of the dimensions of poverty into account in diagnosis, problem analysis, and intervention selection.

To determine whether CARE programs have been effective in reducing absolute poverty, a number of indices will be used to measure fundamental changes in human conditions or well-being. Nutritional security is considered the best measure of poverty outcomes because it represents the cumulative effect of access to food, access to health services, environmental health conditions and education. The height for age index of children 6 months to 5 years is recommended as the key indicator because it represents long-term deprivation. However, nutritional status reveals little about the causes of absolute poverty. Another set of indicators is required that is more directly tied to the specific needs and the means to meet them. These conditional change indices include measures of health security, food security, educational security, and economic security. The same set of indicators can be used across projects because conditional changes can be brought about by improved availability of services or improved access to income and resources. By measuring these well-being or livelihood security indicators across projects, we can monitor program impact.

Directions for High-Impact Health Programs An Assessment of P.L. 480 Title II MCH Programming

by Vicki M. Denman, CRS Technical Group

The institutional strengthening grant provided from USAID to CRS in 1993, identified the need for the critical review of the programming aspects of maternal child health (MCH) programs supported from Title II resources. This activity was to identify lessons learned and develop a strategic plan for future MCH programming.

The methodology included a literature review of MCH evaluations and assessments and visits to seven CRS MCH programs during 1994 (The Gambia, Ghana, Benin, Sierra Leone, Kenya, India, and Ethiopia). In addition, this document draws on discussions with CRS staff from Madagascar and the Philippines, and prior program experience in El Salvador and Guatemala. The document focuses on programmatic issues raised during evaluation of MCH

program activities, and compares MCH activities with health interventions utilized and endorsed by international health and child survival programs. Finally, a strategy for enhancing beneficiary impact and a prototype for improved MCH programming are developed.

In 1995, CRS operated 13 MCH programs serving over one million beneficiaries representing 32% of total tonnage destined to non-emergency food programming. The label "MCH" currently describes a variety of CRS program interventions. Maintaining the intended focus on women and children, these programs range from growth monitoring combined with a take-home food ration (calculated from nutritional requirements for the child and mother), to a child survival package of health education and interventions including growth monitoring, nutrition and health education, referral systems for immunization and rehabilitative feeding, community organization, and economic development activities. Counterparts, or operating partners for CRS programs also vary, including government Ministries of Social Development or Health, Church or CARITAS institutions, and other social development programs.

Based on the assumption that increased family food availability through supplementation programs will result in increased dietary intake of the targeted beneficiary, the primary program purpose has been defined as improved nutrition. Most evaluations have focused on nutritional impact with less effort placed on investigating other program impacts such as health education, or utilization of the food supplementation as a incentive/income subsidy targeted to women.

Over the years the nutritional basis of MCH activities has been challenged because of the diversion of food from targeted beneficiaries (i.e. mothers utilize the take-home ration for family consumption, not just women and children beneficiaries selected by the program). In addition to overall leakages; increases in food availability to the family do not necessarily mean increased access by targeted individuals, since women and children usually receive a disproportionately low share of food resources in the home. Another program issue is that improvement in nutritional status is expected after receipt of food supplementation even though nutritional status is dependent on a variety of factors (health status/appetite suppression, clean water, child care, and income generation/food production). Therefore, limited impact in improved nutritional status is not surprising.

Following the disenchantment with supplemental feeding as a purely nutritional program, attempts have been made to redefine objectives and indicators. In many cases, program purpose has been redefined to focus on health education and low-cost child survival interventions which can be expected to have greater impact on nutritional status. At the same time the food supplement is considered as an incentive (opportunity cost for rural women participating in health education activities) or an income/in-kind supplement for poverty alleviation. Food has the distinct advantage over cash incentives because it self-targets to women, who have control over food resources and thus ensures increased consumption and higher impact in household poverty alleviation. As such, targeted MCH supplementary feeding is one option which provides an acceptable means for both immediate action to improve conditions of the poor while at the same time working on long-term issues in health education development.

Also significant in MCH Title II food supplementation has been the general trend in health programming towards community-based preventive care as a more cost-effective and sustainable activity than traditional curative systems. The growing interest in utilizing food programs for community-based development rests on the desire for increased impact over what is achieved solely through simple material transfers and curative health systems. For CRS, community outreach is a natural linkage, since a strong component of CRS programs around the world is often the mobilization of thousands of volunteers who give their time and energy to support their community. When empowerment of community organizations is combined with low cost child survival interventions such as growth monitoring, nutrition and health education, immunizations, and appropriate clinic referral, the result is a top priority health/human development program.

Challenges to CRS in MCH programming include:

1. Generation of resources for program reorientation
2. Creation of a common vision with counterparts for high-impact health programming with Title II resources.
3. Discipline in adherence to a common definition and quality criteria in PL-480 MCH programming.
4. Committing ourselves and program resources to systematic standardized data collection and participatory assessment.
5. Focus of health education activities to internationally accepted child survival interventions.
6. Increase development effectiveness of associated development activities.

Going Plastic: The 21st Century Refugee

How could privatized aid deliver a better future for refugees? In this extract from the "World Disasters Report 1996," the report's co-editor Nick Cater looks ahead, and turns up the diary of a woman refugee.

Camp diary, 4 June, 2021: When we arrived over the mountains, the first thing we did - after getting a hot meal, milk for the baby and my husband's arm bandaged - was sort out the family Relief Card.

A photograph was taken for the card, our details - height, weight, medical background, that sort of thing - were loaded on the card's microchip, and a record made of our hand prints for security controls.

The Relief Card is the key to food, water, fuel, shelter and cash. In the early 21st century it doesn't make being one of 100 million displaced people much better than it must have been to be a refugee in the late 20th century, but at least technology gives us some control over our lives.

The first thing we got from the card after our details had been bounced to the central tracing database - was a message that our oldest boy, who got lost in the chaos of leaving, was safe in the camp down the road. So we began with a celebration.

The Relief Card is like a standard credit-identity card, but instead of being linked to a bank, it's linked to the camp database, giving me a weekly level of credit for food and water, fuel and shelter based on my family's needs, and access to health care, education and other services. I can use it to "buy" items from any of the camp stores or to "rent" services - a house, electricity, piped water - at market rates from camp sector managers. The camp stores are run by a range of aid agencies, local and international companies and a camp members' cooperative, so I have a choice of what, where and when to buy.

Private firms do most of the delivery, competition keeps prices down and quality up, and it's easy to swipe the card through the machine and put your hand on the security plate. Queues? Not like the food distributions in old camps, I'm told, at least not when you go through the "10 items or less" lane.

The Relief Card has 10 percent of its value as cash, so I can make purchases outside the camp stores for travel, say, or a phone call. I could use the money to start a small business. I can even pay into the account from my earnings. Once I have a payment track record, however small, further credit is available at the prevailing world rates. Best of all, I don't have to sell food to raise money.

Security on the cards is tight and they are hard to fiddle. The card has the family hologram on it, and each purchase needs an adult there to be identified by hand print recognition. Most people have their regular stores, so the wrong card or the wrong person is quickly spotted.

At the health centres, the card's medical records can be checked and updated. I was told that one benefit is eliminating the massive cost and complexity of supplementary feeding centres. If a kid is malnourished, the family ration goes up for a while with monitoring at the health centre.

Of course, the kids don't much like the way the sugar ration is cut if they need too many fillings at the camp dental centres, but it certainly makes them clean their teeth. And they soon get good at making credits through the recycling schemes, and once old enough, by working on the camp environmental projects.

The camp has lots of other technical stuff: satellite pictures help map sites, check camp density and maintain security; the tent-houses offer good insulation with new materials but are light enough to be carried on your back if the fighting gets close; and all the education and training on interactive video and audio comes via low-orbit satellite communications from the Internet.

Being displaced shouldn't grind you into poverty; indeed, although we lost a lot when we left, I think by careful saving, hard work and taking full advantage of everything on offer we should come out with more than when we arrived.

As everyone knows, this isn't charity, it's a human security investment with a calculated payback in lowered future costs from greater stability and less conflict, poverty and disease. Hungry, angry and poor people spell trouble, so while the negotiations and arguments go on about the conflict, we are encouraged to stay fit and healthy, get educated and be economically active.

After all, who in the world needs people without purchasing power? That's no way to run a global market economy.

From the World Disasters Report 1996 © International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, published by Oxford University Press, £5.99, $29.95.

What's New?

There have been some changes at FAM over the past few months that readers should know about. My name is T.J. Ryan and I became head of FAM in the spring of this year after 8 years of working with CRS in Africa and at CRS headquarters located in Baltimore. I look forward to the challenge of taking FAM into the future by making it as responsive and service oriented to its members as possible. FAM held its annual meeting at the end of September at World Vision's office in Seattle. The FAM meeting was combined with an Institutional Strengthening Grant (ISG) meeting for the first time. Almost all of the 13 FAM members were represented at the meeting and they reiterated FAM's vital role in the sharing of information and coordination among PVOs and also with USAID's Food for Peace office. The value of FAM's Food Security Resource Center was firmly recognized and an Information Coordination Committee will be set up among members to ensure continued quality and innovation at the FSRC.

A valuable tool of information sharing for our members, their field staff and others is the Food Forum. We would like to encourage field and headquarters staff from member organizations as well as other readers to share articles, information, and any related issues that could be of use to other staff, primarily in the field. This would include a broad range of things from program related information to commodity management/logistics problems that would be helpful to other food aid managers working on development, emergency or monetization programs. As such, we have established a publication schedule and a deadline for contributions to Food Forum which is provided below. Please make a contribution by e-mail to: fam@foodaid.org or by fax (202) 544-7065 or through the mail:

FAM
300 Eye St. NE, Suite 212
Washington, D.C. 20002.

Food Forum issues	Article deadline
December/January	December 31
February/March	February 28
April/May	April 30
June/July	June 30
August/September	August 29
October/November	October 31

Also, look for the FAM web site coming to the World Wide Web with useful resource documents, an online bibliography for the Food Security Resource Center and links to other, useful websites! An announcement with the website address will be made in the next issue of Food Forum.

Thank you for your cooperation and your contributions!

FAM

Food Security Resource Center News

A number of exciting developments have occurred at the FSRC since the last issue of Food Forum. The FSRC Bibliographic Database Version 1.0 was completed in October. This user-friendly windows application, available on four 3.5 inch diskettes, currently includes approximately 5200 resource materials housed at the FSRC. Users will be able to load the software and search the FSRC Bibliographic Database from their personal computers. Users will receive updated data files on a quarterly basis. The FSRC Bibliographic Database package (software and user manual) will be available for distribution to FAM member field and headquarter staff this winter. A version of the database is also being constructed on FAM's web site. Initially, accessibility to the website version of the FSRC Bibliographic Database will be limited by a password. These new linkages to the FSRC will enable much wider usage by the FSRC's primary target audience of PVO field staff. In addition to these electronic linkages, the FSRC is coordinating an Information Coordinating Committee amongst FAM members to improve information exchange efforts.

Resources on Food Security and Sustainable Agriculture

In response to past surveys and users requests, the FSRC is developing its collection of materials discussing sustainable agriculture and its linkages to food security. Below is a listing of some of the related literature contained within the FSRC collection. For a more complete listing of the agricultural holdings of the FSRC, please contact the Center. Any suggestions or donations of additional materials related to this topic are strongly encouraged.

For more information contact:

Doreen Robinson
Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I St. NE, Washington DC 20002
202-544-6972, fax: 202-544-7065
fam@foodaid.org or drobinson@foodaid.org

- **Aid to African Agriculture: Lessons from Two Decades of Donors' Experience.** 1991.
  Lele, Uma & R. Jain. in Aid to African Agriculture. World Bank, Washington DC, 574-612p. FSRC#01002

- **Cash Crops, Food Crops and Agricultural Sustainability.** 1987.
  Barbier, Edward B. International Institute for Environment and Development, London, UK, 11p. FSRC#01685

- **The Benefits of Alley Farming for the African Farmer and Her Household.** 1988.
  Cashman, Kristin. 231-237p. FSRC#01957

- **Conservation Farming on Steep Lands.** 1988.
  Moldenhauer, W.C. et al. Soil and Water Conservation Society, Ankeny, Iowa, 296p. FSRC#

- **Crop-Livestock Interactions for Sustainable Agriculture.**
  Bayer, Wolfgang & A. Waters-Bayer. International Institute for Environment and Development, London, UK, 16p. FSRC#01707

- **Economic and Ecological Factors in Designing and Managing Sustainable Agroecosystems.** 1985.
  Gliessman, S. R. in Global Perspectives in Agroecology and sustainable agricultural systems, Michigan State University Press, East Lansing, Michigan, 56-63p. FSRC#02739

- **The Economics of Sustainable Agricultural Systems in Developing Countries.**
  Barker, R. & D. Chapmen. 23p. FSRC#01688

- **An Ecological Basis for the Development of Alternative Agricultural Systems for Small Farmers in the Third World.**
  Altieri, M. A. & M. K. Anderson. 8 p. FSRC#01571

- **Experiences in Success: Case Studies in Growing Enough Food Through Regenerative Agriculture.**
  Tull, Kenneth et al. Rodale Institute, Emmaus, Pennslyvania, 53p. FSRC#04593

- **Farmer-Centered Development.** 1995.
  Partners in Rural Development, Ottawa, Canada, 10p. FSRC#01447

- **The Home Garden Agroecosystem: A Model for Developing Sustainable Tropical Agricultural Systems.**
  Gliessman, S. R. in Global Perspectives in Agroecology and sustainable agricultural systems, Michigan State University Press, East Lansing, Michigan, 445-450. FSRC#02740

- **The Importance of Open-Space Farming to Urban Families.** 1991.
  Freeman, Donald B. in A City of Farmers: Informal Urban Agriculture in the Open Spaces of Nairobi, Kenya. McGill-Queen's University Press, Buffalo, New York, 105-110p.

- **Integration of Aquaculture and Agriculture: Route to Sustainable Farming Systems.** 1990.
  Lightfoot, Clive. ICLARM, 4p. FSRC#03406

- **Interfacing Small Ruminant Production Systems with Cropping and Forage Systems: More than Tin Cans.** 1991.
  Russo, Sandra L. University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, 12p. FSRC#04147

- **Livestock for a Small Earth: The Role of Animals in a Just and Sustainable World.** 1994. Aaker, Jerry. Heifer Project international, Washington DC, 111p. FSRC#05188

- **Return to Resistance: Breeding Crops to Reduce Pesticide Dependence.** 1996.
  Robinson, Raoul A. agAccess, Davis, California, 480p. FSRC#05213

- **Sustainable Agriculture in Africa: Socio-cultural, Political, and Economic Considerations.** 1990.
  Amponsah, W. et al. Ohio State University, Columbus, OH, 25p. FSRC#03867

- **Sustainable Farming and the Role of Farmers' Organizations.** 1990.
  International Federation of Agricultural Producers, Netherlands, 62p. FSRC#

- **Systems Analysis and Small Ruminants and Sustainable Agriculture.** 1991.
  Blackburn, Harvey D. USAID, Washington DC, 14p. FSRC#01777

- **Traditional Food Plants.** 1988.
  FAO Food and Nutrition paper n.42. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, Italy, 593p.

- **A 2020 Vision for Food, Agriculture, and the Environment: The Vision, Challenge, and Recommended Action.** 1995.
  International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington DC, 50p. FSRC#

- **Additional Resources**
  Other useful contacts for more information on sustainable agriculture include:

Sustainable Agriculture Network
c/o AFSIC, Room 304
National Agricultural Library
10301 Baltimore Ave.
Beltsville MD 20705-2351
301-504-6425
301-504-6409 fax
san@nal.usda.gov

Rodale Institute
222 Main Street
Emmaus, PA 18098, USA
610-967-8405
610-683-8548 fax
website: http://fadr.msu.ru/rodale

This research institute is devoted to working with communities of people to achieve a regenerative food system.

Center for Indigenous Knowledge for Agriculture & Rural Development (CIKARD)
318 Curtiss Hall
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa 50011, USA
515-294-0938
515-294-6058 fax
website: http://www.physics.iastate.edu/cikard

This center focuses on "preserving and using the knowledge of farmers and rural people around the globe to facilitate participatory and sustainable approaches to development".

The FSRC would like to acknowledge the work of Inter-Continental Network Systems (ICNS) Inc. of Silver Spring, Maryland on the FSRC Bibliographic Database. ICNS performed the programming and technical construction of the database.

The FSRC would also like to extend a sincere and most grateful thank you to Arthur Dommen, recently retired from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Economic Research Service. Dr. Dommen generously donated his entire personal collection of resource materials pertaining to agriculture and development to the FSRC this past Fall. The hundreds of materials will be incorporated into the FSRC and will further enhance the usefulness of the Center for its users.

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Environmental Review to be Required for All Title II Development Activities

by Paige Harrigan

Since 1980 the U.S. Government has required environmental review for all activities receiving USG funds. Starting in FY98, Title II development activities will be reviewed in accordance with this regulation. USAID and many of the PVOs believe that the effectiveness of Title II programming will be improved with the incorporation of environmental review. In February and March, 1997 two Environmental Compliance Workshops were held, one sponsored by USAID the other by FAM. The first was in Mekele, Ethiopia and the second at Catholic Relief Services Headquarters in Baltimore. The goal of these workshops was for the PVOs and USAID to come together and discuss how these procedures will work.

The regulation 22 CFR 216 is as binding as law. If an organization is going to use USAID funds for a project, then that project's activities are subject to the regulation and must, at a minimum, submit an Initial Environmental Examination (IEE). It is the responsibility of PVOs to institutionalize environmental review for sustainable development in Title II programming and promote these capabilities within the organization.

History

There is a compelling history of environmental review and compliance requirements within USAID. The National Environmental Policy Act was passed in 1970, and in short, the new law stated that an environmental impact assessment would be performed for every activity funded with U.S. taxpayer moneys. The law was less clear however about what happens with USG funded projects outside the United States.

In 1974 staff involved in a USAID supported agriculture project in Pakistan failed to properly mark dangerous containers of highly concentrated malathion. The pesticide was sprayed by inadequately trained agricultural field workers. Eight Pakistani workers died in one day.

This most unfortunate catalyst set in motion the machinery mandating that all USG funded development activities performed outside the borders of the United States are to be subject to the same environmental standards as domestic activities. Environmental impact assessment would be performed on all activities that include pesticide use. In addition, it was mandated that CFR procedures be developed.

Regulation 22 CFR 216 became effective in October of 1980, and remains largely unchanged today. The implementation of these environmental regulations has been required for all USAID development activities other than Title II since 1980. Amendments to the Foreign Assistance Act (sections 118 and 119) were made in the 1980s to further strengthen the regulation of environmental impact of USAID projects. In USAID's current Strategic Plan, one of the five goals is Managing the Environment for Long Term Sustainability. Applying environmental regulations to Title II programming will be part of that process.

Procedures

Initially some form of environmental screening will be done to prepare for an Initial Environmental Examination (IEE). PVOs may use methodologies developed within their own

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internal environmental programming expertise or seek outside technical assistance. An "Environmental Screening and Review Form." has been developed by USAID and may assist the PVO to make decisions on the best next steps to take with each development activity. A long term goal is that discrete environmental screening reviews will eventually become unnecessary, because environmental considerations will become an integral and central part of the program design process. The screening as well as the environmental reviews should be done by PVO staff because of their involvement in program design.

The PVO will then prepare a draft Initial Environmental Examination (IEE) per USAID's Environmental Procedures (22 CFR 216). If the PVO doesn't have the capacity at present, they could submit sufficient information to the Mission Environmental Officer (MEO) to prepare an IEE for the project. Once the IEE is submitted, the MEO coordinates with the mission Food For Peace Officer (or other appropriate staff if there is no FFPO) in finalizing the IEE, obtains Mission Director Clearance, and submits a recommendation to the geographic Bureau Environmental Officer (BEO) for clearance. The recommendations can be fairly complicated but will determine whether additional environmental review is required. The IEE then goes to Director of Food for Peace for concurrence, and to the BHR/BEO for approval. If it appears that activities in the project will have an impact (in this case, impact is always construed as negative) on the environment, an Environmental Assessment (EA) will need to be performed for the project.

The IEE is to be resubmitted every year like a Bellmon. Therefore, the type of DAP submitted is very important. Will the identified program components remain the same over the life of the DAP and thereafter the PAA? Or, will the activities change thus changing the potential environmental impact? If there is a changing environmental impact in the program a new IEE will need to be submitted. Following the IEE and or the EA, it may also be necessary to make modifications and amendments to current proposed activities or budgets.

USAID/BHR's Bureau Environmental Officer is currently reviewing FY1997 DAPs to determine which ongoing Cooperating Sponsor activities may need to undergo an environmental review, if they have not already done so. All Title II activities must comply with these environmental review procedures by the end of FY98. General feeding programs (i.e. non-food-for-work or monetization) will continue to be eligible for "categorical exclusions" but it will be necessary to provide an environmental rational to obtain such exclusions. It is expected that 70% to 80% of all Title II activities will be categorical exclusions.

For compliance purposes, all environmental reviews for Fiscal Year 1998 DAPs will have to be undertaken as soon as possible and, ideally, completed expeditiously. The same is true for all other onging programs. USAID does not expect this first round of environmental review to run perfectly. The review process is expected to become more rigorous and standardized for the PVOs over time. The key, from the USAID perspective, is to see continued improvement by the PVOs in the quality of these reviews. As this compliance process continues, monitoring and evaluation plans will be revised to include environmental indicators when proven appropriate by an IEE or a subsequent Environmental Assessment (EA).

Filling out forms and the mechanics of compliance is one aspect of these environmental regulations. The process of long-term PVO commitment to environmental review and capacity building in the field for sustainability is another more durable aspect. This includes the training of counterpart staff and MEOs as part of this process.

Next Steps

There were some next steps generated out of the workshops. Two new environmental working groups, one in Ethiopia and the other in Washington, DC have been created. They are made up of representatives from Title II PVOs, USAID Environmental/Africa Bureaus and Food for Peace (in Washington, DC). Some of the issues to be dealt with by this working group are PVO resource needs for this process, the training of PVO staff, and procedural issues. Assessments of the environmental review capacities of each of the PVOs is to be done internally by each PVO. PVOs have clearly expressed the importance of determining where they will get the resources to carry out these environmental reviews. A presentation of the working group was made to the Food Aid Consultative Group April 15th.

In line with the 1995 Food Aid and Food Security Policy Paper, efforts will be made to achieve environmentally positive and sustainable development results which can have a tangible impact on food security. Beginning in FY 99, USAID's Annual Performance Plan will contain objective, quantifiable, and measurable goals that can be achieved within a one year time-frame, that will in turn lead to accomplishing the goals and objectives of the ten year strategic plan. Environmental review of Title II programming will be part of that process.

For copies and information of all CFRs: http://law.house.gov/cfr.htm. Materials from the FAM workshop held in Baltimore are available through FAM.

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Global Hunger and Food Security after the World Food Summit

Overseas Development Institute Briefing Paper

The World Food Summit (WFS) organised by the FAO in November 1996 - the 12th international conference under UN auspices since 1990 - took place in an atmosphere of widespread scepticism. Many of those attending were suffering conference fatigue, as reflected in the press coverage which focused often on the contrast between the subject matter, hunger, and the 5,000 delegates enjoying the gastronomic and other delights of Rome. The meeting was also overshadowed by yet another humanitarian crisis in the African Great Lakes Region. Substantively, two decades after the World Food Conference of 1974, the Summit Declaration on world food security and associated Plan of Action reaffirmed the commitment of the international community to eradicating the hunger and malnutrition affecting around one-fifth of the population of the developing world and specifically to halving the number of undernourished people over a period of 20 years.

This Briefing Paper considers what the Summit specifically achieved and failed to achieve. Such a retrospective examination also provides an opportunity to reflect on the usefulness of the international conference as a focal point in addressing issues of global significance.

Deja vu or something new?

It is easy to be cynical about the outcome of the WFS. Seen in a historical context, will it prove to have been yet another failure in the many attempts to achieve world food security over the past half century? Coming at the end of a series of UN-sponsored international conferences since the beginning of the 1990s, there was a feeling of resignation, even resentment, that yet another expensive talking-shop, with an unrealistic progamme of action and inadequate commitment of additional resources, would raise false hopes and lead nowhere. Concern was heightened by the questions raised as to what had substantially and sustainably been achieved by the 23 resolutions adopted at the previous World Food Conference twenty or so years earlier.

The real achievements of the 1974 Conference process have perhaps been underestimated. The gap between aspiration - eradicating hunger - and the continuing reality of approximately 800 or more million undernourished people is stark. Nevertheless, the proportion of undernourished people has fallen substantially from 38% in 1969/71 to 20% in 1990/92 according to FAO. World food production has outpaced population growth; the combination of successful dissemination of new technology, more intensive input use and closer integration of markets has sustained the growth in production, belying the more pessimistic forecasts of 20 years ago. However, an important qualification is that per capita food production has not increased in most highly-indebted, low-income countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa.

Equally impressive, famine has been virtually confined since 1974 to conflict situations, where considerable political and logistical difficulties hamper delivery and access. The drought-related crises particularly affecting pastoralists in marginal environments in Africa, such as in Western Darfur (Sudan) or Turkana (Kenya), were largely alleviated by post-1974 food security arrangements. This containment of famine is, to a significant degree, the real achievement of the process of international negotiation of which the 1974 Conference was the focal point. New institutional arrangements were made and a fresh conceptual framework for discussing international food problems was elaborated.

From 1945 until the early 1970s, US food surpluses had, in effect, been the guarantor of world food security. The massive food aid to India during its drought crisis of 1965/6 is a good example. Then the US abdicated this solo role by its prioritisation of commercial sales to the then USSR and its explicit use of food as a political weapon. By 1974 in a world crisis situation of drought, floods and famine with turbulent international cereal markets there was a considerable institutional gap to be filled. FAO's Global Information and Early Warning System (GIEWS) met the needs of other donors lacking US Department of Agriculture's intelligence network of agricultural attachÈs, in providing country-specific assessments of food problems and import requirements. The governance of the World Food Programme was strengthened.

Box 1: *The quest for food security: concepts and definitions*

The quest for food security - the avoidance of hunger and famine - is as old as civil society itself. Adequate nutrition and food security are important outcomes of development: conversely, they are vital contributors to the development process. However, food security as a concept was initially seen in the 1970s mainly as a 'food problem', particularly that of (a) ensuring production of adequate food supplies and (b) maximising stability in their flow. That view led to a focus on international measures to reduce price variability and finance additional costs of exceptional imports, and to self-sufficiency strategies at a national level.

In 1983, FAO expanded its concept to include a third prong, securing access by vulnerable people to available supplies. Attention should be balanced between the demand and supply side of the food security equation. The world food problem is,

therefore, not synonymous with the world hunger and food insecurity problem. Achieving longer-term food security is inextricably linked to overcoming other world crises of population, unemployment, debt, energy, environment and political security - all problems with a significant national and local component - that breed negatively on each other.

The broader concept of food security is reflected in the World Food Summit definition: 'food security, at the individual, household, national, regional and global levels [is achieved] when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life'. It recognised that poverty is 'a major cause of food insecurity and [that] sustainable progress in poverty eradication is critical to improving access to food', but noted that 'conflict, terrorism, corruption and environmental degradation also contribute significantly to food insecurity.'

From the relatively straightforward concept of 'food self-sufficiency', a counter-intuitive view of development has thus emerged, based on the premise that those who are short of food will only be able to obtain it in the longer run if they can pay for it, leading to the concept of 'food self-reliance'. This view has highlighted the importance of employment and markets; it also underscores the need for safety-nets and market protection for the unemployed and other vulnerable groups. However, some forms of protection such as general consumer subsidies have sometimes disrupted the functioning of markets and undermined comparative advantage, leading to the call for market liberalisation. The complex chain of causality goes on, leading back to food insecurity.

The joint WFP/FAO International Emergency Food Reserve provided a vehicle for collective emergency food aid, albeit with more limited advance commitments than the 500,000 tonnes of cereals envisaged. The Food Aid Convention commitments, initially set in 1967 at 4.25 million tonnes a year, were expanded in 1980 to 7.6 million tonnes, much closer to the 1974 Conference target of 10 million tonnes of cereals. The Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), established in 1971, also oversaw a rapid increase in research funding for food crops in livestock: the number of centres increased from 4 to 13 and expenditure from US$50 million to $250 million in 1980 (see ODI Briefing Paper, 1994 (3) September). The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) was created to fund small-scale agriculture with soft loans, hopefully to be boosted with OPEC petrodollars. The World Food Council set up in 1977 succeeded, at least initially, in sustaining an international dialogue on food issues resulting notably in the food strategies initiatives of the early 1980s. Within FAO the Committee on World Food Security (CFS) provided another forum for annual review of wider issues. The 1974 Conference also introduced and gave widespread recognition to the new policy concept of food security (see Box 1). In clear contrast to the debates and resolutions surrounding the 1974 Conference, the preparations for the 1996 Summit shared no widespread sense of a deepening crisis that necessitated a major initiative on economic, humanitarian or political grounds. A tighter world cereals market situation and an accompanying price spike in 1995 temporarily raised concern about problems of unstable supply and the possible effects of the GATT Uruguay Round. But these pressures eased during 1996.

The choice of date for the Summit was probably far from ideal. The newly established World Trade Organization (WTO) was to hold its first meeting within weeks. Worse, the attention of the major force in world food policy, the US, was inevitably elsewhere, with the Presidential election also in early November. And within the UN itself, the impending election of the Secretary-General was a further distraction for departments of foreign affairs.

There is also a widespread perception in official circles that there are too many institutional arrangements, too many bodies with overlapping mandates and duplication of responsibilities, not just in the area of food security, but in the whole international system for supporting human security and development. The effect of contracting aid funding is that these resources are potentially being spread ever more thinly, raising problems of effectiveness and efficiency.

Progress on food security

The 1996 Summit has been important in confirming a near-consensus on the main features of the global problem of food insecurity as it now exists. It recognised the unacceptable dimensions of problems of hunger and malnutrition. Second, these problems were seen as primarily associated with poverty, intensified by interacting with conflict and other sources of political instability. Third, food security was recognised as not just a technical matter of assuring food supplies. Instead, three aspects - availability, stability of supply and access for all - were recognised. This broad view has awkward policy implications (see Box 1).

The complexity of food security has been a major barrier in reaching consensus on how to achieve it; and inconclusiveness of policy prescriptions has resulted in inadequate action. The concept has evolved, developed, multiplied and diversified in recent years reflecting the diverse nature of the problem as experienced by poor people themselves. There are now close to 200 different definitions of food security.

Between the World Food Conference of 1974 and the WFS of 1996, a series of international conferences have been held on key issues - children, nutrition, environment, human rights, population, social development, women, and habitat - relating directly and indirectly to food security. A number of UN agencies, many bilateral programmes and most NGOs have made the improve-

ment of food security a major objective of their activities. Within the UN system alone, including the international financial institutions, at least 36 bodies are directly and indirectly involved in food security and nutrition objectives. There are also now 18 international centres of the CGIAR.

The Sub-Committee on Nutrition (SCN) of the UN's Administrative Coordinating Committee (ACC) estimates that between 1987 and 1991 the resources provided for nutrition and other sectors relating to food security averaged $5 billion a year, of which 60% was supplied bilaterally and 40% from the international system, principally the World Bank. Total expenditure (excluding food aid) on projects designed to have a direct impact on improving nutritional status in developing countries (a narrower and shorter-term concept) is estimated to have averaged $144 million a year during the same period, representing 0.2% of total official development assistance (ODA). On a per capita basis, these funds averaged 4 US cents per person a year for all developing countries, and were unlikely to have had a major impact on the nutritional situation. Meanwhile, FAO estimates that international assistance to agricultural development declined from $16 billion in 1988 to $10 billion in 1994. These quite modest totals, and especially the decline in aid to agriculture, were major factors in FAO's decision to call the Summit. With so many aid agencies involved, there is a real danger that as food security is regarded as 'everybody's business', it has become nobody's responsibility'. There are also inevitable 'turf problems' resulting from the overlapping mandates in areas such as food aid (Box 2).

Box 2: *Mandates and responsibilities: the issue of incoherence.*

The current institutional incoherence can be illustrated by the practical case of food aid. Each major aspect of food security policy involves similar issues of incoherence, overlapping mandates, arbitrarily divided responsibility and these were not addressed in any systematic way in the Summit process.

Various aspects of food aid policies and their implementation are considered in parallel in different fora. The actors involved variously include aid, development and sectoral agricultural food and export ministries. Minimum commitments under the Food Aid Convention are monitored by a ***Food Aid Committee*** *of donor countries, with the International Grains Council in London acting as Secretariat. The* ***FAO Committee on World Food Security*** *(CFS) in Rome provides a general framework for food security policy. The FAO* ***Consultative Sub-Committee on Surplus Disposal*** *in Washington DC monitors food aid to ensure free trade principles are not violated. This is now also a* ***WTO*** *issue. The WFP* ***Executive Board,*** *which until 1995 was called the Committee on Food Aid Policies and Programmes, also has a mandate to consider wider food aid policy issues.* ***UNICEF*** *(New York), the UN* ***High Commissioner for Refugees*** *(Geneva) and the* ***Department of Humanitarian Affairs*** *within the UN Secretariat (Geneva and New York) have an interest in aspects of food aid and convene international meetings in relation to their wider responsibilities. Up to 1993, the* ***World Food Council*** *with its own Secretariat in Rome provided an annual forum, primarily for Ministers of Agriculture, to discuss food security including food aid issues. But there is no single forum or body through which a major international or national crisis would automatically be considered or overall policy reviewed and negotiated.*

WFS declarations and plans

The WFS has served to bring food security back on to the international agenda and to integrate it into the series of world issues that the previous conferences of the 1990s addressed. It has also established a focus on food security that is multifaceted and multi-sectoral instead of the production and stockholding orientation of the past. This has contributed to developing consensus around the kind of regime that is required to achieve food security in sustainable ways. It has provided opportunities for airing different views and opinions and has acted as an instrument of advocacy for coordinated action at the national level, supported by the international community.

The WFS Declaration and Plan of' Action were hammered out by Member State representatives over a period of 18 months prior to the Summit in a series of regional and coordination meetings. The texts were finally agreed on 31 October 1996 and the Declaration was adopted unanimously at the beginning of' the meeting. It reaffirmed the right of' everyone to have access to safe and nutritious food, consistent with the right to adequate food and the fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger'. It considered it 'intolerable that more than 800 million people throughout the world, and particularly in developing countries, do not have enough food to meet their basic nutritional needs', and set what was regarded as an attainable target of 'reducing the number of undernourished people to half their present level no later than 2015'. A mid-term review was to be carried out by 2006 to ascertain whether it was possible to achieve this target. The emphasis was placed on national action, supplemented and reinforced by international co-operation.

The Summit reiterated that the availability of enough food for all can he attained. Reference was made to the fact that the 5.8 billion people in the world today have, on average, 15% more food per person than the 4 billion people of 20 years ago. But a waming was given that further large increases in production, through the sustainable management of natural resources, are required to feed a growing population and achieve improved diets.

A Plan of Action, with the common objective of universal food security, espoused seven 'areas of commitment':

1. ensuring and enabling political, social and economic environment;

2. implementing policies aimed at eradicating poverty and inequality and improving physical and economic access to food by all;

3. pursuing participatory and sustainable food production and rural development policies and practices in both high and low potential areas;

4. ensuring trade policies conducive to fostering food security for all;

5. preventing and forestalling natural and man-made disasters and meeting transitory and emergency food requirements;

6. allocating public and private investments to foster human resources, sustainable agricultural systems and rural development in high and low potential areas; and

7. implementing, monitoring and following up the Plan of Action.

Throughout the Action Plan, reference was made to the relevant agreements reached at the previous conferences of the 1990s. Substantively, the negotiators saw off the extreme Malthusians who consider the answer to world food problems to be a combination of rigorous population control and massive efforts to produce more food in high potential areas. The poverty reduction strategy for food security addresses also the needs of poor and vulnerable people living in low potential areas. Critics argue, however, that what has been achieved is only a restatement of commitments acceptable to every government rephrased in the sustainable, participatory, gender-sensitive, anti-poverty, environmentally-friendly terms of the moment. One of the few new and specific proposals commits governments to monitoring progress in reducing chronic hunger. Its implementation involves the production of hunger maps to be used in identifying vulnerable populations, and monitoring hunger reduction strategies (Box 3).

Box 3: *Vulnerability and risk mapping*

Typically after natural disasters there are acute pressures, for example from local politicians, for relief and reconstruction funds to be distributed more broadly and thinly than would be justified by a policy of targeting the 'most severely affected. Identification of the spatial priorities for investment in food security and disaster preparedness can be equally problematic. Vulnerability and risk mapping, which draws upon technical advances in Geographic Information Systems (GIS) may be a useful tool for informing and thereby strengthening decision-making in these difficult areas.

For example, after the 1974 famine in Bangladesh, Bruce Currey, a geographer, prepared a widely-circulated map of 'Areas liable to famine'. The WFP subsequently adopted a simplified version of this disaster vulnerability map in determining food aid allocations to national food-for-work and vulnerable group development *food distribution to poor, female-headed households. And following the droughts in sub-SaharanAfrica in the early 1980s, NGOs, experimenting with early warning systems, further developed the concept of vulnerability mapping. For example, Save the Children Fund (UK) has incorporated a range of technical and socioeconomic data into the compilation of food security and nutritional status maps in Ethiopia..*

The Summit Plan of Action has accorded such risk mapping a potentially important role in vulnerability assessment and monitoring for each low-income food-deficit country and other countries and regions vulnerable to emergencies. However, the most effective ways of employing GIS have yet to be convincingly demonstrated. Does the state of the art yet justify what might become standardised parallel exercises in many countries? Some researchers on early warning systems suggest that the problem is no longer one of information per se but of the networking and uses of information.

Furthermore, as with most other UN conferences, the agreements reached are not binding. No fresh aid or other commitments were made amid much reference to working within 'available resources'. No new institutional arrangements were proposed. Implementation of the recommendations contained in the Plan of Action is to be 'the sovereign right and responsibility of each State'. Co-ordination of international co-operation, especially among agencies of the UN system, will be carried out using existing mechanisms and forums. Thus FAO's reporting on its responsibilities in monitoring the Plan is to be through its Committee on World Food Security (CFS) to the ACC and then to ECOSOC. Many see these established forums and their procedures as a bureaucratic waste of time. At the country level, UN agency representatives are required to work with the UN resident coordinator to support implementation of the Action Plan. Thus the channels of communication are clear, but substantively it remains unclear whether there will be any new or different actions to monitor.

Civil society institutions

The Plan of Action makes many references to actors or institutions in civil society in implementing and monitoring the Plan. In affirmation of this role, the NGO Forum at the Summit, which involved over 1,000 organisations from 80 countries, set out its own alternative model for achieving food security based on decentralisation and a break-up of the present concentration of wealth and power. The collective statement Profit for the Few or Food for All highlighted six key elements:

- strengthening the capacity of family farmers and local and regional food systems;

- reversing the concentration of wealth and power;
- changing farming systems towards agro-ecological principles;
- recognising that primary responsibility for ensuring food security lies with national and local governments, whose capacity must be strengthened and accountability enhanced;
- strengthening and deepening the participation of people's organisations and NGOs at all levels; and
- guaranteeing in international law the basic human right to food.

The most obvious differences in emphasis between the governments' and the NGOs' statements concern the role of trade and markets and the right to food. The former sees market globalisation and liberalisation following ratification of the Uruguay Round as largely positive in effect at a national level. Trade reduces fluctuations in food consumption, relieves part of the burden of stockholding and and promotes growth. Trade-related aspects of' food security are also a WTO issue. The NGOs, however, are critical of the effects of both trade liberalisation, particularly because of the lack of accountability of transnational corporations operating within the global economy, and of structural adjustment programmes on the poor and food-insecure.

Hunger and malnutrition were regarded by the NGO Forum as fundamentally questions of' justice. The right to the sustenance of life should come before the quest for profit. The Forum's message was "Queremos una tierra para vivir". The Summit Plan committed the UN only to exploring the legal ramifications of a universal right to food which, in a dissenting note, the US representative interpreted as an objective or aspiration and not a binding commitment or obligation.

Prospects for global leadership and cohesion

As global food security is an international issue, what would need to be done to ensure global leadership and cohesion'? Leaving it to the institutional arrangements established by the World Food Conference in 1974 has been only partially successful.

The 1996 Summit emphasizes strengthening the existing institutions by increasing their efficiency and co-ordination. No additional resources are contemplated, however. Only in the role envisaged for FAO in supporting the assessment of hunger problems (Box 3) and in monitoring performance against conference commitments is there any substantive follow-up. This may well imply business as usual for everyone, but within gradually tighter budgetary constraints. Such an outcome is broadly similar to that of the 50th anniversary of' the Bretton Woods institutions on the future of the Multilateral Development Banks (see ODI Briefing Paper 1996 (4) November). Perhaps a conference convened by one UN specialised agency with a limited sectoral mandate cannot hope to address these broader questions of the future structure of the international system.

A proposal was made at the World Food Conference in 1974, but not agreed, to establish a 'world food security council'. Instead, the World Food Council was set up in 1977 as a separate body but without executive authority, and with a mandate that cut across that of' other agencies. Its demise in 1993 suggests that this is no solution. Nor can a coordinating authority reasonably be located in a single agency such as FAO with restricted sectoral representation - typically in its case Ministries of Agriculture, largely responsible for production and producers' interests - and a limited sectoral mandate. No single agency or institution has the resources,capacity or competence to overcome food insecurity alone. And it should not be left to NGOs and the private sector, important as their contributions can be.

Some proposals have been made to meet these problems. A 'UN economic security council' has been advocated as a decision-making forum at the highest level to review threats to global human security and to provide a structure to deal with issues of world governance and world action vis-a-vis poverty and social needs in a systematic and politically realistic way. The Group of Seven (G7) industrialised countries and the Group of Fifteen (G15) developing countries have been called upon to establish a joint high-level steering committee for sustainable food and nutrition security. Whatever decisions are taken on UN reform, a focal point is needed on food security at the highest political level, to ensure that it remains a central issue in action for economic and social development and peace, with cohesive and coordinated programmes of international development assistance.

Another alternative to the special international conference in global dialogue would be to give the regular activities of the UN and its specialised agencies more intensive problem centred focus. Thus the FAO might organise, perhaps every four to five years, a specially expanded session of its governing body on issues of major concern. The WFS has confirmed that organisations in civil society should have a role in dialogue with governments in such meetings.

On the issue of food security for all, the division seems to be not over whether this can be achieved, but on whether it will be done. As the UN Secretary-General put it at the World Bank conference on Overcoming Global Hunger in November 1993: The world now produces

enough food to feed its population. The problem is not simply technical. It is a political and social problem. It is a problem of access to food supplies, of distribution and of entitlement. Above all, it is a problem of political will'. However, as the contrasting experiences of 1974 and 1996 underline, political will is not some 'given', but is heavily contingent on circumstances and the pressures that can mobilise and sustain a coalition for change.

With hindsight, the preconditions for a major initiative at the WFS were lacking. First, there was no shared sense of either an immediate food crisis or an otherwise inexorably deteriorating longer-term food security situation. Second, the specific dates meant that the attention of trade and foreign policy specialists was largely elsewhere. Third, the immediate humanitarian security issue, which overshadowed the WFS process, has been conflict-related emergencies. Fourth, with the future structure and financing of the UN as a whole in question, reconfiguring some component parts was unlikely to be a G7 or G15 or global priority.

Perhaps the Summit's achievement has been to achieve a near-consensus on the nature of the pre-eminent issue of food security, namely, how to tackle the inter-related problems of hunger and poverty. However, it failed to address the difficult international and inter-agency institutional issues. The Declaration and Plan of Action reflect the negotiations amongst Member States within and around the FAO Committee on World Food Security, and the outcome will depend on what they choose to make of this agenda. What has been the overall balance sheet? A costly process, particularly in terms of human resources, for relatively limited outcomes? The alternative view might be that in a global economy where policy agendas are defined in international media events, the issues of hunger and food security would be marginalised without such a highly publicised forum.

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Overseas Development Institute
Portland House, Stag Place
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Fax: 44 (0) 171 393 1699
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World Food Summit Follow-up in the U.S. and Abroad

by T.J. Ryan

The World Food Summit was held in Rome November 13-17, 1996 and the participating nations of the world adopted seven commitments (see ODI article on the Summit on p. 3) as part of the Summit Plan of Action. Commitment Seven states that these nations will implement, monitor, and follow-up the Plan of Action at all levels in cooperation with the international community. In this context, a series of consultations is being organized by the U.S. government and numerous civil society organizations to be held May 21 at 12 sites throughout the United States. The purpose will be to build on current food security efforts at international, national, state and local levels to broaden involvement in the World Food Summit follow-up as well as to provide an opportunity for particpants to review and respond to the Summit's Plan of Action and Commitments as they relate to their own work. The consultations will seek to identify priorities and generate recommendations for activites, program and policies to be included in a U.S. National Action Plan on Food Security. The theme will be Doing More to Achieve Food Security at Home and Abroad. Participation will be open to government and non-government individuals engaged in food security activities as well as interested members of the public. The consultations will run from 9 am to 4:30 pm and will begin with a satellite telecast from the U.S. Department of Agriculture from 9:15 to 10:35 (eastern standard time) which will feature the view of Summit follow-up from the Clinton Administration, from Congress, and also the international and domestic aspects of food security from U.S. government, private sector and civil society speakers. This will be followed by workshops on domestic and international priorities, actions, and initiatives. Seven questions/issues are being circulated to participants to review their own related activities and to prepare for discussions at the consultations. These can also serve other consultative processes.

- List three of your food security priorities.
- Identify the issues and/or concerns addressed in the World Food Summit Plan of Action that relate to your current activities and/or indicate how your priorities relate to the Summit Plan of Action.
- List your current domestic and international food security activities.
- Briefly describe the greatest obstacles that you face in your efforts to promote food security.
- Briefly describe the greatest opportunities you see as you work on food security.

- Name three elements/actions that would help/increase the impact of your work.

- Looking 5 years ahead, how would you like to see your program/efforts focused?

The consultation sites are:

Washington, D.C. (Satellite telecast site)
Los Angeles and Davis, California
Chicago, Illinois
Fort Collins, Colorado
Ames, Iowa
Atlanta, Georgia
Seattle, Washington
Minneapolis, Minnesota (held May 23)
Providence, Rhode Island
Lincoln, Nebraska
Houston, Texas
Columbus, Ohio
Other sites to be announced

The results of the consultations will be reported and discussed at a meeting in Washington, DC on June 5 and will be used to develop a draft outline for the U.S. Action Plan. Additional information on these consultations can be found on the World Wide Web at: http://ffas.usda.gov/ffas/food_summit/summit.html and this site will be updated regularly. You will also want to visit the official web site of the World Food Summit at www.fao.org.

For readers overseas who are working in the area of food security, you should be involved in any country level follow-up to the Summit. As mentioned above, Commitment Seven engages governments to follow-up on the Plan of Action in cooperation with the international community. It is important that the issues raised at the Summit and the NGO Forum be dealt with at national government levels and non-governmental organizations have an important role to play in this process. International NGOs can sponsor local NGO participation and through community level networks ensure a broad range of voices be heard in such a process. The experience and expertise in the NGO community must contribute to national action plans to address food insecurity. In some cases, local and international NGOs may have to help provide the impetus for such follow-up by national governments through advocating for a follow-up process, promoting wide communication of the issues and broad participation of civil society and also making technical expertise available. At the country level, UN agency representatives are required to work with the UN resident coordinator to support implementation of the Action Plan.

The principal documents from the World Food Summit are available at FAM and some will be put on the FAM web site at www.foodaid.org. Local FAO offices should have ample copies of the World Food Summit Declaration and Plan of Action.

Food Security Resource Center News

Recently, we have had a number of FSRC users in search of literature discussing ways to better incorporate indigenous knowledge, values and participation into development programs. Below are some related materials from the FSRC collection. For more specific information or to request copies of these materials, please contact:

Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I St. NE, Suite 212
Washington DC 20002
202-544-6972
202-544-7065 fax
fam@foodaid.org

RESOURCES ON PARTICIPATION

Challenging the Populist Perspective: Rural People's Knowledge, Agricultural Research, and Extension. Thompson, John et al. 18p. FSRC#04539

Community-based Development: From a Programme Towards a Movement. 1991. Jonsson, Urban. 8p. FSRC#03171

Community Forestry: Participatory Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation. 1989. Davis-Case, D'Arcy. 150p. FSRC#02188

Community Participation - A Management Perspective on Obstacles and Options. Korten, F.F. from *Helping the Poor to Help Themselves.* 181-200p. FSRC#00251

Design and Management of Community Projects: A Team Approach. 1988. Hubbad, Robert L. et al. 150p. FSRC#03014

Farmer Participatory Research and Agroforestry Development: A Case Study from Northern Zambia. 1991. Holden, Stein T. et al. 17p. FSRC#02980

Grassroots Womens' Committee as a Development Strategy in Upper Volta Village. 1986. Henderson, Helen K. et al. 19p. FSRC#02922

Issues of Farmer/Consumer Participation in Research and Development. 1992. Frankenberger, Timothy R. 28p. FSRC#02621

Participation, Local Organization, Land and Tree Tenure: Future Directions for Sahelien Forestry. 1988. Thomson, James T. et al. 10p. FSRC#04542

Participation, Policy and Institutionalization: An Overview. 1996. Thompson, John et al. 7p.

Participatory Environmental Valuation of Forest Resources in the Aberdares, Kenya. 1996. Emerton, Lucy & H. Mogaka. 6-11p.

Participatory Evaluation: Tools for Managing Change in Water and Sanitation. 1993. Narayan, Deepa. 121p. FSRC#01270

Participatory Evaluation: Users Guide. 1986. Pfhol, Jacob. 81p. FSRC#01260

Participatory Livelihood Monitoring in Southern Sudan. 1996. Timlin, Aidan. 7p.

Participatory Methods in Planning and Political Processes: Linking the Grassroots and Policies for Sustainable Development. 1994. Thrupp, Lori Ann et al. 7p. FSRC#04545

Participatory Program Evaluation: Manual for Involving Program Stakeholders in the Evaluation Process. 1993. Aubel, Judi. 71p. FSRC#01261

Participatory Rapid Appraisal for Community Development: A Training Manual Based on Experiences in the Middle East and North Africa. 1991. Save the Children. 150p. FSRC#05406

Participatory Research and the Race to Save the Planet: Questions, Critique and Lessons from the Field. 1994. Rocheleau, Dianne. 21p. FSRC#04110

Participatory Rural Appraisal Handbook. 1991. Clark University. 90p. FSRC#01241

PLA Notes: Notes on Participatory Learning and Action (Special Issue on Childrens' Participation). 1996. International Institute for Environment and Development. 90p.

Rapid Appraisal and Cost-effective Participatory Research in Dry Pastoral Areas of West Africa. 1981. Swift, Jeremy. 7p. FSRC#04477

Rural Appraisal: Rapid, Relaxed and Participatory. 1992. Chambers, Robert. 90p. FSRC#01988

Self-evaluation: Ideas for Participatory Evaluation of Rural Community Development Projects. 1986. Rugh, Jim. 42p. FSRC#01267

Stimulating Smallholder Participation in Agricultural Product Markets: The Zimbabwean Case. 1990. Nuppenau, Ernst A. et al. 23p. FSRC#03847

Towards a Participatory Evaluation Methodology: The Southern African Pilot Learning Process. 1983. Seidman, Ann et al. 21p. FSRC#04224

For more information on participatory learning, assessment, evaluation and development programming....

International Institute for Environment and Development
3 Endsleigh Street
London WC1H 0DD, UK
44 0 171 388 2117
44 0 171 388 2826 fax
iiedagri@gn.apc.org

This organization promotes participatory learning methods, including Participatory Rural Appraisal, Rapid Rural Appraisal, and Participatory Action Research. They publish PLA Notes three times a year to share lessons learned, frank accounts and encourage innovation.

Information Centre for Low-External-Input and Sustainable Agriculture (ILEIA)
PO Box 64
NL-3830 AB Leusden Netherlands
31 33 943086
31 33 940791 fax

This organization has the objective to contribute to "a situation in which Low-External-Input and Sustainable Agriculture is widely adopted as a valid approach to agricultural development...recognised as a means to balance locally available resources and local knowledge with modern technologies....values as a useful perspective in planning and implementing agricultural research, education and extension..."

Centre for Indigenous Knowledge for Agriculture & Rural Development (CIKARD)
318 Curtiss Hall
Iowa State University
Ames Iowa 50011, USA
515-294-0938
515-294-6058 fax
website: http://www.physics.iastate.edu/cikard

This center focuses on "preserving and using the knowledge of farmers and rural people around the globe to facilitate participatory and sustainable approaches to development".

Approved FY 97 PVO-Implemented Title II Developement Activites (as of 3/25/97)

No.	Region	Country/Sponsor	LOA	Title II Approval		202(e)	Types of Interventions							
				Tons	$(000)	$(000)	HN	WS	AG	NR	ED	HA	RI	ME
1.	Africa	Benin/CRS	96-00	4,880	1,959.9	262.2	x				x		x	x
2.	Africa	Burkina Faso/CRS	97-01	19,780	11,417.2	193.4		x			x	x		
3.	Africa	Cape Verde/ACDI	97-01	4,810	2,626.3	335.5			x				x	x
4.	Africa	Chad/Mali/Africare	97-01	pending	pending	pend.	x	x	x				x	
5.	Africa	Eritrea/Africare	95-97	800	735.2	139.8	x	x	x					x
6.	Africa	Eritrea/PCA	97-00	0	0.0	176.3	x							
7.	Africa	Ethiopia/CARE	97-01	7,630	4,189.9	553.5	x	x	x				x	
8.	Africa	Ethiopia/CRS	97.01	19,060	10,240.0	320.5	x		x	x	x	x		x
9.	Africa	Ethiopia/FHI	96-98	3,910	2,157.8	186.5	x	x	x	x				
10.	Africa	Ethiopia/REST	96-98	8,090	3,443.2	66.7	x	x	x	x				
11.	Africa	Ethiopia/SCF	96-98	370	377.0	216.3		x	x	x				x
12.	Africa	Ethiopia/WVRD	95-97	5,260	2,243.3	43.5								
13.	Africa	Gambia/CRS	97-01	3,710	1,863.6	0.0	x		x			x		x
14.	Africa	Ghana/ADRA	97-01	11,360	2,968.5	416.2		x	x	x				
15.	Africa	Ghana/CRS	97-01	16,020	5,131.7	125.6	x				x	x		
16.	Africa	Ghana/TechnoServe	97-01	16,000	3,840.0	0.0			x					
17.	Africa	Guinea/Africare	96-00	0	0.0	107.8	x		x					
18.	Africa	Guinea/OICI	96-00	480	441.1	130.8								
19.	Africa	Guinea Bissau/Africare	95-98	0	0.0	217.3								
20.	Africa	Kenya/CRS	97-00	2,230	586.9	0.0	x							
21.	Africa	Kenya/WVRD	97-00	2,820	676.8	pend.	x	x	x					
22.	Africa	Madagascar/CRS	95-98	7,280	3,570.5	277.7	x				x	x		
23.	Africa	Mauritania/Doulos	96-00	1,460	641.7	66.5	x					x		
24.	Africa	Mozambique/ADRA	97-01	7,410	1,778.4	135.9	x		x	x			x	
25.	Africa	Mozambique/Africare	97-01	4,370	1,048.8	88.3	x		x					
26.	Africa	Mozambique/CARE	97-01	5,140	1,223.6	93.1			x					x
27.	Africa	Mozambique/FHI	97-01	6,640	1,593.6	127.6	x		x					x
28.	Africa	Mozambique/SCF	97-01	6,060	1,454.4	105.8	x		x	x			x	
29.	Africa	Mozambique/WVRD	97-01	25,960	8,870.4	770.0	x		x	x			x	x
30.	Africa	Uganda/ACDI	97-01	4,000	4,076.0	234.2			x					x
31.	Africa	Uganda/Africare	97-01	4,530	1,540.2	182.0				x	x			x
AFRICA SUBTOTAL				**200,060**	**80,696.0**	**5,573.0**	**20**	**9**	**21**	**9**	**5**	**6**	**8**	**10**
32.	Asia	Bangladesh/CARE	94-99	80,000	19,200.0	0.0			x				x	x
33.	Asia	India/CARE	97-01	153,050	69,524.3	457.9	x							
34.	Asia	India/CRS	97-01	45,370	17,840.5	878.9	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
ASIA SUBTOTAL				**278,420**	**106,564.8**	**1336.8**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**
35.	LAC	Bolivia/ADRA	97-01	13,480	6,491.9	202.1	x	x	x				x	
36.	LAC	Bolivia/Caritas	97-01	17,960	8,768.3	0.0	x	x	x		x		x	
37.	LAC	Bolivia/FHI	97-01	6,700	3,587.2	215.1	x	x	x		x			
38.	LAC	Bolivia/PCI	97-01	5,050	2,467.5	326.1	x	x	x		x		x	
39.	LAC	Guatemala/CARE	96-00	11.470	5,177.9	377.3	x	x	x				x	
40.	LAC	Guatemala/CRS	97-01	5,480	2,492.5	240.5	x		x					x
41.	LAC	Guatemala/FTC	97-01	850	485.3	84.8	x							
42.	LAC	Guatemala/SHARE	96-00	4,660	2,363.3	330.1	x		x	x				x
43.	LAC	Haiti/ADRA	96-00	6,040	2,712.0	0.0	x		x		x	x		
44.	LAC	Haiti/CARE	96-00	3,000	1,315.4	0.0	x					x		
45.	LAC	Haiti/CRS	96-00	4,080	1,949.0	0.0	x				x	x		
46.	LAC	Honduras/CARE	96-00	11,990	4,676.8	334.7	x		x		x	x		
47.	LAC	Nicaragua/ADRA	96-00	350	142.5	50.0	x							
48.	LAC	Nicaragua/PCI	97-01	1,980	1,220.2	pend.	x		x					
49.	LAC	Nicaragua/SCF	96-00	1,500	656.3	50.0	x							
50.	LAC	Peru/ADRA	96-00	16,330	8,865.6	231.3	x	x	x					x
51.	LAC	Peru/CARE	96-00	28,910	17,778.9	0.0	x		x	x		x		x
52.	LAC	Peru/Caritas	96-00	21,810	11,241.6	354.0	x	x	x			x		x
53.	LAC	Peru/PRISMA	96-00	19.650	11,083.3	264.5	x		x					x
LAC SUBTOTAL				**181,290**	**93,475.5**	**3,060.5**	**19**	**7**	**14**	**2**	**6**	**6**	**4**	**6**
TOTAL APPROVED:				**659,770**	**280,736.3**	**9,970.3**	**41**	**17**	**37**	**12**	**12**	**13**	**13**	**18**

HN = health/nutri.; WS = water/sanit.; AG = agriculture; NR = nat. resources; ED = education; HA = human. assistance; RI = roads/infra.; ME = microenterprise
source: Draft FFP Strategic Plan

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World Food Summit Follow-Up: How Useful is the FAO Measure of Chronic Undernourishment?

By Lisa C. Smith
Science, Engineering and Diplomacy Fellow
American Association for the Advancement of Science

Introduction

As the world reinvigorates its efforts towards alleviating food insecurity in developing countries following the 1996 FAO-convened World Food Summit, an accurate national-level indicator of food insecurity that is comparable across countries has become imperative. Just as monitoring food security within countries is fundamental for generating adequate information for program planning and policy making for individual countries, monitoring food security at national, regional and global levels is fundamental for generating information for such planning and policy making across countries. The indicators of food security utilized by multi-lateral and bi-lateral development organizations for this purpose are needed for identifying where food insecurity exists and is most severe, for tracking changes in food insecurity over time, and for understanding its causes through cross-country empirical analysis. They can have a large influence on the effectiveness of policies and programs and thus, ultimately, the prospects for improving food security.

At the Summit, it was agreed that "..the effective implementation of the World Food Summit Plan of Action requires strong international cooperation and a monitoring process at the national, regional and global levels...". (FAO 1996b, p. 37). Along with the Plan of Action, the FAO released its Sixth World Food Survey (SWFS), in which it employed an indicator of food insecurity, "chronic undernourishment", to estimate that 841 million people in developing countries are food insecure (FAO 1996a). The 186 countries adopting the Plan of Action agreed to a goal of halving this baseline number by no later than the year 2015.

This article critically examines the estimation methodology underlying the FAO measure of chronic undernourishment to evaluate the measure's usefulness as part of the information base for World Food Summit follow-up. It finds that while it has helped to mobilize political will as part of the World Food Summit agenda, and can be a useful educational, awareness raising and advocacy tool, the measure has limited practical use for implementation of the Summit's Plan of Action.

Food security, food availability and food access

Food security is defined as "access by all people at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life" (World Bank 1986). Ultimately, people are food secure when their consumption of food is sufficient, secure (they are not vulnerable to consumption shortfalls), and sustainable. The two most basic determinants of food security are national food availability and household food access.

Enough food produced in the world, and enough food available in countries (through food production and imports) to feed all of their populations, are necessary conditions for achieving food security. At the time of the world's first global summits on food security, the World Food Conference of 1974, the world was in a "food crisis" marked by food shortages and rising grain prices. Focus was placed on global and national food availability as the most immediate food security problems. Since this time, global food supplies have increased substantially, keeping pace with increases in population: global daily kilocalories available for human consumption per-capita rose from 2440 to 2720 between 1970 and 1990. Over this twenty year period, food availability at the national level improved for 62 out of 99 developing countries. While 32 developing countries were dietary energy deficit, i.e., had dietary energy supplies that did not meet the energy needs of their populations, in 1970, by 1990, there were 26.

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While national food availability is a necessary condition for achieving food security, it is not sufficient: people must have access to food to be able to eat it. Between the World Food Conference and the World Food Summit, it became clear that for many countries food insecurity remains a problem even when food availability is no longer a problem. It is now widely recognized that the cause of most peoples' food insecurity today is inadequate access by households to food due to poverty. Along with food availability, the problems of poverty and food access were thus one appropriate focal point at the World Food Summit, whose Plan of Action contained the following commitment:

> We will implement policies aimed at eradicating poverty and inequality and improving physical and economic access by all, at all times, to sufficient, nutritionally adequate and safe food and its effective utilization (FAO 1996b:13).

The ultimate benefit of food in terms of human well-being is manifested in nutrition security, through which food security is translated into an "active, healthy life". Food security is only one of three factors influencing nutrition security (the other two are health and care, the latter of which is the provision of time, attention and support to meet the physical, mental, and social needs of household members, especially children). Nevertheless, child malnutrition (measured anthropometrically by weight-for-age in this article), an indicator of nutrition security, can be used as proxy indicator of food insecurity.

In the early 1990's, the highest prevalences of child malnutrition were found in those countries with the highest rates of poverty and dietary energy surpluses—enough food at a national level available for everyone to meet their dietary energy needs for an active, healthy life. Overall, an estimated 78% of all developing country malnourished children under five in 1990 (that is, 131 out of 169 million) lived in countries with dietary energy surpluses. These statistics illustrate the relatively greater importance of poverty, as compared with national food availability, in influencing food security across developing countries as a whole in today's world.

The 841 million chronically undernourished: How was it calculated?

The FAO chronic undernourishment measure attempts to capture the proportion and number of people in each developing country "whose food access is deemed to be inadequate" (FAO 1996a, p. 33). In doing so the FAO endeavors to go beyond national food availabilities in identifying the extent of food insecurity in developing countries to take into account the distribution of food within them as well. Its calculations are focused on dietary energy intakes: a person is defined to be chronically undernourished in a given year if she or he had insufficient dietary energy intake relative to her or his requirements. The estimates are based on three statistics:

- Daily per-capita dietary energy supply (DES): the energy available for human consumption per day from the food supply, divided by the population. A measure of national food availability, per-capita DES is calculated from FAO food balance sheets using food production, stocks and trade (including food aid) data.

- Coefficient of variation (CV) in dietary energy intakes: an estimate of the variability in dietary energy intake across a country's population. The CV is a measure of the distribution of dietary energy intake across a country's population.

- Minimum daily per-capita dietary energy requirement (DER): a cut-off point below which the average person in the country would not be meeting his or her minimum daily dietary energy requirements. These figures are based on minimum energy needs of age and sex -differentiated demographic groups.

The above three statistics are used to calculate the probability that the "average" person in the country will fall below the cut-off. This probability is then used as the percentage of chronically undernourished. The number of undernourished in each country is calculated using the total population size. The resulting estimates for the developing country regions for the periods 1969/71, 1979/81 and 1990/92 are given in Table 1.

Table 1: FAO estimates of numbers of chronically undernourished people in developing country regions *(1969/71-1990/92, in millions)*

	1969/71	1979/81	1990/92
Sub-Saharan Africa	103	148	215
South Asia	238	303	255
East &Southeast Asia	476	379	269
Latin America/Caribbean	53	48	64
Near East/North Africa	48	27	37
Total *(million)*	**918**	**906**	**841**

Source: FAO (1996a) Table 14

A major limitation of the FAO measure of chronic undernourishment is measurement error in its two main parameters. The DES estimates are skewed due to error in the FAO food balance sheets, particularly in Africa, and the CV estimates are flawed due to the use of income (or expenditures) or proxy country data for most of the countries at the time of the estimations. The CV estimates are also flawed since they have not been updated since the original 1969/71 estimations. Other criticisms of the FAO measure relate to its appropriateness as an indicator of food insecurity. It estimates food-energy deficiencies only, leaving out deficiencies in protein and essential micronutrient, and it disregards fluctuations in the availability of and access to food (inter-seasonal and inter-annual fluctuations), which are key features of food insecurity. Finally, by leaving out people in households that are at risk of becoming energy deficient in the future (i.e., whose food security is not sustainable), the measure understates the prevalence of food insecurity.

With the above deficiencies of the FAO chronic undernourishment measure duly acknowledged, the next section asks: Is the estimation methodology employed a valid procedure for calculating how many people consume insufficient dietary energy?

What is the FAO measure of chronic undernourishment really measuring?

Of the two main statistics used to identify the prevalence of chronic undernourishment, the per-capita DES and the CV of dietary energy intakes, it is the CV that purportedly distinguishes the FAO measure from a simple measure of national food availability. However, in effect, due to the estimation methodology employed, the CV itself has little impact (both relative to the DES and in absolute terms) on the calculated prevalence of undernourishment.

In an effort to avert concerns over measurement errors plaguing the CV estimates, a 'sensitivity analysis' was undertaken in the SWFS to determine the relative influence of per-capita DES and the CV on the chronic undernourishment estimates. Based on 16 'hypothetical' country cases (each with a differing per-capita DES and CV), the analysis results are reproduced in Table 2.

Table 2: Percent undernourished at different levels of per-capita dietary energy supply (DES) and coefficient of variation (CV) of dietary energy intakes

CV	0.2	0.24	0.29	0.35
Per-capita DES				
1700	65	64	63	63
2040	30	34	38	42
2450	7	12	17	23
2940	1	2	6	10

Source: FAO (1996a) Table 13.

Note that while the per-capita DES has a large effect on the percent undernourished, the CV of dietary energy intakes makes little difference, especially at the two lower DES levels. The estimation methodology thus puts an *a priori* greater weight on national food availability than on the distribution of food consumption within countries, regardless of which, in reality, is more important in determining energy intake deficiency. Accordingly, a strong statistical association exists between the estimated prevalences of chronic undernourishment and the per-capita DESs used to estimate them. In fact an almost perfect correlation exists between these two variables (their correlation coefficient being .91). The FAO measure of chronic undernourishment is essentially an indicator of national food availabilities rather than of people's food security.

Implications for World Food Summit follow-up

What implications does a methodological bias in favor of national food availability have for use of the FAO measure for 1) identifying countries and regions where food insecurity exists and is most severe, 2) tracking how it changes over time, and 3) understanding its causes?

Cross-country and regional comparisons of food insecurity

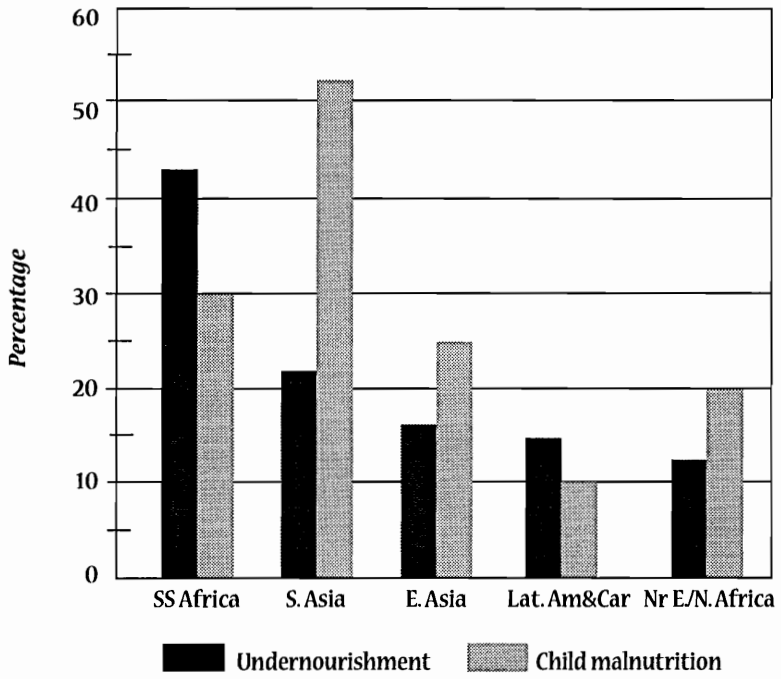
Development agencies that have an international focus, including those co-implementing the World Food Summit Plan of Action, need information about where food insecurity exists and is most severe in order to most effectively allocate their resource investments towards improving food security. Comparisons of the levels of food insecurity across countries and regions for this purpose are also used for coordinating interventions among institutions for an optimal use of international resources. To the extent that the resulting interventions are effective, the accuracy of the indicators used for making these decisions could have a major influence on the prospects for improving food security in the coming decades.

Due to its methodological bias in favor of food availability, comparisons of the food security situations of different countries using the FAO measure of chronic undernourishment will mainly reflect differences in national food availabilities. This means that countries in which food availability is a major food security problem will appear to have higher rates of chronic undernourishment than those in which food access is the major problem but food supplies are adequate to meet people's needs.

A comparison between the estimated chronic undernourishment rates and food security situations of India and Ghana as described by alternate data illustrates this point. India, with a per-capita DES of 2330 and a minimum DER of approximately 2110, has a dietary energy surplus. Accordingly, it has a relatively low estimated chronic undernourishment prevalence of 21%. Yet India's prevalences of child malnutrition (53%), adult undernutrition estimated using a body mass index (BMI) criterion (49%), and poverty (53%) are among the highest in the world. India has a serious food insecurity problem, mainly caused by its high poverty. Ghana's relatively low per-capita DES of 2090 (its per-capita DER is about 2100) corresponds to a prevalence of chronic undernourishment almost double that of India's, at 40%. Yet by other measures, Ghana's food insecurity problem, while grave, is not nearly as severe as India's: Ghana's child malnutrition rate is 27%, its adult undernutrition rate (using a BMI criterion) is 20%, and its poverty rate is 31%.

The general principle holds for regional comparisons as well. Figure 1 gives a breakdown of chronic undernourishment and child malnutrition prevalences by developing country region

Figure 1: Estimated prevalences of chronic undernourishment and child malnutrition by region (1990/92)



Source: Smith (1997). Prevalence of chronic undernourishment is the percentage of people in each region not consuming adequate energy to meet their minimum requirements. Prevalence of child malnutrition is the percentage of children in each region underweight for their age.

for the 1990/92 period. The estimated prevalence of chronic undernourishment for Sub-Saharan Africa (43%) is almost double that of South Asia (22%). Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia have about the same poverty prevalences overall, at 39% and 43%, respectively, which means that they both most likely have severe food access problems. Yet almost half of Sub-Saharan African countries have food availability problems (18 out of 40 had dietary energy deficits in the 1990-92 period) while most South Asian countries don't (only Bangladesh had a dietary energy deficit). Therefore, the methodological bias of the FAO measure in favor of food availability and against food access most likely understates the South Asian prevalence. It thus likely overstates the relative differences in food insecurity between the two regions.

Note that the prevalence of child malnutrition in South Asia (53%) is substantially greater than that of Sub-Saharan Africa (30%). In the SWFS, this reversal of the regional prevalences in comparison to the chronic undernourishment indicator is explained by South Asia's poor health environment compared with Sub-Saharan Africa's, in spite of a lower prevalence of undernourishment. Ramalingaswani et al. (1996), by contrast, purport that South Asia's extremely high malnutrition rates compared to Sub-Saharan Africa are due to its poor health (and care) environments in addition to the critical food insecurity problems they share.

A study by Broca and Oram (1991) provides an independent estimate of the regional differences in chronic undernourishment. The authors utilize household survey-based data on food consumption and expenditures to estimate the prevalences of food energy deficiency in several developing country regions. They find that the prevalence in Sub-Saharan Africa (38%) is almost equal to that of South Asia (35%). The Broca and Oram results suggest that, contrary to the conclusion reached using the FAO estimates, the undernourishment prevalence in South Asia may be on par with that of Sub-Saharan Africa.

Due to the methodological bias in the FAO measure, country and regional rankings for chronic undernourishment closely track those for food availability. Indeed the regional rankings of these two measures are identical. Unless a development agency's policy goal is to improve food availabilities, the FAO chronic undernourishment measure should not be used for prioritizing food security investments across countries and regions.

Tracking changes in food insecurity over time

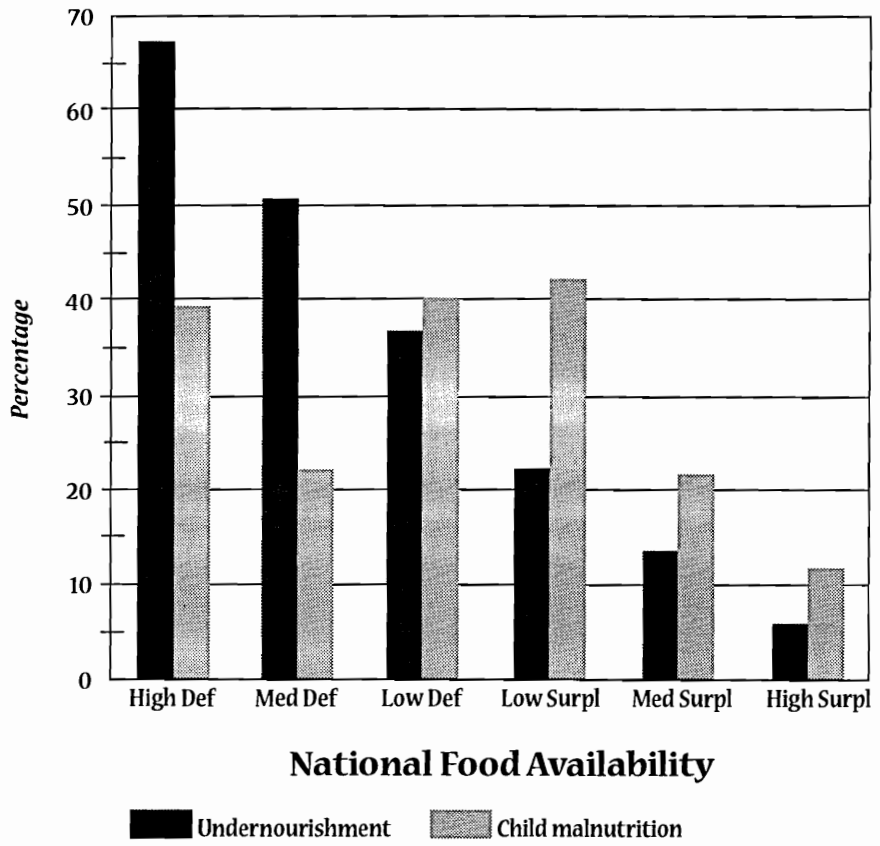
Governments and international development agencies employ data on changes in food insecurity in countries over time to trace progress towards national, regional and global food security goals and to help determine whether food security interventions have had any impact. This information can be used to make decisions about whether to change approaches or strengthen efforts if the desired progress is not being made and to reallocate scarce resources elsewhere if the goal is achieved. It can also be used to foster accountability to goals.

Due to its bias in favor of national food availability, the FAO chronic undernourishment measure will tend to capture changes in national food availability over time and to underplay changes in people's access to food that would be reflected in changes in the distribution of energy intakes over time. If food insecurity is reduced in a country due to poverty reduction, for example, any change induced in the CV would lead to little change in the undernourishment estimate.

In countries in which poverty is the most binding constraint to food security, if national food availability improves with no change in the incomes of the poor, little improvement in people's dietary energy intakes can be expected to take place. The FAO measure of chronic undernourishment does not allow for this possibility: given the estimation methodology, increases in per-capita DES always lead to improvements in chronic undernourishment, as illustrated in Figure 2. In the figure, developing countries are divided into six groups based on sufficiency of countries' DES for meeting the needs of their populations in the 1990/92 period, or the "dietary energy balance". A country is

classified "dietary energy surplus" if its per-capita DES is sufficient to meet its per-capita DER. Otherwise, it is classified "dietary energy deficit". Moving from left to right, the figure shows how the FAO estimate of chronic undernourishment prevalence changes as the dietary energy balance ranges across the six categories from "high deficit" through "high surplus". Prevalences of child malnutrition are also given for comparison.

Figure2: Estimated prevalences of chronic undernourishment and child malnutrition by dietary energy balance country groupings (1990/92)



Source: Smith (1997).

As driven by the estimation methodology, Figure 2 shows a definite downward trend in the prevalence of chronic undernourishment as food availability improves. The same close inverse relationship between food availability and prevalences of child malnutrition, which are estimated independently of food availabilities, is not apparent. The probability that a child will suffer from malnutrition is about the same in countries with low dietary energy surpluses as it is in those with high deficits. Similarly, countries with medium dietary energy deficits show a tendency to have about the same child malnutrition rates as do those with medium surpluses.

Mauritania is an example of a country in which there has been a weak link over time between child malnutrition and national food availabilities. Even though its per-capita DES increased from 2110 kcals to 2610 from 1981 to 1991—improving national food availability by almost 25%—the prevalence of child malnutrition increased from 31% to 48% over this same period (other countries for whom child malnutrition has worsened while national food availability has improved for some period in the last two decades are Ghana, Togo, Myanmar, Malaysia, Algeria, Vietnam, Bangladesh, the Philippines and Bolivia).

The World Food Summit Plan of Action states that "To monitor actively the implementation of the World Food Summit Plan of Action" (Objective 7.3, FAO 1996b, p.41), governments, in partnership with civil society and in coordination with the relevant international institutions will "By 2006, undertake ... a major broad-based progress assessment of the implementation of the World Food Summit Plan of Action and a mid-term review of achieving the target of reducing the number of undernourished people to half their present level no later than 2015" (FAO 1996b, p. 42).

How useful would the chronic undernourishment measure be in undertaking this assessment? We can start by asking how useful it has been in monitoring changes in food insecurity over the 1969/71 to 1990/92 period. The FAO reports a reduction in the prevalence of chronic undernourishment overall, from 35% in 1969/71, to 28% in 1979/81, and finally to 20% in 1990/92. The corresponding numbers of chronically undernourished fall from 918, to 906, and to 841, a 9% reduction. Since the FAO measure is biased in favor of food availabilities and against food access (or distribution), to evaluate the accuracy of these changes we would need to know what the change in food availability relative to food access (as reflected in changes in the CV of dietary energy intakes) has actually been over the last twenty years. This is a moot question, however, as the FAO CV estimates were not updated with each recalculation of the prevalence of chronic undernourishment. The extent of inequality in food consumption in countries is implicitly assumed to have stayed the same over the last twenty years. Therefore, none of the estimated reduction in the percent undernourished and numbers of undernourished over the twenty year period from 1969/71 to 1990/92 can be attributed to improvements in food access; all of it is attributed to improvements in food availability. We can surmise that the FAO measure has not accurately captured the true change in the numbers of chronically undernourished over this period.

Understanding the basic causes of food insecurity

Governments and development agencies' knowledge and beliefs about the causes of food insecurity in the developing world is one of the factors influencing their priorities for a wide variety of food security policies and interventions, from international agricultural research and trade, to water, sanitation and health care. Information about the basic causes of food insecurity is key to sound food security policy making for an obvious—but often overlooked—reason: interventions that address the true causes of a problem are most likely to solve it. Studies of the causes of food insecurity must rely on an accurate indicator of food insecurity (as a dependent variable) so that its true association with variables representing its causes (the determining, or independent, variables) are revealed in the course of analysis.

Due to its methodological bias in favor of national food availability, when the FAO chronic undernourishment measure is employed as a dependent variable in cross-country analyses of the causes of food insecurity, national food availability will appear to have a greater impact relative to other determinants of food insecurity than it actually does. A study of the 56 most food insecure developing countries, for example, showed that when the FAO measure of chronic undernourishment is employed as a dependent variable, food availability (measured by whether or not a country is dietary energy deficit) appears to have a major influence on food insecurity. Poverty, on the other hand, appears to make very little difference. Using child malnutrition as an indicator of food insecurity, by contrast, food availability appears to have little influence on food insecurity. The study shows that, in fact, high poverty countries with dietary energy surpluses have higher prevalences of child malnutrition on average (48%) than those with dietary energy deficits (41%). Regardless of their food availability positions, high poverty countries tend to have much greater child malnutrition rates than do low poverty countries (Smith 1997). This example illustrates the inflated impact that could be attributed to national food availability in determining food insecurity when employing the FAO chronic undernourishment measure as a food security indicator in cross-country empirical studies of its causes.

Conclusion

In sum, the FAO measure of chronic undernourishment is essentially capturing national food availabilities rather than people's access to food as intended.

The measure has served and continues to serve a useful role. It has helped to focus the world's attention on the issue of food insecurity in developing countries as part of the World Food Summit agenda. It has helped to establish that there are indeed large numbers of food insecure people in the world. By focussing governments' and other international development actors' attentions on a numerical goal, it has also helped to generate the political will to eliminate hunger (one of the Summit's main objectives). Finally, the measure can serve as a useful educational, awareness raising, and advocacy tool for issues of food security and hunger.

Clearly, however, if poverty—leading to inadequate access to food—is the most widespread cause of food insecurity, the FAO measure has limited practical use as an indicator of food insecurity for planning and monitoring food security interventions in implementation of the World Food Summit Plan of Action. It should not be used, in particular, for the following purposes:

- To make *cross-country and regional comparisons of food insecurity* (including making cross-country and cross-region resource allocation decisions for food security investments);

- To track changes in *food insecurity over time* in countries, regions, and the developing countries as a whole (including tracking progress towards the World Food Summit goal); and

- To *understand the causes of food insecurity* through its use as a dependent variable in empirical analyses.

Recognizing the need for food security indicators that are comparable across countries, the World Food Summit Plan of Action states that "To improve sub-regional, regional and international cooperation and to mobilize, and optimize use of, available resources to support national efforts for the earliest possible achievement of sustainable world food security," (Objective 7.2), governments and international institutions will "encourage relevant agencies within the UN system to initiate ... consultations on the further elaboration and definition of a food insecurity and vulnerability information and mapping system ..." (FAO 1996b, p. 39) (known as "FIVIMS").

What types of indicators of food insecurity could be the basis for such a system? The FAO food balance sheets continue to be a good source of information for food availability indicators. What is needed, in addition, is an indicator that reflects current and future food access and is comparable across countries. One would ideally start with nationally-representative survey-based data on food consumption. Full food consumption surveys give an estimate of the actual intakes of energy and of a variety of nutrients. Examples of proxies that require less investment are the types of food consumed, which reveal dietary diversity, and the number of meals eaten in a day. To fully capture food insecurity it is also important to have an idea of the risk people face of becoming food insecure in the future. Such risk may be accounted for in various indicators of risk-minimizing "coping strategies". Most of these

data are currently available only from sub-national surveys and are costly to collect nation-wide. Nevertheless, investing in collecting them is imperative for developing an accurate information base from which to make informed decisions for improving food security.

In the mean time, a widely available measure that represents the result of food insecurity—nutrition security—can serve as a good proxy variable for food insecurity: the prevalence of child malnutrition as measured anthropometrically by weight-for-age. While child malnutrition is confounded by the non-food inputs into nutrition security (health and care), it has several advantages. First, its measurement follows generally well-recognized and agreed to standards, so it can be used for cross-country and regional comparisons. Second, it is relatively accurately measured, and the data on which it is based are inexpensive to collect. Third, it is a good proxy for dietary adequacy.

Finally, as discussed above, it is through nutrition security that food is translated into an active, healthy life. Without nutrition security, food security is an empty goal: if any health and care constraints to nutrition security are not addressed at the same time as food security, food security will not make a difference in terms of people's well-being. Thus, using child malnutrition as an indicator of food insecurity and a reference for reaching food security goals will help focus policy making and intervention planning on the ultimate desired outcome of food security: people's physical well-being.

References

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1. A more detailed version of this article with full references, "The FAO Measure of Chronic Undernourishment: What is it Really Measuring?", can be obtained from the author at l.c.smith@cgnet.com.

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Grain Loss Reduction Project

by Beth Stanford, Famine Mitigation Activity

The U.S. Congress determined in FY96 to support a modest initiative that will decrease U.S. Government-donated-grain losses by improving weatherproof storage in overseas locations. Grain losses may occur during shipment, during handling and storage at ports, and during handling and storage enroute to ultimate destinations. Losses include those due to: 1) insects/pests 2) theft 3) spillage due to improper handling 4) spoilage resulting from improper storage and 5) weather-related losses. USAID's Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA) Prevention, Mitigation, Preparedness and Planning division (PMPP), which was tasked with the initiative, developed the Grain Storage Program with the objective to demonstrate grain storage and packaging that will decrease food aid losses. After numerous discussions with USAID's Food for Peace (FFP) and U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) PL480 staff, it was determined to work with U.S. non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the front-line managers of U.S. Government food aid programs.

OFDA/PMPP is supporting specific grants with CARE, Catholic Relief Services (CRS) and World Vision Relief and Development (WVRD). The NGOs have assisted in the development of and will be the primary implementors of the demonstrations. Through travel, workshops and surveys to gather field staff input and establish baselines, the NGOs have developed their respective programs. Comparison tests of commercial storage cocoons to traditional and/or local storage methods are underway in a range of environments: emergency (Rwanda/former eastern Zaire), transitional (e.g. Angola, Sierra Leone), and those more stable (Guatemala Maternal Child Health program). Additionally, the NGOs are conducting focused surveys and data analysis including development of a total supply chain cost model, investigation of innovations in logistics and supply chain management, and development of research tools to be used for field studies to identify and estimate losses and deterioration of food aid commodities. Further workshops for staff training in "best practices" and general dissemination of the overall Grain Storage program's findings are planned. Preliminary results from the NGO activities are expected in September 1997 and the program completion date is December 1997.

The Grain Storage program is coordinated by OFDA/PMPP's Famine Mitigation Activity, a joint project with USDA. FMA is also facilitating provision of technical assistance to the NGOs from experts at USDA and at Kansas State University's Food and Feed Grains Institute. Food Aid Management, including the Food Security Resource Center, and FFP staff have been active in providing guidance and literature searches.

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

In early May, reviews were held in Lima of the Cooperating Sponsors **Previously Approved Activities (PAA) proposals** for FY 98 at the USAID mission. These reviews were intended to be part of a pilot for a decentralized approval process that Food for Peace Washington would like to implement with missions in Peru, Ethiopia, and Bangladesh in order to move annual approval closer to the point of project implementation. It is a voluntary process though and some PVOs decided not to participate at this time. The reviews were successful on several levels nonetheless.

There was representation from USAID/Washington that included Jeanne Markunas, deputy director of FFP, Teddy Wood-Stervinou of PPC, Anne Swindale of the Impact project, Bobbie Van Haeften of the LAC Region and Stephanie Campbell of Mendez, England & Associates. I went on behalf of Food Aid Management. The day after arrival in Peru we traveled with the USAID/Peru Food for Peace officer Bob Wilson to Puno in the south of Peru on the shores of Lake Titicaca to visit project sites for all four Cooperating Sponsors; CARE, Prisma (a Peruvian NGO), ADRA, and Caritas Peru. It was clear that collaboration among the four CS's had ensured good local targeting without overlap and a focus on some of the most food insecure populations of Peru. Programs were designed to address the overriding problem of chronic malnutrition in the Peruvian Andes through growth monitoring, nutrition education, control of diarrheal diseases and acute respiratory infections. In addition, agricultural production activities are undertaken which include terracing, reforestation, locally developed improved seeds, integrated pest management and even appropriate technology dating from the Inca period designed to mitigate the impact of frequent frosts on crops in that region.

The PAA reviews were held at the USAID mission office in Lima the following week and there was a clear emphasis on collaboration between the mission and the Cooperating Sponsors (CS's). The mission was well represented and quite engaged at all the reviews. It was obvious that a fair amount of regular communication occurs between USAID and the CS's in Peru including a fixed weekly meeting in order to work on any ongoing issues related to their programs. As a result, the annual review was able to focus on the most important program concerns and discuss the possible solutions or lay out a process for reaching a solution during the review. This was an example of how USAID-PVO collaboration should work and how it contributes to better programs through greater information sharing and joint problem solving. The complexity and scope of the Title II programs make this collaboration indispensable at the local level and, when carried out in an atmosphere of respect, it has a much greater chance of success.

Euronaid held its bi-annual General Assembly May 13-14, 1997 in Freiburg, Germany at the offices of Caritas Germany who are celebrating their centennial year. A number of important matters were decided at the meeting. A new President of Euronaid was elected for a mandate of four years. Mr. Dirk Scheele, the Chairman of Dutch Interchurch Aid succeeds Tom Arnold who was unable to continue due to commitments with the Ministry of Agriculture in Ireland and also as Chairman of the Irish NGO Concern. Elisabeth Knorr was elected as Treasurer and will succeed Richard Dawbarn who is retiring. One member of the Executive Committee, Gunter H'lter of Caritas Germany, is retiring and will be replaced by Luc Heymans of Caritas Belgium. Other Executive Committee members include Colette Delubac of the French NGO, SOS Sahel, Mark Bowden of Save the Children Fund UK, Henk Zomer of Dutch Interchurch Aid and Menotti Bottazzi of Secours Populaire.

A new European Union food security policy was adopted last summer and has increased the range of projects eligible for funding. It also allows access of cash and in-kind resources to national NGOs. Unfortunately the funding conditions for these resources are not yet available. The expanded access policy will likely increase membership of Euronaid to include interested southern NGOs. Although the new policy is generally viewed as a positive development because of increased flexibility and commitment to food security, it has also resulted in some decentralized authority to EU delegations in the absence of the funding conditions and this has caused problems for NGOs. There has been an EU funding trend away from NGOs and more towards bi-lateral aid in some delegations. The percentage of bi-lateral aid has increased from 24% to 56% and assistance through NGOs has gone from 28% to 18% in the past year.

Finally, the issue of Euronaid's future role and structure was discussed at the General Assembly. The EU DGVIII would like Euronaid to offer its logistics and procurement oversight services in some select countries through the establishment of field offices. The EU would provide adequate funding to Euronaid through a core budget rather than using the per metric ton co-efficient currently used to calculate Euronaid funding. Following a long discussion, it was decided that Euronaid would continue its role as an intermediary agency between the NGOs and the EU. The Euronaid Secre-

tariat has been asked by the Executive Committee to develop terms of reference on the issues of Euronaid membership, the roles of Euronaid and the member NGOs, Euronaid services to be provided to NGOs, and support offices and missions in the field. Euronaid should also establish a new remuneration system with the EU according to the Executive Committee.

FAM organized a **Monitoring and Evaluation workshop** at Eastern Mennonite University in Harrisonburg, VA. from June 4-6. The workshop covered two themes: operationalizing indicators and setting targets for project objectives. The workshop was attended by 35 representatives of U.S. NGOs, USAID and one national NGO with participants coming from Asia, Latin America, Africa and headquarter offices. The workshop format consisted of presentations by NGO staff on both themes followed by case studies divided by sector with discussions in small groups. Almost all the presentations and case studies were based on actual projects to ensure relevance and the quality was excellent in all cases. The last session of the workshop dealt with general M&E issues and time prevented participants from resolving these even though discussions were lively and highly participatory. It was decided that FAM will request input on the remaining M&E issues and could convene the M&E working group to discuss proposals and recommendations. One important issue involved the generic indicator list and a meeting will be held at Food for Peace in late July to look at possible modifications. Workshop proceedings should be available at FAM by August.

One of the Seven Commitments of last November's **World Food Summit (WFS) Plan of Action** involves the establishment of national strategies and programs. In this context, the U.S. government and a number of NGOs that work on food security at home and abroad, organized a National Consultation on Food Security on May 21 in 17 sites across the U.S. with a view towards establishing a National Action Plan. The sites selected ensured broad geographic coverage across the country and provided an opportunity to make it a true National Action Plan. The action plan will identify the priorities, actions, and commitments to be undertaken collaboratively by the U.S. government and groups and sectors within the United States to achieve greater food security at home and abroad. A synthesis meeting was held in Washington, D.C. on June 5 with rapporteurs from each site bringing the results of the consultation held at their respective site. A list of 23 topics emerged along with some issues and possible actions to be considered in the development of the National Action Plan. The report of the meeting is available from FAM or on the World Wide Web at www.fas.usda.gov/icd/summit/summit.html.

The collaborative process between government, civil society and the private sector suffered a setback when it was determined that under the Federal Advisory Committee Act (FACA) the Action Plan is considered a U.S. government document and thus moves beyond consultation between public and civil sectors. As such, joint drafts and public meetings are not allowed and the government is restricted to holding briefings where they can provide information on where they stand on certain issues. This runs counter to the idea of a National Action Plan and seems to define it more as a U.S. government action plan. The NGOs that have been involved in the process are exploring ways to return to the collaborative approach that led to the May 21 consultations and invoke the spirit of FACA which was designed to facilitate public participation in government affairs.

The contact point for the international issues is:

Priscilla Clapp
Special Representative for Food Security
Dep't. of State, Room 5332
Washington, D.C. 20520

There will be a public workshop on international topics held on September 24 from 9 am to 4 pm for the purpose of conducting a briefing on the drafts and to receive questions and comments on them. Further details will be available at the web site listed above.

The topic clusters for both domestic and international issues are as follows:

Combined international/domestic topics:

1. Promote Awareness, Education, and Involvement in Food Security and an Understanding of Root Causes of Food Insecurity; Strengthen Nutrition Education and Build Food Security Skills Domestically

2 Human Rights as a Framework for Food Security

continued...

What's New ***continued:***
Priority Domestic Topics:

Themes
- Create and Sustain Partnerships and Networks
- Develop Community-Based Strategies for Achieving Food Security

3. Monitor Food Security and Nutritional Status

4. Research and Evaluation

5. Food Access for All (including maintaining an effective food security safety net)

6. Household Economic Security (including identifying and reducing barriers)

7. Sustainable Agriculture and Enviromnent

8. Safe, Nutritious and Affordable Food and Water

Priority International Topics:

9. Measuring Hunger and Mapping Risk

10. Appropriate Research, Education, and Extension for Food Production and Food Systems
· *Economically, Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Agriculture*

11. Prioritize the Allocation of Foreign Assistance to Promote Food Security
· *Health, Nutrition, and Population Stabilization*
·*The Role of Women*

12. Trade, Food Distribution, and Economic Policy

13. Food Aid to Promote Food Security

14. Maximizing and Targeting Resources

As a result of a decision to enforce compliance of **Regulation 216 on environmental impact in PL 480 Title II programs**, a working group was formed under the auspices of FAM to work with PVO and USG officials to establish procedures by which compliance could be achieved while improving program quality. As part of that process, the FAM Environmental Working Group is involved in the planning of Environmental Review Training Workshops. Currently three workshops are being considered, one each in anglophone East and West Africa, and the third in francophone West Africa. Information is being sought from PVO field offices, as well as the environmental working group in Ethiopia, to make these planned workshops effective and relevant. Also under consideration is a shorter and more focused Environmental Compliance Workshop in the United States for headquarter staff. No dates have been set although workshops are likely to begin this fall. A consultant has been hired to work with PVO and USG representatives to redraft the Environmental Compliance Supplemental Information Guidelines for PVOs which targets field staff and provides information on how to comply with Reg. 216 in Title II programs.

Food Security Resource Center News.....

In the next few months some exciting changes will be taking place at the FSRC. The Center will be initiating a food security list-serve for FAM-member agency field and headquarters staff, researchers, development professionals, technical experts and others interested in food security issues. The list serve is intended to foster discussion and practical information sharing with a wider international audience. Look for more information in upcoming Food Forum issues to learn how you can subscribe to the list.

Another major change will be my departure from the FSRC. In a time of great need and dwindling development resources, the sharing of information, ideas and practices as fostered by projects like the FSRC is critical to insuring food, peace, and a healthy environment to the global community. I have been privileged to work with intelligent, dedicated, and visionary people throughout my service at the FSRC and I am confident that the project I helped to create will continue to serve as an invaluable resource to FAM members and the rest of the development community.

Resources on Monitoring and Evaluation

The FSRC prepared A Selected Bibliography on Monitoring and Evaluation for a recent FAM Monitoring and Evaluation Workshop in Harrisonburg, VA. Below is a list of some of the materials contained in the FSRC collection. Please contact the center if you would like to request copies or any additional information.

Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I St. NE, Suite 212
Washington DC 20002
202-544-6972
202-544-7065 fax
fam@foodaid.org

Bibliography on impact of school feeding programs. 1993. Esselman, Jim et al. 8p. FSRC#01076

CARE rapid food security assessments/impact evaluations lessons learned. 1994. Sutter, Phil et al. FSRC#01199

Choice indicators for food security and nutrition monitoring. Haddad, Lawrence et al. FSRC#05408

Data collection handbook: Tools for evaluation. 1991. CARE. 124 p. FSRC#00563

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Food program evaluation module. 1992. CARE. 148p. FSRC#00561

Food security and nutrition monitoring: An essential component of a developing program. Impact. 11p. FSRC#00547

Food security indicators: Issues of targeting, monitoring and evaluation. 1995. Frankenberger, Tim. 5p. FSRC#01437

Guidelines for data collection, monitoring and evaluation plan for A.I.D.-assisted projects. 1987. Norton, M. et al. [50]p. FSRC#03840

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Participatory evaluation: Tools for managing change in water and sanitation. 1993. Narayan, Deepa et al. 121p. FSRC#01270

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Rapid, low cost uses of available data from growth charts for individual and community analysis and action in PVO workshop on rapid, low-cost data collection methods. 1990. Teller, Charles H. et al. 22p. FSRC#00318

RAP: Rapid assessment procedures: Qualitative methodologies for planning and evaluation of health related programmes. 1992. Scrimshaw, N.S. et al. 503p. FSRC#01057

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Workshops for gathering information in Tools for the field. 1994. Grandin, B. et al. 6p. FSRC#02774

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The current Institutional Support Grants will end in August of 1998 and PVOs will be submitting proposals for the next round (1999-2003) sometime in March of next year.

INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT GRANTS-A VIEW FROM CARE

by Bob Bell, Food Resources Coordinator, CARE

Background:

PL 480 legislation states "It is the policy of the United States to use its abundant agricultural productivity to promote the foreign policy of the United States by enhancing the food security of the developing world through the use of agricultural commodities...." An AID response to work towards achieving food security in the world was to issue its Policy Determination 19: Definition of Food Security in 1993. The Policy Determination provides that PL 480 resources should be programmed to address the food security variables of availability, access and utilization. The Office of Food for Peace (FFP) in AID's Bureau of Humanitarian Response (BHR) is responsible for carrying out the mandates of the PL 480 legislation and AID rules and policies related thereto.

In addition to providing commodities to support CARE's and other PVOs' Title II programs, FFP makes available grant assistance - Section 202(e) and the Institutional Support Grant (ISG) dollars. Section 202(e) funds are part of the PL 480 Title II United States Department of Agriculture budget although responsibility for their administration lies with FFP. ISG support comes from AID's Development Assistance dollar resources appropriated under the Foreign Assistance Act.

Section 202(e) funds became available in the early 1990s and ISG money in the late 1980s although grant support for PVO Title II programs dates back to the late 1970s. Section 202(e) and ISG programs are revisions of these early programs. Funds are used to improve PVO capacity to program and manage PL 480 Title II food aid. AID and the PVOs have always recognized that programming and managing food aid in countries with their multi-varied environments is extraordinarily complex, and it requires additional grant assistance to PVOs to allow them to effectively and efficiently manage their activities and measure impact.

Today, Section 202(e) resources are used to cover specific country program costs which are presented in their Title II plans. ISG monies are used for broader programmatic objectives which are managed out of CARE Headquarters in Atlanta. ISG money is intended to complement rather than overlap with country activities.

CARE Institutional Support Grants:

1989 - 1992

In 1989, CARE was awarded its first Institutional Support Grant (ISG - I) for the period 1989 to 1992. Earlier, in 1986, CARE had established an office in Headquarters to begin to provide overall support to county office food aid program efforts. One of the major accomplishments was to develop Food Aid Policy and Guidelines for country offices to use in developing their food aid strategies.

In ISG - I, a central focus was to improve commodity management. While food programming was important, as with other colleague PVOs and FFP, there was general concern by all that systems to monitor and

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track commodity flows needed to be revised and/or improved. Given the high value of food aid entrusted to CARE by FFP, managing food aid inventories assumed a higher priority than improving overall program quality and impact. CARE's efforts included development of specific manuals and workshops on warehouse management, an attempt to develop its own computerized software system, and placement of Food Regional Technical Advisors in Latin America and East Africa in 1992. For a variety of reasons the work on the software program ended. Currently, CARE is developing a new financial system for all country offices and Headquarters which will include an inventory module. The financial program will track dollar value and tonnage in countries, and aggregate totals at Headquarters.

By the end of ISG - I and in early 1993 emphasis for CARE, and all PVOs programming Title II food, began to shift significantly to looking for ways to improve overall food aid programming. While CARE's ability to account for Title II commodities had improved and commodity management remained, and still is a high priority, PVOs and FFP were under increasing pressure to show, even more dramatically, measurable results from using food aid. Up to this point, CARE's efforts with ISG support had been to work with country offices to assist them to develop interventions within the context of its Food Aid Policy and Guidelines which looked more to programming around specific food aid program categories - MCH, FFW and SF.

The impetus for a fresher look at programming, in large measure, came as a response to critical reports issued by the General Accounting Office in July 1993 that AID had not yet developed a program to implement the 1990 PL 480 legislative mandate to improve the "food security" of the developing world. AID had not issued guidance on how it defined food security let alone information on how to operationalize it.

1993 - 1998

In 1993, FFP awarded CARE its second ISG (ISG - II). The overall objectives of this ISG are "to enhance the food security of target populations by addressing the causes of hunger, malnutrition and vulnerability to emergencies, and to improve its ability to manage Title II commodities." This ISG has attempted to strike a balance between providing programmatic support to country offices on defining food and livelihood security concepts, translating these concepts into programs and establishing systems to measure impact, and providing more support to country offices to manage and report on commodity inventories.

ISG - II allowed CARE in September 1995 to publish organization standards on commodity management. Among other things, these standards are used by CARE Internal and External Auditors to determine if there is compliance with policies and procedures covering Title II activities. The Manual has been translated into French, Portuguese and Spanish and is being finalized for distribution. A workbook is being developed as a companion to the Manual. It will have questions and problems which correspond to specific chapters and sections of the Manual, and it is intended to serve as a self-guided training exercise for managers and staff responsible for managing food inventories. Finally, a Coordinator for Technical Assistance - Commodity Management has just been hired to provide TA to country offices on all commodity management related matters. In addition to carrying out workshops, he will be responsible for identifying a cadre of current and ex-CARE employees who can assist in providing commodity management training, and he will look at different ways to take advantage of new communication technologies - e.g. e-mail or chat groups.

CARE has made significant progress since 1993 in its efforts to define food security and put the concepts into operation. ISG resources were used to fund a full time Food Security Advisor who has spent extraordinary amounts of time working with CARE staff, as well as colleague PVOs and AID, on the concepts of food and livelihood security and its applications. Please also refer to articles in earlier editions of Food Forum on this subject. CARE has been able develop a series of articles and guidelines on food and livelihood security. Rapid food security assessments have been carried out in almost all Title II programs. Assessments are being used by country offices to assist them in developing a) long range strategic plans and b) food and livelihood program strategies, interventions and indicators that can be used to measure Title II program results. Country programs have developed more sophisticated monitoring systems and, currently ISG support is being used to partially support the development of an overall, organization-wide project monitoring system and software program. In addition, based on its experiences, CARE with colleague PVOs has also been able to make key contributions to the development of AID's generic food security indicators.

Most important, the work done on defining and operationalizing food security has resulted in CARE establishing a core program goal in emergency and development programs of improving food and household livelihood security.

In the last year, CARE Headquarters and country offices in the Greater Horn of Africa have been collecting information and developing strategies to respond to

the emergency and rehabilitation needs of vulnerable food and livelihood insecure populations in this region. It is expected that a regional strategy to address needs will be finalized by early 1998. Also, given that nearly half of the world's population will be living in urban areas in the next few years, CARE and IFPRI have begun to look at urban program strategies, CARE believes it must be prepared to respond to the food and livelihood insecurity needs of the urban poor.

While CARE has accomplished much, it is equally clear that more work remains. The concept of food and livelihood security requires a holistic and not just sector specific look at problems and issues. In a recent workshop, CARE Headquarters and regional programmers agreed that given the size and diversity of CARE's portfolio important work remains on making the concepts of food and livelihood security more easily understandable, and that there is no one specific tool to be used in developing programs. The key will be to develop a variety of tools - rapid assessments, use of secondary data, varied monitoring and evaluation techniques and guidance that can be used by country offices and their partners to develop their programs. Of overriding importance is to provide information to country office programmers to aid them in understanding how these program principles apply to all stages of project development, implementation and monitoring and evaluation.

Other challenges for CARE, and this writer believes for colleague PVOs and AID, are to better understand linkages between different aspects of food and livelihood security, e.g. health and agriculture; to assure that program staff from different sector disciplines work together to incorporate food and livelihood security principles in their program strategies and implementation, monitoring and evaluation plans to recognize the importance of standard and location specific measures of impact and to assure that dollar and/or in-kind resources from donors or others complement each other. On this latter point, for example, FFP may support activities that emphasize nutrition and health in a CARE Title II program while at the same time the country office will have Child Survival support from a different bureau in AID. The two programs often are not coordinated. Without addressing the types of issues cited above, CARE believes that it will be more difficult to improve overall program quality and show program results.

Over the last year, issues have arisen about food aid needs over the next ten years and food aid support to different countries and regions of the world. There are projections that food aid needs in countries will increase, less food aid will be available and, at the same time, more countries may be able to provide for themselves. These projections raise questions about where best to target food aid, and it puts on the table the need to think through increasing, modifying or reducing current programs or planning food aid program exit strategies. PVOs and AID are only beginning to look at this area.

Use of ISG resources in this 1993 to 1998 period has allowed CARE to make significant progress in improving the quality of its programs and move toward its stated overall ISG goal. In addition, while not part of its ISG, this period has seen CARE and its colleague PVOs and FFP coordinating more. All PVOs programming Title II resources as well as FFP are faced with many similar issues e.g. - developing M&E systems and understanding market analyses for monetizations. It has become clear that increased collaboration among organizations and institutions must take place in the coming years. For example, ways will be sought to look at respective comparative advantages and to determine whether FAM will play more than a primary information sharing role.

1999-2003

In early 1998, CARE and other PVOs will be submitting ISG proposals for the period 1999 to 2003. Based on comments from CARE country offices on what they see as priorities and given CARE's progress to date on improving its food and livelihood security programming, there appear to be at least five major areas where we shall need to concentrate our efforts.

Integration - continue to integrate overall food and livelihood program principles with sector programs objectives and methodologies for emergency, rehabilitation and development programs.

Materials - continue to develop a variety of practical tools and guidelines with explanations about when/how they can be used to assist country offices and their partners plan and implement program strategies.

Communication - explore ways to use new communication technology to expand awareness of programming principles and applications in addition to conducting workshops or specific site visits.

Collaboration/Coordination - establish more coordinated working relationships with PVO colleagues and CARE and local partners; FFP, the broader AID community and local USAID missions, WFP, other donors and the private commercial sector.

Creativity/Innovation - consider more creative and innovative ways to program food aid resources over the next ten years in light of expanding food aid needs, and changing political and economic circumstances and population concentrations in countries and regions.

El Niño 1997-98; the worst ever?

This "could be the climatic event of the century" says the U.N. sponsored World Climate Research Program. This is of course El Niño, the event that is currently the subject of a significant amount of broadcast, radio and print attention. El Niño is part of a larger pattern ENSO, the combined El Niño/Southern Oscillation, a periodic reversal of conditions in the equatorial Pacific that disrupts global weather patterns.

PVOs are prioritizing program activities to prepare for the potential consequences of the current El Niño event. Several working groups in Washington, D.C. are currently monitoring this El Niño. NGOs have met on several occasions to discuss the issue, as have a World Bank group and US government offices such as OFDA, FEWS, and regional bureaus of AID. There are initial efforts to share information among these groups. This article outlines a brief description of El Niño and regional climatic breakdowns.

This El Niño event will last for several months, perhaps until spring 1998, although the impact is usually strongest in the winter. The current El Niño event may surpass that of 1982-83, also known as "The Big One", the strongest and most destructive El Niño on record. In 1991-92 the droughts brought on by El Niño were less severe than past events, and Governments and NGOs were able to forestall many of the most destructive impacts. In May 1997, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) issued an El Niño forecast, providing NGOs and Government agencies early warning to prepare for the potential impacts.

Trade winds usually blow strongly from the east to west along the equatorial central and eastern Pacific. An El Niño grows out of what is called a positive feedback, a cycle that occurs when these trade winds are weaker than normal, for reasons that are largely unknown, causing an increase in the surface sea temperature (SST). In the Pacific, an SST anomaly in the range of 1.5 - 3.5 degrees centigrade warmer than in normal years would be characteristic of an El Niño event, as is the case this year. Also typical of an El Niño event, the Southern Oscillation Index has indicated a sustained shift in the atmospheric pressure difference across the Pacific Ocean in recent months.

During an El Niño event a deeper than usual warmer water thermocline (the depth where warm surface water meets cold mineral filled deep water) in the eastern Pacific, and a shallower than normal thermocline in the western Pacific can be found. The colder water below the thermocline is suppressed, depriving fish populations of nutrients. As warmer water moves eastward in the Pacific, storm clouds are brought to the coast of South America. In turn, the jet streams are pushed towards North America, creating rainy conditions.

Clearly, ENSO events cannot be linked with all global climatic occurrences, but a relationship can be found in the most extreme cases. Many of the more severe climatic abnormalities, such as relentless droughts, floods, and tropical storms (e.g., hurricanes), have strong teleconnections, or links, to ENSO events globally. Teleconnections are defined as atmospheric interactions between widely separated regions.[1]

El Niño has distinct impacts regionally. Although the data from sectors is incomplete, the variety of available information paints a picture of the wide range of effects associated with an El Niño event. It is anticipated that drought will hit southern Africa during the upcoming growing season. Drought is also predicted in northeastern Brazil, Bolivia, Colombia, and western Africa. Flooding is expected in Peru, Ecuador and eastern Africa.

In South America, Peru has already experienced abnormally heavy snowfall in the mountains, while Chile has received more rain than is usual. Heavy rainfall is virtually guaranteed in all of northwestern South America, creating more optimal conditions for the spread of disease, such as the hantavirus and malaria.

Drier than normal conditions are likely over most of Central America and the Caribbean Sea. Market analysts are noting that coffee production could diminish in this region, and other cash and subsistence crops anticipated to be affected in Central America and elsewhere. Al Peterlin, chief meteorologist at the U.S. Department of Agriculture comments that, "'one of the terrible things about El Niño is that even if there isn't a world markets impact, if you're a subsistence farmer' in one of the areas hard hit, it can wipe out your livelihood."[2]

In the Southern Africa Regional Outlook Forum[3] held in Zimbabwe in September, specialists reviewed the state of the global climate system, taking into account this major El Niño event and its implications for southern Africa. The specialists divided the 1997-98 season into two periods (October-December and December-March). A group of these specialists will reassemble again in either December 1997 or January 1998 to revise the forecasts.

In the first period, October through December 1997, it is interesting to note that rainfall is not expected to depart significantly from normal throughout much of the

southern Africa region, although there is a possibility of a later downward trend. Above normal rainfall is expected in northern Tanzania where there are currently reports of drought and other exceptions include the extreme southern tip of South Africa, where above normal rainfall is also expected. Below normal rainfall is expected in Mauritius.

December through March, the second period, is generally the main rainy season for much of southern Africa. During this period, there is a distinct trend forecasted towards below normal rainfall in the southernmost regions of southern Africa. In South Africa, southern Mozambique, Lesotho and Swaziland, the rainfall may be categorized as significantly below normal. The northeastern regions of southern Africa however, normal to above normal rainfall is expected. In this time period, above normal rainfall is expected for Mauritius. Due to a lack of agreement among the models used to generate the forecasts, prospects for Malawi, southwestern Zambia and northern Namibia in December through March were uncertain.

The Philippines, Papua New Guinea and Indonesia are reporting severe drought conditions, bringing concern that agricultural production will be severely curtailed in the region. The Government of Indonesia has recently reported that 271 people have died of famine and cholera. Fires have been burning uncontrollably in Indonesia. The patterns in Australia are comparable to those in South Asia where a searing drought is currently being experienced. The Government of Australia expects the wheat crops to be 28% below last year's record breaking crop. These regional samples are only the predicted outcomes. The actual outcomes continue to unfold.

The current climate patterns indicate that the development community is in for a challenging season that requires the utmost in collaborative efforts. Towards this end, many U.S. NGOs met with Len Rogers, Acting Assistant Administrator of USAID/BHR, to discuss response options to El Niño. Mr. Rogers presented the approach of USAID serving as a "donor of last resort" where USAID would encourage countries to use their own resources or make commercial grain purchases as well as seek assistance from neighboring countries and other donors. Recognizing the potential severity of this event, the USG has approved the pre-positioning of 60,000 MT of mostly cereals in U.S. ports. These commodities will be purchased using Title II monies and should be in U.S. gulf ports by December. The commodities are earmarked for response to El Niño effects in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. Previous experience from El Niño events has shown that the second year of the event can be the worst from the drought standpoint. Therefore, projects developed now could focus on mitigating the effects of the drought. It was pointed out in the meeting that some of the key challenges facing farmers following a strong El Niño event include reduced access to water which affects the health of their livestock as well as market price. Credit access and growing indebtedness are also problems as farmers struggle to protect their families and farms from the worst effects of drought.

In addition, Jim Kelly from the USAID/FEWS Project presented "Planning for El Niño Response in Southern Africa," at the Food Aid Consultative Group meeting in Washington, D.C. on October 14th. His presentation highlighted a number of important lessons learned from the 1991-92 drought in southern Africa. Also, on October 28th, FAM will host a meeting with Bernd Dreesman, Secretary General of EuronAid. El Niño collaboration and resource sharing with the EU will be the main items on the agenda.

It is clear that the advances in forecasting weather patterns as well as the lessons learned from the last El Niño event have provided development organizations, donors, and affected countries with more information for this El Niño than had ever been available. The challenge now will be to develop strategies and programs that will mitigate the expected impact of this event to the maximum extent possible.

[1] Glantz, M. ed. Usable Science: Food Security, Early Warning and El Niño. Proceedings of the Workshop on ENSO/FEWS, Budapest, Hungary, October, 1993. UNEP (Nairobi) and NCAR. 1994.

[2] Hamilton, M. Weathering El Niño's Market Blows. Washington Post. October 4, 1997.

[3] Statement from the Southern African Regional Climate Outlook Forum. Kadoma, Zimbabwe. September 12, 1997.

Food for Peace Survey of Cooperating Sponsors and Missions

In July 1997 The Office of Food for Peace's Development Team sent a survey out to PVO and USAID Missions asking them to assess Food for Peace's (FFP) support in specific areas and provide suggestions where improvement is needed. This is a summary distilled out of 16

pages of responses. In all of the questions, written comments were solicited from the PVOs and Missions. For the entire survey response please contact FAM/FSRC for a copy.

The survey consisted of 7 questions for the PVO and Mission staffs. In questions 1 through 4 respondents were to answer on a scale ranking from *very inadequate, inadequate, generally adequate to excellent*. Food for Peace provided a percentage for those who responded either generally adequate or excellent for each question, but there is not a further breakdown beyond that point. No response rates for *very inadequate or inadequate* were provided. In questions 5 through 7 FFP asked for input and written comments from the respondents without a scale. This was a lengthy section and the responses put here are only short summaries. The main themes and key comments to come out of the survey responses follow the questions.

Question 1:
How well has FFP supported the *design and implementation* of Title II development activities through the provision of guidance and technical expertise in critical technical areas — (e.g., health and nutrition, agricultural productivity, water and sanitation, etc.)?

86% of those surveyed feel that support has been either generally adequate or excellent.

Question 2:
How well has FFP supported the *food aid program and logistics management* of Title II development activities through guidance and the provision of technical expertise in critical areas (e.g., Bellmon amendments, monetization, environmental examinations, and commodity selection and distribution)?

69% of those surveyed feel that support has been either generally adequate or excellent.

Question 3:
How well has FFP supported the *monitoring and evaluation* of Title II activities through the provision of guidance and technical expertise on the development of monitoring and evaluation systems, including the integration of PVO M&E activities into USAID results reporting systems?

64% of those surveyed feel that support has been either generally adequate or excellent.

Question 4:
Has FFP supported the *efficiency and timeliness* of Title II activities through streamlined procedures and timely responses for key program actions such as proposal reviews and call forwards, recognizing the need for FFP to also ensure quality and accountability in these actions?

62% of those surveyed feel that support has been either generally adequate or excellent.

Question 5:
Among the areas in which you have assessed FFP support to have been inadequate, please identify which areas are most important to you, and thus areas which are of greatest priority for FFP to address?

PVOs: Answers sometime seem ambiguous or contradictory in the guidance from Regional USAID Legal counsel and Mission staff. Other priority issues include the need for timely commodity price data, environmental review and results reporting and FFP flexibility in response to program needs.

Missions: "Timely issuance" of guidelines for preparing Title II documents.

Question 6:
Can you identify areas in which you think FFP should provide additional training to Missions and PVOs?

PVOs: Market analysis, environmental review, M&E, monetization, TAPs and AID and PVO communication.

Missions: FFP should consider a "team" approach to training with CS direct hire staff and PVO staff. Training is always needed in the critical areas of health and nutrition, agricultural productivity, water and sanitation, as well as in the areas of Bellmon amendments, monetization, environmental examinations, TII DAP/PAA design, and TII evaluation.

Question 7:
Do you have any other comments on how FFP can better support PVO and Mission needs?

PVOs: "Yes. Listen." PVOs often must go back and forth between USAID Mission and USAID Washington needs and perceptions. It is good to have both Mission and USAID members at the PAA review.

Missions: More communication and updates between FFP Washington, Mission and PVO is encouraged.

The main themes or most frequently cited comments follow:

1. PVOs need more sectoral training in design of programs related to natural resource management, agricultural productivity, and water and sanitation. Most input thus far has been on health programs.

2. PVOs need more training on carrying out market and disincentive analyses related to Bellmons and monetization.

3. FFP guidance is received too late and revised too frequently. Don't change the guidance every year.

4. FFP proposal reviews and document approvals are too slow and often jeopardize project implementation. Turn-around of AERs and call forwards has been better.

5. More guidance and Technical Assistance is needed on monitoring and evaluation and FFP reporting requirements.

6. Environmental compliance will be a costly challenge and more FFP guidance and technical support is needed.

7. The feedback provided during the design of DAPs is helpful.

8. FFP and Missions often give conflicting guidance.

9. PVOs provide more input to FFP than [FFP provides to the PVOs].

Other key comments

1. FFP needs to improve the timing of commodity shipments. Often two shipments arrive too close together for the PVO to provide adequate storage and handling.

2. FFP does not provide adequate feedback on TII activity developments, including responses to evaluation findings, etc.

3. Documentation requirements are onerous. Although there have been efforts to streamline, more are needed.

4. FFP should provide guidelines on minimum accountability requirements.

5. Missions need more help on the application of Reg. 11. FFP should come out with implementation rules.

6. More PVO staff should be allowed to participate in the Food Aid Manager's Training offered by FFP annually.

7. PVOs need more training on commodity selection and distribution.

8. FFP should provide training on project design and development.

9. In approval cables, FFP should state the line 8 approval level in dollars — which provides the official dollar value of the program (which host government authorities and the press expect to see).

10. There need to be more field visits to projects by FFP staff.

11. With frequent changes in FFP leadership, guidance has shifted a lot and is still evolving.

12. Some don't expect technical support from FFP, and thus don't seek it.

13. ITSH and duty issues and guidelines are confusing.

14. FFP has done a good job in refocusing FAM to support information sharing among PVOs in M&E development and other issues.

15. FFP should have guidance on endowments, as it is [uncharted] territory for those involved.

16. FFP staff are often more interested than Missions in Title II activities.

17. There's a lack of technical expertise in FFP and experts from other bureaus are often brought in late in the review process.

FAM

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American Red Cross · Catholic Relief Services
Feed the Children · Food for the Hungry Int'l
OIC International · Project Concern
International Save the Children ·
TechnoServe · WorldSHARE
World Vision Relief & Development

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

The **FAM annual meeting** will be held in Berkeley Springs, West Virginia on October 15-17 at the Coolfont resort and will be combined with a meeting of Institutional Support Grant (ISG) recipients for the second year in a row. Since the current ISG grants will expire in August of 1998, the meeting will focus on the next round of ISG proposals which will involve increasing collaboration between the PVOs in order to maximize resources. Participants will review activities currently undertaken through the ISG and identify common issues and directions for the next five or more years. A discussion on the future of food aid in the post World Food Summit context will also take place to identify some key issues for targeting, pro-gramming and resource levels and uses over the medium term faced by both PVOs and donors. The decline in re-sources, the need to show impact level results, and the World Food Summit commitment to halve hunger by 2015 serve as important backdrops to this discussion.

Members will also assist in identifying the FAM role over the next five years. As collaboration takes on greater importance and information sharing becomes more critical among member agencies, the FAM role must be clearly defined for FAM staff, its members and USAID to ensure FAM's success in service to its constituents.

The **PVO Headquarters Environmental Compliance workshop** is set for October 29-31, 1997 at the Marymount University campus in Arlington, Virginia. This workshop will provide training and guidance to PVO headquarters staff on the issue of bringing Title II programs into compliance with Regulation 216 by the end of FY 98. An extensive information packet will be used as a training tool and will be evaluated during the workshop by participants before it is used in similar field based trainings set to be held in Tamale, Ghana and Praia, Cape Verde.

The follow-up to the **World Food Summit** continues in the U.S. through steady work on an NGO action plan to parallel the U.S. government's national action plan. A national action plan is to be produced by each country that participated in the Summit and should lay out its plans for dealing with hunger domestically and in contributing to the Summit goal of cutting the level of hunger by half in the year 2015. Information regarding the U.S. government progress on the action plan can be found on the U.S. Department of Agriculture website at www.fas.usda.gov/icd/summit/summit. html. Some of the documents that will make up the NGO version of the plan are available on the Institute for Agriculture and Trade Policy's (IATP) website at www.sustain.org/foodsec. For overseas readers, please find out what follow-up is occurring in your country of residence and how you can contribute to these activities.

The Sphere Project is a joint effort of the Steering Committee for Humanitarian Response (SCHR) and Interaction and using 8 staff from U.S. and European NGOs. The project's goal is to develop a humanitarian charter and an associated set of minimum standards. This will be undertaken with leading NGOs, interested donor governments and UN agencies. The project has four objectives.

- To develop a humanitarian charter for people affected by disasters.

- To compile from existing material and current best-practices, a set of minimum standards covering essential goods and services, implementation of assistance, and stake-holder accountability. Where necessary, the project will draft new standards if no suitable ones presently exist.

- To ensure that the resulting products are acceptable to the international humanitarian community and that a high degree of ownership is felt towards them. International networks of individuals and organizations will collaborate to develop the charter and implementation standards.

- To formulate and embark upon a strategy for the widest possible dissemination and adoption of the charter and implementation standards throughout the international humanitarian community. This may require a second phase of activities organized under the auspices of the SCHR/Interaction collaborative mechanism.

This is a one year project which began in July 1997 and the project document should be available by July 1998. For more information, please contact the project manager, Susan Purdin, at purdin@ifrc.org or by snail mail at: P.O. Box 2100, 1211 Geneva 2, Switzerland

The Food Security Resource Center (FSRC) has a new Technical Information Specialist. She is Jessica Graef and we are very pleased to have her join us. She recently completed her Master's degree in geography at the University of Maryland where she built a model of a famine early warning system that monitors coping strategies. She then went off to Indonesia to participate in a summer studies program at Gadjah Mada University in Yogyakarta and worked with CRS for a month in Jakarta before returning here to take the TIS position. She has also worked as an intern with Save the Children and worked for several years with Development Alternatives, Inc. (DAI). Her e-mail address is jgraef@foodaid.org.

FAM would also like to welcome the **American Red Cross** as its newest member. The American Red Cross has a long and well known history of responding to disasters in the U.S. but also has a growing portfolio of international programs. The ARC brings a wealth of experience to these programs and through its affiliation with FAM, the other members of the consortium will also benefit. Currently there are fourteen members of FAM which was founded by five organizations in 1988.

Editors note: *This draft paper is part of the discussion process to prepare a U.S. Action Plan on Food Security as follow-up to the World Food Summit. An NGO draft on the same subject will appear in the next issue of Food Forum.*

This paper is compiled by U.S. Govemment staff drawing on public consultations. It is for discussion purposes only and does not represent any new government policy.

Effective Use of Food Aid to Promote Food Security

Issue:
The World Food Summit encouraged donors to sharpen the focus of their food aid on the most chronically food insecure countries and regions, provide an appropriate volume of food aid on the basis of need, establish incentives to encourage the best use of food aid, and strive to ensure that the benefits of food assistance reach those who have the most responsibility for household food security, especially women. To better address these challenges, the United States will continue to look at ways to improve its food aid programs, primarily those governed under Public Law 480. In an era of changing agricultural trade and production circumstances, both P.L. 480's effectiveness in helping food insecure populations reach the point where they can feed themselves, and its efficiency in responding to emergencies need to be continually reassessed. In the ten years from 1986-96, U.S. Government food aid levels fell from 8.3 million tons annually to 3.0 million tons, even as emergency food needs were increasing dramatically.

Given continued U.S. budget constraints and the unlikely possibility that funding to meet international emergencies will increase appreciably in the foreseeable future, it is important that U.S. emergency food aid response mechanisms be as flexible, efficient, and coordinated as possible.

Proposed Actions:
The U.S. Government could consider a number of broad ranging options for restructuring food aid practices, both nationally and internationally, and improving emergency response mechanisms. A number of the following possible actions have been raised by public groups interested in this issue:

1. refine P.L. 480 and other grant food aid programs to:

a) expand grant food aid provisions to cover inland transportation costs for 1) countries in transition from crisis to development and 2) Less developed countries suffering serious food shortages;

b) seek establishment of a contingency funding mechanism for P.L. 480 Title II to ensure that sufficient budgetary resources are made available in volatile markets to meet legislatively mandated minimum and sub-minimum tonnage levels;

c) factor in local markets and nutritional needs in assessing commodities to respond to emergencies;

d) recommend changes to strengthen the food security linkages of P.L. 480 legislation by targeting development food aid resources through more focused programs, giving priority to countries: where food insecurity is greatest; that undertake economic policies to promote free economic systems, and that demonstrate the political will necessary to achieve food security;

e) in response to the Marrakesh Ministerial Decision on Measures Concerning the Possible Negative Effects of the Reform Program on Least Developed and Net Food Importing Developing Countries, work within the framework of the renegotiation of the 1995 Food Aid Convention (FAC) to "develop recommendations with a view towards establishing a level of food aid commitments, covering as wide a range of donors and donable foodstuffs as possible, which is sufficient to meet the legitimate needs of developing countries during the reform program."

2. work with other major food aid providers to develop effective donor coordination, e.g. through a donors' code of conduct for food aid as a step in a comprehensive approach to food security issues.

3. promote the development and/or strengthening of regional food aid codes of conduct, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, whose scope may include, inter alia:

development of common terms of reference for carrying out joint country food security assessments to achieve widespread consensus on individual country food security profiles;

better integration of food aid and other food security related resources to achieve food security;

development of coordinated strategies for refugees and transition situations in given areas;

coordinating distribution to ensure that optimum use is made of logistical resources and commercial networks, in cooperation with local traders and non-governmental organizations

4. consider enhanced P.L.480 Title III funding, especially as a complementary support to the Africa Food Security Initiative;

5. work to ensure greater focus on rural development strategies in appropriate regions using both food aid and other U.S. Government resources to enhance efforts to prevent the development of emergency food needs.

The National Consultations of May 21 raised other issues relating to the U.S. ability to provide food aid overseas, which should continue to be discussed. The need to replenish the Food Security Commodity Reserve (FSCR) was a major concern. The FSCR, which provides a back-up for P.L. 480 commodities, currently holds approximately 2.5 million metric tons; the 1996 release of 1.3 million metric tons has not been replenished. Several ideas for replenishing the reserve have been suggested, including the following:

a) identifying a mechanism to use P.L.480 funds uncommitted at the end of the fiscal year to purchase commodities for replenishment of the FSCR;

b) considering mechanisms to allow P.L.480 funds currently used to reimburse CCC for draw-down of the Reserve during periods of short supply to be used to buy additional commodities;

c) reviewing the continued relevance of the P.L.480 commodity availability provision;

d) over the longer term, considering conversion of the FSCR to a cash reserve.

Another issue discussed at the Consultations was the possibility of refining P.L.480 and other grant food aid programs to permit procurement and pre-positioning of small quantities of selected commodities in the U.S. for sudden emergency "quick response" -as indicated by early warning forecasts and in the absence of an emergency fund.

Food Security Resource Center News

I would like to introduce myself. I am Jessica Graef, the new Technical Information Specialist at the food security Resource Center (FSRC). I am interested in a wide range of food security issues and look forward to helping FSRC users with their research needs. In each issue of Food Forum, I will be informing readers of new acquisitions, FSRC news, as well as lists of resources on topics that might be of interest to the food security community.

Since I joined FAM on September 10, I have been involved in the final touches on our new FSRC Bibliographic Database System (BDS). This new database will be a great improvement over our last one, helping our users to conduct powerful searches of our collection of over 6,700 resources. The program will be available for home or office use for any FSRC user who would like to purchase the database. If you are interested in obtaining a free BDS demonstration diskette, please let me know.

This column is dedicated to El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO), a topic with which the food aid community is currently concerned. The impact of the current ENSO event on climate change will have a major impact on food security and food aid planning. Much of the information on the most recent research on ENSO can be found on the World Wide Web. I have listed a sample of these sites. In addition to web resources, I have also compiled a list of some materials regarding the phenomenon of El Niño from the FSRC collection. For more specific information or to request copies of these materials, please contact me at

Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org, www.foodaid.org

I am currently building the FSRC's collection of ENSO-related materials and have ordered several new publications on the subject. If you know of any other resources or web sites that have been particularly useful in your work concerning El Nino, please let me know so I can be sure to keep our collection up to date.

FSRC RESOURCES ON EL NIÑO/SOUTHERN OSCILLATION (ENSO)

Clark Labs ENSO monitor: Southern Africa report. September 1997. v.1, n.2. FSRC#6740

Climate condition indicators continue to suggest a high probability of low rainfall in southern Africa. July/August 1997, Food Security Special Update. http://www.zimbabwe.net. 6p. FSRC#6741

El Niño and climate prediction. Reports to the Nation on our Changing Planet. Spring 1994. n.3. 23p. FSRC#4817

El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO), diagnostic advisory 97/8. Climate Prediction Center/NCEP. http://nic.fb4.noaa.gov. 5p. FSRC#6742

ENSO and disaster: Droughts, floods and El Niño/ Southern Oscillation warm events. 1995. Dilley, Maxx and Heyman, Barry N. Disasters: The journal of disaster studies and management. v. 19, n. 3. September 1995. 11p. FSRC#5423

Getting the word out in southern Africa about El Niño. FEWS Bulletin. August 25, 1997. 2p. FSRC#2452

Forecasting El Niño: Scienceís gift to the 21st century. 1994. Glantz, Michael. Ecodecision. n.12. 5p. FSRC#6743

Large-scale drought and the El Niño/Southern Oscillation. 1989. Handler, Paul. Drought Network News: A newsletter of the International Drought Information Center. v.1, n.3. 2p. FSRC#5424

SST anomalies. 1989. Whetton, Peter. Drought Network News: A newsletter of the International Drought Information Center. v.1, n.2. 2p. FSRC#5424

Statement from the Southern Africa Regional Climate Outlook Forum. 12 September 1997, Kadoma, Zimbabwe. 4p. FSRC#6746.

Statistical analysis of Chilean precipitation anomalies associated with ìEl Niño Southern Oscillation" (1961-1994). 1995. Nunez, Rodrigo H. et al. www.coaps.fsu.edu. 25p. FSRC#6744

Understanding ENSO and forecasting drought. March 1996. National Drought Mitigation Center, University of Nebraska-Lincoln. http://enso.unl.edu/ndmc. FSRC#6745

Workshop on usable science: Food security, early warning and El Nino. 25-28 October 1993. Budapest, Hungary. Organized by Environmental & Societal Impacts Group, National Center for Atmospheric Research. Sponsored by Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance, USAID. 241p. FSRC#2736.

Currents of change: El Niño's impact on climate and society. 1996. Glantz, Michael H. Cambridge University Press. 207p.

USEFUL EL NIÑO/SOUTHERN OSCILLATION (ENSO) WEB SITES

Center for Ocean Atmospheric Prediction Studies (COAP), Florida State University (FSU).
http://www.coaps.fsu.edu
Lists resources and information on current research. Contains links to other web sites.

USAID/FEWS
http://www.info.usaid.gov/fews/fews.html
Contains information on impacts in Africa (specific references to Zimbabwe and Zambia). Provides links to other sites as well as to FEWS publications.

Pacific Marine Environmental Laboratory, NOAA
http://pmel.noaa.gov/toga-tao/el-nino/
El Niño Theme Page. Includes information on impacts of El Niño, benefits of El Niño prediction, forecasts, comparison of different El Niño events, sea surface temperature data. Also contains answers to frequently asked questions.

Office of Global Programs, NOAA
http://www.ogp.noaa.gov/enso/
Contains information on the impact of El Niño in the US and abroad, status of this El Niño event, and forecasts.

Climate Diagnostics Center, NOAA
http://www.cdc.noaa.gov/ENSO/
Includes information on impact, current status, forecasts, resources, and publications.

Climate Impact Predictions (CIP), University of Zululand, South Africa
http://os2.iafrica.com/weather/forecast/cip_seasonal_outlook.html
Provides long-range climate outlooks for southern Africa. Includes southern oscillation index, sea temperature information, wind anomalies, rainfall patterns. Also discusses implications for agriculture, climate, fisheries, and various industries.

Scripps Institution of Oceanography, Climate Research Division, International Research Institute (IRI) for Climate Prediction
http://meteora.ucsd.edu
Contains basic and technical information, including comparison of current event to past events, current research efforts, SST data, forecasts, and models. Includes discussion of link between malaria and El Niño in Colombia.

Zimbabwe Net - Southern Africa and ENSO
http://www.zimbabwe.net
Includes search mode for El Niño as it relates to southern Africa. Includes information on drought monitoring, forecasts, and SADC activities.

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Food Aid Management
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
Tel: 202.544.6972
Fax: 202.544.7065
E-mail: fam@foodaid.org

Food Aid Management
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
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300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
Attn: **FOOD*Forum***
Tel: 202.544.6972
Fax: 202.544.7065
E-mail: fam@foodaid.org

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THE LINKAGES TO FOOD SECURITY OF SCHOOL FEEDING AND OTHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

by Jennifer Smith Nazaire, Catholic Relief Services [1]

School feeding programs (SFPs) have been implemented worldwide for many years by a multitude of organizations and governments. Traditionally, objectives of SFPs have been focused on two major sets of goals - nutritional and educational. The former have usually been stated as the improvement of nutritional status of school-going children and the reduction of malnutrition rates. In recent years, however, due to increased understanding of household needs and strategies to meet those needs, more attention has been given to the broader concept of food security, of which nutrition is but one subset.

It is important to examine SFP linkages to both short- and long-term food security, keeping in mind that while no single program can fulfill all functions, a heightened impact results from multiple programs targeting the diverse needs of the same beneficiaries. Although SFPs can still be discussed in terms of food security and educational objectives, in reality there is much overlap between the two, particularly when examining education in the "active learning capacity" framework.[2]

SFP impact on short-term food security

In the short-term, households seek to meet their *immediate* consumption needs by using personal food stocks, purchasing food at the market, accessing social networks, and/or receiving external food assistance. SFPs can help meet the consumption needs of a school-going child and can bolster household food security by providing a direct and/or indirect income transfer. In the short-run, nutritional status can be affected by SFPs if there is a concentration on such objectives, though most organizations choose to focus on longer-term objectives. In addition to nutritional effects, a ration provided during the school day can help curb short-term hunger which, in turn, will improve the child's ability to learn.

Although SFPs have drawn criticism from some due to the non-sustainable character of their inputs, the effects of meeting short-term needs through SFPs can indeed have long-term, sustainable impacts. This is particularly true if the ration is combined with other complementary inputs, such as micronutrient supplementation, deworming campaigns, and health, hygiene and nutrition education for students, parents and teachers. A child that is healthy, well-nourished, and free from the effects of short-term hunger is more likely to learn, develop and thrive over time (see Levinger 1994 and 1996).

SFP impact on long-term food security

Long-term food security objectives of SFPs, which really refer to long-term development, are based primarily on two assumed linkages; 1) SFPs improve education outcomes; and 2) the resulting increases in literacy, numeracy and education positively impact food security through increased productivity and employment enhancement, better natural resource management, higher incomes, smaller families, and improved household management.

The second of these linkages, that advances in education outcomes lead to improvements in socioeconomic indicators, is well established in the literature. Education is at the heart of the development process in terms of economic returns; impact on population growth, health and social well-being; and the development of a democratic society. A direct linkage between education and economic growth has been proven, with "each additional year of schooling for men and women increas(ing) wages by between 10 to 20%, and farm output by up to 5%."[3]

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POTENTIAL IMPACT OF SPFS ON SHORT- AND LONG-TERM FOOD SECURITY VARIABLES

FOOD SECURITY VARIABLE	POSSIBLE SHORT-TERM IMPACT OF SFPs	POSSIBLE LONG-TERM IMPACT OF SFPs
AVAILABILITY		
Crop yields	None	Yes, if there are improvements in literacy, numeracy and education and farmers have access to credit, improved inputs and training.
Diversity of food production	None	Yes, if there are improvements in literacy, numeracy and education and farmers have access to credit and improved inputs and training.
Natural resource management	None	Yes, if there are improvements in literacy, numeracy and education, access to credit and agricultural/natural resource management extension.
ACCESS		
Household income-earning capacity	None unless SFP purchases locally grown and prepared foods which can then become an income-generating activity.	Yes, if there are improvements in literacy, numeracy and education.
Female control of resources	Minimal and only if the take-home ration is distributed to females.	Yes, if there are improvements in *female* literacy, numeracy and education.
Safety net through income transfer to the household	Yes, if the SFP is targeted properly. The safety net can be strengthened if rations are increased during vulnerable periods.	None
UTILIZATION		
Protein-energy nutritional status of the student	Yes, if the SFP is targeted properly and if a significant portion of the child's diet (in terms of calories and/or fats and proteins) comes from the school meal.	Yes, if there are improvements in literacy, numeracy and education which, in turn, contribute to the above improvements in availability and access. Will be further improved with effective NHH* education.
Micronutrient status of the student	Yes, if the ration includes necessary micronutrients either through fortification or through inclusion of locally-produced vitamin and mineral-rich foods.	Yes, if there are improvements in literacy, numeracy and education which, in turn, contribute to the above improvements in availability and access. Will be further improved with effective NHH* education.
General health/morbidity of the student (e.g. prevalence and severity of diarrheal disease, ARI, parasites, etc.)	Some improvement if there are positive changes in nutritional status. More if the program is combined with deworming campaigns and/or NHH* education.	Yes, if there are improvements in literacy, numeracy and education which, in turn, contribute to the above improvements in availability and access. Will be further improved with effective NHH* education, water and sanitation facilities, and improved access to health care.

* Nutrition, Health and Hygiene

Education also improves agricultural productivity, as more educated farmers are able to seek greater access to training and are more open to implementing new ideas, including those related to natural resource conservation. A World Bank survey of the effects of farmers' educational levels on productivity in 18 low income countries showed that productivity of farmers having completed four years of elementary education was on average 8.7% higher than that of farmers with no education.[4]

Female literacy and education are linked to increased female control of income and subsequently greater expenditures on household food and medical care, improved childcare practices, and declining fertility and infant mortality rates, all of which ultimately serve to increase household food security. Numerous studies (World Bank, ODA, HIID) point to education, especially for girls, as having a considerable impact on a wide range of quality of life indicators including family health and family size, development, domestic food security and income level. Studies from individual countries point out that one year of female schooling can reduce the fertility rate by between five and ten percent.[5] In fact, education has been determined to be the single most predictive variable regarding fertility. Girls who complete primary school up to the literacy level are much more likely to postpone pregnancy, space, and limit the number of births.[6]

Socio-economic benefits associated with girls' education goes beyond fertility decreases, however. "A more educated mother raises a healthier family; she can better apply improved hygiene and nutrition practices. She has fewer and better educated children. She is more productive at home and in the workplace and is better able to get further education."[7] "As principals in home production activities, women with education increase their production of nonmarketed goods, leading to improved childrearing practices, better family health, greater consumer choice efficiency, and lower fertility."[8]

The general conclusion to be drawn from decades of research and experience is that literacy and education, particularly for girls and women, have multiple and significant long-term socio-economic impacts, all of which are closely linked to improved food security.

However, while SFPs can provide a *crucial* incentive to get children to enroll in, attend, and continue in school, the mere presence of the student does not guarantee positive educational outcomes. In other words, enrollment, attendance and retention are necessary but insufficient components of improved education. *Long-run advances in food security by SFPs will most likely be seen only if the programs help to increase learning and literacy, particularly that of females.* This can only be accomplished if SFP schools meet some level of minimum education standards and there is a real commitment to targeting girls and other vulnerable groups in communities where inequities exist. There must be an emphasis on quality education and education *outcomes*.

Thus it is clear that SFPs can theoretically impact food security in a variety of ways. Why then do many SFPs lack explicit food-security focused goals and objectives? Implementing organizations are obligated to prioritize and set specific, limited objectives, and current donor requirements are such that the impact of interventions be demonstrated with clear, quantitative indicators. While an organization might decide to exclude food security objectives as explicit SFP objectives (due to these strict monitoring and evaluation requirements or to other prioritization issues), *the SFP can still have positive food security implications for the target population. Food security can contextualize the SFP even if the stated, measurable objectives of the program are education-oriented.*

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF COMMON SFP FOOD SECURITY OBJECTIVES

Following are some common short-term and long-term food security objectives of SFPs with some discussion of their strengths and limitations.

Short-term food security objectives of SFPs:

1. **Help meet the immediate consumption needs of students by combating: a) protein-energy malnutrition; b) micronutrient deficiencies; c) short-term hunger.**

2. **Bolster household food security through an income transfer**

Objective 1a: Help meet the immediate consumption needs of students by combating protein-energy malnutrition

SFPs have traditionally been thought of as "nutrition interventions" aimed at improving the nutritional status of students. Because impact has been measured primarily through anthropometry (height and weight measurements), the implicit emphasis has been on alleviating **protein-energy malnutrition.**

Some factors that limit the effectiveness of SFPs on nutritional status include:

- the relatively few number of days that most programs actually provide meals to students due to summer and other holidays, weekends, illness of student, irregularities in food distribution, etc. (Levinger 1986);
- the substitution effect, in which the school lunch replaces the child's normal meal at home without adding to the mean daily consumption;
- poor targeting mechanisms that don't focus on children from food insecure households;
- small, "watered down" rations as the food is stretched to cover other children who show up to receive a free meal and rations are shared by beneficiaries with their siblings.

However, SFPs that target well and focus on providing high quality and/or quantities of food may impact protein-energy nutritional status. Interestingly, a World Food Programme review of SFPs which concludes that they cannot be expected to bring about significant changes in nutritional status states that, "some studies have shown that the quality of school meals plays a role in both nutritional and educational grounds" (WFP 1995).

In many vulnerable rural areas of developing countries, people face regular seasonal food shortages. During the cyclical "lean" seasons before harvests, households are forced to cut back on their consumption by reducing both the number and size of meals and by relying on lower quality foods, including wild foods which are usually difficult to prepare and hard to digest. Over the course of these critical weeks or months[9], the school meal helps to meet the immediate consumption needs of the child, most certainly provides *additional*, much-needed calories, and serves as an important source of protein and other nutrients that are deficient in the household diet. Thus, though it may be difficult to measure, school meals become an increasingly important component of a child's short-term food security as household rations decline during vulnerable periods.

Evidence for this can be found in a WFP evaluation of school canteen projects in West Africa which concluded that SFPs can contribute to poor students' diets by providing a higher quality, better balanced meal than they are able to receive at home.[10] Likewise, in an assessment of a program in Kenya, it did appear that, for many, the school meal was the most important meal of the day [11,12]

The primary implication of these and other findings is that *targeting is crucial* if the program strives to provide a significant nutritional transfer to beneficiaries. If a household is relatively food secure, the school meal will merely take the place of food the family would normally serve the child. In that case, the ration might provide an attendance incentive but the nutritional impact is minimal. Programs should aim to target areas where families are food insecure so that the meal provides additional calories during much of the year and serves to improve the quality of the diet through the provision of nutrients that a child would not receive at home.

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Objective 1b: Help meet the immediate consumption needs of a student by combating micronutrient malnutrition

SFPs can include as a specific SFP objective the improvement of a student's **micronutrient status**. Not only are micronutrient deficiencies a common *consequence* of food insecurity, but they are also a *cause* of food insecurity because they increase morbidity and hamper utilization. The World Bank's 1993 *World Development Report* found micronutrient programs to be among the most cost-effective of all health interventions.

Objective 1c: Help meet the immediate consumption needs of a student by reducing short-term hunger

Though short-term hunger is not a nutritional deficiency, per se, it is a direct manifestation of food insecurity and is often listed by agencies as a food-security objective. Either because access to food is limited or dietary habits are such that families don't eat until later in the day, many children arrive at school after walking long distances and not eating since the previous night. In terms of the consequences of short-term hunger on education, children who suffer from short-term hunger are likely to have impaired cognitive function, be less attentive and able to concentrate, and have a diminished interest in learning.[13] The result is that children are more vulnerable to failure, repetition, low achievement, and delayed enrollment. Needless to say, when learning is impaired by short-term hunger, the chances for long-term improvements in food security are mitigated.

Temporary hunger (as measured by low blood sugar levels) sets in after four to six hours of fasting and is influenced, among other things, by levels of activity. Children who have not eaten breakfast and/or have walked a long distance to school benefit from a snack or meal upon arrival. Even if the children do consume some food at home before going to school, a mid-morning ration, rather than waiting until lunch time to serve a meal, often helps pupils be more attentive and alert during prime teaching/learning hours.

It should be noted that school breakfasts are not appropriate for children who suffer from short-term hunger but come from food secure households. Instead, such a situation necessitates education and outreach to the parents or caretakers to help them understand the importance of a morning meal or snack for their school-going children.

Although some form of morning nourishment is recommended to combat temporary hunger, several difficulties may complicate the delivery of breakfasts or snacks. First, in some areas, it may be difficult to provide meals early in the day due to preparation requirements. To alleviate this problem, the morning snack or drink should be easy and quick to prepare with little or no cooking required. Another potential difficulty lies in the perception of school breakfasts or snacks by the community. If such meals are not perceived by parents as having sufficient income transfer potential, at-

tempts to alleviate short term hunger can have the adverse effect of discouraging attendance and enrollment. Care must thus be taken to ensure that parents still perceive the total transfer as being sufficient enough to encourage attendance. Finally, if there are classes held after lunch, implementers should avoid substituting a school breakfast for the more traditional mid-day meal to prevent children from leaving school after the meal is served. A better option would be to provide both a morning snack or drink and a lunch, though the total quantity of commodities and/or calories does not need to be increased.

Objective 2: Bolster household food security through an income transfer

Generally, the way in which SFPs serve to impact short-term household food security is by improving *access* through the provision of an income transfer to families whose children attend school. SFPs can furnish either a direct transfer through a take-home ration or an indirect transfer when the child is fed at school. The income transfer effect of SFPs can be a substantial safety net for vulnerable groups, particularly during the "lean" seasons just prior to harvests, when food insecurity is heightened.

If an implementing agency designs its SFP as a safety net for vulnerable households, *targeting, timing* and *value* of the ration become key considerations. First, organizations must ensure that SFPs are being implemented in food insecure communities and that the children who attend school do indeed come from food insecure households. If it is discovered that the bulk of food insecure families within a community do not send children to school, it is clear that a SFP is a poor choice for a safety net mechanism to help the most vulnerable, and alternative mechanisms should be explored.

In cases where children are from food insecure households, the SFP should bolster the family's ability to cope when it is most vulnerable in order to *prevent human suffering and the decapitalization of productive assets.* The ration should, as much as possible, respond to the seasonal and unexpected fluctuations in food security.

Results from studies in Tamil Nadu (India) and Ghana suggest that household opportunity costs to send children to school increase at certain times of the year (i.e, during harvest) and as children get older.[14] Furthermore, in many societies, opportunity costs of sending female children to school are perceived by families as being greater than for boys. Not only are female children needed at home for labor, but families may also have social and safety concerns that prohibit the girl from attending.

If an objective of the SFP is to improve short-term household food security by providing an income transfer, the value of the ration must be *greater than* the direct and indirect costs of sending a child to school. It is important to note that this criteria does not apply to SFPs that provide an income transfer with the sole purpose of increasing enrollment and attendance. In such cases the value of the ration does not necessarily need to exceed the costs (real and opportunity) incurred by a family that sends a child to school in order to be an incentive for enrollment and attendance.

Long-term food security objectives of SFPs:

1. **Improve inter-generational food security by: a) contributing to general increases in literacy, numeracy and other skills; b) emphasizing female food security.**

Objective 1a: Improve inter-generational food security by contributing to general increases in literacy, numeracy and other skills

SFPs will affect long-term food security only if they help children learn. In many places, particularly food insecure communities, the presence of a school meal will go a long way towards getting children to enroll and attend school. While incentives and outreach to encourage enrollment, attendance and retention are often necessary, there also needs to be a commitment on the part of the government, community and outside organizations to providing quality education that will allow school-going children to learn literacy, numeracy and other relevant skills.

Objective 1b: Improve inter-generational food security by emphasizing female food security

More specifically, the second of these two objectives requires a special emphasis on female education. In addition to take-home rations for girls who have high attendance records (see CRS 1994), agencies who desire to link SFPs to long-term improvements in female food security should implement other female education-promoting activities, i.e., parent, teacher and community outreach and education, support for more female teachers, the creation of daycare centers where girls can leave younger siblings, establishment of village schools so girls don't have to travel so far to school, income-earning opportunities for girls who complete school, etc. It is necessary for communities and organizations to work together to identify local barriers to female education and plan interventions accordingly.

COMPREHENSIVE SFPs AND COMPLEMENTARY INPUTS

It is important to note that the term "school feeding program" can mean many different things to different people. All SFPs deliver some quantity of food to students, and most entail on-site feeding. However, the quantity, quality, and timing of the meals can vary considerably from program to program, and some SFPs may include other inputs in addition to rations. Rather than thinking of SFPs only as the provision of school snacks or meals, it is useful to embrace the concept of a *comprehensive* school feeding program (CSFP), which aims to do much more than deliver food to schoolchildren and can thus have a much more significant impact on short- and long-term food security through various pathways. This kind of program incorporates the "three-legged stool" concept of learning achievement, in which the quality

of the child, the quality of the teaching process and the quality of school infrastructure are all equally important.[15]

A *comprehensive* SFP can be designed to:

- provide a basis for micronutrient interventions;
- parallel treatment for helminths (worms) in schoolchildren;
- supply a larger ration during periods of heightened food insecurity to provide a more substantial income transfer to vulnerable households;
- provide a basis for the promotion of nutrition, health, and hygiene (NHH) education;
- provide an infrastructure for the distribution of food and other resources during emergencies;
- supply an additional take-home ration to vulnerable groups (e.g., girls, specific ethnic groups, scheduled castes, etc.) as an extra attendance and enrollment incentive;
- foster local food production, food processing, and small-scale enterprise;
- help finance improvements in school infrastructure;
- provide a focal point around which PTAs can organize;
- complement other strategies that focus on improved education outcomes.

In addition to expanding the SFP, organizations can maximize the potential impact of their programs on *food security* by focusing on quality education and ensuring that complementary inputs in other sectors, particularly agriculture, income generation, and health and nutrition, work towards meeting complementary objectives. Interventions concentrated in particular, well-targeted geographic areas lead to a synergistic effect being created between the various program components. For example, gains in female education are more likely to occur in a community where primary school education for girls is encouraged through the provision of a SFP and community outreach and education; there is a focus on quality of education through teacher training and curriculum development; and girls have opportunities to put their education to practical use after completing school by participating in small enterprise development activities.

Likewise, coordination with other agencies is to be encouraged, particularly since organizations have different fields of expertise and varying resources. An agency implementing a SFP and working in maternal and child health, for example, may benefit from partnering with organizations who specialize in women's groups and microenterprise development in order to foster community capacity to supply the food for the program.

Key questions related to comprehensive SFPs and complementary inputs include the following:

- How are other program inputs contributing to short-term and long-term improvements in food security?
- Is there a cohesive food security strategy in place?
- Is there a concentration of interventions in a particular geographic area in order to produce a synergistic effect and thus maximize resources?
- Is there effective coordination and collaboration with government and/or other implementing organizations?

FOOD SECURITY AS A TARGETING MECHANISM

To set food security objectives for SFPs implies that the program inputs are reaching the food insecure. To that end, food security indicators (anthropometric measures, income, food production, household consumption data, etc.) can constitute useful information to help develop SFP targeting strategies. Using food security status as targeting criteria, however, has a paradoxical twist. On one hand, there is a need to target the most vulnerable areas in order to maximize impact on short, and long-term food security. On the other hand, using food security level by itself may not be adequate to ensure maximum impact for SFPs.

The reason for this is that school feeding *in and of itself* is unlikely to make any significant contribution to the improvement of long-term food security. Instead, complementary inputs are necessary to maximize the full potential of SFPs. For example, since increased literacy and better learning are the outcomes that are most important to bolstering long-term food security, then there must be some basic education-related inputs in addition to an SFP to meet this objective. If these inputs (e.g., teachers, classrooms, materials, etc.) are of extremely poor quality or are non-existent, it may not be worthwhile investing valuable resources in an SFP. The communities that are the most food insecure may not be able or willing to provide the minimal conditions necessary for positive change to take place. In these cases, investment in school infrastructure, teacher training, or materials development may be necessary before or at the same time an SFP is implemented. Indicators that can be combined with food security information to determine where SFPs should be implemented include those measuring the quality of education, enrollment ratios and attendance rates (particularly of girls and other vulnerable groups), and dropout rates.

CONCLUSION

School feeding programs can have an impact on both short and long-term food security if they are targeted to food insecure communities, have solid, comprehensive designs, and are well implemented. Unfortunately, many of the food security objectives of school feeding programs are difficult to quantify and may lead implementing organizations, forced by donors to demonstrate measurable impact, to reject the use of them when designing a program. However, just because they are not included as stated objectives does not mean that food security should be ignored — school feeding programs should still be implemented in a food security context. Those designing the program can and should be sensitive to food security issues and should design the program with these considerations in mind.

Improvements in food security through the implementation of SFPs require both commitment and a proactive approach. Simply providing a meal to a child is not enough. If there is a desire to provide short-term safety net support to vulnerable households, rations should be bolstered during the lean season and other interventions, such as income generation or agricultural extension, introduced. If the goal is to use the SFP to increase education outcomes, organizations should focus their efforts and coordinate with other agencies to provide quality education and complementary health services. If the aim is to improve long-term food security through gains in *female* education specifically, girls must be targeted through incentives and/or community outreach and education and measures need to be taken to reduce local barriers to female education (e.g., reduce distance to school, build day-care centers next to primary schools, improve sanitary facilities, etc.).

It is crucial to remember that *education is a cornerstone of development.* The skills and knowledge that a child learns while in school, if appropriate, can have a positive impact on that person and his or her family for years to come. Thus, school feeding programs and other efforts to genuinely improve education outcomes are vital stepping stones to long-term food security.

[1] This paper has been adapted by Jennifer Smith Nazaire from the *CRS School Feeding/Education Workshops Companion Guidebook* developed by Beryl Levinger, Cornelia Janke, and Kristin Hicks in 1996.
[2] See Beryl Levinger, 1994. *Nutrition, Health and Education for All.* New York, NY: UNDP and Cornelia Janke's corresponding CRS document on education and active learning capacity.
[3] USAID Bureau for Research and Development, Office of Education, 1993. *A.I.D.'s Investment in Basic Education: A Description of Current Activities*, pp 2-3.
[4] Psacharopoulos, George and Maureen Woodhall, 1985. *Education for Development.* The World Bank, p. 20.
[5] *Women: Key to Food Security.* 1995. p.7
[6] Floro, Maria and Joyce Wolf, 1991. *The Economic and Social Impacts of Girls' Primary Education in Developing Countries*, USAID Office of Education and Office of Women in Development, p.57.
[7] King, Elizabeth, 1990. *Educating Girls and Women: Investing in Development*, The World Bank, p. 1.
[8] Floro, Maria and Joyce Wolf, op cit, p. 76.
[9] In some areas, the hungry (lean) season stretches up to six months, during which time children are unlikely to receive more than one meal a day from their families.
[10] World Food Programme, 1995. *Thematic Evaluation of Long-term School Canteen Projects in West Africa.* Rome: World Food Programme.
[11] World Food Programme, 1994. *Interim Evaluation Summary Report on Project Kenya 2502.* Rome: World Food Programme.
[12] Cekan found the same anecdotal evidence while interviewing CRS SFP parents in Burkina Faso in December 1995.
[13] Levinger, Beryl. 1986. *School Feeding Programs in Developing Countries: An Analysis of Actual and Potential Impact.* USAID Evaluation Special Study No. 30. Washington, DC: USAID.
[14] WFP 1995, op.cit.; Catholic Relief Services/Ghana. 1994. *CRS/Ghana School Lunch Program Operations Research Year Three Report.* Accra, Ghana: Catholic Relief Services.
[15] This concept was put forth by Beryl Levinger in *Nutrition, Health and Education for All*, op.cit.

CGIAR/IARC NGO Committee Meeting in Washington

by Carlos Perez, CARE

The following is a summary of the CGIAR/IACR meeting held in Washington, D.C. in October 1997. The summary was prepared by Carlos Perez, Agriculture and Natural Resources Director of CARE, who participated in the meeting as a member of the CGIAR NGO Committee.

The Consultative Group of International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) organizes an annual meeting to review the performance of the International Agricultural Research Centers (IARC). The CGIAR and the IARCs (16 in total) traditionally have worked with government research organizations, and to a much lesser extent with government extension agencies.

Individual IARC researchers have been collaborating with NGOs in the field for quite some time now. For instance, there have been some very successful collaborations between researchers of CIP (potato), CIAT (beans, cassava), CIMMYT (maize), ICRAF (agroforestry) and CARE in Peru, Rwanda, Madagascar, and Kenya. It is only in the last five years, however, that the Centers have become increasingly aware, even if slowly, of the importance of NGOs in agricultural development. Undoubtedly, this awareness has been encouraged by events such as the Rio Conference and more recent public fora in which NGOs have demanded more accountability from the Centers and the World Bank (one of IARC's major funders). Last but not least, European and Australian donors are encouraging the Centers to actively involve NGOs in center projects.

In 1995 the CGIAR created a Committee consisting of representatives of NGOs and PVOs to advise the International Agricultural Research Centers in major programmatic decisions. At the beginning of this year, CARE was formally accepted as one of the 12 members of the CGIAR NGO committee. The committee members and organizations include the following: Dr. Miguel A. Altieri (Chair), University of California - Berkeley, USA; Dr. Julian Gonsalves Vice-President - Program, International Institute of Rural Reconstruction, PHILIPPINES; Dr. Kamla Chowdhry, Chairperson, Society for Promotion of Wastelands Development, New Delhi, INDIA; Dr. Ranil Senanayake, President, Earthkind, Nuwara Eliya, SRI LANKA; Mr. Bernd V. Dreesmann, Secretary General, European Association of NGOs for Food Aid and Emergency Aid (EuronAid), The Hague, The NETHERLANDS; Ms. Assetou Kanoute, Executive Secretary, Association for the Development of Activities of Promotion and Formation (ADAF), Bamako, MALI; Dr. Jeffrey A. McNeely, Chief Scientist IUCN, The World Conservation Union, SWITZERLAND; Mr. Jeanot Minla Mfou'ou, Executive Secretary, Agriculture, Peasant, and Modernization Network in Af-

rica (APM Africa), Yaounde, CAMEROON; Dr. Carmen Felipe Morales Vice-President, Peruvian Agroecology Network (RAE-Peru), Lima PERU; Ms. Yuexin Du, NGO Division, China International Centre for Economic and Technical Exchanges (CICETE), Beijing, CHINA; Dr. Didier Pillot Groupe de Recherche et d'Echanges Technologiques (GRET), Paris FRANCE; and Carlos Perez, CARE, UNITED STATES.

The CGIAR NGO Committee's recent activities have included visits to centers and participation in CGIAR workshops on ethics and equity. Through presentations and articles, the Committee emphasizes a holistic view of agriculture, which shares the goals of a sustainable development that is socially equitable, economically and environmentally viable and culturally sensitive. Two major themes currently dominate the discussion in the IARCs: how to incorporate ecological concerns to their mandate of increasing food security and reducing poverty; and how to partake in biotechnology developments. The role of the NGO committee has been very important in shaping the conditions under which these themes are debated. To date the Committee has organized two international consultations among NGOs in Asia and Latin America to contribute to defining an IARC research agenda that is more relevant for the poor and more environmentally-responsible. One consultation meeting is scheduled to take place in Africa in early 1998. Throughout these consultations and the Washington, DC meeting, the Committee is urging the CGIAR to consider environmental, ethical and equity issues in the design of new technology. This is particularly the case in reference to biotechnology, where significant questions have been raised by the Committee on transgenic crops, property rights, ecological risk, and ethical stances. The Committee has prepared three position papers on, respectively, biotechnology, civil society, and the role of IARCs in science and technology. These papers are available through FAM.

The NGO Committee feels strongly that there is a need for greater NGO representation in the CGIAR, particularly on the panels on science and governance. In this light, the CGIAR meeting in Washington, DC concluded with an important victory for the NGO movement. As a result of negotiations, the CGIAR accepted that four NGO representatives become members of two panels that are preparing recommendations for the future CGIAR strategy. These panels are related to biotechnology and overall technical directions. In addition, the Committee will provide a list of suitable candidates for the CGIAR review, for external reviews of three international Centers, as well as for the CGIAR's Impact Assessment Evaluation Group.

During the week of the annual meeting two parallel meetings were organized on integrated pest management issues. The first meeting was organized by the IPM Forum, a network of IPM researchers. It was very encouraging that the IPM Forum has decided to shift from an almost exclusive focus on IARCs and Northern universities to a primary emphasis on NGOs. The exact mechanism to encourage the participation of NGOs in the IPM Forum will be defined shortly. The second meeting, with a less promising outcome, was organized by the Pesticide Action Network (USA) to discuss with World Bank officials the concern of NGOs about the progressive weakening of regulations on pesticide use and promotion in World Bank sponsored projects. The Bank is showing no commitment to reduce reliance on pesticides in the projects it supports. Few Bank projects with pest management components are subjected to Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA). The Bank has declared that certain pesticides are generally known to be "environmentally safe" and therefore are exempt from EIA. The Bank accepts transgenic biotechnology as an acceptable replacement for chemical pesticides in IPM programs, thus de-emphasizing farmer education and ecological alternatives/organic agriculture. The NGO committee emphasized that the Bank needs to move forward with hiring the full-time IPM Specialist (the position was approved last Spring but no progress has been made in the hiring process at this point), and that the process should include NGO input into a candidate's suitability.

The CGIAR meeting allowed the PVOs and NGOs to raise NGO visibility, advocate for critical issues, and foster communication among NGOs and with researchers. It was impressive to find the openness among donors and IARCs to incorporate NGO concerns into the CGIAR agenda. To what extent, and how fast, these good intentions are translated into deeds will be revealed through time.

Editors note: *This paper was produced by the NGO community working on the follow-up to the World Food Summit as a parallel contribution to the U.S government's national action plan. The USG's version appeared in the last edition of Food Forum. Special thanks go to Ellen Levinson of the Coalition for Food Aid and Jindra Cekan of CRS for putting this paper together.*

NGO Recommendations for U.S. Action Plan on Food Security: Mini-Paper #13 "Food Aid to Promote Food Security"

I. Topic: "Food Aid to Promote Food Security"

Food aid contributes to the food security of millions of people worldwide. Reliable availability of and access to food, combined with proper utilization, are necessary conditions to assure that people have adequate amounts of food to lead healthy and productive lives. Where these conditions are not met, people do not have "food security," and varying degrees of undernutrition and malnutrition are the result. In gen-

eral, food aid can be provided either directly to targeted groups or through carefully planned sales in the marketplace ("monetization"). To promote long-term food security, to mitigate against emergencies and to assist during the recovery and rehabilitation phase following an emergency, food aid and the proceeds from commodity sales can be used in programs that improve peoples' health, living conditions and livelihoods — including improvements in sanitation, health care, water and land resource management, enterprise development, agricultural productivity, food processing and marketing systems. In addition, food aid is a critical component of emergency response programs. In both developmental or emergency programs, the ultimate goal is to help people obtain food security, so food aid will no longer be needed.

II. Background

One of the National Consultation sites concluded that in order to "ensure that international food assistance is effective, [the] U.S. should be a leader." Since the end of World War II, the United States has indeed been a leader in providing food aid. This commitment continues today with four general thrusts.

1. The integration of food aid donated by the United States into programs conducted by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that help to address the underlying causes of chronic hunger or to assist during the transitional phase after an emergency (P.L. 480 Title II and occasionally Food for Progress).

2. Providing food aid to less developed, food insecure countries to be used to improve food security through recipient government programs, sometimes in coordination with NGO activities (P.L. 480 Title III).

3. Responding to the immediate need for food during emergencies (P.L. 480 Title II and the Food Security Commodity Reserve).

4. Selling agricultural commodities on highly concessional terms to food insecure developing countries or emerging democracies that have the potential to become commercial markets for U.S. commodities (Food for Progress and P.L. 480 Title I).

III. Issues

The amount of food aid provided by the United States in recent years has declined sharply (by 60 percent since fiscal year 1993) due to constrained budgets and a lack of U.S. Government-held surpluses. Therefore, a concerted effort is needed to use the remaining resources effectively to promote food security and to identify additional resources for the future. To use food aid effectively to promote food security, the following issues must be addressed by the United States Government, in consultation with civil society:

1. identification of need and targeting food resources to meet those needs;

2. effective partnerships to use food aid to address chronic hunger and food insecurity, and to assure accountability;

3. maintaining a contingency fund or reserve for emergency food needs; and

4. increased international commitment and coordination.

IV. Actions

1. Identification of Need and Targeting Food Resources to Meet Those Needs.

For the responsible, successful and timely allocation of commodities and funds, it is necessary to identify appropriate indicators of food security, to measure food security at the national and local levels and to monitor the food security of vulnerable populations. In the past, food aid was often targeted for political purposes by the United States. This approach was shown to be short-sighted, often upsetting commercial sales practices and local production and distribution, without evidence of long-term food security gains. Therefore, in 1990, the statute governing the U.S. Food for Peace Program (P.L. 480) was amended so it would focus on improving the food security of the developing world. Although a laudable mandate, it has not been fully implemented, particularly for the P.L. 480 Title I program.

To identify food security needs and to target resources to meet those needs, the following actions are recommended:

1.a ***Create a system to rank food aid needs of developing countries, incorporating objective measures of food security at the national, regional and local levels and using available tools (such as USAID's Famine Early Warning System, the USDA/ERS Annual Report on Food Aid Needs and Availabilities and individual country hunger maps), as well as more precise tools to gather information at the local level.*** *To improve the data available on food aid needs within specific countries, the U.S. Government will commit technical and financial assistance to developing countries for hunger mapping, as agreed to in the World Food Summit Plan of Action, and continue to participate in international organizations that assess food security needs and promote the alleviation of hunger and poverty. NGOs will collaborate with the U.S. Government in the development of a food aid needs ranking system that would consider national needs, as well as local conditions within a developing country. NGOs that are Cooperating Sponsors of P.L. 480 Title II food aid programs will continue to assess the needs of and to target resources to vulnerable population groups.*

Benefit: Improved, objective and need-based information for targeting resources.

Drawback: Information on local needs may not be readily available, will require additional funding to collect and is difficult to incorporate into country rankings. The process for handling exceptions could be difficult.

Collaboration: Establish the ranking system by October 1, 1998. Joint effort of State Department, USDA and USAID in collaboration with NGOs and research institutes, and using information from a variety of sources, including IFPRI and FAO.

Costs: Data collection is already taking place, so costs should be mainly administrative, except for efforts to conduct additional, intensive local assessments in certain countries and to develop the conceptual framework for the ranking system.

1.b Commitment by the U.S. Government to use food aid as part of disaster prevention and mitigation plans and to respond to early warnings of natural disasters (such as the El Niño effect) or armed conflict, through joint monitoring and collaboration with NGOs, international organizations and affected countries. *The U.S. Government will take a pro-active approach to provide food aid in a timely manner to mitigate against food shortages due to potential natural and manmade crises. In order to do so, effective monitoring and early warning systems must be in place. Systems are already in place for price forecasting and monitoring weather patterns, local market conditions, agricultural diseases and pests, etc. in many vulnerable areas. Greater attention should be paid to societal indicators of growing food insecurity. Where additional early warning systems are needed, they should be established through collaborative donor country, recipient country, international organization and NGO efforts. The information collected from these systems should be used for implementing development and disaster preparation programs in vulnerable areas, including the use of P.L. 480 and Food for Progress commodities, as well as emergency distribution.*

Benefit: Provides information and mechanisms to permit early intervention with less loss of life and at lower cost.

Drawback: Additional early warning information may need to be collected on a regular basis and adequate resources may not be available to respond in a timely manner.

When: Establish a plan for regular sharing of information on potential problem areas between NGOs and U.S. Government officials by March 1, 1998 and implement by October 1, 1998.

Collaboration: Joint effort of USDA and USAID through the Food Aid Consultative Group in collaboration with NGOs and international organizations, with input from institutions that are tracking food security.

Costs: Administrative.

1.c Assessments of local food production and distribution patterns must be conducted before commodities are programmed for food aid and the use of food aid resources should be monitored to assure they are used as intended. *Access to food involves both the ability to produce and to procure (or otherwise obtain) adequate amounts of foodstuffs. Food aid should be used in a way that fosters long-term, reliable access to food, which is referred to as "self-reliance." This requires assessments of local production, marketing and distribution patterns before determining which types and the amount of commodities to make available, and through which mechanisms, as well as appropriate monitoring and evaluation systems to asses the impact on markets and on the food security of recipients. Current requirements to assess the local impact of food aid (the "Bellmon Determination") are not rigorous enough, need to be improved and should be required for all types of food aid programs.*

Benefit: Results in using U.S. commodities to get a double impact — first, to provide commodities that are truly needed and appropriate and, second, to foster improved health, incomes, living conditions, and agricultural productivity and marketing in food insecure areas.

Drawback: In some cases, due to delays in commodity ordering or shipping, food aid may arrive at the wrong time during the year.

Establishment: Determination of local food production and distribution patterns, ongoing monitoring of food aid use and evaluating program impact are already required for P.L. 480 Title II non-emergency programs, but this could be improved. Similar requirements should apply to Titles I and III and Food for Progress. By October 1, 1998, a review of these requirements for all food aid programs should be completed and improvements should be implemented by October 1, 1999.

Collaboration: Joint effort of USDA and USAID, in consultation with NGOs, including operational PVOs and commodity groups.

Costs: Administrative.

2. Effective Partnerships to Use Food Aid to Promote Food Security.

Food aid is not just a short-term solution, it can be and is effectively integrated into programs that address the underlying causes of hunger, through partnerships with PVOs, cooperatives, international organizations (such as the World Food Program), agricultural groups and local NGOs. These partnerships are vital to the long-term success of food security programs. The following actions are recommended:

2.a Make P.L. 480 Title II development programs a U.S. Government priority and commit more of the Title II resources to this purpose. *Under P.L. 480 Title II, multi-year development programs are conducted by PVOs and cooperatives with objectives, methods and performance indicators that focus on promoting food security at the household level. These programs address problems related to chronic food insecurity, such as poverty, poor infrastructure, and lack of adequate health and sanitation facilities, and help to build local capabilities. These types of requirements should apply not only to programs conducted by private voluntary organizations and coop-*

eratives, but also to those conducted by the World Food Program. According to the statute, about three-fourths of the Title II food aid tonnage is supposed to be dedicated to development programs that address chronic food insecurity. To move toward this goal, USAID should make Title II development programs a priority as the fiscal year 1999 programs are being planned, with the intent of meeting the statutory minimum tonnage level by FY 2002.

Benefit: More effective programming of title II resources to promote food security at the household level, with local partnerships, in accordance with statutory requirements and respecting the dignity and integrity of program participants.

Drawback: Administrative changes would be needed. For example, the mission statement of USAID does not include food security as one of its primary goals, very few USAID country strategies include food security as an objective, and many food insecure countries do not have USAID offices and USAID is reluctant to approve Title II development programs in such countries. Under Title II, flexibility is provided in the statute so private voluntary organizations and cooperatives can submit unsolicited proposals to USAID to use food aid resources to promote food security, and these programs do not have to fit into a USAID country strategy or be located in a country with a USAID mission. However, USAID has not yet fully accepted these administrative caveats.

When: Establish immediately, as part of FY 1999 Title II budget and program guidelines; as a new USAID mission statement is developed; and as a new USAID food security policy paper is written. Continue increasing the proportion of Title II resources dedicated to development purposes each year with the goal of reaching the statutory 1.55 mmt minimum by FY 2002.

Collaboration: Joint effort of USAID, USDA and Cooperating Sponsors through the Food Aid Consultative Group.

Costs: No additional costs.

2.b Improve coordination among all potential U.S. food aid partners through a Joint Food Security Collaboration Committee. *In addition to the U.S. Government agencies that administer food aid programs and the NGOs that develop and implement such programs, U.S. commodity, farmer, transportation and agribusiness groups can contribute to food aid programs by helping to identify appropriate types, qualities and quantities of commodities for the targeted countries and providing technical expertise and assistance.*

Benefit: Help to identify the appropriate commodity for the intended country and population and make use of U.S. know-how and private sector contacts overseas for more efficient food aid distribution or sales.

Drawback: Food aid should target population groups or countries with bona fide needs and should not be considered as "back door" funding for export enhancement. It is important to provide careful balance between U.S. market promotion efforts and using food aid to improve the food security of the recipients.

When: Establish the Committee by March 1, 1998.

Collaboration: Joint effort of NGOs and U.S. private sector to develop the Committee, and U.S. Government officials would be invited to meetings.

Costs: No governmental costs.

3. Contingency Fund or Reserve for Emergency Needs.

Food reserves or contingency funds, that can be replenished, are needed for timely food aid intervention during conflict, emergency preparedness or response in times of natural disaster, and during transitional periods after an emergency or due to drastic economic change. In some countries that are prone to natural disasters, the establishment of local stocks could be beneficial, along with monitoring systems to assess the impact of such reserves on markets and on the nutritional and economic status of recipients. In most cases, however, an international response is needed and the United States should play a leading role in assuring that appropriate contingency mechanisms are in place. An example of pending crisis is the El Niño effect, which could result in substantial food aid needs in Africa and elsewhere.

3.a Maintain the U.S. Food Security Commodity Reserve and/or a revolving fund that can assure that 1,000,000 metric tons of commodities are available each year for emergency needs, so the United States can play a role in providing food during time of failed agricultural production, civil unrest or significant economic disruptions. *As part of the 1996 Federal Agricultural Improvement and Reform Act, amendments were enacted to convert the 4.0 mmt Food Security Wheat Reserve into the Food Security Commodity Reserve, to increase the amount of commodities available from the Reserve for emergencies, and to permit the food to be released at the early sign of an emergency, before diverting resources away from previously planned, developmental P.L. 480 programs. There are problems with the Reserve, however, and they have to be addressed before it can be relied upon for emergencies. A means for replenishment — either with food or by establishing a fund — is needed. For example, funds from the Commodity Credit Corporation or funds specially appropriated by Congress could be used to buy commodities on the U.S. market when prices for commodities are relatively low. In addition, P.L. 480 purchases of major grains should be made on the market, not from the Reserve, since the impact of such purchases on the U.S. market is de minimus and using the Reserve for this purpose diminishes the amount of commodities available for true emergencies.*

Benefit: Responding to crises is an important and publicly-supported element of U.S. humanitarian policies and creating a mechanism for timely provision of food aid is critical to saving lives.

Drawback: It will take a commitment of funds to replenish the Reserve or to have a contingency or revolving fund for emergencies.

Establishment: Begin planning now for completion of legislative/administrative recommendations to be incorporated into the President's FY 1999 budget request.

Collaboration: Joint action by State, USAID, USDA and NSC in consultation with NGOs and commodity groups.

Costs: Depends on how the mechanism is developed, but will be a minuscule amount compared to GNP and should be no more than 0.5 % of the total international operations budget.

4. Increased International Commitment.

The World Trade Organization agreed to an implementation plan for the Marrakesh Declaration on least developed, net food-importing countries, which is also referenced in Commitment Four of the World Food Summit Plan Action. As part of the WTO plan, the Food Aid Convention members are currently considering increases in food aid commitments, legitimate needs of developing countries, more effective use of food aid and how to expand the international donor base. By the summer of 1999, a new FAC will be completed.

4.a During the development of the new Food Aid Convention, the United States should encourage increased annual commitments of food aid by other donors, including new donor countries, should permit an expansion of eligible commodities to vegetable oils and dairy products, and should assure that signatories agree to use food aid in countries or local areas where there are food security needs. *Three years ago, during the development of the current FAC, the United States decreased its minimum annual food aid commitment from 4.47 mmt to 2.5 mmt, exacerbating a downward slide in international food aid. For this round, the United States should retain its current minimum annual commitment of 2.5 mmt of grain equivalents per year. In addition, the United States should commit to provide 500,000 mt more in any year, if needed for emergencies. By this sign of renewed commitment, the United States would be in a strong position to encourage new countries to make commitments under the FAC, and to urge the seven other FAC donors to at least maintain their current food aid levels. The United States should request that the FAC members meet with NGOs involved in food aid programs during the drafting of the new FAC to gain critical input about commodity needs and the effective use of food aid.*

Benefit: The United States would provide leadership to strengthen the FAC and to encourage additional countries to join. By leveraging additional commitments of food aid from other countries, the pressure on the United States to provide one-fourth to one-third of the food aid needed for an emergency could be alleviated. The United States would follow through on its commitment to implement the Marrakesh Declaration, which was considered a *quid pro quo* by developing countries as the WTO was being negotiated.

Drawback: The United States is in an awkward negotiating position, since it has reduced its food aid commitments by 60% over the past 4 years and it will have to convince other countries that this downward trend will end.

Establishment: Begin now and continue throughout the FAC negotiations, which will be concluded by the end of 1998.

Collaboration: Joint effort of State, USDA, USAID, the FAC members and potential donor countries, with input from international organizations and developing countries. NGOs should also be invited to provide input.

Costs: For U.S. programs, additional funds may be needed to assure that at least 500,000 mt of commodities are available each year for emergencies through the Food Security Commodity Reserve or a revolving fund. Because this additional, pre-planned U.S. commitment can be used to leverage commitments by other countries, the United States would not have to make as large and expensive emergency transfers in the future, resulting in potential savings.

4.b Establish a WTO Committee responsible for overseeing implementation of the Marrakesh Declaration Regarding Least Developed, Net Food-Importing Countries, which would monitor the food needs of such countries and coordinate actions to comply with the Declaration.

Benefit: The WTO Ministers will take responsibility to implement the Declaration in an open manner and developing countries will be able to see that the Ministers are carrying out their commitment.

Drawbacks: It will be difficult to assess whether a developing country's food aid needs can be directly related to changes in international trade policies or to fluctuations in prices that are caused by changes in trade policies. However, the food security situation of these countries can be monitored and appropriate assistance can be encouraged and provided.

When: Established the Committee by the end of 1997, and continue it through the next round of negotiations.

Collaboration: WTO members and potential members, with NGO input.

Costs: None.

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What's New

by T.J. Ryan

This year the **FAM annual meeting** was held October 15-17 in West Virginia and the theme focused on the issue of collaboration among ISG recipients over the next five years. The current ISG grants are coming to an end in August of 1998 and USAID will be issuing an RFA for the next five year funding cycle early in calendar 1998. PVOs will need to submit their proposals for ISG funding within 60 days after the RFA is published.

The meeting participants identified a list of common issues from which three priorities were established to include monitoring and evaluation; monetization; and local capacity building. Working Groups will explore possibilities for collaboration among agencies in these topic areas to promote efficiency in the use of ISG funding. Since all organizations have different needs, collaboration may vary and could involve a number of different scenarios. Collaboration should not be limited to the three priority areas established at the FAM annual meeting.

While plans are not formulated, there was consensus that after submission of the ISG proposals, the working groups would continue to function in some capacity over the life of the grant. All organizations agreed that we should be aiming to provide the field and its partners some common information and tools that they can use in the three priority areas. The objective is not to provide one standard for all, but to provide a variety of materials/tools that can be used to design, implement, monitor and evaluate programs.

Given the many issues that are common to all PVOs using Title II resources, limited ISG Development Assistance resources obligates PVOs to collaborate more and share their technical know-how rather than having each organization working on its own. Although much of this collaboration is currently going on, the new round of ISG proposals present an opportunity to build on and formalize much of this collaboration so that it reaches a wider audience.

A day-long public workshop on **International Food Security** was held at the U.S. Department of Agriculture to facilitate preparation of a U.S. Action Plan on Food Security. Seven themes were presented for discussion and public input was received by the drafting teams. The themes were: Measuring Hunger and Mapping Risk; Economic Policy, Trade, and Food Distribution; Prioritize the Allocation of Foreign Assistance to Promote Food Security; Effective Use of Food Aid to Promote Food Security; Appropriate Research, Education, and Extension for Food Production and Food Systems; Maximizing and Targeting Resources; Human Rights as a Framework for Food Security. The NGO community is completing a set of parallel documents which will be delivered to the U.S. government drafting team. The next iteration of the USG documents should appear around the new year.

The **HQ Environmental Compliance Workshop** was held October 29-31 in Arlington, Virginia for about 30 PVO participants. The workshop was designed to provide PVO headquarters staff that have Title II oversight responsibility with key information about the environmental compliance process. It was also an opportunity for the PVO staff to provide immediate feedback on the Environmental Information Packet. It was generally agreed by participants that a great deal of information was provided in the Packet but that it should be reviewed to eliminate repetition and shorten it as much as possible. The PVO and USAID participants also agreed that the important issue is to move beyond compliance and incorporate sound environmental principles at the program design stage.

The **African Organizations Coalition for Food Security, Sovereignty and Sustainable Development** (COASAD in French) is a coalition that resulted from the NGO Forum held in conjunction with the World Food Summit in Rome in November 1996 where it was agreed that each region would organize a food security coalition of NGOs. COASAD is comprised of 112 African NGOs and associations and is organizing a General Assembly meeting in Dar Es Salaam from January 26 - 30, 1998. The goal of the General Assembly will be to establish COASAD legally and broadly disseminate its purpose as well as to discuss the food security problems the African continent currently faces. COASAD seeks to provide a platform for NGOs, associations, and national and regional organizations and networks to consolidate strategies and share information within a larger consortium. Documents describing COASAD are available from FAM in both French and English.

Representatives from FFP, FAM and several NGOs were present at a **PVO Food Aid Conference** in October sponsored by the USDA's Kansas City Management Office's Debt Management Division. The objective of the workshop was to discuss issues associated with marine losses of relief cargos through the use of presentations followed by question and answer sessions. The importance of good communication between the various organizations and agencies involved in the movement of food was emphasized to prevent and mitigate cargo losses. ✤

Food Security Resource Center News

The FSRC collection has grown significantly in the last few months, thanks to recent donations and other new acquisitions. We now have approximately 6,800 materials in the FSRC. For a list of some of these new acquisitions, please see the bibliography at the end of this article.

In other FSRC news, demonstration diskettes of the new FSRC Bibliographic Database are now available. If you would like to order a free demonstration diskette, please contact me.

In recent months, FAM has focused much of its activities on environmental compliance issues. Given the increased need for information on this issue, I have included a bibliography of a sample of the environmental assessment resources available at the FSRC. For more specific information or to request copies of these materials, please contact me at

Jessica Graef, Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212 · Washington, DC 20002
T: 202-544-6972 · F: 202-544-7065 · jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC RESOURCES ON ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT

The World Bank and environmental assessment: An overview. Environmental assessment sourcebook update. April 1993, No. 1. Environment Department, World Bank. 4p.

Environmental screening. Environmental assessment sourcebook update. April 1993, No. 2. Environment Department, World Bank. 4p.

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1997 World Food Day video
Catholic Relief Services — USCC Emergency Toolbox
Living with uncertainty: New directions in pastoral development in Africa. 1995. Scoones, Ian (ed). Intermediate Technology Publications.
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Food Security and Urban Programming

by Jeanne Downen, Director, Partnership and Household Livelihood Security Unit, CARE

The urbanization of poverty in developing countries is a significant global trend as we move into the 21st century. Assisting the urban poor to achieve food and livelihood security presents a complex set of challenges which will require recontextualizing the traditional tools, methods, and assumptions developed through PVO experience in rural areas.

In an urban environment, survival depends on one's ability to obtain cash, withstand shifts in employment markets, and weather changes in the prices of basic commodities. Government policies, economic dislocations, and social discrimination often reduce the control poor urban households have over their quality of life. Subject to larger forces outside their control and lacking the safety net of supportive community relationships often found in rural areas, urban households may well be more vulnerable to food and livelihood insecurity than rural households.

PVOs have an opportunity to address an important aspect of urban poverty with the support of PL 480 Title II resources. Title II provides one of the most important means of combatting rural food insecurity in the developing world. It is potentially an excellent resource to combat growing urban food insecurity and poverty. Given that the majority of the food insecure population will live in urban areas in the near future, the appropriate targeting of food-for-work and food-assisted interventions for poor urban populations is a critical area for our attention.

THE GROWTH OF URBAN POVERTY

A global demographic shift will place half of the world's population in urban areas by the year 2005, as compared to 25 percent in 1970, according to the United Nations. This will increase to 80 percent in 2025. By that time, 82 percent of the world's urban population will reside in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. Of the 23 cities that will exceed 10 million in population, 11 will be in developing countries (UN 1995). The growth is fueled by natural population increase in existing cities, as well as by migration and rapid urbanization in secondary cities. The concomitant problems of decaying infrastructure, poor environmental sanitation, water and air pollution, inadequate housing and overcrowding will increase in direct correlation with the rate of urban population growth. Coupled with increasing disparities between rich and poor in many countries, the growth of cities suggests that poverty is an increasingly urban phenomenon. While rural areas presently dominate in terms of sheer numbers of the absolute poor, significant numbers of poor people in the cities face a more acute degree of deprivation.

By 2015, more poor and undernourished people will live in the cities of developing countries than in the rural areas, as the urban population continues to grow three times faster than the rural population (IFPRI 1996). Along with the obvious threats this trend poses to the health and welfare of the urban poor, the broader civil society faces potential destabilization from rising crime and violence by poor urban youth with few income-generating opportunities and weakened societal restraints.

In the 1980s, structural adjustment programs, which sought to correct urban biases and reduce agricultural disincentives, worsened the situation of the urban poor. The effect of these policies, plus the massive growth in cities since the 1970s, at one time exacerbated the problems of the urban poor and made them more visible. As a result, the dynamics

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of urban poverty in developing countries is receiving more attention and undergoing more rigorous research and analysis. One of the primary findings of urban studies is that in urban areas, the "normal" problems of poverty — ill health, malnutrition, inadequate child care, low income, and poor education, among others are embedded in and stress, leading to conflict and violence, separation and divorce.

Women, in particular, bear an unequal share of this stress, according to a multi-country World Bank study by Carolyn Moser (1996). Their multiple responsibilities for domestic chores and income-generating activities are a heavy burden in and of themselves. They interfere with women's ability to care for their children's health and nutrition needs adequately. These factors also constrain women's participation in community activities, reduce their flexibility to cope with crises, limit their ability to expand or improve upon income-generating opportunities, erode their spirit, and endanger their physical and mental health.

The vulnerability of poor urban households to the vagaries of their environment, and their ability to cope, is related to the assets they control and the livelihood strategies they employ. Moser has developed a matrix of individual assets, household assets, and community level assets for urban communities that reflect potential vulnerability as factors in the household and external environment change. Among the most important individual assets of the urban poor are labor, and human capital such as physical health and education levels. Household assets include housing, the ratio of income earners to dependents, and the strength and cohesion of family units. Community-level assets include public safety, mutual exchanges of food, labor or cash between households, and active community-level organizations. The strength of these assets affect the quality of life on a day-to-day basis, as well as the ability survive shocks and take advantage of new opportunities. They provide potential indicators of poverty levels in urban households. Understanding the livelihood strategies households use to maximize these assets can help development agencies better understand the many factors that play upon the lives of the urban poor and how to address them.

ASSESSING NEEDS AMONG THE URBAN POOR

Several CARE country offices, including Bangladesh and Tanzania, have recently conducted urban rapid food and livelihood security assessments (ULSAs). Done in conjunction with the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), the assessment was designed using the household livelihood security framework. The framework provides a lens for understanding how households meet their basic needs, and the critical trade-offs and coping strategies they employ. It also helps identify key leverage points for sectoral interventions to help improve people's quality of life. Support for the CARE Bangladesh ULSA is part of its overall Title II program, while Tanzania used other donor resources for its survey.

CARE's urban surveys are implemented in four phases. The first phase covers secondary data gathering and review. The second phase focuses on gathering quantitative data from selected sites through a nutritional assessment and an enumerated household survey.

In the third phase, multidisciplinary teams carry out a qualitative training and information-gathering field exercise. A series of qualitative interviews are conducted with participants about life in the community. Separate groups of men and women are interviewed first, then key informants, and finally focus groups usually composed of people with similar livelihoods. Just as the topical outlines developed for rural areas were recast to get at urban realities, field visit schedules were shifted to late afternoon to catch people returning from work.. Although night is the ideal time to interview urban residents at home, surveyors in some areas were advised that the target neighborhoods were too insecure at night to allow this.

The primary survey tool is a topical outline used to solicit information about community history, infrastructure, income and food and livelihood security strategies used by households to meet basic needs. It includes questions about neighbor relations and community organizations in order to draw assumptions about social capital. Survey teams also construct community maps with participants, record seasonal fluctuations in income, expenses, illnesses and other variables, ask participants to rank community problems, and record case histories of older residents. Each day the information collected is organized into matrices and analyzed.

The last phase of the survey analyzes the quantitative and qualitative information collectively to identify constraints and opportunities, leverage points for interventions, and potential program opportunities.

In Tanzania, slum and squatter neighborhoods ranging from the high-density inner city to lower density peri-urban settlements were surveyed. CARE Bangladesh selected secondary cities in Bangladesh with a range of population sizes. Some of the selection criteria for survey areas included the prevalence of low-income households, planned versus unplanned settlements, indigenous and migrant neighborhoods, and low-to-medium levels of public services.

The major findings in the Dar es Salaam urban survey revealed the effect of seasonal variations on the poor, the pressures of deteriorating public services and the ways

that low stocks of social capital adversely affect women in particular.

Seasonal variations in food price and supply, income-earning opportunities, illness, migration, and even crime influence and possibly threaten the livelihood security of urban households. While the effects of seasonal variations on food security are usually thought of only in a rural context, it was found to be a key factor in urban environments as well. During the rainy season, when food prices are high and supply is limited, food security is further endangered because income opportunities are also scarce. Expenses for illness related to poor nutrition and environmental pollution also rises. Families employ typical coping strategies of skipping meals, and reducing the quality and quantity of meals that further weaken their resistance to disease during this time of year. The disappearance of traditional safety nets such as food transfers from the rural areas as urban-rural ties weaken worsens food insecurity among the poor in Dar es Salaam. Lack of time and financial constraints prevent many urban dwellers from maintaining contact with their rural relatives, and the resources of urban households are often further stretched to accommodate relatives who migrant from rural areas.

The deterioration of public services force the poor into purchasing basic services such as water sold from unsanitary sources by unregulated vendors. Waste is dumped in the streets, often at night, for want of city collection services. Public hospitals provide prescriptions but no medicine for illnesses, so the poor use traditional medicines or self-diagnosis instead, while the better off use private clinics.

The lack of basic services has the greatest adverse impact on women. It limits their access to capital, increases physical insecurity, and limits time for child care and community representation. Since women have less mobility than men do, they are more dependent on social networks for reciprocal services like childcare, care of the elderly, cooking, and help in times of emergency.

The survey found high dependency ratios, with each adult income earner supporting four non-income earners. While household members have diverse strategies for earning income, the majority finds their time fully utilized by one or two low-paying occupations, leaving little opportunity to expand incomes. In addition, the social costs of all this time spend at unremunerative work include limited time for effective parenting, and increased marital conflict. This leaves unemployed youth and female-headed households as the two most vulnerable groups found in the urban survey. Entire neighborhoods were found to be vulnerable to water-borne diseases like cholera and dysentery on a recurring basis. This is due to unsanitary environments in high-density areas with highly mobile populations, few basic services, and little social cohesion. The net effect is to decrease income as household members can neither work nor afford the necessary medical treatment.

The survey further identified the major problems affecting each site and the specific nature of the problems within and between CARE's technical sectors. Among the most frequently cited categories were income, and health, along with education and nutrition. The main constraints in the area of income were seasonal fluctuations in markets, high competition in self-employment activities, lack of skills, and legal registration issues.

Communities saw malnutrition as a problem related to low incomes, poor dietary diversity, high rates of communicable diseases, lack of knowledge about nutrition, and seasonal food shortages. The analysis also showed critical linkages between sectors - for instance, the relation of low income-generating opportunities to health insecurity and malnutrition, and the interaction between infrastructure deterioration, poor sanitation, and disease; and finally crime as an outcome of youth unemployment, poor education and declining social capital. An understanding and appreciation of these multisectoral linkages is a critical factor in determining appropriate urban interventions.

TITLE II AND URBAN FOOD PROGRAMMING

What does the explosive growth of urban areas imply for Title II programs targeting the urban poor? A number of CARE country office are already targeting urban program interventions using Title II resources - among them, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Bangladesh, Haiti, and formerly Honduras and Peru. Country offices have moved from addressing the basic problems of infrastructure provision to combining needed structural improvements with community organization and environmental initiatives that acknowledge the linkages between causal factors of poverty.

Developing methods for understanding and analyzing a new and more complex environment and its interplay of needs will be a basic requirement for urban program design using Title II resources. This information will be key to determining who to target, how to structure programs, and whether to use direct food assistance or monetized resources. Methods of addressing the technical challenges of food-assisted programs to improve income, housing, and environmental health developed in rural communities must be adapted to environments where fewer factors are under the control of the inhabitants. Citywide factors such as market regulations, the cost of public transport, and land

availability all influence food prices and a household's ability to procure or produce food. They can be strong incentives or disincentives to program success. And, after taking key external constraints into account, programs designed to increase incomes will still be a critical factor in improving the food and livelihood security of the urban poor.

Finding the appropriate responses to problems will inevitably bring PVOs and urban neighborhoods into close contact with city, provincial, or national level governments and policies. PVOs may find a major role in the facilitation of partnerships among the many actors in urban environments and the poor urban neighborhoods they seek to assist. With multiple issues to address, the choice of what interventions and groups to support will be critical.

Greater political acuity and stronger collaboration on the part of PVOs to address the underlying effects of economic and regulatory policies, urban land allocation practices, and discrimination against ethnic and minority groups faced by the urban poor will be required. New skills, new tools and methodologies, and new ways of working in partnership with a variety of actors must be developed for urban areas in the next few years in order to address one of the most rapidly growing challenges to food security and nutrition among the poor. ✦

- International Food Policy Research Institute, December 1996 (Draft), Urban Challenges to Nutrition Security: A Review of Food Security, Health and Care in the Cities. Washington, DC: IFPRI.
- Moser, Caroline O.N., 1996, Confronting Crisis: A Comparative Study of Household Responses to Poverty and Vulnerability in Four Poor Urban Communities. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- United Nations, 1995, World Urbanisation Prospects. New York: United Nations.

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Africare · ACDI · VOCA · CARE
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Feed the Children · Food for the Hungry Int'l
OIC International · Project Concern
International Save the Children
TechnoServe · World SHARE
World Vision Relief & Development

Micronutrient Fortification of Humanitarian Food Aid

Submitted by Steven Hansch[1]

Humanitarian crises repeatedly result in widespread deficiencies of key vitamins and minerals that all humans need. Without these micronutrients, high rates of scurvy, beriberi, pellagra, anemia and avitaminosis increase the death and disease rates seen in dislocated populations.

Fortification of emergency foods with a broad spectrum of about twenty vitamins and minerals now appears practical and affordable. Using a dry premix of many nutrients may prove to be a breakthrough: simultaneously resolving nutritional deficiency problems at once. Costing less than $10 per metric ton of delivered grain, fortification at the site of local, camp-based grain mills could be one of the most cost-effective health interventions available to NGOs and may become a standard best practice for emergency response.

Fortification of the staple food — wheat or maize in most cases in Africa — offers a practical way to safely reach the highest percentage of refugees/IDPs and famine victims. It is an approach that adds assurance that micronutrients will be consumed, to some degree, by the whole at-risk population. (Relying on non-staple commodities as fortification vehicles has the result that refugees who exchange some of their commodities end up with none of the micro-nutrient content of the overall ration.).

PAST PRACTICE

Micronutrient deficiencies in emergencies have generally been reacted to with speciality foods and tablets rather than prevented. More often than not, micronutrient deficiencies are addressed through special supplementation of those persons already seen to be deficient. Population based strategies that address the much larger problem of sub-clinical deficiencies rely on the general food ration given out, which more often than not is inadequate in many nutrients. The inclusion of expensive, highly processed foods are sometimes included in emergency rations (recommended: 40-60 grams/person/day), but it is known from a wide variety of studies and observations that these small quantities of highly processed foods are not consumed homogeneously. Much of the emergency-affected population will end up consuming none.

The commodity of choice used often in emergencies has been Corn-Soy Blend (CSB), which costs significantly

more than whole, or unprocessed grain. Though micronutrients themselves are fairly inexpensive, the option of processing and fortifying grains in the US increases the cost of the commodity by between 100% and 400%, meaning that less food (or calories) can be bought with fixed funding. Long shipping periods also leave the processed foods more vulnerable to spoilage and losses. Adding micronutrients in country poses the potential of significant cost-savings.

UNIMIX is a CSB-like emergency food produced in Africa which also is expensive, but it demonstrates that fortification can be achieved in country. UNIMIX has been procured by the UN and NGOs for a decade from specialty food producers in Nairobi. These firms fortify UNIMIX with a broad-scope micronutrient premix obtained from Hoffman LaRoche's South Africa operation. The continuing use of UNIMIX is evidence that local millers are able to readily obtain and batch-mix premix to emergency foods. However, UNIMIX is a high value-added food, much more costly than a grain or simple flour. The companies that produce UNIMIX expect high margins (for extrusion of soy proteins and packaging). Larger millers, in contrast, have not been contracted to simply add premix, at low cost, to flour, though they estimated that this would add only incrementally to the cost of the food aid (as stated earlier, in the range of $10 per metric ton).

SCALES AND POINTS OF FORTIFICATION

For large roller mills, found in companies in capital cities like Kampala or Dar es Salaam, dosing equipment calibrates the flow of premix automatically and in the right proportions, with minimal maintenance or operating costs. The right equipment can be purchased from overseas or, often, from local manufacturers in country for roughly $5,000. There is little difficulty installing the equipment and most millers in East Africa are interested and willing to adapt this technology.

For smaller hammer mills, which are found in and around refugee camps, the opportunities for adding special equipment is limited. The mills themselves are not electrified, the flow of grain or flour is highly irregular, and a hammer mill supply is not always guaranteed. In this case, the best approach for adding premix is on-site but immediately after milling, with a well monitored hand-mixed procedure.

RECENT INQUIRIES IN EAST AFRICA

Based on the recommendations of a Canadian International Development Agency survey[2] of approaches to the prevention of refugee micronutrient deficiencies, a number of NGOs have worked together to explore how micronutrients could be added in country. In 1997 the Micronutrient Initiative of Canada supported a study in 1997 that visited a range of refugee camps and met with locals and experts covering the countries of Somalia, Sudan, Uganda, Kenya, Rwanda, Burundi, Zaire and Tanzania.

As part of this research, UNICEF's office of Operation Lifeline Sudan recently hosted an open forum to discuss fortification, held in Gigiri, Nairobi. The workshop introduced UN agencies, NGOs responsible for procuring food aid, food technologists, nutritionists, commercial millers and premix suppliers to one another and allowed them to share concerns and perspectives. The NGOs present expressed much uncertainty about the technical aspects of food processing and packaging. There is hesitance among smaller NGOs about the added responsibilities in terms of quality control, handling, and community education involved in fortification, as well as the technical aspects of fortification (especially for camp-level fortification projects).

In turn, the commercial millers are wary of introducing fortification on their own, as it raises their costs and the government has not set any standards or even encouraged fortification. Most millers indicated that if donors provided the micronutrient dosing equipment (about $5,000), the technological expertise is in place to fortify and millers would be amenable to providing the service for NGOs. While NGOs explained some of the difficulties working with East African mills, including shipping and handling problems, commercial representatives left the workshop with the advice to NGOs that NGOs need to be more communicative about the conditions milled grains could expect to find from shipping, to storage, to consumption.

There are precedents of commercial/NGO cooperation in East Africa. One example is an effort between Action Contre la Faim and Soy Afric, a Nairobi miller that has been filling orders for ACF emergency feeding programs. ACF has taken an active role in helping the mill to ensure quality control, and it believes the results have been successful.

NGOs are developing increasing experience in working with emergency-affected communities to set up and support small-scale diesel mills that can grind ration grains. Of the camps visited, most mills are privately operated and commercial. But there were also cases where humanitarian organizations owned, maintained and successfully operated networks of mills that met all the milling needs of the camp. These mills save many hours of hand pounding and cooking, improve palatability and digestion, reduce trade and wastage, and reduce fuelwood clearing and deforestation.

However, there have also been negative experiences where NGO-supported milling cooperatives failed. NGOs like Concern, Lutheran World Federation, and International Rescue Committee have seen that sabotage can result when small mills are subsidized in refugee cooperatives, and the price of grinding grain is lowered. This remains an area of NGO intervention in the food sector that is still new. Food Forum encourages readers to send in their own experiences and observations about mills and how international aid relates to food processing.✦

Next Issue: Further information about premix, Where to get it, arrangements for adding premix. Roller mills Hammer mills. Total Costs.

[1] *on behalf of the Micronutrient Initiative of Canada.*

[2] *Dr. George Beaton 1995 Fortification of Foods for Refugee Feeding, Ottawa: Canadian International Development Agency.*

Humanitarian Assistance in North Korea

by Paige Harrigan

The United Nations World Food Programme (WFP) issued an appeal for $378 million in emergency aid for North Korea on January 6, 1998, asserting food stocks in the disaster-hit country could run out as soon as April, 1998. WFP said it needed 657,972 tons of food to distribute to 7.5 million North Koreans, or almost one third of the population of 23 million. This represents a significant increase from the 4.7 million North Koreans assisted last year. WFP food aid will consist of corn-soya blend, sugar, cereals, pulses, vegetable oil and fortified high-energy biscuits.

This appeal is the largest WFP has ever issued, and according to WFP's Executive Director Catherine Bertini, "In dollar terms, this is the biggest emergency operation in WFP's history". UNICEF similarly revised its requirements for North Korea from $4.8 million to $14.3 million. WFP's previous largest appeal was for $297 million in 1992, to combat a drought in 10 Southern African countries.

The new appeal was approved jointly by Catherine Bertini and FAO Director General Jaques Diouf. It will form part of the overall appeal for medicines and special agricultural goods by the United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. Under the new programme, WFP, which currently helps all children under six, would provide food aid to most children under 12. WFP also plans to help pregnant women, nursing mothers, orphans and the handicapped as well as 500,000 hospital patients and 500,000 workers, who will receive a family ration for themselves and 2 dependents. Bertini said the DPRK would allow the WFP to increase international staff and open new sub-offices in order to expand its monitoring of food distribution. Staff will now be allowed into the mountainous northern region of Ryangjang.

PVO CONTRIBUTIONS

The alarming food shortages in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea led to an international humanitarian relief effort, for which a consortium of U.S. non-governmental agencies was formed in August 1997 to respond to the food crisis. The consortium consisted of Amigos Internacionales, CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Mercy Corps International, and World Vision Relief and Development and communicated regularly with the North Korean Government's Flood Damage Rehabilitation Commission (FDRC), and the World Food Programme.

In what is now referred to as Phase I of the response, staff from the PVO consortium successfully monitored food distribution in both the food-for-work and regular food programs. Out of a total of 100,000 MT of PL 480 maize the WFP monitored 45,000 MT and the consortium monitored 55,000 MT. The consortium monitored the quality and delivery of three shipments of agricultural commodities. CARE was responsible for the financial management and reporting during the three month project which ended in November 1997. The consensus from all PVO representatives contacted by FAM is that relationships between the PVOs and WFP generally worked well.

The consortium has since been negotiating with UNICEF to link PVO involvement with a $5 million dollar OFDA grant to UNICEF which includes medicines, vaccines, vitamins and minerals. The overall plan is that there will be three shipments of medicines/minerals with the first expected sometime in March and the others in April and May 1998. The current plan, or Phase II, is that the 5 members of the consortium would be represented by monitors from each organization. The project provides basic medicines, vaccines, equipment, and funding for a consortium team of health professionals to oversee the distribution of these resources. Members of the team will train North Korean health staff how to use the equipment in crisis conditions.

Phase III is still in the conceptual stage but the consortium and WFP are examining the possibilities of collaborating on a vulnerable feeding and FFW operation.

A November 1997 visit to North Korea by key staff members of the U.S. House of Representatives Committee on International Relations has confirmed an urgent need within the country for more food and called for strict monitoring measures to ensure that the food reaches the neediest population. The Kirk-Hochstein report also made a strong recommendation to consider expanding the scope of U.S. bilateral assistance to include medical and oral rehydration therapy supplies. The visitors said they found that the presence of the PVO consortium is an important component to the success relief operations in North Korea, and that the group should continue its work there for as long as large-scale international assistance is necessary.

OTHER PVO ACTIVITIES

Because of the cultural and working environment particular to North Korea, many of those contacted said that activities done in collaboration have shown to be more effective than those done individually. Many of the PVO activities listed below are being implemented in a collaborative fashion.

CARE International and Mercy Corps International, are monitoring the use of the 1,000 metric tons of fertilizer procured by CARE Norway through funding from the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Warm clothing for children has been purchased using funds secured by CARE Germany. In the longer term, CARE International is exploring several possibilities, including a range of food security initiatives such as greenhouses, family food plots (seeds and tools), and small animal husbandry. Water and sanitation projects in the capital, Pyongyang, are also being considered. In response to a request from the FDRC, CARE has allocated $5,000 from its Emergency Response Fund for the purchase of salt from China, and Catholic Relief Services is matching this amount.

World Vision International's relief program is focused on helping the 2.6 million children under age six, and has responded with a total aid program costing US$6.7 million, including food aid, seeds, agricultural assistance, pharmaceuticals, medical supplies, clothing, blankets, plastic sheeting, and other relief supplies.

Amigos Internacionales has been in North Korea for 3 years, working on small scale agriculture and land restoration projects.

Mercy Corps International has been in the DPRK since March of 1996. Mercy Corps has purchased barley seed, corn, and vegetable seeds as part of their effort. The PVO has also been involved in sending medicines, family food packs, rice and warm clothing and blankets.

In Washington, D.C. Mercy Corps is chairing an NGO Agriculture Working Group with InterAction with a link to the Carter Center in Atlanta. The working group is prioritizing collaboration between PVOs in agriculture activities to increase the overall effectiveness. For those interested in the NGO Agriculture Working Group for North Korea please contact Mercy Corps at mercycorps@aol.com.

According to a recent report[1], "To date there has been no countrywide, representative nutritional and food security assessment carried out which could give complete information on the magnitude of the situation". More information is needed to enable adequate geographical mapping of vulnerable areas and/or groups in the DPRK. There is still little known about the northern areas of the country, limited data are available on children, and even less on adults and the elderly. Because of this inadequate access and incomplete information, it is unrealizable to define the extent to which actual needs are being met.

The full extent of the crisis in the DPRK is not clear, and the divide between what is being done and what remains to be done is not fully known. There is a distinct need for increased access for the PVOs and WFP, allowing for the collection of more accurate information and data to describe and measure the magnitude of the problem and ensure appropriate targeting of interventions in program planning.✦

[1] *United Nations Sub-Committee on Nutrition. Report on the Nutrition Situation in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea. Supplement to RNIS 22. 29 November 1997.*

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Feed the Children · Food for the Hungry Int'l
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International · Save the Children ·
TechnoServe · World SHARE
World Vision Relief & Development

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

The Impact project, which provided technical support to USAID and the PVOs on food security monitoring and evaluation, has ended. The project has been moved to the Linkages project at the Academy for Educational Development (AED) for calendar year 1998 and will continue many of the same activities. There are several thematic measurement guides that should be finished during the first quarter of 1998 including Water and Sanitation, Anthropometry, and Food Consumption and they will be available through the FSRC.

There are a number of changes at **USAID's Office of Food for Peace** that have occurred or are imminent. Janet Paz-Castillo left to become the desk officer for Guatemala and Tom Ray has also moved to a new position within USAID. Bob Sears will retire in the spring and Roosevelt Holt will be returning to the Inspector General's office at AID. With the creation of a Grants Manager position at FFP, this will mean that there will be five new people at FFP over the coming months. In the interim, duties are being shared among current staff until vacancies are filled. The FY 1999 DAP/PAA Guidelines have been finalized and are available at the FSRC and on the FAM website (see below).

There was an interesting five part series on hunger in the **L.A. Times** newspaper Christmas week. The series covers food aid programs, famines, conflicts, poverty, and biotechnology in the five day sequence. A hard copy will be available in the FSRC. However, for those with Internet access, the series can be downloaded from www.latimes.com/hunger/.

The **El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO)** continues to be a strong event and is causing unusual weather globally. Information on the ENSO is available from a variety of websites and there is also additional information from reports and updates emanating from El Niño working groups. Some of these reports are available from the FSRC along with information about how to contact sources for further information. The web sites with some excellent information include:

- Famine Early Warning System of USAID
  www.info.usaid.gov/fews/fews.html

- UN Food and Agriculture Organization
  www.fao.org (go to GIEWS site)

- National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
  www.pmel.noaa.gov/toga-tao/el-nino/

The first of a series of **Title II field Environmental Assessment Courses** was successfully held in Ghana, in December of 1997. The efforts of the PVO host ADRA, the Office of FFP, REDSO, the Africa Bureau and all of the PVOs who sent participants were tremendous. Plans for the March 1997 Environmental Review course hosted by ACDI-VOCA in Cape Verde are continuing.

If anyone needs more information on the upcoming course in Cape Verde, please contact FAM. Plans are being made for two Latin America workshops for environmental review and compliance for Title II programs. Workshops are tentatively set for Honduras in late May and Bolivia a few weeks later. CARE and CRS are co-organizing the Honduras workshop while FHI and CARE will organize the workshop in Bolivia.

The **Environmental Documentation Manual (EDM)** has been revised slightly since the Headquarters and Ghana workshop and copies will be sent to all Title II PVO Cooperating Sponsor's headquarters in February 1998.

USAID Administrator Brian Atwood has appointed 29 new members to the **Food Security Advisory Committee** under USAID's Board for International Food and Agricultural Development (BIFAD). The advisory committee is part of the U.S. response to the World Food Summit follow-up and will provide input to the U.S. Government on the development of a long term action plan on U.S. and international food security issues and will also serve as an outreach vehicle to all non-governmental sectors. Representatives will serve two year terms. NGO representatives chosen to serve on the Committee include David Beckmann of Bread for the World, Charlie MacCormack of Save the Children, and Cheryl Morden of Church World Service/Lutheran World Relief.

The African Organizations Coalition for Food Security-Sovereignty and Sustainable Development (COASAD), has changed the dates of its first congress to be held in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The new dates for the congress are March 23 - 28, 1998 and organizers hope for a very high turnout from the more than 110 African NGOs and associations that make up the Coalition. More information on this meeting is available from the FSRC.

Beginning in September 1998, the **Tufts University** School of Nutrition Science and Policy (SNSP) and the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy will offer a one year degree in Masters of Arts in Humanitarian Assistance for mid-career professionals with significant field experience in the areas of famine, conflicts and complex emergencies. This new degree program in Humanitarian Assistance is a unique program with a focus on relief and development in the world. This program is available to mid-career professionals and officials from government, international, and private aid/consulting agencies. For further information, contact:

<u>Admissions Committee for Masters in Humanitarian Assistance</u>
Feinstein International Famine Center, Tufts University
96 Packard Avenue, Medford, MA 02155
Phone: 617-627-3423 Fax: 617-627-3428
e-mail: aharinarayan@infonet.tufts.edu

The IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre is offering a short training course called:

Monitoring for Effectiveness:
Improving Community-Based Water Supply and Sanitation which will be held May 2nd - 20th 1998, in the Hague.

This three week course focuses on developing monitoring through a consultative process involving communities and agencies. Course sessions deal with the formulation and definition of indicators, collection of information, sampling, analysis techniques and triangulation. It emphasizes use and flow of information with a view to stimulating action at the appropriate lowest levels, to achieve change in the short term.

This is a useful course for project managers or staff interested in developing and implementing new, more participatory strategies for monitoring in water supply and environmental sanitation.

For information please contact: zepeda@irc.nl or if interested in M&E information see the following website:
www.mande.co.uk/news.htm

The **FAM website** has been down for a long time and we apologize to its users. We were having difficulties with our provider and have now changed to a new provider. The site is now up and functioning and we should be making changes and additions to it more frequently. The URL is www.foodaid.org. ✦

Editors note: Food Forum readers from UN agencies and NGOs working in emergencies should be aware of an information system on nutrition that produces regular reports using field based information on the nutritional status of affected populations. Please take note of the RNIS contact information provided if you or your field office is able to contribute information as described below or if you are interested in receiving these reports.

ACC/SCN Refugee Nutrition Information System (RNIS)

UNITED NATIONS ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEE ON COORDINATION

Sub-committee on Nutrition

The ACC/SCN is the focal point for harmonizing the policies and activities in nutrition of the United Nations system. The role of the SCN is to serve as a coordinating mechanism, for exchange of information and technical guidance, and to act dynamically to help the UN respond to nutritional problems. The UN members of the SCN are FAO, IAEA, IFAD, ILO, UN, UNDP, UNEP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNRISD, UNU, WFP, WHO and the World Bank. From the outset, representatives of bilateral donor agencies have participated actively in SCN activities. The Secretariat is hosted by WHO in Geneva.

The SCN compiles and disseminates information on nutrition, reflecting the shared views of the agencies concerned. Regular reports on the world nutrition situation are issued, and flows of external resources to address nutrition problems are assessed. State-of-the-Art papers are produced to summarize current knowledge on selected topics. SCN News is normally published twice a year. As decided by the Sub-Committee, initiatives are taken to promote coordinated activities — inter-agency programmes, meetings, publications — aimed at reducing malnutrition, primarily in developing countries.

One of the on-going activities of the SCN is the issuance of the Reports on the Nutrition of Refugees and Displaced People, with the intention of raising awareness and facilitating action to improve the situation. This system was started on the recommendation of the SCN's working group on Nutrition of Refugees and Displaced People in February 1993. Based on suggestions made by the working group and the results of a survey of RNIS readers, the Reports on the Nutrition Situation of Refugees and Displaced People are published every three months, with updates on rapidly changing situations where required.

Information for the reports is obtained from a wide range of collaborating agencies, both UN and NGO. The overall picture gives context and information which separate reports cannot provide by themselves. The information available is mainly about nutrition, health, and survival in refugee and displaced populations. Each section begins with a brief background of the situation - how many people are involved, why they are displaced and any prospects for repatriation - followed by details on nutrition and food security. At the end of many situation descriptions, there is a section entitled "How could external agencies help?". This is included when there is enough information on current needs and opportunities, and when there is a substantial risk to nutrition.

The reports are free of charge and are available upon request through the Secretariat in Geneva. We welcome contributions of information, for example nutritional surveys, household food security assessments, mortality and morbidity reports. Information can be e-mailed to the secretariat at accscn@who.ch, faxed to +41-22-798-88-91 or mailed to :

Jane Wallace, RNIS Co-ordinator
ACC/SCN V 226, c/o WHO
20 Avenue Appia, 1211, Geneva 27, Switzerland

ACC/SCN, c/o World Health Organization
20 Avenue Appia, CH-1211, Geneva 27, Switzerland
Telephone: +41-22-791-04-56, Fax: +41-22-798-88-91
E-mail: ACCSCN@WHO.CH

NGO's may submit their original reports or use the format below.

NUTRITION SUMMARY SURVEY REPORT

Country: Date of Survey:
Camp/village:
Organization:
Estimated Population: Estimated Population >5 years:

Sampling technique used:
Sample size: male: female:
Methodology:

Results of Nutritional Survey: Malnutrition rates: weight for height(and age if possible)

Weight for Height % Median			Weight for Height Z Score		
	Number	%		Number	%
<70%			<3 SD		
70-79%			<2 SD		
Total					

Comments: (Present situation and comparison with previous survey)
Measles immunization (if known, or recorded during survey):
Clinical symptoms (Vitamin A deficiency, edema):
Observations: (Camp situation - water, sanitation, food)
Interventions/recommendations:

Food Security Resource Center News

In the coming months, organizations will be presenting Development Activity Proposals (DAPs) and Previously Accepted Activity plan (PAAs). The FSRC houses several project design documents that may be of assistance in the proposal writing process.

I have included a bibliography of a sample of the project and program design resources available at the FSRC. For more specific information or to request copies of these materials, please contact me at:
Jessica Graef, Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212, Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax), jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC PROGRAM DESIGN RESOURCES

Development Activity Proposals (DAPs)
FAM has both printed and electronic copies of the FY99 DAP-PAA Guidelines. This information can also be downloaded from the FAM website (www.foodaid.org).
The FSRC collection includes copies of several DAPs submitted by FAM member organizations. These approved DAPs may serve as guides for the program design process.

FY 1997 DAPs:
Bolivia: CARITAS, FHI, PCI, ADRA
Burkina Faso: CRS
Cape Verde: ACDI/VOCA
Chad-Mali: Africare
Eritrea: PCI
Ethiopia: CARE, CRS
The Gambia: CRS
Ghana: ADRA, CRS, TechnoServe
Guatemala: Feed the Children, CRS
India: CARE, CRS
Kenya: CRS, WVRD
Mozambique: ADRA, Africare, CARE, FHI, SCF, WVRD
Nicaragua: PCI
Uganda: Africare, ACDI

FY98 DAPs:
The Gambia: CRS
Eritrea: Africare (DAP Supplement)
Ethiopia: EOC, SCF, WVRD
Peru: TechnoServe

As the FY98 programs are approved, the DAPs will be added to the FSRC collection. The FSRC is still building its collection of Previously Approved Activity plans (PAA's). The current limited collection of PAAs is expected to be enriched over the next few months. If Food Forum readers would like copies of specific PAAs, please contact me.

In addition to these proposals, the FSRC houses other useful program design materials, including the following documents:

Project food aid: User's guide for the design of food-aided development projects. 1991. USAID; Judy Bryson, Steve Joyce, Daniel Edwards; Training Resources Group. 126p. #1889. Contains general definitions as well as overview of design process. Discusses pre-project development and proposal framework techniques. Also address project design for development infrastructure and long-term income generation programs.

Understanding food security: Conceptual framework for programming. 1995. WorldVision; Siegle, Joe. #5887. Addresses dimensions and components of food security and the use of food security as a program planning framework.

Strategic planning and performance measurement workshop. 1997. CDIE/PME. [40]p. #6241. Contains USAID strategic planning and performance measurement workshop documents. Outlines USAID's reengineered approach to design and monitoring and results framework.

Project identification, design, and appraisal: Manual for NGOs. 1990. Zivetz, Laurie; Australian Council for Overseas Aid. 136p. #1299. This manual outlines strategies (complete with checklists) to identify and design effective projects. Focuses on partnership of Australian NGOs with overseas NGOs. Chapters address project identification, design, and monitoring, as well as proposal writing and appraisal methodology.

Project design for program managers: Conducting a workshop on planning community-based projects. 1994. The CEDPA Training Manual Series. CEDPA; Stone, Ralph U.; Chauhan, Seema; Lissit, Stacey. 137p. #1258. This manual is geared toward an audience of trainers of project managers in NGOs and government agencies. Designed to assist trainers in conducting a workshop in all phases of project design. Addresses assessment, problem statement, goals/objectives, project implementation plan, job descriptions, monitoring and evaluation, budget, and sustainability issues.

More thought, less paperwork: A simplified - but logical approach to food aid project planning. 1995. Emily C. Moore, Ph.D. 74p. #1159. Geared towards PVOs and food aid planners. Discusses problem analysis and log frames, budget, monitoring and evaluation, and design and proposal writing issues.

Issues in program design, Part 1 - Understanding the link: Poverty lending and food security, Technical group paper #4. September 1997. Jindra Cekan and Sharon D'Onofrio. CRS, U.S.C.C., Project Quality and Support Department. Defines key characteristics in the design of poverty lending programs. Discusses food security objectives, levels of food security, credit, and implications for the design of poverty lending programs.

Issues in program design, Part 2 - Reaching the poorest: Poverty lending and food security, Technical group paper #5. October 1997. Jindra Cekan and Sharon D'Onofrio. CRS, U.S.C.C., Project Quality and Support Department. Outlines key variables to understand poverty and food insecurity. Discusses targeting issues for improved program design and implementation.

Issues in program design, Part 3 - Focus on women: Poverty lending and food security, Technical group paper #6. October 1997. Jindra Cekan and Sharon D'Onofrio. CRS, U.S.C.C., Project Quality and Support Department. Stresses the importance of taking into account women's roles in the design of poverty lending programs.

CARE project design workshop, April 1996, Kathmandu, Nepal. Richard Caldwell.

1997 Asia M&E workshop series. Richard Caldwell and Sophia Sprechman. CARE.

This is by no means an exhaustive list. If you have any suggestions of resources you have found to be effective in your project design work, please contact me so I can share the titles with other readers.

NEW ACQUISITIONS

This list represents a sample of recent additions to the FSRC collection.

Reality of aid 1997/8: An independent review of development cooperation. 1997. EUROSTEP; Judith Randall and Tony German, Development Initiatives (eds.) 306p.

The international organization of hunger. 1994. Peter Uvin. 334p.

Hunger in a global economy: Hunger 1998, Eighth annual report on the state of hunger. 1997. Bread for the World Institute. 130p.

The world food situation: Recent developments, emerging issues, and long-term prospects. December 1997. Per Pinstrup-Andersen; Rajul Pandya-Lorch; Mark W. Rosegrant; IFPRI. 2020 Vision. 36p.

Rehabilitation in the Greater Horn: A report to CARE. November 1997. Paul Harvey; Will Campbell; Simon Maxwell. Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.

Emergency policies and procedures manual, Section VIII Logistics and distribution. May 1997. CARE's Emergency Group.

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Local Capacity Building with Title II Resources:

A CASE STUDY OF WORLD SHARE IN GUATEMALA

by Elisa Sabatini, Director for Latin America Programs

World SHARE's mission is to create and develop local organizations to administer and mobilize resources for the purpose of building communities and addressing issues related to food security and poverty. A continual concern with international programming is the development of dependency among recipients. Dependency issues are of particular concern in food programming when programs do not incorporate activities that are developmental and sustainable. World SHARE (Self-Help and Resource Exchange) is working to enhance the impact of Title II food programming in developmental and sustainable ways by establishing a local Guatemalan organization to organize communities to address the needs they identify, and improve outreach of local non-governmental organizations to those communities.

To maximize scarce resources and impact, World SHARE has learned that it is best to enhance local management skills and not create a large central/headquarters bureaucracy. Having a flexible headquarters staff team that can assure compliance and adequate reporting as well as facilitate in-country comp-etencies is central in World SHARE's development methodology. The competencies include monitoring and evaluation, monetization, management, and development of a board of directors.

WORLD SHARE ORGANIZATIONAL BACKGROUND

World SHARE is a nonprofit social business with affiliates in the United States, Guatemala and Mexico. As a social business, World SHARE seeks ways to represent its partner organizations and use professional business practices in the market system.

In the U.S., World SHARE purchases $30 million of food annually through a network of partnering organizations, providing food savings to 200,000 families each month. All the food in the package is purchased (none is donated to World SHARE) from growers and manufacturers using money paid in advance by program participants. The program is self-funding.

World SHARE views the building and strengthening of local communities to be key to meeting the long-term objectives in addressing food security constraints and promoting community development. Participants in the U.S. program contribute funds and hours of volunteer service to receive food savings. The volunteer hours generate a multitude of community activities, such as youth mentoring and other self-selected actions that build community. In Mexico, World SHARE has developed a strategic partnership with two local organizations to undertake a rural credit program targeted at increasing small farmers' income and access to markets. In its Title II program in Guatemala, World SHARE has focused on the capacity building and creation of a local organization to manage the program.

World SHARE's Board uses participatory leadership practices and is representative of the international network of SHARE affiliated organizations. These organizations are autonomous, non-profit organizations located in 25 regions of the United States, Mexico and Guatemala. The affiliate, or strategic partner, in Guatemala is SHARE de Guatemala or SHARE/G. One member of the SHARE/G local board sits on the World SHARE Board of Directors.

GUATEMALAN PROGRAM HISTORY USING FOOD RESOURCES

Beginning with a USDA Section 416 program, where the food was for the most part simply distributed to participants, World SHARE has evolved into its current practice of using food as a catalyst within its programs and promoting self-help measures of community development. A key

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factor has been the creation of the local entity, SHARE de Guatemala. In turn, SHARE/G, has developed participatory planning and evaluation processes that call for the involvement of a network of local NGOs.

The staff of the local SHARE/G entity provides not only the physical resources to the NGOs, but also the technical training to develop institutional capacity, fiscal responsibility, and program management. Local institutions receive training in program implementation focusing on community organizing, family health and nutrition, improved management of family resources, and resource accountability.

World SHARE began using Title II resources in 1989, given the approval of the first multi-year plan. The Title II resources complement resources from World SHARE, the Government of Guatemala and other donors. Food is monetized to cover staff, training and some administrative costs. In the current activity plan, food is distributed in the Family Health and Nutrition (FHN) program as well as through a Food for Work system in the Improved Management of Family Resources (IMFR) program. The program is managed and implemented by the local Guatemalan organization, SHARE/G, in partnership with a network of rural NGOs, who work with multiple communities. The FHN program conducts child survival activities in concert with food distributions. The IMFR program provides training in communal loans and support for agro-forestry initiatives as well as community infrastructure projects focused on agricultural productivity (i.e. access roads). The 202(e) and ISG funding have been key resources that enabled the development of the strong, local institution, namely SHARE/G. They now have the capacity to take full responsibility for the implementation of the Integrated Rural Development Program with Title II resources.

In the table that follows you will find a history of World SHARE Guatemala's development using food aid resources from 1986 through the current DAP.

History of Program Development	World SHARE and Local Institutional Development (SHARE/G)	Results from building institutional capacity
USDA Section 416 Food Distribution 1986-89*	Start up of in-country activities managed by headquarters Legal structure for local SHARE entity established	Two large urban counterparts Food distribution Management and administration provided from headquarters
Multi-Year Plan 1990-92 Title II/USAID ISG	Local board of directors named, but inactive Finance managed by headquarters In-country manager subject to headquarters constant supervision	Development of in-country director position; planning done at headquarters Redesign for Title II Reaching rural unserved Network of Small NGOs
Updates of the 1990-92 Multi-Year Plan (Including the development of the technical components, benchmarks, and evaluation and monitoring) ISG 202(e)	Local board of directors activated Local finance and accounting capacity enhanced; oversight from headquarters	In-country director is US citizen Planning done by technical consultants and director Development MCH, FFW, Natural Resource Conservation and Communal Funds Components Network of over 30 NGOs 50,000 mothers
Multi-Year Plan 1993-1995 ISG 202(e)	Local board of directors introduced to planning process Finance and systems reviewed; received certification from Mission; local management increased Local management team in place to support director	Planning done by local staff with input from headquarters Integrated program components: MCH, FFW, Natural Resource Conservation and Communal Funds, for more targeted impact in individual communities Network of over 40 NGOs 70,000 mothers and children served through MCH
Multi-year 1995 Update and Current DAP FY 96-2000 202(e)	Local board of directors engaged in planning review	DPP developed and designed by local staff with input from the cooperating institutions (NGOs). Development of Family Health and Nutrition Component (evolution of MCH), Improved Management of Family Resources (evolution of FFW), and Community Organizing Components. (This is the local interpretation and integration of previous activities). Focus work on measurable impact on food security

**Local Capacity Building initiatives were slow until ISG & 202(e) funding provided dollar support.*

SHARE/G is now a registered Guatemalan entity with 30 Guatemalan employees, governed at the local level by a board of directors. SHARE/G is responsible for day-to-day operation of the Title II program and the coordination of the network of local NGOs implementing the program activities in the rural area. Part of the work ahead is to strengthen the relationship between the local SHARE/G and the World SHARE board, with the result being a stronger, more autonomous local governing board in Guatemala and shared learnings between the two organizations.

The current development objectives of World SHARE are to:

1) Further develop the autonomy and sustainability of the SHARE/G organization
2) Mobilize additional resources locally and internationally, and
3) Develop World SHARE institutional capacity to replicate these initiatives.

World SHARE headquarters will continue to provide sufficient oversight and reporting of Title II resources, while collaborating with other PVOs in the areas of monetization, monitoring and evaluation, and local capacity building. In-country World SHARE will test, document and facilitate the development of an effective local entity for replication and sustainability.

SHARE/G, the local entity, will continue to develop its management team supported by the local board providing governance, thereby enhancing local leadership and autonomy. The local finance department will continue managing and diversifying the portfolio of resources.

WORLD SHARE'S APPROACH IN LOCAL CAPACITY BUILDING

The possibility for sustainability of program interventions is greatly improved by strengthening the areas of leadership, program development, and resource management at all levels of operation including: 1) the local SHARE/G organization, 2) the network of NGOs working in cooperation with SHARE/G, and 3) the participating communities. The potential of creating dependency is greatly reduced when people are provided the tools with which they can make their own decisions, plan for their futures, and responsibly act with the resources they have available to them. The following table illustrates World SHARE's framework for strengthening programming in Leadership and Democratic Governance; Management, Planning and Evaluation; and Resource Mobilization, at three different institutional levels.

Institutional Programming Levels under Development	Leadership and Democratic Governance	Management, Planning and Evaluation	Resource Mobilization, Allocation and Accountability
1.) Further development, of Asociacion SHARE de Guatemala (SHARE/G)	Development of local board of directors role to govern, lead and provide for the sustainability of the local entity as an organization with food security focus	Development of local management team to provide for strategic planning, participatory evaluation and ongoing program development	Strengthening of local capacity to manage a diverse portfolio of local and international resources
2.) NGO network; Cooperating Institutions channeling Title II resources to communities	Technical assistance from SHARE/G for the development of NGO leadership to be participatory and use democratic practices for decision making	Technical assistance from SHARE/G which calls for the participation of NGO staffs in the development of program plans, training in technical components and evaluation, and all aspects of implementation	Technical training and support from SHARE/G in the management of resources, seeking local resources to enhance impact and provide for adequate accountability
3.) Participating communities	SHARE/G or through NGOs to provide workshops in community organization, leadership, and democratic practices	SHARE/G or through NGOs working with community leaders to define needs, implement food security strategies	SHARE/G or through NGOs working with community members to assess local resources, leverage Title II resources in the most cost effective manner

Creating a local entity, such as SHARE de Guatemala, capable of addressing food security for the rural poor with maximum local involvement and minimal external support is the chief aim of World SHARE's local capacity building initiative. The goal is to fully develop the local SHARE/G entity as a strong sustainable organization, governed by the local board, securing and managing a diverse portfolio of resources. SHARE/G, in turn, provides technical assistance to the partner NGOs to develop their institutional capacity. Care has been taken to design participatory evaluation processes that assist the communities, the NGOs and SHARE/G to learn and assess their work.

Title II resources, which may not always be available, are serving as a catalyst for developing and extending local competence to address food security. World SHARE has found that the strengthening of local entities and networks capable and committed to addressing their own food security issues is one of the most effective strategies for achieving long term, sustainable development.

Catholic Relief Services in January 1998 held a workshop on "Community-level Grain Storage Projects (Cereal Banks) Why do they Rarely Work and What are the Alternatives?" in Dakar, Senegal. The conclusions apply to CRS programming in the Sahel and may or may not be appropriate to your organization.

Why Cereal Bank Projects Rarely Work: A Summary of Findings

by Lawrence Kent

These findings are based on extensive research on grain markets and cereal banks (CBs) in the Sahelian countries of West Africa. Cereal banks are village cooperatives that buy, store and sell grain with the intention of promoting food security[1].

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1. Grain trading is a risky, difficult and competitive business. Buying grain right after the harvest, storing it and selling it during the hungry season is no guarantee of making a profit, or even breaking even. People tend to remember the years that prices doubled between seasons, but they tend to forget the years prices increased slightly, not at all or even fell. When we look at monthly price records over a number of years for most markets, we usually find that price movements between the seasons are not as large or predictable as people assume, particularly in "good years".

2. Even when prices rise between seasons, they must rise substantially for a CB or a trader to cover his costs and make a profit. These costs include:

   -purchase costs
   -warehousing costs
   -bagging costs
   -labor/handling costs
   -management costs
   -the costs of physical losses due to pests, rotting, theft, etc., and
   -interest costs (or the opportunity cost of tying up one's money/resources)

   If we calculate these costs accurately, we usually find that the selling price must be substantially above the purchase price in order for a CB or a trader to break even or to make a profit. Promoters of CBs often try to ignore some of these costs when they calculate their profitability, resulting in false hopes for sustainability. For instance, we can ignore the costs of community-built warehousing and volunteer labor, but sooner or later warehouses need to be repaired or replaced and workers need to be paid if we expect them to work sustainably. We can ignore the opportunity cost of capital, but sooner or later villagers begin to take it into account and wonder "why are we tying all of this money up in grain when it could be earning higher returns elsewhere?" If CBs had to borrow at the rates charged by CRS in its micro-lending programs (over 30% annually in Burkina), most would have difficulty surviving. It makes one wonder: is this the best way for people to invest scarce resources? (They wouldn't do it with their own money or with money lent to them as individuals.)

3. The track record of cereal banks regarding sustainability is poor. Of the 1,500 cereal banks created in Burkina Faso before 1991, over 1,200 went bankrupt within five years of their creation (over 80%). Most CBs functioned acceptably for two or three years (during which time they received intensive NGO monitoring and subsidies) but subsequently decayed, with the amount of their stocks decreasing annually. Recent estimates from Niger indicate a 90% failure rate for cereal banks. A review of 100 cereal banks

created by the FAO in Niger found that only one was able to survive after the end of outside support. In 1993, the German aid agency GTZ published a study called "Cereal Banks: Have they all gone Bankrupt?" and held a workshop in Mali to discuss the high failure rates. A few cereal banks manage to survive in each country, but the overwhelming majority fall apart after the subsidies end.

4. There are other contributing factors to the failure of CBs beyond the riskiness of grain speculation. One is that providing grain on credit often results in defaults, which in turn provoke other defaults that decapitalize CBs ("Why should I pay back if he didnit, and besides this is a charitable institution that should provide free food to poor people like me.") Another reason for failure is embezzlement. Not infrequently, the treasurer, warehouse manager, president, or buyer steals the CB's money or makes unauthorized loans from the cashbox that are never paid back. In Senegal and Niger, dishonest NGO field agents also have stolen money from CBs. Another reason for failure is bad decision-making by cumbersome CB committees constituted by people with little expertise in grain trading. These committees have trouble competing with more agile and diversified private traders.

5. The positive side effects that CB promoters predict rarely occur. CBs rarely make a profit thus they rarely are in a position to subsidize other village activities, like literacy training. Occasionally CBs fund other activities but almost always by decapitalizing their own revolving funds. CBs rarely succeed, thus they rarely build community spirit or promote empowerment. More frequently they generate arguments and the sentiment that coops don't work.

6. It is no surprise that communities ask donors for cereal banks, because CBs usually involve a large gift of food aid or money (revolving funds). It is also no surprise that communities almost never use their own resources to create cereal banks (i.e., without outside subsidy) because villagers usually have better things to do with their own resources and they'd rather store their own grain at home, where they can keep their eyes on it, rather than in some collective structure where it can be subject to neglect, mismanagement, or theft. CILSS, a regional Institute in the Sahel, has measured physical storage losses at only three to five percent in traditional household structures, but higher in modern government warehouses.

7. A CB can potentially harm a villageis food security if it displaces private traders, breaks traditional relationships between traders and villages, or keeps such relationships from developing. There have been cases in Mauritania and northern Niger where subsidized cereal banks have driven private traders out of business (essentially through unfair competition) leaving villagers precariously dependent on an unsustainable CB for their food security. There have been cases in Burkina Faso of CBs working with local government officials to ban private grain trading from their villages (thereby ensuring the CBs a monopoly). Villagers' food security probably can be better served by encouraging dynamic, competitive trade links with other villages and regions. Private traders should be encouraged, not discouraged, from operating in Sahelian villages.

8. Empirical data on the timing of Sahelian farmers' sales of cereals does not support the widely-held belief that farmers are forced to sell off most of their harvest during the low price season (a belief that is used to justify the creation of CBs). A detailed two-year national survey of farmers in Burkina Faso conducted by the University of Michigan revealed that farmers' sales of cereals are surprisingly evenly spread over the calendar year and that the largest sales quarter is not the one right after harvest. A detailed two-year national survey of cereal farmers in Chad found similar results. Both surveys revealed that only a small minority of farmers sell cereals post harvest and buy cereals in the hungry season. A detailed survey of 150 households in rural Senegal found that only five were "selling low and buying high". Most farmers sold small quantities of grain as needed throughout the year.

9. Overall, collective village institutions appear to be ill-adapted to the riskiness of grain trading. They have trouble surviving without ongoing subsidies. Villagers' grain marketing needs are more likely to be served sustainably by for-profit traders. If these traders are in competition, as they usually are given the ease of entry into the business, they will provide their services at competitive prices. A dynamic, competitive group of private traders is essential to long-term agricultural development. CRS should not try to discourage or replace the middleman, either directly or indirectly.

10. CRS is more likely to succeed in increasing food security in the Sahel by:

- promoting the improvement of roads (possibly through food-for-work) which improve access to villages and reduce the costs of trade, especially food trade;
- promoting agricultural improvements through the extension of new technologies or improved techniques, especially soil and water conservation measures (using food-for-work if necessary);

- promoting the development of alternative sources of income, through off-season gardening, animal fattening, handicrafts, etc.;
- developing credit and savings institutions that have a real chance of sustainability, i.e., village banks, credit unions or inventory credit schemes that use commodities as collateral.

Lawrence Kent is the Regional Food Security Advisor for Catholic Relief Services in West Africa and is the co-author of the 1991 publication, "The Economics of Cereal Banks in the Sahel," available at the FSRC.

[1] *The notes from this workshop, "Community-level Grain Storage Projects (Cereal Banks) Why do they Rarely Work and What are the Alternatives?" are available at the FSRC and will be posted on the FAM website. If you are interested in knowing more about this issue, please contact Kevin Tobin at CRS. Kevin Tobin can be reached at kjtobin@crs.org.*

Child Survival and Title II in Nicaragua: An Opportunity to Promote Food Security

The addition of Title II food to three Child Survival (CS) Programs in Nicaragua is providing an opportunity to strengthen community food security. With the support of USAID/Managua and the USAID Bureau for Humanitarian Response (BHR), three food-assisted child survival (FACS) projects run by the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA), Save the Children (SCF) and Project Concern International (PCI) are working together, with technical assistance from the Project Management Unit (PMU) of Development Associates, Inc. in Managua, to strengthen the short and medium term food security effects of their projects through a process of participatory assessment and program development.

The participatory approach to food security assessment, project planning, monitoring and evaluation is the result of reorienting an original operations research (OR) design for the Title II program in Nicaragua. While this may seem to be a major shift, it evolved quite naturally from the concerns of the USAID/Managua, BHR, the PVO partners and the PMU about the ability of short-term Title II food assistance (four years) to provide the foundation for longer term community and household food security. All parties worked together to find a new approach that would optimize the food security potential of Title II assistance in the communities while Title III-supported agricultural development took hold.

I. Background

In 1995, USAID/Managua and PVOs implementing Mission-funded CS projects in Nicaragua observed that while the programs seemed to be successful in bringing about changes in knowledge and attitudes in key CS variables, the participating families often were unable to convert this new knowledge into practice due to a lack of resources. The Mission and the PVOs proposed Title II food resources (Corn-Soy Blend and vegetable oil) as a short-term safety net program to free up household resources for child feeding, while Title III and Development Assistance-funded programs improved incomes and agricultural production in the program areas over the long term.

II. Challenges of Operations Research in the Real World

Title II Food-Assisted Child Survival (FACS) programs are usually implemented as an integrated package - the food activities and the CS activities commence at the same time - so it is not possible to evaluate the impact of the food separately from the CS services. The Nicaragua Title II program was designed to include an operations research (OR) component since there was a possibility to measure the impact of the food rations on child nutritional status, while controlling for the effects of the CS intervention.

It is always challenging to carry out rigorous research under uncontrollable real world conditions. The OR component was developed in consultation with the PVOs and a design was adopted that allowed the PVOs to collect the baseline data themselves with the assistance of CARE. Its project area would serve as one of the control sites since its child survival project was designed to improve nutritional status without the use of Title II food. Baseline data was collected in August 1996 and February 1997. The PMU provided technical assistance for the data collection and analysis. Circumstances related to design and implementation and concerns about long-term sustainability, however, have led to the decision to reorient the OR to strengthen the food security potential of the three FACS programs.

III. Improving Food Security Program Monitoring and Evaluation

The Mission and PMU, with the assistance of BHR and G/PHN with the Linkages Project, and in discussion with the PVOs, have identified an approach that reorients the OR activities towards building capacity of the PVOs. The objective is to strengthen their ability to design and implement sustainable FACS and food security programs, and to make the process and outcomes of the current Title II FACS projects more beneficial to the Title II communities, PVOs, and Mission. Valuable information

about knowledge, attitudes and practices (KAP) related to the child survival components and nutritional status already has been collected and provides a solid baseline against which to monitor and evaluate the impact of the Title II FACS programs.

The revised approach will obtain information to meet current program needs while providing the basis for design of a longer-term food security program, if so desired. Data collection now focusses on information for Assessment, Design, Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation (ADIME) of food security programs.

The **qualitative component** is being expanded to problem assessment within the context of a food security framework; i.e., the need to increase availability and access to food, and to maximize its utilization. The **quantitative data** collected under the new approach will not be used to attribute impact to the specific food component in the activity. Rather, the PVOs will implement a standard, pre-post evaluation design to measure the overall impact of the integrated FACS program, using the "pre" data already collected under the OR baseline survey. Training was provided in field data collection and entry during the baseline. The new approach will provide PVOs training in all relevant aspects of data collection, analysis and reporting.

Population-based quantitative data will meet two reporting and evaluation needs: 1) the FACS mid-term and final evaluation requirements under the CS and Title II programs to measure and report on child survival and nutritional status variables; and 2) contingent on the design and approval of food security programs, the mid-term data collection instrument could be modified to include modules to collect baseline information on key food security variables of the new food security programs. The FACS final evaluation would then provide mid-term information on these same variables.

IV. Next Steps

A series of three workshops (March, May and July 1998) will support the process. The PMU will assist the PVOs in developing food security conceptual frameworks and will train them in participatory appraisal techniques so they can carry out rapid food security problem analyses. The information will be used for program strengthening and design in three areas: 1) better understanding of child feeding practices and constraints in order to improve the nutrition education components of current FACS programs; 2) identification of food security programs operating in the intervention areas in order to enable linkages between community organizations and these programs; and 3) identification of unmet community needs which the PVOs could address with new or enhanced food security activities. The PVOs will use the data to develop food security proposals as appropriate.

A Food Security Conceptual Framework/Participatory Rapid Appraisal Methods workshop was held in March, 1998 which, on the first day, brought together representatives of the Title II and Title III PVOs, the communities, the Ministries of Agriculture and Health, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the European Community (E.C.). Participants shared information on their organization's food security activities in Nicaragua. Days two through five were devoted to team work and fostering collaboration among the Title II and Title III PVOs (World Relief and Development, TechnoServe, and CARE) working in the project areas. The objectives of the Workshop were to:

1. Stimulate information exchange about food security in Nicaragua with the aim of improving coordination and cooperation among the participating agencies and organizations.

2. Establish shared understanding of the food security conceptual framework used by USAID for P.L. 480 within its food aid policy.

3. Provide Participatory Rapid Appraisal (PRA) concepts and tools for the PVOs to use with their communities to conduct rapid food security assessments and problem analysis.

4. Provide an overview of food security indicators and how to integrate them into the monitoring and evaluation systems currently used for the child survival components of the Title II-FACS activities.

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Each of the PVOs developed Action Plans to conduct rapid participatory food security assessments in their communities. They are in the process of collecting the data now and will discuss their experience with the techniques in the second workshop to be held from 26-29 May 1998. This workshop will concentrate on interpreting the findings from the rapid participatory food security assessments in order to:

1. Understand the dynamics of food insecurity in the communities.

2. Identify short-term changes that can be made within existing CS/feeding programs toward improving food security.

3. Develop indicators for measuring positive change in target communities.

4. Prepare action plans for short-term changes in food security within existing programs and interventions, including specific activities and measurable indicators.

The groups will reconvene in July to focus on the changes they have made in their existing programs and to develop new, complementary food security activity proposals as appropriate.

The Nicaragua Title II program is dynamic and proves that flexibility is sometimes more important than adhering to a rigorous research design. By emphasizing the food security needs of the project communities as the first priority, the Mission, the PVOs and the PMU have been able to put their efforts towards a more participatory and useful approach. They also are strengthening their monitoring and evaluation capabilities.

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

USAID's Bureau for Humanitarian Response (BHR) and the Office of Food for Peace (FFP) and the PVOs are collaborating on a new process to resolve problems that have slowed the programming of Title II resources. A USAID/PVO meeting was held on April 2nd at the Department of State to deal with two primary issues: 1) how to streamline the P.L. 480 Title II program management process by USAID and PVOs, and; 2) develop a growth strategy for P.L. 480 Title II non-emergency activity. The meeting was co-chaired by acting BHR Assistant Administrator Len Rogers and the FFP Director Tom Oliver. The meeting led to the creation of several subgroups and the decision to reconvene in late April after the subgroups had the opportunity to deliberate their assigned mandates.

The following subgroups were established: 1) technical review & oversight of Title II programs, monetization, and Bellmon determinations; 2) commodity & financial management oversight; and 3) monitoring & evaluation. Each subgroup met twice before the follow-up meeting planned for the end of April. The follow-up meeting was held on April 27 to discuss reports and recommendations from the subgroups and to fine-tune the issues and keep the process moving forward. The meeting on the 27th examined the proposals put together by the subgroups and identified issues of agreement and where additional discussion is required. As a result of the meeting, new subgroups were identified with a more narrow focus in order to address specifically those issues which did not reach conclusion. The monitoring and evaluation subgroup made significant progress and three new subgroups have stemmed from its work. The USAID Office of Policy, Planning and Coordination (PPC) issued guidance on monitoring and evaluation in March and a subgroup has been created to build on this guidance by defining threshold M&E issues. Another subgroup has been formed to develop some information on the cost of M&E systems and a third will look at local capacity building indicators. Other issues that were discussed but did not achieve consensus included minimum guidelines for USAID's non-presence countries and how DAP reviews would be expedited for those countries. The next meeting in this BHR/FFP - PVO management/growth process will be held in mid-summer.

The Office of Food for Peace has approved two initiatives taken by **FAM working groups**. The Monetization working group has decided that a monetization manual be developed to harmonize existing manuals and be used as a training tool, and will also include aspects raised by FFP's new monetization policy. A consultant will be identified and hired to begin this process as soon as possible. The Monitoring and Evaluation working group has designed a scope of work for which the general objective over the next six months will be to oversee the review of 1) a set of tools to conduct baseline studies in Title II agriculture programs, and 2) instructions in how to use those tools under various settings. A consultant will also be identified for this initiative. Both working groups will actively oversee the work carried out by the consultants. These two initiatives underscore the commitment among FAM members to identify the best available tools for program implementation and disseminate them to a broad audience.

I attended an **International Workshop on Food and Human Security. The Role of Food Aid and Finance for Food** in Oslo, Norway from April 26-29. The workshop was organized under the auspices of the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), London, and the Norwegian Institute of International Affairs (NUPI), Oslo. The 35+ participants represented researchers, practitioners, and policy people from academia, governments, NGOs, and UN agencies. The two principal workshop hosts, Ed Clay of ODI and Olav Stokke of NUPI, held a similar workshop ten years ago which led to a book entitled Food Aid Reconsidered and it is hoped that this workshop will also lead to a similar publication.

In light of the many changes in political and economic environments in both donor and recipient countries over the last decade, the issue of food aid and its future role were examined at the workshop. Food aid was driven for many years by donors and was seen as a surplus disposal program for farmers rather than based on a food security strategy developed by and with recipient countries. With the expansion of trade under GATT, low donor resource levels, diminishing food aid commitments and a greater dependence on market forces to solve the problems of developing countries, the analysis preceding the decision to use food aid requires greater rigor if the food aid is going to have the proper impact.

Donor and public education will be important as both donors and the public are eager to fund emergency response while the public is generally less enthusiastic about funding the often lower profile development programs. NGOs are improving their problem analysis skills and are designing programs to respond to food security problems rather than designing programs driven by the resource. This is the result of greater use of technical expertise by NGOs and also grew out of the need to show project impact to donors. Recipient countries and communities are also more involved in the design of development projects than in the past. In addition, donor countries are promoting an increasing role for the private sector and development agencies will need to establish strategies and policies that allow for this inevitable trend.

The overall policies and institutions set up for food aid and finance for food will need to be more flexible in the future and allow for a local approach to program design and development and the decision about whether food aid is an appropriate tool in a given setting.

The Commodity Storage and Loss Reduction project (CSLRP) being implemented by World Vision, CRS, and CARE was designed to look at ways to reduce commodity losses at all points of the food aid pipeline. The project will provide the basis for upcoming workshops in Haiti and South Africa in June and July. The workshops will look at the lessons learned during the course of the project and provide a venue for discussing ways to improve efficiency and reduce losses of commodities at port, warehouse, community and even household levels. Workshop participants will include staff from the three implementing PVOs, FAM, USDA, USAID, other FAM member organizations, and the University of Tennessee and Kansas State University. Invitations will be sent to the identified participants.

A training course for the management of **Humanitarian Assistance entitled Health Emergencies in Large Populations (or H.E.L.P. 98)** is being organized by the International Committee of the Red Cross, Johns Hopkins University, the University of Hawaii, and the Pan American Health Organization. Two sessions are planned for the summer; July 6 to July 24 at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore and July 13 to July 31 at the University of Hawaii in Honolulu. The purpose of the course is to train experienced health personnel who may be called upon to deal with disaster situations; develop a common approach allowing better program coordination between the various humanitarian agencies involved; select methods of assessment tailored to the specific emergency situation, and stimulate research in this particular field. It is anticipated that at the conclusion of the course, participants should be able to plan and carry out assistance programs and provide protection to victims if the need arises; supervise and conduct a team in the field; ensure an efficient and smooth-working relationship between all parties involved and stimulate their active participation in disaster relief work. The course is intended for health professionals, medical doctors, nurses, nutritionists, environmental health engineers, epidemiologists, and public health officers and will be limited to 25 participants. Registration fees for the course amount to $1,500 while living expenses for the three week period using dormitory accommodations should also amount to $1,500. For more information, contact Dr. Gilbert Burnham at (410) 955-3928 or gburnham@jhsph.edu.

Four new courses are being offered at the **London School of Economics and Political Science** in the field of Development and Social Policy. These courses are:

- Social Policy and Planning in Developing Countries
- Population and Development
- Demography
- Management of Non-Governmental Organisations

Those interested in obtaining additional information can contact:

Graduate Admissions Office
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Houghton Street
London WC2A 2AE
Tel. (44) 171 955 7159/60
fax (44) 171 831 1684

Food Security Resource Center News

President Clinton's recent trip to Africa has helped to focus more attention on the continent and while his visit did not specifically focus on food security, it covered many of the issues central to enhancing food security.

I have generated a bibliography of a sample of the food security in Africa resources available at the FSRC. These materials offer readers an important general perspective on African food security insight and theory. For more specific information or to request copies of these materials, please contact me at

Jessica Graef
Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC RESOURCES ON FOOD SECURITY IN AFRICA

Food security and policy interventions in Sub-Saharan Africa: Lessons from the past two decades. 1997. Jos Sijm. Tinbergen Institute Research Series. Erasmus University Rotterdam. 729p.

Analyzes the role of African states and governments in affecting food security. Offers a view of the food security situation within an African context. Suggests lessons and policy implications from past experience with public intervention in food security policy. Presents case studies of Ghana, Malawi, Mali, and Tanzania during the early 1970s to early 1990s.

A New Day in Africa. Background and briefing materials prepared by USAID for President Clinton's trip to Africa. 1998. 90p.

Contains an overview of the role of U.S. foreign assistance in the following programs: promotion of economic growth; advancement of democracy; support of education; preservation of the environment; improvement of health and Promotion of family planning; the role of women in Africa's development; support of agriculture in Africa; USAID Assistance to Africa in 1998; the Leland Initiative. Also presents more detailed reports on USAID assistance in Ghana, Uganda, South Africa, Botswana, Senegal, and other programs. Available on the USAID website (www.info.usaid.gov).

Breaking the cycle of despair: President Clinton's initiative on the Horn of Africa. Report of the President's representative. June 1994. 27p. #1646.

Report on U.S. delegation visit to the Horn of Africa. Includes recommendations on strategies to address food security issues, contribute to conflict resolution, and promote peace.

Food security assessment. International Agriculture and Trade Reports, Situation and Outlook Series. USDA, Economic Research Service. November 1997.

Projects food availability for 66 countries worldwide for next decade. Includes sections on Africa. Projections are based on long-term trends and policies that are currently in place. The results are used to project consumption by income group to analyze the severity of nutritional problems within the countries.

World food situation: Recent developments, emerging issues, and long-term prospects. December 1997. Per Pinstrup-Andersen, Rajul Randya-Lorch, Mark W. Rosegrant. IFPRI. 36p.

Draws on IFPRI's global food model to project future food supply and demand. Reviews recent events and emerging issues affecting food security. Includes detailed information on African food security issues.

Critical links: Food security and the environment in the Greater Horn of Africa. January 1998. Lori Ann Thrupp and Nabiha Megateli. Discussion Paper. World Resources Institute, World Conservation Union (IUCN). 57p.

Provides a synthesis of challenges and opportunities in the relationship between food security and the environment. Suggests options for regional action to improve food and environmental security in the Greater Horn of Africa.

Food in sub-Saharan Africa: Trends and policy challenges for the 1990s. 1990. Joachim van Braun and Leonardo Paulino. IFPRI. 12p. #4891.

Provides on overview of food situation in Africa. Stresses the need for governments to concentrate on household food security. Highlights the importance of accelerated rural growth and improved rural health and sanitation services accessible to the poor to improve household food security.

Report of the task force on food security in Africa. The World Bank. June 20, 1998. 86p. #883.

Provides recommendations for addressing food insecurity issues in Africa. Published in 1988, provides an historical perspective for past decade of food security strategies.

Inducing food insecurity: Perspectives on food policies in Eastern and Southern Africa. 1994. M.A. Mohamed Salih (ed.). Seminar Proceedings No. 30. Nordiska Afrikainstitutet, Uppsalah. #6246. 235p.

Compilation of essays resulting from the Alternative Food Policies in Eastern and Southern Africa conference. Includes articles on food policies in several African countries, including Sudan, Zimbabwe, Eritrea, Tanzania, Botswana,

and Uganda. Also discusses urban economic development, grain markets, population dynamics, environmental issues, agricultural development, indigenous knowledge, pastoralism, and other issues as they relate to food security.

Famine and food security in Ethiopia: Lessons for Africa. 1994. Patrick Webb and Joachim von Braun. IFPRI. #1143. 158p.

In addition to presenting an overview of concept of famine and a review of historical famine events, discusses the impact of famine on the production, income, and consumption patterns of households. Examines the response of households to famine as well as the experience of various relief and rehabilitation program activities. Outlines lessons learned and presents recommendations for future famine mitigation and food security programs.

To cure all hunger: Food policy and food security in Sudan. 1991. Simon Maxwell (ed.). Intermediate Technology Publications. #3562. 248p.

Compilation of essays on food security in Sudan. Challenging convention concepts of food security, includes discussion of vulnerability; growth strategies; sustainable livelihood; cereal market intervention; targeting; and the role of governments and local organizations in food security programs.

Women and food security: The experience of the SADCC countries. 1991. Marilyn Carr (ed.). IT Publications. #1938. 210p.

Discusses women's role in food security in SADCC nations. Presents overview of women's access to and use of improved food security-related technologies and the potential role they could play in improving food security.

The FSRC welcomes reader input. This is by no means an exhaustive list. If you have any suggestions of African food security resources you have found to be particularly useful, please contact me so I can share the titles with other readers.

NEW ACQUISITIONS

This list represents a sample of recent additions to the FSRC collection.

Food aid delivery, food security and aggregate welfare in a small open economy: Theory and evidence. January 1998. Patrick N. Osakwe. Bank of Canada Working Paper 98-1.

Women working wonders: Small-scale farming and the role of women in Vihiga District, Kenya - a case study of North Maragoli. 1997. Basilida Anyona Mutoro.

Identifying the food insecure: The application of mixed-method approaches in India. 1997. Kimberly Chung, Lawrence Haddad, Jayashree Ramakrishna, and Frank Riely. IFPRI. [70]p.

Participatory monitoring and evaluation. PLA Notes, IIED, February 1998. 99p.

USAID/BHR Humanitarian Assistance Performance Monitoring Workshop, Nairobi, Kenya, December 8-12, 1997, Workshop proceedings. Prepared by Checchi-Berger Team, USAID/BHR, Performance Monitoring & Evaluation Resource.

U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1997. January 1998. USAID.

Notes from the workshop on Community-level grain storage projects (cereal banks): Why do they rarely work and what are the alternatives? January 19-22, 1998, Dakar, Senegal.

State of the World's Children 1998. UNICEF.

World Food Summit Plan of Action: U.S. Benchmark Report, April 2, 1998.

Seguridad alimentaria y estrategies sociales: Su contribución a la seguridad nutricional en areas urbanas de América Latina. 1998. IFPRI.

Environmental and economic review of crop protection and pesticide use in Ethiopia. 1995. USAID/Ethiopia, EPAT project.

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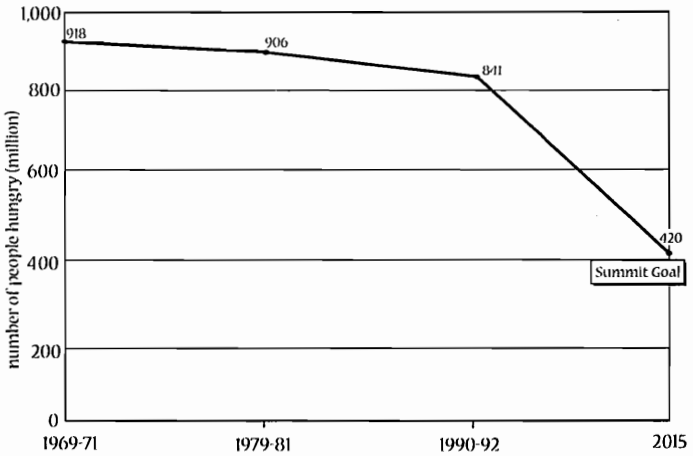
Descending the Summit: Global Food Security After Rome[1]

Thoric Cederström, Food Security Policy Advisor, Save the Children
Jashinta D'Costa, Associate Food Security Specialist, Save the Children

In a world of abundance with enough food in the world to provide every human being with a minimally adequate diet, hunger remains pervasive. In North Korea, for example, people are starving to death. Their condition has lead to desperate circumstances. In an interview, refugees reported, "We've stolen things from each other [to survive]. If one plants seeds in the field, the other steals it in the night" (Hall 1998). Future recovery is sacrificed to immediate consumption.

While the case of North Korea may seem extreme, hunger and resultant malnutrition are a serious problem throughout the developing world. Seemingly ignored by many policy makers and even researchers, malnutrition has been called the Silent Emergency (UNICEF 1997). Aggregated, the data on hunger are almost overwhelming. In the developing world, 841 million people are chronically undernourished, around 185 million preschool children are seriously underweight for their age, and over 2 billion people are suffering from micronutrient deficiencies. This state of affairs provoked serious concern during the 1996 World Food Summit in Rome, where participants pledged "to reduce the number of undernourished people to half their present level no later than 2015" (FAO 1996a) (Figure 1). However, recent reports since the Summit indicate that serious challenges still impede the rapid improvement of the global food security situation.

Figure 1. CUTTING HUNGER BY HALF



Food Security Concepts

Food security means assured access for every person, primarily by production or purchase, to enough nutritious food to sustain an active and healthy life with dignity. It includes food *availability*, food *access*, and appropriate food *utilization*. Food security also requires non-food entitlements such as health services, education, water, and sanitation. At the global level, food security depends on global food supplies. National, regional, or local availability of food depends on food production, stockholding, and trade. National access to food through international markets is determined by world food prices and foreign exchange availability. Household food availability requires that food be available at local or regional markets, which is determined by market operations, infrastructure, and information flow. Access to food by households and individuals is usually conditioned by income.

Given its multi-dimensional nature, food security at one level does not guarantee food security at any other level. For example, within the household some members may be deprived of their full share of needed food. Similarly, regional and national food security does not ensure household or individual food security; the available food may not be distributed according to needs and households and individuals may not have equitable access to it. Equally important, global food security does not mean universal food security. The following discussion clearly illustrates this point.

World Food Security Situation

According to Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), there are 841 million undernourished people in the developing world (1996b). While the total number of undernourished people has declined from 918 million in 1969-71 (35%) to 906 million in (28%) 1979-81 and to 841 million (20%) in

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1990-92, in some regions the number of hungry people is actually increasing. In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, the absolute number and the proportion of hungry people have increased from 103 million to 215 million and from 38% to 43% between 1969-71 and 1990-92. And the per capita food consumption in sub-Saharan Africa declined from 1,490 to 1,470 kcal per day, which was already far below the minimum requirement of 2,350 kcal. In East and Southeast Asia, the number of hungry people fell from 476 million to 269 million and the proportion declined 41% to 16%. This occurred despite the fact that most of the world's hungry people live in the great Asia region (523 million, 62%). In Latin America and the Caribbean, the proportion of hungry people was constant between 1979-81 and 1990-92 at around 15%, but the absolute number increased from 48 million to 64 million due to population growth. In the Middle East and North Africa, the proportion of hungry people has remained fairly stable, but the absolute number increased—from 27 million in 1979-81 to 37 million in 1990-92.

Micronutrient malnutrition or "hidden hunger," claims up to 5 percent of national income in some developing countries due to disability and lost lives and decreased productivity. some populous countries, such as Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and Nigeria, have reached higher levels of daily per capita Dietary Energy Supply (DES). On the down side, however, the number of countries that have less than 2,000 kcal daily per capita DES has increased from 14 members to 20. In Mongolia and Togo, for example, daily per capita DES declined from 2,200 to 2,000 kcal. In a parallel manner, per capita food production has increased in countries which already have the highest daily per capita DES. Likewise, food production declined in countries with DES below 2,000 kcal. Among the 20 countries with DES less than 2,000 kcal, only Ethiopia, Angola, Cambodia, Chad, Malawi, Zambia, and Zimbabwe increased their per capita food production. Other macro indicators corroborate this contrary tendency. For example, per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is strongest where daily per capita DES is above 2,500 kcal. Countries with low daily per capita DES depend heavily on food imports.

Recently, the Committee on Food Security (CFS) of FAO in their analysis found that in 1997-98, though global food supply improved and most indicators of the global food security situation were satisfactory, cereal output declined in the LIFDCs as a group (FAO 1998). The analysis was based on seven indicators and confined to cereals (Box). The ratio of world cereal stocks to world cereal utilization increasing; however it is still below 17-18% of the minimum necessary to safeguard world food security. The adverse effects of El Niño and financial crisis in Asia were observed in affected countries.

The International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) and The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) each released reports in 1997 predicting scenarios for the global food security situation over the next several decades (Pinstrup-Andersen *et al.* 1997, USDA 1997). According to IFPRI's report, world food security to the year 2020 will remain bleak if the global community continues with business as usual, in spite of hopes of significant increases in food production. Both reports and FAO (FAO 1996c) project that hunger will deepen in sub-Saharan Africa. USDA estimates that two-thirds of the region's population will be undernourished and the food gap to meet nutritional needs will

Global Food Security Situation

Global Food Security Indicators	Changes in Indicators (1996/97-1997/98)
1. Ratio of World Cereals Stocks to World Cereal Consumption Trends	↗
2. Ratio of Five Major Grain Exporters (Argentina, Australia, Canada, EC and the USA) Supplies to Requirement	↗
3. Closing Costs as a percentage of Total Disappearance of Major Cereal Exporters (total)	↗
4. Changes in Cereal Production in CIS, China and India	↗
5. Changes in Cereal Production in LIFDC's	↘
6. Changes in Cereal Production in LIFDC's less China and India	↘
7. Export Price Movements (Annual Averages), Wheat, Rice and Maize	↘

Source: FAO 1998.

increase. The FAO study (1997) observes, however, that sub-Saharan Africa's food security has improved in terms of expanding crop and livestock production with a majority of countries sharing in the expansion. IFPRI (1997) interprets the economic recovery in sub-Saharan Africa as fragile and insufficient to meet the growing demand for food. The USDA report notes that the number of people who are unable to meet their nutritional needs will increase from 1.1 billion to 1.2 billion in 2007, and per capita food consumption in many low-income developing countries will decline, leading to growing gaps. In contrast, FAO projects that number of malnourished people will decline from 841 million (20%) in 1990-92 to 680 million people (12%) in 2010 (FAO 199c). According to the IFPRI report, the worldwide, per capita availability of food will increase by around 7 percent between 1993 and 2020, from about 2,700 kcal per person per day in 1993 to about 2,900 kcal. Child malnutrition rates are projected to decline in all major developing regions, except sub-Saharan Africa, where it will increase by 45% between 1993 and 2020.

Emerging Issues

IFPRI's 1997 report identifies two important issues of food security: the growing food gap and fluctuations in food availability. Each deserves serious attention from policy makers and researchers.

Growing food gap: The gap between food production and consumption is growing mainly for two reasons: an increasing demand for cereals, especially for livestock feeding and a growing reliance of developing countries on food imports.

Developing countries face a spiraling demand for meat as real incomes increase. People are expected to consume twice as

much meat in 2020 as in 1993, which will cause the demand for feed grain to double. At the same time, the worldwide production of cereals is projected to slow because only moderate improvements in agricultural productivity are expected. Current growth rates of cereal yields are already low compared to the 1967-82 period. Livestock will consume an increasingly larger portion of the world's grain supply during the next several decades.

Over the next 25 years, developing countries' share of food will have to come increasingly from imports from developed nations. This is alarming for low-income developing nations, which includes most of sub-Saharan Africa, because most likely they will be hard pressed to generate the necessary foreign reserves to purchase this food from the world market. Moreover, many poor people within these countries probably will not be able to afford food or have access to markets where this food is sold.

Fluctuations in Food Availability: The factors creating greater fluctuations in food availability are: low grain stocks, weather fluctuations—such as El Niño, water scarcity, declining soil fertility, decreasing food aid and development assistance, increasing food demand in two most populous countries — China and India, rapid urbanization in low-income developing countries, and civil strife.

Rising Cereal Prices and Falling Cereal Stock: Cereal prices have become more volatile than in the past, while stockpiles of surplus grain plunged to a 20-year low of 250 million tons in 1995-96. Although the stocks have been gradually built up since then, the ratio of stocks to consumption remains below the level considered by FAO to provide a margin of safety necessary for global food security.

Water Scarcity: Growing water scarcity may be a key constraint to global food production. Currently, 28 countries with a total population exceeding 300 million people face water stress; by 2025 that number could increase to about 50 countries with a population of 3 billion. The growth of irrigated areas is likely to decrease significantly due to increasing water scarcity. Among measures proposed to meet rapid increases in water demand arising from urbanization is to reduce water use in agriculture, which is the largest water user. The agricultural sector accounted for 72% of global water withdrawals and 87% of withdrawals in developing countries in 1995.

Increasing Globalization: In response to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and structural adjustment programs, a large number of developing countries have liberalized their foreign trade in food and agriculture by opening their internal markets to international imports. Yet in many cases the expected benefits of trade liberalization have yet to compensate consumers or producers in developing countries with improved food security. Also, the path of economic growth chosen by some developing countries may not sustainable. The recent financial turmoil in Southeast Asia is an example, where sharp price increases in Indonesia caused food riots.

Declining Food Aid and Development Assistance: Levels of food aid have declined from 16.8 million tons in 1993 to 7.5 million tons in 1996. This amount represents the smallest volume delivered in a decade. This substantial reduction in food aid, with growing tendencies to channel it for emergency assistance, has disturbing implications for food security. The need for food assistance has not diminished. Currently, 29 countries are facing food emergencies due to man-made or natural disasters. Among those, 17 are in sub-Saharan Africa. Also, the resurgence of El-Niño and its impact may require a large volume of food aid. Non-emergency food aid is still required for the millions of chronically food insecure to address their immediate food needs while parallel interventions are made concurrently to improve their livelihood systems.

Official development financing to developing countries has noticeably declined since 1991 at the end of Cold War. On the other hand, net private capital flows have been growing extraordinarily fast, increasing more than fivefold between 1990 and 1996. Private flows, however, are bypassing sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. These two regions together received only 10 percent of the private flows in 1996 and are dependent on shrinking flows of international assistance. This situation of capital scarcity minimizes the capacity for broad-based and sustained economic growth in these regions and thereby limits their ability to improve long-term food security. The agricultural sector suffers the most from the decline in international assistance. In real terms, external assistance for agriculture in developing countries was almost halved from a peak of US$19 billion in 1986 to US$10 billion in 1994.

"Hunger emergencies": Civil strife, unusual weather conditions, and the hardships of the transitions from central planning also cause food insecurity. El Niño, a large-scale abnormal warming of the sea surface off the South American coast, is the suspected culprit of sizable food production shortfalls and deterioration in food security in many parts of the world. The 1991-92 El Niño resulted in drought in Southern Africa that caused 60-percent or more drops in cereal production in several countries. In 1998, El Niño caused forest fires in Indonesia and excessive rainfall in Somalia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Ethiopia and Eritrea where food supply situation has been seriously affected. The number of countries facing food emergencies has increased to 37 compared to 31 towards the end of 1997, mainly due to the effects of El Niño (FAO 1998).

Civil strife restricts people's access to food. As of April 1996, 22 million people were affected in 22 countries by civil strife and ethnic violence (Cohen 1997). Their long-term food security is threatened by destroyed infrastructure and failed political and economic systems. For example, three consecutive years of poor weather, loss of Soviet and Chinese aid, an inefficient food production and international isolation have placed 5 million people at risk of starvation in North Korea. About 2.8 million people already died and there were reports of serious undernutrition and cannibalism (Cohen 1997, Hall 1998).

China and India. China's cereal demand is also a great concern for future global food security, as it is likely to increase. India's possible economic prosperity due to its major economic reform will increase its demand for cereals and meats. Their impact on the global market can only increase the demand for food and, given a constant or slowly increasing supply, bid up prices.

The Transition in Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union. Former Soviet Union and Eastern European countries pose a major quandary to the future direction of international food flows. IFPRI projects that these countries have the potential to become

major exporters of cereals by 2020. However, it is equally likely that they may become major food importers if their actual production rates increase more slowly than the projected rates.

Poverty and Inequality. Currently, 1.3 billion people are absolutely poor, with incomes of US$1 a day or less per person, while another 2 billion people are only marginally better off. Their weak purchasing power in a world of rising food costs can only result in increased food insecurity.

Conclusions

While the reports reviewed paint a somewhat uncertain picture of the future of global food security based on physical as well as economic factors, other studies show that important improvements are possible given sufficient political will. Amartya Sen (Drèze and Sen 1989) illustrates this point: Sri Lanka, with its smaller average daily calorie consumption, has an average life expectancy of 70 years that is greater than that of Bhutan (44 years) and South Africa (55 years). With a Gross National Product of only US$400, Sri Lanka has a better life expectancy and under 5 child mortality rate than any other low-income country. Especially noteworthy, Sri Lanka managed to maintain its food security for most citizens despite a debilitating 13-year civil war (D'Costa 1996). A stable social service framework made it possible.

The issues of global food security are complex and require more detailed analysis than that provided here. Nonetheless, specific recommendations can be made. To reach the goals established by the World Food Summit, bold actions, strong political will, and financial resources are required. Bread for the World (1997) has suggested the following responses for promoting global food security:

-invest in agriculture development: a majority of the world's inhabitants are still engaged in small-scale agriculture. They require technical assistance, credit, and access to markets in order to compete in a global economy.

-increase the incomes of the poor: more and more people in the developing world will depend on purchased food for their food security. Increasing their incomes through job creation or microcredit loans directly contributes to improved food security as well as better opportunities for health, housing, and education.

-invest in health, education, water, and sanitation: supplying people with clean water and proper waste disposal benefits both health and food security. Education improves income generation, agricultural productivity, and food use. Health services such as family planning can also positively affect household food security by facilitating the balance between household size and food supply.

-increase food aid and development funds: in order to carry out these recommendations, the developed world needs to renew its commitment to the development process by expanding food aid donations and increasing levels of development funding. Food deficit areas such as sub-Saharan Africa need to be targeted for special attention as well as specific regions within countries.

Food security is a necessary condition for national security and international peace. It cannot be ignored. As Lester Brown (1997) puts in, "military and ideological conflict are no longer the principal dangers for our national security. Food security, with its profound threat to the economic, social and physical well-being of the world's inhabitants, is emerging as the defining issue as we move toward the next century." The challenge to the PVO community is to design creative programs that address the multiple dimensions of food insecurity. This includes not only sustainable food production, improved incomes through microenterprise and small business development, and better health services, but more importantly, enhancing the capacity of local institutions—such as community organizations, women groups, and producer associations—to respond to their own food security needs. Participatory involvement of both the food insecure and food secure is required to address the issues of long-term food security in a truly sustainable and equitable manner.

[1] *An earlier version of this article was published in Nutritional Anthropology, Spring 1998, vol. 21 (2).*

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Indonesia and Title II Food Security Activities

by Paige Harrigan

Well known as a long-term recipient of U.S. food assistance, Indonesia graduated from Title II country status in 1994[1] due to increasingly strong socio-economic gains and the greater ability to meet food import requirements. By late 1997 and early 1998, however, Indonesia's situation had taken a visible downturn because of climatic, environmental, economic, and political troubles. Indonesia has become a Title II country again. Sharp increases in food prices, a rapidly growing unemployment rate, a reduction of government subsidies, and a projected cereal shortfall of 3.5 million metric tons[2] of rice are compounding what was an already perilous drought situation. In a March 1998 assessment, WFP and FAO concluded that 7.5 million people over 15 provinces will likely experience acute household food insecurity over the next 12 months in Indonesia.

That same report concluded that 2 million metric tons (MT) of food are needed from other countries to close the expected gap. Food aid and commercial food purchases with favorable credit/loan terms are currently underway to bring more food into the country. PVOs, international organizations, and the Government of Indonesia are all working at multiple levels to improve the complicated situation in Indonesia and alleviate the suffering of the most needy.

Drought and forest fires, resulting in food shortages, delayed harvests, health problems and related deaths were documented throughout Indonesia in late 1997. Described as "the worst drought in 50 years brought on by El Niño[3]", those most negatively affected were identified in the provinces of East Timor, Nusa Tenggara Timur, Nusa Tenggara Barat, South Sumatra, Java Tengah, Maluku, and Irian Jaya. Some in these communities have suffered total crop failure.

To illustrate, in Irian Jaya the dry season started in May of 1997, much earlier than the usual June and July, and the dryness continued throughout the end of the year. In response to a disaster declaration in October 1997, USAID sent an assessment team to Irian Jaya and subsequently funded three relief projects through the Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA). Of these projects, World Vision Relief and Development (WVRD) provided seed for approximately 16,400 Irian Jayan families to plant during the rainy season. This program began in December 1997 and is scheduled to extend through the beginning of June this year. At the same time in preparation for the spring 1998 harvest, short growing seeds (carrots, beans, corn, cabbage, etc.) were flown into interior areas of Irian Jaya, and distributed by missionary groups working with WVRD. Grants were also made to ICRC for medical supplies and relief food distributions and to the Mission Aviation Fellowship (MAF) for transport of food, seeds and other relief materials.

Other assessments concluded that the drought is most severe in Sulawesi and in the eastern island provinces of Nusa Tenggara Barat (Lombok and Sumbawa), Nusa Tenggara Timur (Sumba, Flores and West Timor), and East Timor. In a February 1998 assessment in Nusa Tenggara Barat, Nusa Tenggara Timur, and Java Tengah, CRS and CARE found evidence of deteriorating food and livelihood security among the population. The purchasing power for farmers had been reduced by severe price increases in food and household items and reduced remittances sent in from family members. There have been reports in these areas that farmers had begun selling productive assets, including land and most if not all of their small and large animals, to buy food. Statistics attributing the certain deterioration of nutritional status to the crisis were limited in the initial assessments, although there were anecdotal reports. Oxfam staff found that 75% of families in West Timor are eating only one meal a day, and the meals frequently including "putak", a tree bark that is generally used as cattle feed.[4]

Through these assessments and others, many of the characteristics present in a complex humanitarian emergency have been identified in Indonesia. The current emergency could be broadly described as the manifested outcome of climatic, economic, environmental, and political shocks. This has underscored the need to target program interventions at several equally important access points, to address food security and other desired outcomes.

USAID/FFP re-initiated Title II activities and funded a food response by committing $25 million dollars in emergency food aid resources to the Indonesia Food Support Activity (TEFSA). This was created specifically for relief activities targeted to vulnerable groups most severely affected by the drought. Since that intial investment, USAID has expanded the assistance to include an additional $25 million in U.S. food aid (rice) to be distributed to the urban food insecure. Also targeted to urban populations, USAID has agreed to release $25 million in loan guarantees for urban infrastructure development and the temporary employment of over 1 million Indonesians. The urban infrastructure activities will focus on the environment and the work will include the development of drainage canals and footpaths, as well as drinking water and garbage collection/disposal services. Concessional loans for immediate food purchases will be provided through the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA). Other activities include grants to support family planning, HIV/AIDS, MCH and other health program activities. To date, the U.S. Government has committed to funding a total of $105 million dollars of humanitarian aid to the Indonesians.

Church World Service (CWS), Catholic Relief Services (CRS), and CARE have all been funded by FFP to implement 12-month emergency food assistance activities starting in June 1998. These PVOs will be conducting Food for Work (FFW) activities; using rice in drought affected communities. Across the PVOs the FFW activities include the improvement of water catchment, conservation, and sanitation systems, tree planting and terracing, and road and bridge rehabilitation. CWS will be working in the Sulawesi districts of Jeneponto, Takalor, Enrakany, and Tana Toraja in partnership with the Communion of Churches in Indonesia (PGIW) and other local churches. The CWS partnership will implement the FFW activity using about 3,500 MT of rice.

After consideration of concurrent government and donor activities, CRS has concentrated its efforts in eastern Indonesia (Nusa Tenggara Barat, Nusa Tenggara Timur), and S. Sumatra, and will work with local counterparts in addition to linking some activities with CARE. CRS is targeting those who are the most vulnerable and most likely to not be a recipient of other assistance. With the FFW activities, CRS will use 15,000MT of rice for supplementary feeding projects for pregnant and lactating women and children under five. In addition, a CRS emergency food distribution component is expected to reach 125,000 people.

CARE has been implementing a multi-pronged effort to improve the food security of the most needy. After the initial onset of the current emergency, CARE[5] developed a Cash for Work (CFW) plan to address the observed asset reductions through basic infrastructure activities that would concurrently improve household food security. CARE will be using U.S. food resources (18,000 MT of rice) in the FFW activity that is expected to assist 25,000 households in East Timor and Flores. Local food has also been purchased to pay labor in a short- term FFW project, and to supply a 3-month direct food distribution activity benefiting 10,000 households in Flores. CARE/Indonesia is monitoring the political/civil security situation in Jakarta and in nearby areas.

WFP is working to distribute a large amount of emergency relief resources in Indonesia. WFP has estimated that 225,000 metric tons of rice and blended foods will be necessary to feed approximately 4.6 million of the most vulnerable Indonesians, including pregnant women, nursing mothers, children under 5, and families who have only enough food to make one meal per day. The UN agency is planning to direct a number of community FFW activities including fire hazard awareness and prevention programs. WFP has requested $88 million in a recent appeal for these emergency efforts that are to continue until Spring 1999.

The government of Indonesia has responded to this crisis with poverty alleviation measures by subsidizing markets and distributing food staples and seed in some areas but it is unclear how long this will continue. International organizations, other country donors, and several PVOs and NGOs have also provided substantial support and assistance to mitigate the negative outcomes of the credit and loan reforms, subsequent economic crisis, and drought related impacts.

CARE, CRS, WVRD, and USAID all contributed to this article.

1 *Carryover Title II commodities continued to be programmed until FY96. U.S. Annual Food Assistance Report 1996.*
2 *WFP/FAO April/ March assessment estimated that Indonesia would need to import 3.5 million tons of rice in the 1998/99 marketing year. However, estimates vary. Oxfam U.K., for example, estimated that Indonesia will need to import 8 million tons of rice.*
3 *"Humanitarian Assistance for Indonesia", a statement by Stuart Eizenstat, Undersecretary of State for Economic, Business, and Agricultural Affairs, March 24, 1998.*
4 *Oxfam News Release 25th March 1998 "Debt, Drought and Inadequate Aid Brings Indonesia To Brink of Human Development Disaster Says Oxfam".*
5 *Funds from CARE USA's El Nino Response Fund, the Emergency Group of CARE USA, and CARE Canada's Emergency Response Unit, with a consultant designed CFW activity.*

International Workshop on Food and Human Security

by T.J. Ryan

In 1998, significant changes in the food aid landscape from the resource allocation process to the context in which food aid is used as well as recipient country perspective inspired the organization of the International Workshop on Food and Human Security: the Role of Food and Finance for Food. This workshop was organized in Oslo, Norway April 27-29, 1998 and sponsored by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI) in London and the Norwegian Institute of International Affairs (NUPI) in Oslo. It focused on the future of food aid and was organized by Edward Clay of ODI and Olav Stokke of NUPI. Ten years ago a similar workshop was held and led to the publication of a book entitled "Food Aid Reconsidered". There were 35 participants at the 1998 workshop representing researchers, practitioners, and donors. As a result, the workshop was designed to examine these issues from a broad spectrum of participants.

A series of papers were presented at the workshop and were discussed by participants. The first day focused on the evolution of aid objectives in the nineties. Day one also explored the changing operating environment and examined the role of NGOs in a context of increased emphasis on food and human security. Ed Clay opened the workshop by describing the current context where many issues have evolved but the institutions (donor regulations and allocation process, Food Aid Convention, Committee on Food Aid) that have been set up around food aid have not changed. The commitments in the Food Aid Convention provided a floor which was consistently below actual food aid shipments between the mid 1970s and the early 90s. However, overall levels fell to and possibly below those FAC committed levels in 1996-97 when food aid may have hit its lowest levels in fifty years. In economic terms, food aid has been proven to be an inefficient resource transfer due to cost and so the issue of food aid as an appropriate response to poverty is raised. Is finance for food more appropriate? Is food aid still a surplus disposal program?

In the discussion that followed, concern was raised about the level of poverty and that the World Food Summit failed to adequately address the issue of food insecurity. We are in a period of rapidly changing economies, the trade environment and agricultural economic policies are also changing in supplier countries. With projections of 600 million hungry people over the next 15-20 years, is food aid the appropriate response and what is the added value? Food aid is not just a northern issue but also a southern issue. Another change is the rich countries decreasing willingness to share their resources. In the past, food aid has provided additionality where you either have food or nothing. Cash resources have not been readily available to replace declining food resources. Currently, declining food aid resources are not being offset by an increase in cash resources for food security programs.

In many cases, the increasing importance of the market in liberalizing economies has not helped the rain fed small farmer and may force many to seek other options for income. There has been an increase in the instability of local prices and the small farmer has greater difficulty absorbing these fluctuations. There should be greater transparency of public policy that may provide greater predictability. As a result, in countries experiencing rapid economic growth and liberalized trade regimes, the condition of the vulnerable population must be monitored as they are often excluded from the benefits of economic growth and increased trade.

What is the role for international NGOs in the use of food aid in this changing context? NGOs have been a source of creative ideas and generally have more flexibility than donors or International Organizations. The European Union (EU) has established a broader food security regulation that offers cash or food aid in kind and extends eligibility to southern NGOs as well. The EU has two separate mechanisms that offer cash funding for projects, one offers no cost share while the other requires it. Not surprisingly, many NGOs are now turning to the DGVIII b1' source which does not require cost share.

On the U.S. side, PVOs have the Food Aid Consultative Group process which mandates that Title II issues and policies be discussed with the Cooperating Sponsors at least twice per year. The U.S. PVOs have been working with USAID to resolve management, performance measurement and reporting issues to facilitate project development and implementation. USAID has been faced with declining resources and has a small staff managing a very large program. The constituency in the U.S. for the Title II program includes the farmers, shippers, processors, commodity groups, and PVOs. The PVOs are beginning to look at how their relationship will evolve with the private sector.

Day two of the workshop began with a review of the role of the World Food Programme. An evaluation of WFP was carried out by an independent group and a number of recommendations stemming from the evaluation were reviewed. The current resource allocation process needs to be updated if WFP is going to be able to have more consistent planning processes. Donors will need to make multi-year commitments. It is clear that this is complex given how much of WFP's activities involve relief operations which are more difficult to plan around given their uncertainty and rapid change. The evaluation also found that while WFP logistics were strong, internal decision making and project review processes were weak. Relief activities suffered from poor assessments and even the interaction with FAO assessments was weak. The development portfolio was seen as too broad to be effective. The evaluation also found that there was too much emphasis on the food aspect and not enough on the non-food complementary activities. There is not enough impact evaluation and inadequate economic analysis. WFP needs to move towards fewer projects in fewer sectors with a stronger technical support staff at headquarters. It is clear that WFP should continue as a relief agency but real doubts were raised about its ability to design and implement development projects.

In the discussion that followed the presentation of the evaluation, it was recommended that WFP focus on social welfare programs in addition to relief operations. WFP responded that food aid is a good resource to use in the face of poverty given that 80% of the poor's income goes to food and that food aid can also be an effective tool to empower women. As a targeting tool, food aid can reach remote, impoverished areas and the household level.

The question of social welfare policy is not just a WFP issue but must be addressed by all development organizations. Is food aid cheaper than large investments in low potential areas? How do we deal with the prospect of 600 to 800 million hungry? Food aid and food assistance as resources should be de-linked when trying to strategize about how to solve this problem.

An IFPRI paper on the world food situation projects, under the most likely scenario, that 150 million children will be malnourished in the year 2020. Even using a more optimistic scenario of greater economic growth and agricultural production, 100 million children will be malnourished. Currently the world produces enough food for everyone and so we are faced with an access and distribution problem. The current changes in the economies of the world mentioned earlier such as trade liberalisation and its impact on small farmers, the need for modern farming practices and the diminishing level of food aid resources all contribute to an unstable environment and growing poverty. Better seed varieties and improved farming techniques must be taken into account when projecting food production levels. The role of food aid should seek to target the poorest of the poor.

In addition to development aid there are other factors such as private capital flows, trade, public policy and other macro issues that will influence projections. We must be careful not to exaggerate the role of aid in the overall scheme of things. The IFPRI paper did not take private sector issues into account when making its projections.

A paper on the role of GATT, WTO and the Marrakech declaration followed. Since the Marrakech declaration is not well defined (i.e.- what is the level of food aid to meet the legitimate needs of the population?), donors will need to be flexible in implementing the decision according to the situation. In the discussion that followed, it was pointed out that the longer term supply elasticity will need to be analyzed. In determining where to invest the limited resources, greater attention should be paid to the countries lowest on the scale of the self-sufficiency ratio presented in the paper.

Countries that are going through structural adjustment programs are more vulnerable to price instability and thus may qualify for assistance in the context of Marrakech. In addition, the level of poverty and lack of development potential of some countries will be a major constraining factor for these countries to graduate from Marrakech while some others will seek to benefit from the Marrakech decision. Originally the Food Aid Convention was designed to establish a floor of donor commitments and meeting those commitments has not traditionally been a problem. More recently, donors have lowered their commitments unilaterally and this has affected the availability of commodities.

On the U.S. side, food aid is down due to policy decisions. Food stocks are now rebuilding after falling and corn prices are declining from $180/mt in 1995 to $118/mt in 1998. The PVOs and others want the Food Security Commodity Reserve replenished to improve the U.S. capacity to respond to emergencies. There is draft legislation being proposed in the Congress whereby unspent food aid balances would roll over to satisfy replenishment needs. This would circumvent a difficult budget battle for the time being.

The issue of food aid being donor driven and a surplus disposal program has largely changed in the wake of legislative changes and budget constraints. The relationship between the donor and recipient countries has also changed as many countries are more sensitive to market liberalisation and price impacts as well as availability issues. Program evaluations need to change as a result of this evolution. Institutional response to change is slow due to the natural tendancy for self-preservation. The UN has traditionally had difficulty restructuring when called for and should widen participation in food aid discussions. WFP should include FAO to broaden discussions to a food security approach rather than just food aid.

Evaluations can only be successful if the evaluator and terms of reference are chosen and designed objectively. Too often evaluations have been carried out to meet political or institutional needs rather than as a learning tool. The difficulty of evaluating emergencies was raised. Emergencies are treated as events and evaluations of events are not helpful to correct the problems of that particular response. As such, emergency programs need to have real time evaluations to quickly diagnose and correct mistakes. At present, evaluations have become very fashionable. There are two primary aspects of evaluations; 1) the technical aspects such as methodology, indicator selection, control group, etc.; and 2) the overall framework or environment in which the evaluation takes place. If the premise of the evaluation is not to learn but rather to fulfill an agenda or political issue, then all the technical aspects become irrelevant. The aims of the evaluation must be clear and handled transparently.

The final session looked at whether the institutions set up for food aid are essentially out of date. Given the emphasis on markets, the uncertainty of resource allocations and the changing environment in many target countries, there is a powerful case for change in these institutions such as the Food Aid Convention, WTO and the Marrakech decision. There is a need to look at the longer term and how to deal with poverty alleviation in this evolving environment. There was also discussion about what future roles the private sector could play in food aid. The workshop explored a number of innovations that would involve the private sector more. Direct contribution programs for farmers which are stimulated by tax breaks and other ways to get the private sector more involved on the contribution end would be beneficial.

In the U.S., the food aid budget represents around 14% of development assistance although budget pressure has lowered DA funding while Democracy programs, Population and Health programs, and Child Survival programs have become priority programs for funding. The food aid lobby has been effective and resource levels have been stable while other programs have been cut. This has provided an opportunity for the PVOs and USAID to examine ways to better integrate food aid into an overall development strategy.

On the E.U. side, the movement to integrate food aid into a food security strategy has been done on the policy side. The shift to implementation of the new policy has been more difficult both for the E.U and the NGOs.

Some general observations were made on the part of WFP about future programs and challenges. The issue of long term programs vs. short term programs becomes less clear of a split in that programs must be better integrated overall. Environment issues will be gaining in importance to address sustainability. The development challenge of moving marginalized populations to the mainstream economy becomes more important with the decrease in available resources and greater reliance on trade. Food aid will likely be used more in social safety net programs and less in development programs. Entry and exit strategies must be developed from the beginning of program development. Emergencies will need to be handled differently in the future. In particular, donors need to be more open about funding preparedness and mitigation strategies as well as a willingness to take risks on early warning to head off emergencies which leave people decapitalized and without livelihoods.

In conclusion, programs and responses must be designed at the local level as an appropriate response to the problem rather than being made to fit within an institutional framework designed years ago. It may be necessary to eliminate targets at the institutional level to allow for the local needs and planned response to be the determinants for resource allocation. The workshop participants agreed that food aid will continue to be needed for emergencies although more effort and resources are needed for preparedness and mitigation programs. It was clear that a process should be initiated to establish a consensus on where development food aid is going and what its role will be in the future. Such a process would have to include donor countries, researchers, suppliers, implementing agencies, recipient countries, and development institutes and would require general agreement on the objectives of such an undertaking before getting underway.

1 *The DGVIII b1 is the office in the EU responsible for Food Aid and Food Security programs that provide 100% funding.*

PVO Micronutrient Conference

by Paige Harrigan

In May 1998, the Child Survival Collaborations and Resources Group (CORE) held an informative conference in Washington, D.C., at the PAHO headquarters. The conference was titled "The Path to Maternal and Child Health: The PVO role in improving Iron and Vitamin A status." The issues and topics covered are of value to Title II PVO staff involved in health and nutrition activities.

The overall goal of the conference was to strengthen the capacity of organizations to improve maternal health and child survival in developing countries by preventing micronutrient deficiencies, particularly Vitamin A and iron, in women of childbearing age. While recognition of micronutrient deficiencies is apparent and growing, gaps remain in the knowledge regarding micronutrient deficiencies, supplementation guidelines, the availability and costs of supplements/fortification, and implications for programmers.

This conference presented some of the latest research findings in Vitamin A and iron supplementation, and then tasked working groups with developing and presenting suggested guidelines for PVOs to use in their programs targeting women of childbearing age. Ideally, research findings would be easily transferable to PVO program implementation, but of course that is not always the case. For the purposes of the conference the following working groups were created: the Vitamin A Supplementation and Operations Research Group, Iron Supplementation Standards Group, Multi-nutrient Supplementation Standards Group, Dietary Intervention and Food Fortification Group, Micronutrient Advisory Council Group, Iron Operations Research Group, and Industry Partnership Group.

While the working group presentations were full of vital information, no group felt truly comfortable suggesting definitive guidelines at the conference. Rather, the working groups more appropriately suggested various process mechanisms to keep the information flow active to build guidelines that will be based on sound research that is operationally feasible for the PVOs. For example, the Iron Supplementation Standards group concluded that further research is necessary in order to come to consensus on the issue of daily or weekly iron supplementation. An area of continued research suggested by the Vitamin A Supplementation and Operations Research group is to come to a deeper understanding to the benefits and limitations of universal vs. targeted supplementation of vitamin A to pregnant women. Ideal duration and frequency of supplementation is a subject that warrants continued research with many of the micronutrients discussed at the workshop.

As for the packaging of micronutrients, an area of interest is the optimal number of capsules to give a woman in a package in order to reduce spoilage yet maintain cost effectiveness. The effectiveness of putting warning labels on the packaging, and how to improve the transfer of counseling messages when distributing the nutrients were also briefly discussed.

The CORE Group has 6 active working groups in operation, and the technical subject areas cover 1.) Maternal Reproductive Health/Family Planning, 2.) Monitoring & Evaluation, 3.) Nutrition, 4.) Quality Assurance, 5.) Behavior Change Communication, and 6.) Integrated Management of Childhood Illness. The CORE Group Nutrition Working Group will follow up with many of the action items identified by the working groups during the conference. Conference proceedings are expected to be published within the next eight weeks. One can obtain a copy directly from the CORE Group and the FSRC will also house a copy.

There are over 30 PVOs in the CORE Group membership and many of those PVOs are also members of FAM. Established in June of 1997, the CORE group has the common goal of improving child and maternal health in underserved populations by working together to increase the effectiveness and impact of Child Survival programs.

For further information on general CORE issues or for more information on the conference, please contact:
Victoria Graham, The CORE Group
220 I Street, NE Suite 270, Washington, D.C. 20002
Tel: (202) 608-1800, Fax: (202)543-0121

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

Save the Children -US is organizing a three day workshop on nutritional assessment entitled "**Introduction to Anthropometry: Theory, Measurement Procedures and Data Analysis**". This three day workshop will offer an introduction to practical anthropometry theory, training, issues and measurement procedures as well as basic sampling, data entry and analysis using a software package. Irwin Schorr will facilitate the workshop which will be held in the Washington, DC area and is tentatively planned for September 14-16, 1998. Limited outside participation is available. Final confirmation is required by August 1. Please contact Jashinta D'Costa at (202) 530-4374 or jdcosta@dc.savechildren.org for additional information.

Commensurate with the arrival of several new personnel, the **Office of Food for Peace (FFP)** has reshuffled Country Backstop Officer (CBO) responsibilities. The new CBO line-up is as follows:

Joe Gettier will continue to backstop development activities in the West-Central African region with the exception of Angola. His country responsibilities include Benin, Cape Verde, Chad, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, and Mauritania. Ron Senykoff, who joined FFP on June 1, will be looking after Angola, Mozambique, and Rwanda. David Washburn is currently backstopping Kenya, Uganda, Madagascar and looking after development activities that may arise in Malawi and Zambia. Once the newest CBO Charles Signer arrives, Mr. Washburn will join Walter Shepard in backstopping development activities in the LAC Region. Walter Shepard is backstopping LAC with the exception of Haiti. His portfolio includes Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Peru, and will eventually be shared with Mr. Washburn. Tim Lavelle will continue to look after Haiti, Ethiopia, Bangladesh, and India. Susan Morawetz has recently moved on to a new position in the Latin America bureau while Elizabeth Kvitashvili has gone to the Office of Transition Initiatives.

Food Security Resource Center News

The FSRC collection includes a wide range of nutrition resources that can assist food aid staff and other FSRC users in the assessment, planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of nutrition and food security programs.

The bibliography below lists a sample of the nutrition materials available at the FSRC. For more specific information or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact me at

Jessica Graef, Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212, Washington, DC 20002
Tel: 202-544-6972, Fax: 202-544-7065, jgraef@foodaid.org

I am currently concentrating on building the FSRC collection of nutrition materials and would appreciate your input on suggested resources that you think other FSRC users would benefit from reading.

FSRC NUTRITION RESOURCES

Nutrition matters: People, food and famine. *1995. Helen Young and Susanne Jaspars. Intermediate Technology Publications. 151p.* Presents a conceptual framework of the role of nutrition in famine. Includes chapters on nutritional assessment, surveillance methodology, and recommendations.

State of the world's children 1998. *UNICEF. Oxford University Press. 131p.* Examines the causes and consequences of malnutrition. Discusses solutions such as community involvement, food fortification, growth monitoring/promotion, and supplementation. Contains nutrition and health statistics.

Nutrition and poverty: Papers from the ACC/SCN 24th session symposium, Kathmandu, Nepal, March 1997. *ACC/SCN Symposium Report, Nutrition Policy Paper #16, November 1997. 103p.* Report of the proceedings of symposium focusing on relationship between malnutrition and poverty. Includes discussion of the following issues: poverty and malnutrition in Asia; concept and measurement of poverty; poverty alleviation, and nutrition enhancement; and child nutrition.

Prevention of micronutrient deficiencies: Tools for policymakers and public health workers. *1998. National Academy Press. 207p.* Presents a program planning framework to address micronutrient deficiencies. Discusses the design and implementation issues. Presents lessons learned and recommendations.

Food and health data: Their use in nutrition policy-making. *1991. W. Becker and E. Helsing (eds.). WHO Regional Publications, European Series, No. 34. 171p.* Discusses the role of data on dietary patterns of populations for the use in food and nutrition policymaking. Provides a critical assessment of data sources for guidance in the use of the data in policymaking activities.

CARE's technical report on anemia. *July 1997. Dorothy Foote and Gardiner Offutt. CARE. 29p.* Designed to serve as a reference document for staff working addressing anemia issues in maternal and child health and reproductive health programs.

Anthropometric indicators measurement guide (draft). *February 1998. Bruce Cogill. IMPACT. 76p.* Presents information on the Anthropometric Impact Indicators of maternal and child health/child survival and income-related Title II activities. Provides guidelines on the consistent collection and reporting of nutritional anthropometry indicators.

Indicators for assessing vitamin A deficiency and their application in monitoring and evaluating intervention programmes. *1996. WHO Micronutrient Series. 66p.* Intended for managers of micronutrient malnutrition prevention programs, specifically for vitamin A deficiencies. Presents principles for the use of biological indicators for vitamin A deficiency surveillance and discusses each indicator and its limitations. Identifies non-biological indicators.

Food-based approaches to preventing micronutrient malnutrition: An international research agenda. Summary report of an international workshop. *1996. G.F. Combs, Jr. et al (eds.). Cornell University. 68p. #5279.* Summarizes workshop that examined food system-based strategies to address micronutrient malnutrition. Includes discussion of micronutrient malnutrition issues; existing knowledge and new knowledge; priority research needs; and action items.

Global prevalence of vitamin A deficiency. *1995. WHO Micronutrient Deficiency Information System Working Paper, No. 2. 116p.* Provides a baseline to track progress achieved in the effort to eliminate vitamin A deficiency (VAD). In addition to a general discussion of VAD, presents prevalence data by country and on subnational level.

Vitamin A deficiency and its consequences: a field guide to detection and control, third edition. *1995. Alfred Sommer. WHO Publications. 69p.* Practical guide for clinicians, nurses, and public health officials working on xerophthalmia prevention programs. Includes the following sections: clinical classification and diagnosis of xerophthalmia; epidemiology; treatment; and prevention.

Promoting the role of NGOs in nutrition: Guidelines for implementing the International Conference on Nutrition. *October 1994. Geneva NGO Working Group on Nutrition. 39p. #5149.* Guidelines developed to assist NGOs in getting involved in the follow-up activities resulting from the 1992 ICN. Presents on overview of ICN and nutrition information and guidelines. Also discusses strategies for NGO participation, implementation of National Plans of Action, and follow-up activities.

Enriching lives: Overcoming vitamin and mineral malnutrition in developing countries. *1994. Development in Practice Series. World Bank. 73p. #5195.* Presents lessons learned for micronutrient policy and program design purposes. Discusses food fortification, supplementation, targeting, and social mobilization and education.

Micronutrient fortification and enrichment of P.L. 480 Title II commodities: Recommendations for improvement. *November 1994. OMNI Technical Review Paper.* Presents a review of existing and past fortification activities and provides recommendations for improving fortification of P.L. 480 Title II commodities.

Manual for sugar fortification with vitamin A. *OMNI Publications.* Includes guidelines for the development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of vitamin A sugar fortification programs.

Vitamin C fortification of food aid commodities: Final report. *1997. National Academy Press. 87p.* Assesses results of a vitamin C fortification pilot program. Examines whether scaling up Title II commodity fortification with vitamin C is advisable and discusses the appropriateness of fortification as compared to other vitamin C delivery mechanisms.

Enrichment of food staples through plant breeding: A new strategy for fighting micronutrient malnutrition. *Nutrition Reviews, Vol. 54, No. 5, May 1996.* Discusses the use of plant breeding as an low-cost strategy to reduce micronutrient deficiencies.

Overcoming malnutrition: Is there an ecoregional dimension? *February 1996. Food, Agriculture, and the Environment Discussion Paper 10. 2020 Vision. IFPRI. 19p. #5221.* Examines evidence of a correlation between malnutrition and ecoregional boundaries as well as a potential link between poverty and ecoregions.

Choice of indicators for food security and nutrition monitoring. *1994. Lawrence Haddad, Eileen Kennedy, Joan Sullivan. Food Policy 19 (3), 329-343. #5408.* Provides a conceptual framework for identifying nutrition and food security indicators that serve as alternatives to traditional indicators such as calorie adequacy and anthropometric indicators.

Use of food aid to reduce child malnutrition in developing countries. *1994. Kenneth H. Brown, Testimony to H.R. Committee on Agriculture, Subcommittee on Foreign Agriculture and Hunger. 11p. #968.* Reviews the major nutritional problems of children in developing nations and presents intervention strategies to reduce the problems through food aid programs.

Results report on the vitamin C pilot program. *September 1997. Peter Ranum and Francoise Chome. SUSTAIN. 154p.* Presents the results of pilot program for use by USAID and National Academy of Sciences to examine appropriate vitamin C fortification levels in food commodities for U.S. food aid programs.

Nutritional issues in food aid: Papers from the ACC/SCN 19th Session Symposium. *August 1993. Nutrition Policy Discussion Paper No. 12. 97p. #1051.* Includes papers on the role of public works in nutrition; targeting in supplementary feeding programs; and protection of refugees' nutrition through food aid.

Nutrition issues in developing countries: Part I: Diarrheal diseases, Part II: Diet and activity during pregnancy and lactation. *1992. National Academy Press. 189p.* Examines nutritional factors affecting the risk of contracting diarrheal disease and analyzes data on the activity and dietary changes made among women in the developing world as a result of childbearing. Includes recommendations for nutrition intervention planning.

Learning to listen to mother: A trainers' manual to strengthen communication skills for nutrition and growth promotion. *Nutrition Communication Project, USAID. 79p. #1060.* Designed to train field supervisors and community health workers of growth monitoring and promotion programs. Focuses on the importance of communication with mothers.

Field guide on rapid nutritional assessment in emergencies. *1995. WHO Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean. 63p.* Presents a set of guidelines for the rapid assessment of nutritional status in emergencies. Discusses the following steps: planning the survey, selection of survey subjects and sample, survey methodology, data recording, training and supervision, data analysis, interpretation of results, and reporting of the findings.

Beyond child survival: An assessment of infant and child nutrition in Africa. *1995. Nutrition Communication Project, USAID. 73p. #1464.* Examines the status of maternal and child nutrition in Africa. Addresses the relationships between malnutrition and child mortality and high fertility. Presents data on iodine status during prepregnancy, maternal diet, breastfeeding, and weaning. Also discusses a range of nutrition programs in Africa.

Principles of nutrition management in primary health care. *1995. WHO, Regional Office for South-East Asia. Regional Health Paper, SEARO, No. 26. 43p.* Directed toward individuals responsible for strengthening nutrition in primary health care at national and local levels; nutrition teachers; and training institutions. Covers the following nutrition program issues: community involvement, inter-sectoral collaboration, training, communication, income generation, monitoring and evaluation, and political commitment.

Malnutrition in South Asia: A regional profile. *November 1997. Stuart Gillespie (ed). UNICEF, Regional Office for South Asia. ROSA Publication No. 5. 189p.* Overview of malnutrition in South Asia. Examines low birth weight, complementary feeding, nutritional anemia, vitamin A deficiency, and iodine deficiency disorders, as well as community-based projects to address malnutrition.

Third report on the world nutrition situation. *December 1997. UN ACC/SCN.* Provides data on nutritional status of populations in developing nations. Presents, for the first time, information on global and regional trends in stunting as well as folic acid deficiency and zinc deficiency. Discusses refugee/displaced persons nutrition; progress in addressing micronutrient malnutrition; and nutrition policy implications.

The FSRC collection includes the following periodicals that contain articles on a wide range of nutrition issues:

SCN News. *UN ACC/Sub-Committee on Nutrition.*

RNIS *(Report on the Nutrition Situation of Refugees and Displaced Populations). UN Sub-Committee on Nutrition.*

ENN, Field Exchange. *Emergency Nutrition Network, Department of Community Health & General Practice, Trinity College, Ireland.*

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Mr. Kapukha is a Kenyan who manages WV's Agricultural Recovery Program in Sierra Leone. He has a Masters of Science from the State University of Ghent, Belgium and previously served with WV as the Agricultural Manager in Tonj County, Southern Sudan.

World Vision (WV) has been operating an integrated, multi-sectoral program in Sierra Leone since March 1996. Program interventions are in the areas of food aid, including assistance from USAID's Office of Food for Peace; agricultural recovery from USAID's Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance; and support for the transition to peace from USAID's Office of Transition Initiatives.

With regard to programming in emergency situations, WV has adopted an integrated approach in Mozambique, Rwanda, Angola, and Sudan, where agricultural recovery was an important key to improved food security. WV coupled food distributions with the distribution of emergency seeds and tools, followed by technical support to begin moving affected populations away from food aid toward settled agriculture. Fields were rehabilitated; improved seeds identified through rapid on-farm research were distributed and tested; and new farming methods and technologies were introduced. Important to this process is the recognition that the loss of agricultural germplasm (genetic material) in emergency situations has severe consequences for the food security recovery efforts. The following is an analysis of the work being done in WV's Agricultural Recovery Program in Sierra Leone to address this issue.

Rice Census Documentation and Analysis in the Southern Province of Sierra Leone

by Mr. Patrick Kapukha

With the advent of rapid food deterioration over the past decade, a series of concerted efforts aimed at reversing the declining national production of the staple food crop rice were marshaled by both government and non-governmental organizations in Sierra Leone. In the 1980s, indices of gradual positive change in the level of food production were recorded in the different Integrated Agriculture Development Programs in each of the four regions in Sierra Leone. However, the trend considerably deteriorated when civil war broke out in the country. Farming activities were disrupted consistently to a level where many farmers abandoned their lifelong farming practices fleeing for safety to more secure urban and peri-urban centers. Most families lost household belongings as they hastily sought refuge. Among them were farmers with diverse land races, crops that have been improved by traditional agricultural methods not by modern breeding practices, of introduced as well as preferred crop cultivars of rice. A cultivar is a variety or genetic strain of a domesticated crop plant that has been cultivated.

Plant genetic diversity is the basis for crop improvement. As is the case of Sierra Leone, most of the rice cultivars in production are either local or improved varieties. The genetic diversity in the local rice germplasm has been greatly affected through activities such as plant breeding which has provided improved rice varieties. These improved varieties are adopted by farmers because of their higher yields, disease and pest resistance, and/or taste. But the highly diverse land races are therefore dropped from cultivation. The rebel war in Sierra Leone led to massive evacuation of farmers from their areas of settlement. Consequently, the genetic material which would otherwise have been preserved, perished. In some cases where farmers kept small amounts of germplasm for subsequent cultivation, these were forcefully removed from them for food.

SURVEY ASSESSMENT

In order to assess the current biodiversity in the rice germplasm, there is need to collect, characterize and conserve locally available germplasm material. This will help us determine superiority, suitability or adaptability of rice varieties to the different agro-ecological zones in Sierra Leone. The collection and conservation of germplasm could also provide an avenue to enhance rapid crop production, as high yielding,

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adaptable, and farmer preferred varieties could be more readily identified.

A survey was conducted to determine the degree of rice biodiversity in Kakua and Tikonko Chiefdoms in a joint collaborative program between WV and the Rice Research Station (Rokupr). The survey focused on the Inland Valley Swamp (IVS) ecology which currently constitutes 40% of the total area covered by WV's Agriculture Recovery Program. An enormous potential exists within the IVS area for increased farm productivity. The comparative advantages of the IVS over other ecologies, is that it offers opportunities for mechanized services and year round cultivation. The cyclic replenishment of nutrients from catchment areas ensures higher levels of sustainability under current subsistence agriculture. A total of 198 farmers were contacted in 43 villages from the two Chiefdoms, broken down as follows: 131 respondents in 33 villages of Kakua and 67 respondents in 10 villages of Tikonko Chiefdom.

The objective of the survey was to collect, characterize and evaluate rice germplasm in the survey area. Specific activities carried out included the identification of superior yielding varieties under conditions the local formers would encounter. The sampled rice cultivars were classified into clusters using morphological traits, looking at size and shape.

An assessment of genetic diversity in the rice germplasm was carried out. As part of the on-going program support, the selected rice germplasm materials will be incorporated into the multi-locational rice field trials within the WV Agriculture Recovery Program for further performance tests and evaluation.

RICE CHARACTERIZATION CRITERIA

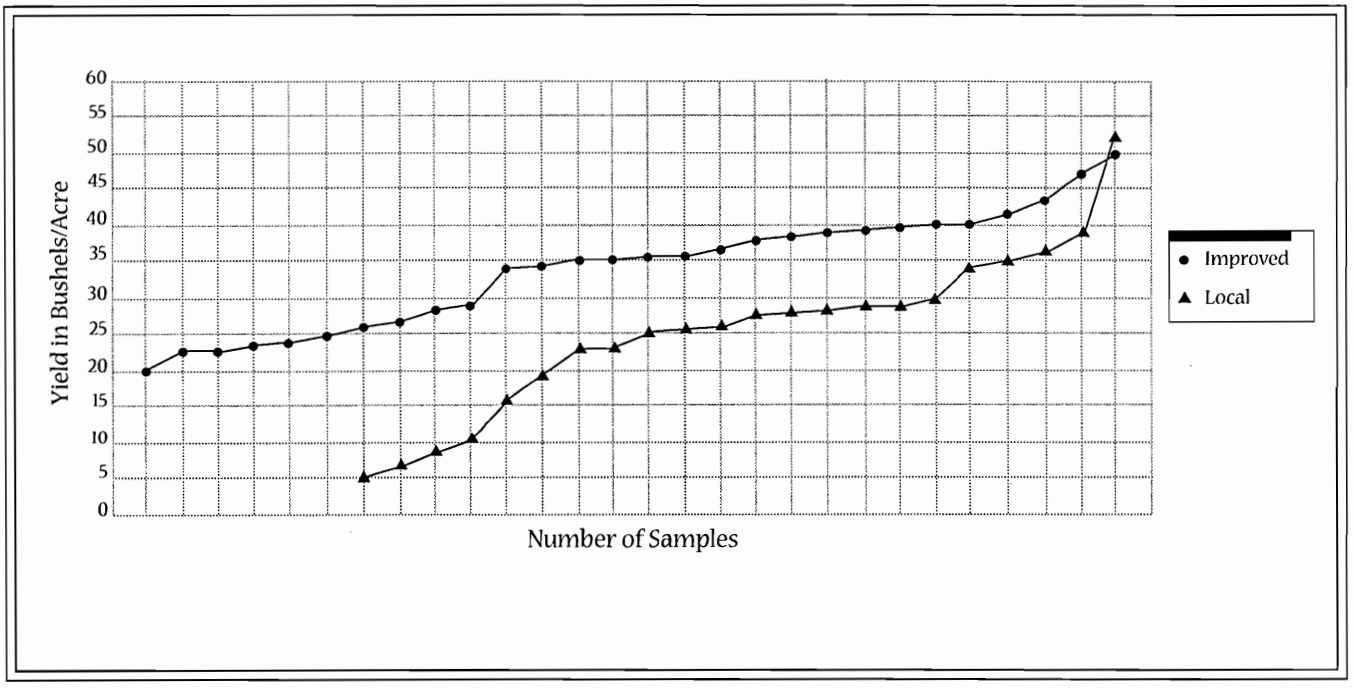
Genetic relatedness in the collections was measured using a database (rice descriptors) supported by morphological traits and characters that are associated with elite rice varieties that are in extensive cultivation in Sierra Leone. A clustering technique which sets priorities for grain length, grain color, width, and grain thickness was used. A standardization procedure was adopted to eliminate scale differences, which has the effect of making all characteristics and attributes equally significant for statistical analysis. In addition, proximity measures which were based on similarities (Pearson Correction Co-efficient) were applied during the characterization process.

Genetic identity investigations were conducted to identify and establish the trueness of the accession heterogeneity of similarly named cultivars in the collection. In other words, was the sample of the rice variety collected the type it was labeled to be. In the absence of costly and sophisticated isozymic analysis and molecular techniques, morphological characteristics of elite varieties such as Rok3, Rok5, Rok10, and or Rok14 were used as standards.

Analysis of the survey data obtained from 198 samples indicates the following:

- 50 different local names representing 13 different rice varieties were identified. The thirteen varieties exhibited wide variability in grain yield potentials and growth duration. The highest recorded varietal performance was 52.8 Bu/acre and the least 4.3 Bushels/acre. The average yield varietal performance

Yield Estimates for Sampled Rice Types



is 30.1 Bu/acre with a harmonic mean at 23.5 Bu/acre. Four of the different local accessions[1], or crop varities, that are widely grown include: Wusie, Patae, Gbongoryakei and Janeti. Many of the improved varieties have localized names which are often associated with the pioneer farmers who introduced the seed in the community. In the category localized improved seeds, Rok 14, Rok 10, Rok 5 and Rok 3 dominate. Ching Chong Ai (CCA), and Pakistan varieties were introduced by the Corporate Rice conglomerates in late 60's and appear to have been conserved by farmers to date. The growth duration of all the rice types vary from three to eight months.

- High yielding rice varieties identified include: Wusie, Patae, Rok 10, Masibu, Rok 14, Pa Biaka, Kaivujei and Morovia. All these varieties yield above 40 Bu/acre.

- A comparison in yields between the improved and local varieties is indicated in the chart (see previous page). The average yield of the improved varieties was higher than the local varieties. Some local accessions had a higher yield than some improved varieties. It is possible that some of the local accessions may indeed be improved varieties with local names.

CONCLUSIONS

Potential exists to increase productivity from within the community using the available improved and adapted rice seed varieties and other local land races of rice. There is need to analyze the causes of large rice yield variations within the same locality and address the source of variation. Indeed a fact to acknowledge and use as a basis of further development of communal seed informationsystems is the local ability to sort, identify and select superior rice germplasm.

Conservation and maintenance are aspects which may be emphasized at the communal level for sustainable productivity. These efforts will be augmented by field trials aimed at determining elite varieties within the gene banks and introducing improved exotic materials within the WV Agriculture Recovery Program for Accelerated Crop Improvement. The Trials will be an ongoing activity.

WV will continue to advocate for, and support the conservation of the farmers' broad genetic diversity in rice germplasm through the sharing of the collected germplasm with the International Gene Banks for medium and long term storage, preservation and networking.

For more information about this topic, please contact Mr. Patrick Kapukha at patrick_kapukha@wvi.org. The bulk of the ground work for this research was done under supervision of Mr. Hilton Lahai, an agronomist with a speciality in plant genetic resource conservation, who works with WVI on secundment from the National Rice Research Station of Sierra Leone. Lahai has 20 years of experience in rice breeding at the research station. He has spent most of his time developing upland rice varieties where he is closely associated with the development of ROK17, ROK18, ROK19, and ROK20 varieties of rice. Mr Lahai can be contacted through Patrick Kapukha at the World Vision email address above.

Many of the technical terms in this article can be found in the World Resource Institute's Biodiversity Glossary of Terms, found on the world wide web at http://www.igc.apc.org/wri/biodiv/gbs-glos.html.

[1] Accessions refer to crop varieties collected at a specific location and time, have been in existence in the locality, and may be improved or not improved.

Monitoring Progress in Emergency Activities

Anne Ralte, Food Security Unit, Linkages Project/AED

As part of USAID's management-for-results efforts, the Food For Peace/Emergency Division (FFP/ER)[1] is monitoring progress in achieving its objective of meeting the critical food needs of targeted groups in emergencies. This is done through its Results Review and Resource Request (R4) process which assesses factors affecting program performance and summarizes progress made during the fiscal year. Thirty-five programs implemented by the World Food Program (WFP), private voluntary organizations (PVOs) and government agencies in 24 countries primarily in Africa, were included in the review process in 1997.

The majority (76%) of programs assessed in 1997 were responding to complex emergencies, and undertook such activities as general free food distribution or targeted feeding of the most vulnerable groups, supplementary and therapeutic feeding, food-for-work or agriculture, rehabilitation and monitoring of food aid. It is estimated that emergency food aid reached more than 11.5 million beneficiaries during the reporting period. Efforts are also underway to coordinate more closely with ACC/SCN on monitoring nutritional status of beneficiaries through the Refugee Nutrition Information System. (See Table p.5)

In 1997, FFP/ER introduced innovative measures to meet the challenge of timely food aid delivery within the context of an established system which normally take 120-150 days. These include the use of USDA procurements to ensure the arrival of food grains within two months of the start of the procurement process, and the prepositioning of $5 million worth of commodities at US

ports for immediate loading in case of a sudden-onset emergency. This has been used successfully to meet El-Nino emergency food aid needs in Sudan, Somalia and Central America. Other measures are a two-year planning for long-term or complex emergencies with funding requirements reviewed annually against needs. This will enable implementing partners to better address "transition" and longer-term issues like rehabilitation, improving the program planning and approval process by introducing a proposal guideline and checklist, and a new standardized grant document.

In the R4 report, results and lessons learned are illustrated by country case studies and data on various performance indicators. Expected outcomes of the R4 process include:

1. Improved targeting of food aid to the most vulnerable populations
2. Delivery of food aid target groups on schedule
3. Improved planning/implementation to transition relief activities to development, including specific attention to avoid the negative impacts of food aid in program design and implementation ("do no harm")
4. Strengthened capabilities of cooperating sponsors and host country entities to manage emergency food aid

Most importantly, the R4 exercise has helped to gain a better understanding of the complexities in delivering emergency food aid. A significant lesson learned, illustrated by several case studies, is that interpretation of quantitative data must be accompanied by contextual understanding. "Success" is relative to each emergency and continuous changing situations, and for FFP/ER, this is a continuous learning exercise. FFP/ER's approach is to continue to work closely with its implementing partners to incrementally refine performance indicators and monitoring systems as experience is gained. PVO involvement in this process is greatly appreciated.

For further information on USAID's Food for Peace Emergency Programs, please contact:

Sylvia Graves
Emergency Division
Office of Food for Peace
USAID
1300 Pennsylvania Avenue
Washington DC 20523
Phone: 202-712-4424
FAX: 202-216-3039
E-Mail: sygraves@usaid.gov

A copy of the R4 report was sent to each implementing PVO partner.

[1] USAID's Office of Food for Peace, Emergency Division (FFP/ER), administers the U.S. Government's P.L. 480 Title II emergency food aid. Title II development activities related to food security, focusing on household nutrition and agricultural productivity, are undertaken by the Development Division.

Table compiled by the Office of Food for Peace (Emergency Division)/Food Security Unit, Linkages Project/AED.

[1] Total number of beneficiaries reached are based on information received from implementing partners. Where the number of beneficiaries reached exceeded the targeted level, the targeted number was selected. Given that data was not available from four countries, it is estimated that more that 11,589,491 beneficiaries (shown here) were reached through FFP/ER's program activities in FY 1997.

[2] Refugees:
The table does not include refugees targeted by WFP's Protracted Relief Operations (PROs) in Angola, Ethiopia, Liberia, Mali, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Uganda, Afghanistan, Bengladesh, Pakistan, with support from FFP/ER and other donors. The total number of refugees reached through WFP's Protracted Relief Operations are estimated at 4,676,140.

Types of Activities:
1 = General (free) distribution; 2 = Targeted distribution; 3 = Supplementary feeding; 4 = Therapeutic feeding; 5 = Food-for-Work; 6 = Food-for-Agriculture; 7 = Other, e.g., cash-for-work, monetization, rehabilitation.

Vulnerable groups:
A = CHILDREN (general); A1 = Preschool; A2 = School; A3 = Orphans; A4 = Unaccompanied; A5 = Prisoned
B = WOMEN (general); B1 = Pregnant/lactating; B2 = Widows, household heads
C = MALNOURISHED (general); C1 = US; C2 = Children; C3 = Women
D = SICK (hospitals, clinics); E = ELDERLY; F = FOOD INSECURE; G = HANDICAPPED; H = TYPHOON/CYCLONE; I = DROUGHT/FAMINE

Private Voluntary Organization Identification:
DPPC — Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission, Ethiopia
NPA — Norwegian Peoples Aid
Doulos — The Doulos Community
IOCC — International Orthodox Christian Church

Beneficiaries Reached by Region, Implemeting Partners and Activities Implemented in FY 1997 — Food for Peace (Emergencies) [See Footnotes [1] [2]]

Country	PVO WFP Local Govt.	Duration in Months	Activities (Types)							Total Beneficiaries Reached	Beneficiaries by Disaster Groups				Vulnerable Groups (Sub-groups of Disaster Groups)		
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7		IDPs	Refugees	Resettled Returnees	Other	US	Malnourished	Other
AFRICA																	
Angola	CARE	12	x	x	-	-	x	x		103,294	x	-	x	F	-	-	-
	CRS	12	-	x	x	x	x	-	-	160,000	x	-	x	F	-	A	A3; E;D;G
	SCF	14	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	165,000	x	-	-	-	-	-	-
	WFP	4	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	207,280	x	-	-	-		-	-
Angola Total	4 programs									635,574							
Chad	WFP	3	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	250,310	-	-	-	1	x	C	-
Ethiopia	DPPC	3	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	No info	-	-	-	F	-	-	-
Kenya	WFP	6	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	895,718	-	-	-	1	-	-	A2; F
Liberia	CRS	12	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	300,000	x	-	x	F	-	C; C1	-
Madagascar	CRS	6	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	16,000	-	-	-	H	x	C; C1	-
Mauritania	Doulos	6	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	17,745	-	-	-	I	-	C2; C3	A; B; C;
	WFP	8	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	200,000	-	-	-	I	x		
Mauritania Total	2 programs									217,745							
Niger	CRS	2	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	63,000	-	-	-	I	x	-	B1; E
Rwanda Regional (Rwanda, Burundi, Tanzania, DRC, CAR, Uganda)	CRS	15	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	4,000	x	-	-	-	-	C2	A; A4; A5; D; G
	WFP	12	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	1,763,000	x	x	x	-	-	C	A3; A4; D
Rwanda Total	2 programs									1,767,000							
Sierra Leone	CARE	12	x	x	-	-	x	x	-	65,000	x		-	-	-	C1	B1
	CRS	12	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	231,000	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
	WVRD	12	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	65,000	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone Total	3 programs									361,000							
Somalia	WFP	7	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	No info	-	-	-	F; I	-	-	-
Sudan	ADRA	12	-	x	x	x	x	-	-	56,000	x	-	x	-	-	C2; A1; D	B1
	CRS	12	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	110,600	x	-	x	-	-	C2	B1; A; E
	NPA	9	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	107,000	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
	WFP	12	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	No info	x	-	-	1; F	-	C; C1	B1
Sudan Total	4 programs									273,600							
Uganda	WFP	6	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	110,000	x	-	-	-	x	C1; B1	B1; A4
I. AFRICA TOTAL	23 programs									4,889,947							
ASIA & NEAR EAST																	
Iraq	WFP	3	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	No info	x	x	x	-	x	C1	B1; B2; D
N. Korea	WFP*	12	-	x	x	x	x	-	-	3.717.708				H; I	x	C	A; A1; A2; F; B1
	PVOs	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	see WFP* above							
										(same beneficiaries)							
II. Asia & Near East	3 programs									3,717,708							
EUROPE																	
Albania	WFP	4	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	400,000	-	-	-	F			F
Bosnia	ADRA	12	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	38,798	-	-	-	F	-	-	E
	ARC	12	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	103,000	-	-	-	F	-	-	E
	CRS	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	35,000	x	-	-	-	-	-	F
	IOCC	12	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	33,038	x	-	-	-	-	F; C	-
	WFP	12	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	1,900,000	x	-	-	-	-	-	A3; B2; E; G
Bosnia Total	5 programs									2,109,836							
Bulgaria	ARC	9	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	97,000	-	-	-	F	-	-	E
	CRS	12	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	20,000	-	-	-	F	-	-	E
Bulgaria Total	2 programs									117,000							
Tajikistan	WFP	6	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	355,000	x	-	-	-	-		A3; B2;
III. Europe Total	9 programs									2,981,836							
GRAND TOTAL	**35 programs**									**11,589,491**							

Insights from CARE's Commodity Loss Reduction Project

By Walter Franciscovich / CARE CLRP Manager

The Commodity Storage Loss Reduction Project (CSLRP) is an operations research activity implemented by three Title II Cooperating Sponsors aimed to identify practices and methodologies that will further reduce food losses. The inception of the project can be credited to a last minute addition by Congress of approximately three million dollars to OFDA's FY 1996 budget. The legislation was rather vague leaving room for interpretation, but the primary goal of the grant was to test alternative weatherproof storage and techniques designed to reduce commodity losses at overseas locations.

Grants were awarded to CRS, WVRD, and CARE to carry out the project activities at the field level. CARE decided to use the opportunity to focus on a number of commodity management issues and not exclusively storage. Thus the name Commodity Loss Reduction Project (CLRP) was adopted by CARE for the activity. It is interesting to note that the three NGOs have taken a very different slant on their particular project activities. CARE, CRS and WVRD have targeted their research to different areas of the supply chain or pipeline. The outcome has been that the activities and findings have complemented each other in meeting the project objectives while at the same time avoiding duplication.

The CARE-USA CLRP staff has worked closely with the CARE Country Offices in Angola, Ethiopia, Guatemala and India during the life of the project. Peru and Honduras have also been recently added as participants in the CLRP. The country offices (COs) were selected to participate in the project based on their experience with food aid programming, interest and ability to participate, geographic region, and unique logistical challenges. The COs were not chosen because of commodity loss problems. The project has provided CARE and the COs an opportunity to review and improve commodity management practices and test initiatives to reduce Title II food aid losses that we would not have had the capacity to do otherwise. The resources from the CSLRP represented a unique opportunity for CARE to fine tune and improve already successful management practices, and field test ideas that may have been difficult to justify in a different funding environment.

Some of the pilot tests performed by CARE:

- Comparison of different packaging of vegetable oil shipments to determine which type of package experiences the least amount of damage in transit, and which is best suited for the specific needs of various COs Food Programs
- Test shipment comparisons between containerized and break bulk cargo
- Examination of different routing of shipments to determine if change in routing reduces: transport costs, transit time, handling and transport losses
- Pre-slung break bulk shipments aimed at reducing handling at loading and unloading ports, measure the effect on commodity damage at the ports, and determine if this is a cost-effective method of loss reduction
- Exploration of alternative storage methods in areas lacking adequate storage facilities

Other CARE CLRP project activities:

- Improvements to pre-existing warehouses and storage facilities
- Purchase of warehouse equipment (pallets, scales)
- Purchase of reconstitution materials (cartons, drums, bags)
- Purchase of moisture testers to track variances in moisture of commodities such as wheat to determine if changes in moisture content results in weight loss of commodities
- Consultancies:
  - Kansas State University: Storage Studies and Best Storage Practices
  - University of Tennessee: Development of a Supply Chain Cost Model, benchmarking study, containerization report, report on new logistics technologies
- Training of CO staff and hosting CSLRP dissemination workshops
- Implementation of Food Program Intensive Monitoring Studies for CARE-India
- Improving Commodity Management software systems and equipment for the COs
- Partnering with other CARE departments addressing commodity management issues

Findings and recommendations from the CARE CLRP:
In any situation there is always room for improvement. As stated above, we confirmed that the CARE COs which worked with the project do not have significant documented loss problems. Marine and internal losses are below 2% on average. However, it is still crucial that good commodity management practices are followed.

Some of the pilot tests showed positive results for future consideration, such as the container test shipments to Mumbai (Bombay), India. In the test, containers were railed piggyback on a Through Bill of Lading (which means that the carrier is responsible for arranging delivery to an inland destination where the goods are cleared) to an

Inland Container Depot in New Delhi. This showed significant savings in ocean and inland freight charges vs. the typical routing of break bulk shipments to Calcutta and via truck to New Delhi. Containerization also improved efficiency due to less handling and shorter transit time. There was a reduction of losses and the need to warehouse at the destination port was eliminated.

Other tests such as pre-slinging break bulk cargo did not fare as well. The objective of this pilot test was to see if losses could be minimized by mitigating the opportunity to damage the bagged commodities in the first place. Having the cargo already on a sling did minimize handling of the cargo during unloading and did reduce losses. But it was not cost-effective. The additional cost of the slings was greater than the reduction in losses. That is not to say that pre-slinging of future shipments should not be considered. Pre-slinging is a worthwhile practice in situations where, there is high incidence of loss during unloading at the discharge port, containerization is not an available (or viable option), and a high value bagged commodity is being shipped.

Certainly we cannot provide a scientific conclusion based on a few tests. But the initial pilot tests do serve as a foundation from which we can build future activities and innovations. The food aid community should use the CSLRP findings and recommendations to continue testing and exploring areas with the goal of reducing losses, improving efficiency and strengthening accountability.

Emphasis on continued Food Aid Commodity Management training of staff is essential. Another key is to continue improving communications and coordination between the various parties involved in the entire logistics supply chain from donors to vendors, down to the end site distribution centers. The CLRP has witnessed great strides in improving communication between all the parties involved. This has been the trend in the commercial logistics sector for some time, and should be continued.

The CLRP has created an awareness of other options and possibilities in areas related to logistics and commodity management. Human tendency is to become complacent or accustomed to doing things a particular way. This creates an atmosphere of comfort, and in turn, fear of change. For any person, group or organization to be effective or to be on the "cutting edge" it has to be open to change; to exploration of new technology, ideas and methodology.

CONTINUING ACTIVITIES

In summer 1998, two scheduled CSLRP dissemination workshops will focus on partnership, sharing of information and open group discussion to develop concrete recommendations. The goal is to identify action steps and key implementing persons including timeframes for implementing the recommendations.

As the project is coming to a close (officially September 30, 1998) the challenge will be to ensure that the work begun by the project participants continues with further initiatives and follow up to implement recommendations. A commitment has been made to continue the work through the Commodity Management and Logistics Unit (CMLU) at CARE. A workshop is planned for CARE staff, partners and other NGOs in August 1998 (and the results from that workshop will be available from CARE and through FAM). The CARE CLRP staff will be working closely with the CMLU on the planning and execution of this workshop.

The objectives of the Commodity Management and Logistics Unit at CARE are to:

- Develop CARE-wide strategies to standardize commodity management systems and reporting procedures
- Establish strategies for networking and processes for dissemination of information on commodity management
- Identify Core Groups to address needs for training and technical assistance
- Develop an annual regional training plan for staff development on commodity management and their best management practices
- Develop strategies on creating a working group among the NGO community to address common concerns

The CLRP has been an example of how NGOs can work in partnership. There has also been a great deal of collaboration and support from the US Government agencies USDA and USAID/OFDA, the participating country offices, the host country Governments, Port Authorities and other organizations.

An example of pre-slung break bulk commodities

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

The Commodity Storage and Loss Reduction project (CSLRP) workshops were successfully held in Port au Prince, Haiti from June 29-July 2 and Johannesburg, South Africa from July 27-29. There were more than 40 participants at each workshop from 11 PVOs, USDA, USAID, the University of Tennessee and the private sector. Workshop presentations focused on project activities carried out by the three implementing PVOs, CARE, CRS and World Vision as well as informational presentations by USDA, USAID, University of Tennessee, and the Stone Container Corporation. There was a substantial exchange of information among participants who represented over 300 years of commodity management experience and came from 14 field offices along with many headquarters representatives from both the PVOs and USG. The workshops provided a series of final recommendations for PVOs, U.S. government agencies and even the private sector. Workshop proceedings will be published by FAM and will be posted on the FAM website before the end of FY98.

To date 17 out of a total of 62 **Initial Environmental Assessments** (IEEs) for FY 99 Title II development activities have been cleared by the BHR Bureau Environmental Officer. The final deadline is September 30, 1998 to submit your IEE to BHR/Washington. A cautionary note to PVO field offices: there have been significant delays encountered by several PVOs at some AID Missions.

In the next fiscal year, all IEEs are to be submitted with the FY 2000 DAP and PAA proposals and not later in the year as has been the case. There will be more detailed Guidelines on this included with the FY2000 DAP/PAA Information Packet expected to be released in November 1998. Putting together the first IEE should be the most time consuming for the Title II Cooperating Sponsors, and if there has not been a significant change to the activity, the annual IEE resubmission is not designed to be more than a short summary or progess report. The requirement for the annual resubmission is to fill out the IEE face sheet again and to attach a brief (1-2 page) annual summary report. The summary should indicate that the implemented activities have not changed since the IEE was performed, and document that the activities listed in the original monitoring and mitigation plan are being fulfilled.

However, if there has been a change to your development activity, an amendment will be necessary. In an amendment, the IEE process will need to be repeated on the new activities. You will be able to refer to more detailed Guidelines for the next cycle of annual environmental examinations which are expected to be sent to cooperating sponsors with the DAP/PAA Information Packets.

Please let FAM know what you think can be done to improve this process. Anecdotal reports are coming in showing that some field offices are spending an inordinate amount of time and money on this documentation, or other field staff have not been able to submit the proper paperwork because of a lack of critical information provided through the workshops, the Environmental Documentation Manual (EDM), and Field Guides. Please communicate with FAM and let us know what could be improved in the next cycle, and where you think additional resources would serve a valuable purpose in this process.

The Sphere project will be presenting its final document establishing standards for emergency response in a ceremony at the opening of the UN General Assembly in New York in October. The Sphere project documents can be accessed on the web at: www.ifrc.org/pubs/sphere/. We will make more information about this event available as it becomes known to us and will also provide information on the next phase of the project which will involve dissemination and application.

Food Security Resource Center News

The bibliography below lists a sample of the commodity loss, commodity management, and commodity storage resources available at the FSRC. For more specific information or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact me at

Jessica Graef
Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC COMMODITY STORAGE, LOSS, AND MANAGEMENT RESOURCES

Commodity loss reduction workshops (Nairobi, Kenya and Cotonou, Benin), June 1997: Packaging and logistics management for food commodities utilized under foreign food assistance programs. *Benjamin Myatt; USDA. 36p.* Reports on the following packaging, logistics, and procurement issues: vegetable oil and blended and fortified commodity packaging; woven polypropylene textile bags; under-fill/shortweight issues; Vessel Loading Observation Procedure; and debt management and loss prevention.

Food for whom? Food security and the reduction of post-harvest losses: An overview of research data. *February 1998.*

Philippe Villers, GrainPro, Inc. 36p. Presents findings from survey of data on grain losses in storage. Offers evaluation of post-harvest losses and discusses climate, quality deterioration, pesticides and their environmental impact, safe storage, cost issues, and storage systems needs.

On-farm drying and storage systems. *1994. O.J. Loewer et al. American Society of Agricultura l Engineers. 560p.* Describes the principles for the layout, design, and management of on-farm grain storage systems.

Storage of cereal grains and their products. *1992. D.B. Sauer. American Association of Cereal Chemists. 615p.* Includes chapters on physical properties of cereal grains; moisture measurement; changes during storage; drying cereal grains; aeration; alternative storage practices; microflora and mycotoxins; rodents; insect control; sampling, inspecting, and grading; and the economics of grain storage.

Received as ordered. *Video. USDA, Farm Service Agency and Federal Grain Inspection Service.* This video is intended for recipients of U.S. bulk and bagged grain, rice, pulses, and processed commodity shipments. Covers purchase contract specifications; handling and inspection process; expected changes in quality during transit and storage; and the complaint resolution process.

World Vision commodity management training video. *Video.* Discusses relief planning and management, commodity programming, port and warehouse operations, distribution and monitoring, and claims procedure.

Managing moisture of grain for storage. *1997. Paulsen, Marvin R. Proceedings from University of Illinois Grain Quality Conference: Managing Moisture in Grains and Oilseeds, March 26-27, 1997, Urbana, Illinois. 7p.* Discusses factors in the management of moisture for safe storage.

Automatic controller for altering moisture content. *1997. Kallistad, Daniel. Proceedings from University of Illinois Grain Quality Conference: Managing Moisture in Grains and Oilseeds, March 26-27, 1997, Urbana, Illinois. 3p.* Studies the industry and regulator challenges in the management, measurement, and pricing for the moisture content of grains and oilseeds.

Improving accuracy and uniformity of measuring moisture in the market channel. *1997. Funk, David. www.agribiz.com. 8p.* Examines grain moisture meter accuracy and uniformity.

Preventing stored-grain insect infestation. *1997. Harein, Phil and Bh. Subramanyam; University of Minnesota. 5p.* Discusses stored-grain insects, conditions that encourage them, and methods to prevent infestations.

Cereal grain drying and storage. *1997. Canada Grain Council. 12p.* Covers storage and conditioning of grain, aeration, drying methods, in-storage cooling, storage facilities, heating of stored grain, factors contributing to storage problems (moisture, insects, molds), and controlling infestations.

GrainSafe: A user-friendly granary for on-farm storage of grain and seed, Instruction manual. *April 1998. 8p.* A manual of the GrainSafe granary designed for the storage of grain at the farm level.

GrainPro cocoon: For agricultural and economic development. *1997. GrainPro, Inc. 5p.* Brochure describing the cocoon and its uses.

Trial on storing corn seed in airtight storage. *Sukprakarn, Chuwit et al. Stored Product Insect Research Group, Division of Entomology and Zoology. 11p.* Examines temperature, relative humidity, seed moisture, grain damage by insects, mold infection, and germination percentages.

Maize storage in a GrainPro cocoon: A preliminary trial. *June 1998. Darko, J.O. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Ghana. 8p.* Reports results of a storage trial involving insect-infested maize stacked in a 5 MT cocoon.

Application of modified atmospheres under plastic: Covers for prevention of losses in stored grain. *1995. Shlomo Navarro; USAID. 33p. #6446.* Describes project that developed temporary or emergency grain storage facilities that do not require chemical pesticides.

Postharvest grain loss assessment methods. *1976. Harris, Kenton L. and Carl J. Lindblad; League for International Food Education; Tropical Products Institute; FAO. 193p. #5981.* Includes chapters on the following: on-site rapid appraisal; sampling and interpretation of results; loss causes and measurement; standard measurement techniques; and operations standardization and control.

Chapter IV: Management and logistics, Africare Food for Development Handbook. *1995. 20p. #5770.* Contains guidelines for procurement and shipping practices, port procedures and controls, overland transport, storage and warehouse management, handling of loss claims and disposal of damaged commodities, and commodity accountability.

Catholic Relief Services (CRS-HAITI) Manuel de gestion et de comptabilité des denrées. *1996. [150]p. #5672.* Commodity management manual (in French). Contains sections on port operations, internal transport, losses, monitoring, and inspection.

PVO commodity losses workshop, August 29-30, 1994. *Nowell, B.; USDA. [70]p. #5521.* Contains notes from Export Commodity Claims Branch workshop on marine cargo loss, debt management, and damage claims.

Guidebook for non-governmental organisations on management of EC food security and food aid programmes. *June 1995 (11th edition). #5359.* Step-by-step procedures for management of EC food security and food aid programs, from request for food aid through delivery and local purchase. Includes reporting procedures on shipping, losses, and inland transport.

World Vision relief commodity manual. *1993. #05293. [25]p.* Includes sections on planning; operations and logistics; accountability and reporting; and end-use monitoring. Covers the following commodity storage and loss issues: transportation, warehouse storage, losses, repackaging, unfit commodities, fumigation, and sale/disposition of empty containers.

CARE food resources manual. *1995. CARE Food Security Unit. [15]p. #05292.* Includes chapters on general food program management. Specific commodity storage and loss issues covered include port storage, selection of storage facilities, warehouse security, open storage, stacking, maintenance, damage/loss prevention, reporting losses, and repackaging.

Food storage and handling: Manual for private voluntary agencies. *1991. Velado, Sidney; CARE. 51p. #04868.* Includes sections on warehouse personnel, inventory control, initial storage, quality maintenance, and controlling of rodents and insects.

Historical evolution of storage techniques and policies. *Preservation and storage of grains, seeds and their by-product: Cereals, oilseeds, pulses and animal feed. 1988. Sigaut, F. and Jean Louis Multon. 20p. #04275.* Addresses the following: storage techniques, preparation of products for storage, and storage and physical environment.

Food monitor's manual. *1993. World Vision International/ Mozambique. #01449.* Contains procedures for commodity planning, reception, distribution, and accounting. Also discusses warehousing of commodities and loss reporting.

Alimentar los ninos: PL 480 manual de operaciones. *1993. Barbieri, Lawrence and Tom Kivilan; Servicios de Apoyo Internacional; Feed the Children. 88p. #00921.* Provides general information for Title II food aid programmers. Also describes commodity management activities at the port, warehouse, and at distribution. Spanish language version.

Generally Accepted Commodity Accountability Principles. *1993. FAM. 28p. #711.* Set of standards for the management, handling, tracking, and reporting of food commodities in international development and relief programs.

CRS commodity management manual. *1992. #540.* Includes chapters on commodity management activities. Covers the following commodity storage and loss issues: transportation, warehouse storage and procedures, losses and reporting of losses, repackaging, unfit commodities, and sale/ disposition of empty containers.

CARE Latin American food handling and storage workshop report, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, June 18-June 22, 1990. *CARE; Velado, Sydney. [60]p. #00096.* Addresses the following issues: inventory handling and quality maintenance,insect and pest control, fumigation, commodity sampling and quality control, commodity packaging, and sanitation.

The FSRC holds the following Kansas State University/Food and Feed Grains Institute reports:

Technical support for grain storage/losses program, World Vision Relief and Development. *1997. 60p.*

Characteristics and limitations of methods to estimate losses in stored grain. *1986. 23p.*

Quality as an integral component of a grain storage and handling facility. *1988. 15p.*

Proceedings of the GASGA workshop on postharvest information management, April 17-19, 1989. *1989. 159p.*

Glossary of terms - English, Spanish, French - storage, volume I. *1990. 174p.*

Glossary of terms - English, Spanish, French - marketing, volume II. *1991. 100p.*

Integrating the technical and marketing approach for profitable utilization of grain postharvest technology. *1991. 39p.*

Evaluation of grain losses in some CNP operations. *1988. 78p.*

Bibliography of plant materials tested for activity against stored-product insects. *1988. 38p.*

Evaluation of grain losses and grain drying performance at large grain storage and handling facilities in a developing country (some CNP operations in Costa Rica). *1989. 153p.*

Comparison of traditional and improved methods of farm maize storage in Honduras. *1989. 61p.*

Design of grain handling and storage facilities for tropical countries. *1990. 155p.*

Natural convection grain dryer for humid developing countries. *1990. 27p.*

Moisture sorption of bagged grain stored under tropic conditions. *1990. 117p.*

An assessment of the storage of grains in Ukraine and Russia. *1992. 119p.*

Postharvest handling of maize and beans in Uganda. *1994. 116p.*

Technical support for grain storage/losses program, CARE items 1-4. *1997. 86p.*

Approved FY 1998 CS-Implemented Title II Development Activities (as of 5/8/1998 - excluding WFP)

No.	Region	Country/Sponsor	LOA	Title II (Estimated)		202(e)****	Types of Components							
				Tons	$	$	HN	WS	AG	NR	ED	HA	RI	ME
1.	Africa	Benin/CRS	96-00	4649	$2,131,100	$290,221	x					x		
2.	Africa	Burkins Faso/CRS	97-01	18483	$10,632,500	$134,548					x	x		
3.	Africa	Cape Verde/ACDI	97-01	11228	$3,447,100	$400,680	x		x					
4.	Africa	Chad/Mali/Africare	97-01	0	0.00	$396,018	x		x					
5.	Africa	Eritrea/Africare	95-97	430	$422,300	$52,818			x					
6.	Africa	Ethiopia/CARE	97-01	9100	$5,746,900	$577,280	x	x	x	x				
7.	Africa	Ethiopia/CRS	97-01	22118	$12,684,500	$337,185	x		x		x	x		
8.	Africa	Ethiopia/FHI**	96-98	3785	$2,159,200	0.00	x	x	x	x				
9.	Africa	Ethiopia/EOC**	98-02	1808	$1,531,100	0.00			x					
10.	Africa	Ethiopia/REST**	96-98	10784	$5,013,800	0.00			x	x				
11.	Africa	Ethiopia/SCF	96-98	3446	$3,144,200	$50,000	x	x	x					
12.	Africa	Ethiopia/WVRD	95-97	2750	$1,413,800	$77,040	x		x					x
13.	Africa	Gambia/CRS	97-01	3108	$1,826,900	0.00	x		x					
14.	Africa	Ghana/ADRA	97-01	16900	$4,337,100	$379,730	x		x					
15.	Africa	Ghana/CRS	97-01	13839	$5,205,500	$26,530	x				x	x		
16.	Africa	Ghana/TechnoServe	97-01	16900	$4,377,100	0.00			x					
17.	Africa	Guinea/Africare	96-00	0.00	0.00	$233,103								
18.	Africa	Guinea/OICI***	96-00	0.00	0.00	0.00								
19.	Africa	GuineaBiss/Africare*	95-98	0.00	0.00	$197,728								
20.	Africa	Kenya/ADRA	98-02	650	$244,400	$168,000		x	x					
21.	Africa	Kenya/CARE	98-02	1160	$436,200	0.00		x	x					x
22.	Africa	Kenya/FHI	98-02	570	$214,300	$88,00	x		x					
23.	Africa	Kenya/CRS	97-00	1140	$428,600	0.00	x	x	x					
24.	Africa	Kenya/TechnoServe	98-01	510	$191,800	$101,107			x					
25.	Africa	Kenya/WVRD	97-00	970	$364,700	$24,194								
26.	Africa	Madagascar/ADRA	98-02	1750	$1,148,000	$266,586			x			x		
27.	Africa	Madagascar/CARE	98-02	1280	$839,700	$146,959		x				x		
28.	Africa	Madagascar/CRS	95-98	6906	$3,661,800	0.00	x					x		
29.	Africa	Mauritania/Doulos**	96-00	1688	$895,900	$11,000	x					x		
30.	Africa	Mozambique/ADRA	97-01	7560	$1,958,000	$130,529	x		x					
31.	Africa	Mozambique/Africare	97-01	4460	$1,155,100	$142,713	x		x					
32.	Africa	Mozambique/CARE*	97-01	9940	$2,574,500	$192,903	x		x					
33.	Africa	Mozambique/FBI*,**	97-01	7550	$1,955,500	0.00	x		x					
34.	Africa	Mozambique/SCF	97-01	5040	$1,305,400	$176,501	x		x					
35.	Africa	Mozambique/WVRD*	97-01	24660	$9,959,900	$739,247	x		x					
36.	Africa	Uganda/ACDI	97-01	4000	$4,328,000	$281,654			x					
37.	Africa	Uganda/Africare	97-01	3570	$1,281,600	$177,926			x					
AFRICA SUBTOTAL				**222732**	**$97,016,500**	**$5,800,200**								
38.	Asia	Bangladesh/CARE	94-99	80000	$20,720,000	0.00			x					
39.	Asia	India/CARE**	97-01	146254	$74,159,400	$244,399	x							
40.	Asia	India/CRS	97-01	49601	$21,137,000	$1,623,540	x		x		x	x		
ASIA SUBTOTAL				**275855**	**$116,016,400**	**$1,867,939**								
41.	LAC	Bolivia/ADRA	97-01	15992	$7,879,700	$338,328	x	x	x		x			
42.	LAC	Bolivia/FHI	97-01	9043	$4,312,900	$278,123	x	x	x		x			
43.	LAC	Bolivia/PCI	97-01	10700	$5,188,400	$351,945	x	x	x		x			
44.	LAC	Guatemala/CARE	96-00	12279	$5,639,500	$159,300	x	x				x		
45.	LAC	Guatemala/CRS	97-01	13945	$6,271,800	$100,431	x		x			x		x
46.	LAC	Guatemala/FTC**	97-01	822	$380,500	0.00						x		
47.	LAC	Guatemala/SHARE	96-00	6331	$3,261,200	$199,285	x					x		
48.	LAC	Haiti/ADRA*	96-00	16836	$7,417,900	$250,000	x		x		x	x		
49.	LAC	Haiti/CARE*	96-00	18984	$8,346,500	$33,750	x	x		x		x		
50.	LAC	Haiti/CRS*	96-00	15331	$6,827,300	0.00	x				x	x		
51.	LAC	Honduras/CARE	96-00	11399	$4,481,700	$220,599	x		x			x		
52.	LAC	Nicaragua/ADRA	96-00	1054	$551,100	$231,250	x							
53.	LAC	Nicaragua/PCI	97-01	1278	$661,800	$143,423	x							
54.	LAC	Nicaragua/SCF	96-00	1290	$667,200	$285,102	x							
55.	LAC	Peru/ADRA	96-00	16020	$8,900,500	$246,278	x		x					
56.	LAC	Peru/CARE	96-00	28077	$16,256,400	0.00	x		x					
57.	LAC	Peru/Caritas**	96-00	25006	$12,893,100	0.00	x		x			x		
58.	LAC	Peru/PRISMA**	96-00	21466	$12,085,400	0.00	x		x			x		
59.	LAC	Peru/Technoserve	98-02	3400	$2,230,400	0.00			x					
LAC SUBTOTAL				**229253**	**$114,253,300**	**$2,837,814**								
TOTAL APPROVED				**727840**	**$327,286,200**	**$10,505,953**								

Source: FFP SO2 FY 2000 R4

HN-health/nutrition; WS-water/sanitation; AG-agriculture; NR-natural resources; ED-education; HA-humanitarian assistance; RI-road/infrastructure; ME-micro-enterprise

* These programs were provided FY97 commodities for use in FY98; FY99 programs, when approved, may be provided FY98 commodites.

** FY97 Section 202(e) funds were used for grants to support FY98 activities for these programs.

*** The 'micro-enterprise' category may be under-represented because of integration into a larger program under another technical area.

**** 202(e) Recap: $10,505,953 (above total)+$70,986 (env. workshops)+$637,450 (CRS A133 grant)+$5,611 (unobligated balance)-$11,220,000 (202(e) development programs budget)

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Redefining PCI/Bolivia's MCH program: A Case Study on Nutrition

Background

Project Concern International (PCI) is a non-profit, non-sectarian organization dedicated to helping improve the healthcare and quality of health in many locations throughout the world. In Bolivia, PCI maximizes community involvement through PL-480 Title II programs which are operated in two of the poorest Departments of the country, Cochabamba and Potosí. PCI/Bolivia is working to ensure that Title II resources are used to their greatest potential, with feasible goals that guarantee sustainability and a change of knowledge, attitudes, and practices.

PCI recently conducted an extensive baseline study of the areas of Cochabamba and Potosí gathering information that will aid the implementation of its programs in the final 3 years of the Development Activity Plan. What was most noteworthy was the chronic status of malnutrition of children under 5yrs that was found among the rural population: 68% in Potosí and 65% in Cochabamba. It is well recognized that malnutrition is a complex situation that is not only attributed to the lack of, or absence of, an adequate diet, but also to social, economic and cultural conditions. Given these circumstances, PCI decided that the Title II MCH program needed a more profound approach to improve the nutritional situation.

Following the baseline study PCI's nutritionists in Cochabamba and Potosí identified possible ways of improving the nutritional state of PCI's beneficiaries in light of the chronic status of malnutrition. The lack of food security in Bolivia grows worse each year, and increasingly affects the most vulnerable groups, principally children under the age of five, and pregnant and/or lactating mothers. The effects of malnutrition are numerous and well known, including: the impairment of psychomotor development in children under five; lifelong affects on the cognitive and intellectual skills of chronically malnourished in the first three years of life; stagnated physical growth in young children; and devastating health effects on newborn babies, pregnant women and lactating mothers who do not receive adequate diets.

Beneficiaries of PCI Bolivia's Title II program in Cochabamba and Potosí are steeped in a historic and conservative culture, and primarily speak the traditional languages of Quechua and Aymara. In spite of their considerable isolation from the modern world, traditional practices have been lost over time, most notably those involving nutrition. There has been a progressive loss of native products, high in protein, vitamins and minerals, which formed part of the daily diet. Examples of these products include:

- High-altitude wheat (a different composition from valley-grown wheat)
- Various altitude cereals such as *cañahua* (served as a hot oatmeal drink) and *quinua aijarz* (a nutritious local grain)
- Medicinal plants that were once consumed as leafy green legumes: *amargón, diente de león, yaku zapatilla, and llulluch'a*
- Traditional fruits, that have been progressively lost and were high in vitamin C and minerals, like *achacena* (cactus fruit) and *ayrampo* (a wild red berry)
- The critical loss of particular animals as important sources of meat

A Different Approach

Although these foods are native to Bolivia, their vanishing trend is not. The gradual losses of traditional customs have harmed the alimentary life of many developing world populations. In recognition of all these facts, PCI/Bolivia designed a more local approach to nutrition and family health. It is PCI's belief that nutritional initiatives that are culturally appropriate need to be integrated into all facets of PCI's Title II activities.

Currently PCI's MCH component and Water/Basic Sanitation component go hand in hand. Communities with the MCH program (a combination of supplementary food ration and education and training on nutrition and improved practices) are also eligible for safe water systems and latrines, should a need exist. The idea is to ensure that communities not only receive

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the education on improved health practices, but also, have the means to take action. The MCH component therefore takes responsibility for educating mothers on the importance of safe water for the reduction of diarrhea, while providing education on superior eating practices. The donated commodities are utilized as examples of how to prepare more nutritious meals with relatively basic food items. PCI's engineers, in turn, take responsibility for educating and training community members on the maintenance of the systems to ensure their future use.

PCI has ensured that the educational component is culturally appropriate and locally understood. PCI initiated a large-scale investigation of the common perceptions and ideas about health, illness, and the human body. The result was the creation of a manual for distribution among health personnel that detailed local words for body parts, diseases, and common practices. For example most indigenous women customarily bury the placenta after childbirth. Women, therefore, rejected birth attendance at local health facilities because staff did not understand this strong cultural belief and did not turn over the placenta for communal burial. The manual has been very successful in helping to create an environment in which health staff understands local customs and the community feels more comfortable using health facilities, medicines and advice.

PCI's next step is to integrate nutritional initiatives into the agricultural support program, which consists of two facets, irrigation and road improvement/construction, which are intended to expand economic opportunities. The idea is to complement the irrigation element with family or solar gardens, depending upon the altitude at which the community lives. The MCH program in coordination with the irrigation design team would compliment the actual irrigation systems by providing educational information on the inadequacy of current diets and the need for vegetables, as well as the actual building of family gardens. Under the Food for Work program, the community builds most irrigation systems, therefore, facilitating the opportunity for nutritional talks, and the construction of gardens.

The road improvement/construction component of the program is designed to help small rural farmers move their products to market in order to increase family incomes. Currently, most families spend what little income they receive buying products such as sugar and noodles, which contribute little nutritional value to their diet because starches, such as potatoes, are generally abundant. Families served by the improvement and construction of roads would also have the opportunity to receive educational talks on the need for diversified nourishment. Opportunities for meeting with the community are available, as community involvement under Food for Work is also used.

To ensure cultural appropriateness, PCI begins by involving various communities in focus groups to obtain a better understanding of the community's ideas on nutrition and what local products they feel could best complement their diet.

The Role of Nutrients

Food provides energy to the body in the form of proteins, fats, carbohydrates, and essential vitamins and minerals that are required for growth and the conservation of cells and tissues. An adequate diet must contain a sufficient quantity and quality of nutrients in order to satisfy the body's needs. In Bolivia, there is currently no national statistical information available on the consumption of food by the general population. National surveys conducted between 1962 and 1978 indicated that within the Bolivian population, a caloric deficiency of 14.6% and a protein deficiency of 33.4% existed. Current estimates by NGOs and other organizations place these numbers much higher, due to the loss of traditional products and the increasing cost of living, which has not been offset by an increase in purchasing power, particularly among rural residents. A final issue is the large consumption of coca leaves among altiplanic populations, in order to suppress hunger and provide energy to work in extremely cold temperatures and difficult farming situations.

Nutritional recommendations and daily diet rations for the Bolivian population are based on specific suggestions made by the Food and Agriculture Organization. The calculations were defined for a man or women between 23-49 years of age, in decent health, living in a comfortable temperature range, consuming a balanced diet, and engaging in moderate physical activity. For populations in Cochabamba and Potosí adjustments were made to calculate the ideal consumption by a rural farmer family. The numbers are higher because PCI's beneficiaries live in harsh climates and exert extreme levels of physical activity in their everyday life.

DAILY RECOMMENDATIONS FOR A RURAL FARMER FAMILY

	Calories	Protein	Fats	Carbs	Iron	Vit.A	B1 mg	B2 mg	Niacin mg	Vit.C
Adult Male	3245	81	90	527	19	750	1.1	1.5	17.9	60
Adult Female	2542	63	71	413	28	750	0.9	1.1	13.9	60
Adolescent	2724	68	75	442	20	737	1	1.4	17.2	60
Primary School	2329	58	65	378	12	497	0.9	1.2	14.9	47.5
Pre-school	1470	37	41	239	19	262	0.6	0.7	9.2	45
Total Family	**12,307**	**307**	**342**	**1,999**	**80**	**2,987**	**4.5**	**5.9**	**73.1**	**272**

IDEAL RATION FOR AN ADULT RURAL FARMER

TOTAL: 3245 cal/day and 81 grams of protein

Food Item	Quantity *(grams)*	Portion	Consumption Frequency
Milk	210	1cup	Daily
Meat	90	1 regular portion	4x a week
Egg	40	1 unit	3x a week
Vegetables	220	2 regular portions	Daily
Fruits	240	2 units	Daily
Legumes	60	1 plate	2x a week
Starch	280	2 medium units	Daily
Sugar	50	9 spoons	Daily
Fats	40	8 spoons	Daily
Cereals	200	4 portions	Daily

Taking into account these ideal nutrition values, PCI investigated the availability of local vegetables in order to select the ones that could be incorporated into a family garden. A more extensive investigation will take place once pilot projects have proven successful. To date, the vegetables selected were from studies in 2 provinces in Cochabamba and 1 province in Potosí. Due to Bolivia's remarkable geographic conditions the cultivated vegetables could vary between municipalities that are only kilometers apart but live at very different altitudes, with contrasting climates and vegetation. Vegetables that are not only high in nutrition but also, which can be grown with facility at high altitudes and are culturally acceptable will make the gardens a sustainable project.

DARK GREEN, YELLOW AND ORANGE VEGETABLES

Vegetables 100 grams	Calories	Vitamin A Mg.	Vitamin C Mg.	Iron Mg.
Carrot	35	2002	5	.4
Parsley	62	800	385	7.6
Celery	48	580	30	8.5
Chard	25	473	28	5.3
Spinach	34	383	20	7.5
Squash	30	300	10	1.0
Onion	24	168	65	4.8
Haba *(Giant local Lima Bean)*	84	184	28	3.2
Fresh Pea	71	129	33	2.3

OTHER VEGETABLES

Vegetables 100 grams	Calories	Vitamin A Mg.	Vitamin C Mg.	Iron Mg.
Tomato	20	86	20	1.0
Green Pepper	31	54	55	1.1
Green Beans	35	52	16	1.3
Cabbage	26	46	43	1.1
Chili	30	41	10	0.7
Cauliflower	29	12	64	1.6
Radish	20	—	19	1.6
Giant Squash	27	3	7	0.9
Turnip	30	trace	25	1.5
Cucumber	13	trace	17	0.7
Beets	57	trace	5	1.6

With respect to the use of vegetables, PCI has taken into account that radishes, turnips, cauliflower, and cabbage are vegetables that impede the metabolism of iodine, which can in turn cause iodine deficiency (common at high altitudes) leading to goiter and other serious health implications. Bolivian farming land contains very low levels of iodine causing iodine deficiency to be a considerable problem. There is a national iodine program in existence but the problem continues to be considerable.

Projection of Food Needs in Cochabamba and Potosí

The following table has projections for the necessary production of vegetables for a subsistent rural family:

Food	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Annual
	Recommendations			
Green and Yellow Vegetables	400g	2.8 K	12 K	146 K
Other Vegetables	600g	4.2K	18 K	219 K

The projections are based on an edible portion/net weight, meaning that the vegetable is without shell, seed, or extraneous leaves. Gross weight is the weight of the vegetable immediately following harvest, or if it is sold without being "gleaned".

Final Comments and Recommendations

The consumption of garden vegetables represents between 2% and 6% of the total needed calories. Although calorically their content is minimal their nutritional value is very important, such as the high content of ascorbic acid (Vitamin C), and Vitamin A in the form of Beta Carotene and water (around 90%) representing an important part of the needed fluid intake. Another important contribution is that of fiber (a set of non-digestible carbohydrates, such as cellulose and semi-cellulose) whose function is to increase the intestinal peristaltism necessary for adequate functioning of the intestines. An adjustment to the energy level (caloric) recommendations is necessary in cold, harsh climates: in cold temperature increase by 3% and in extremely cold climates a decrease of 5 % is essential.

In the building of gardens and green houses at the family level, it is necessary for each family to have a cultivation area sufficient for their nutritional needs, as well as the production of low-maintenance vegetables to ensure that daily work is not affected. For example a family who has 2 beds of vegetables sized 40 meters squared by 10 rows of 40 meters squared will cover their nutritional needs by 100% and have a surplus of 75% for market selling.

It is necessary to investigate which native plants can be cultivated while taking the region into consideration. For example in two areas of Cochabamba culiza, jatago, and mostaza are native green leafy vegetables that are high in Vitamin A and are very resistant to the agro-ecological conditions of the area.

Thus, by using Title II resources to support local solutions to meet nutritional needs, PCI Bolivia has been able to impact the complex and vicious cycle of malnutrition. By making nutrition an important part of every project or program, rural families receive a better understanding of the importance of nutrition, and begin to view it not only a health issue, but as an economic, social and cultural one.

** Credit for the nutritional investigation goes to Ana Crespo, PCI's nutritionist; other information provided by Dr. Evaristo Maida and Dr. Oscar Velasco, PCI's health directors.*

Hermetic Grain Storage Technology: *Increasing farmers food security potential in Mozambique*

Verona Parkinson, WVRD Mozambique

Introduction

In Mozambique, the crop sub-sector comprises about 95% of total agricultural sector production. The main food crops are cereals (maize, sorghum, millet and rice), and cassava, and the most important non-grain starch staples are beans and groundnuts. Cereals are cultivated on about 45% of total available area for food production. This therefore gives important cash income opportunities to a great number of farmers, especially in the export of maize and rice. Cereals are also important food security commodities.

Post war agricultural recovery has been geared towards poverty alleviation through increasing agricultural production via an expansion of cultivated land area, increased yields and diversification of agricultural crops.

Constraints to this development process include lack of credit and the availability and supply of inputs. Increased agricultural production is further reduced by post-harvest problems such as handling and storage. Post-harvest losses appear extremely high because of lack of developed market infrastructure and inadequate storage facilities. Storage is an integral part of food security and its importance in tropical countries has been well documented (O'Dowd, et. al. 1987).

There is little information on the amount of maize produced by the farmer which is kept for home consumption. Crop Storage is either in the farmer's house or in barns which double as kitchens. This practice can be regarded as a form of food security. With increased production, there is surplus beyond the farm family's need for subsistence. Surpluses translate into increased rural household income/increased food security. It is therefore important to provide reliable storage facilities at the farm level that will respond to the problems of insect infestation and mold development.

World Vision- Mozambique (WV-Moz) in collaboration with the national agricultural research institute (INIA), is developing and promoting improved on-farm storage facilities for an extended shelf life of farmers' food and surpluses. The farmer can benefit from the positive upward market forces in the price of produce all year round and continue to have good quality food supply.

To ensure sustainability in the areas of post- harvest losses, WV-Moz is working with farmers to test and adopt technologically affordable, environmentally safe and culturally appropriate storage practices. Farmers in several agro-ecological zones compared the promising hermetically sealed cocoon to traditional storage structures.

The cocoons also provided an appropriate storage strategy for food procurement in response to abnormal situations such as floods, which may create food shortages in some areas of WV-Moz's intervention.

Description of improved storage structures

The PVC structures designed by GrainPro, Inc. are low maintenance, easily transportable bags suitable for storage of small quantities (5-50 MT) of bagged grain. The lower part of the cocoon is placed on dry and level ground and then loaded. When fully loaded, the upper part is drawn over the stack and the upper and lower sections are zipped together to form a gas-tight hermetic seal.

Hermetic storage controls insects by preventing entry of oxygen from the outside to replenish the oxygen deficient atmosphere on the inside. The condition on the inside is a natural modification of the atmosphere, caused by the aerobic respiration of the grain, storage of the insect pests, and microflora. The build up of carbon dioxide results in death of stored insect pests.

The GrainPro cocoon was chosen for the following functional reasons:

I. Increase the availability of food through the reduction of post-harvest losses
II. Control storage insect pest damage without the use of chemicals
III. Improve the quality of food by enhancing storage conditions
IV. Increase income generating capacities of farmers through the adoption of improved grain storage technologies
V. Fast and easy to assemble and dismantle
VI. Can liberate space for other purposes when not in use

Description of traditional storage

Traditional storage structures are constructed with local materials of wood, clay and straw. It takes about two weeks to construct a good size store. In many communities, the crop is stored in the ceiling and the ground floor serves as a kitchen. This way, smoke is used to dry the grain and to control insect pest damage.

Objectives

The objectives of the studies conducted were:

I. To test the effect of hermetic storage on dry cereal and grain legumes for the control of insect pests, molds and rodents.
II. To test the effect of temperature on seed viability over time in storage.

Maize, cowpea and groundnut were stored in 5 and 10 ton cocoons at various locations in five provinces in Mozambique. Controls were kept in farmers' traditional storage facilities for comparison. The study was conducted with farmers'

groups to ensure that there was enough maize to fill each bag to capacity, avoiding rodent damage. When the structures are filled to their rated capacity, the plastic is kept under tension and provides a slippery surface which is extremely difficult for rodents to gnaw through (Navarro and Donhaye, 1985).

Results and Discussion

An evaluation of the quality and quantity of loss during storage in the structures was conducted over a period of 60 days.

Proper drying of grain prior to storage is important to maintain grain quality. An average grain moisture content of 12% at the time of storage was maintained in the cocoon - a good moisture level. However, grain moisture content was significantly lower in traditional storage structures due to continuous drying as a result of heat from the application of smoke.

Insect Damage & Insect Count

Highly significant differences were found in damaged grain and insect count results between the hermetically stored grain and the control under traditional storage. While the insect population increased in both storage systems over the storage period, there was a total kill of insects in one cocoon and very low count of live insects in the other cocoons. As a result the percentage of damaged grain was very low. The high level of live insects in the controls showed that smoke had no effect in controlling stored insect population. In some samples of the control, 100% insect damaged grain was recorded.

Weight Loss

Grain weight in traditional storage at the end of the trial was significantly low compared to grain weight at the beginning. This was due to a combination of insect damage and reduced moisture content as a result of smoking.

Seed viability

Between the cocoon and traditional storage methods, there was no significant difference in seed germination over the storage period of 60 days. There was also no significance in the interaction of storage period and storage system.

Farmers' appreciation

The 100 farmers who attended farmers' field days were highly impressed by the effect of hermetic storage on insect population and grain quality over results obtained in their granaries. They acknowledged that this kind of storage could result in high market price for their produce and think that this technology will respond to their storage needs. Factors such as no chemical requirements, ability to store different bagged crops at the same time, and ease of setting up the structure were attractive to them.

There is potential for this environmentally friendly storage technology for the subsistence farmer and farmers' groups in developing countries.

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Food From Peace: Breaking the Links between Conflict and Hunger

IFPRI 2020 Vision Brief 50, June 1998

Ellen Messer, Marc J. Cohen, and Jashinta D'Costa[1]

Creating a hunger-free world in the 21st century will require prevention and resolution of violent conflicts, as well as a concerted effort to rebuild war-torn societies. Between 1970 and 1990 violent conflicts led to hunger and reduced food production and economic growth in 43 developing countries. The reverse is also true, however: hunger and lack of access to basic necessities often lie at the root of violent conflicts. In the 1990s, complex humanitarian emergencies, as the result of conflicts, proliferated. By 1996, armed hostilities and their aftermath put 80 million people at risk of hunger, including 23 million refugees, 27 million displaced within their own countries, and 30 million trapped within combat areas. Resolving hostilities and reversing associated agricultural and economic losses are critical if agriculture and human development outlooks are to improve in the 21st century. Conflict prevention must also be a goal of development and emergency assistance programs.

Conflict Links to Hunger

Conflict destroys land, water, biological, and social resources for food production, while military expenditures lower investments in health, education, agriculture, and environmental protection. Conflict leads to food insecurity through such deliberate acts as sieges of cities, stripping of victims' assets, destruction of markets, elimination of health care, and breakup of communities. Other consequences of war are less intentional: people, including farmers and pastoralists, lose their livelihoods when workplaces become inaccessible. Once conflict ends, land mines must be removed, water systems refurbished, trees replanted, housing rebuilt, and communities revitalized. Without essential food and infrastructure, fragile peace can easily revert to conflict.

"Food wars," defined here to include the use of hunger as a weapon or hunger that follows from destructive conflict, are implicated in the famines of the 1980s and 1990s in Africa, and in chronic underproduction, food insecurity, and resource-poor post-conflict economies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

A methodology designed to measure differences between food production in peaceful and war years suggests that a close

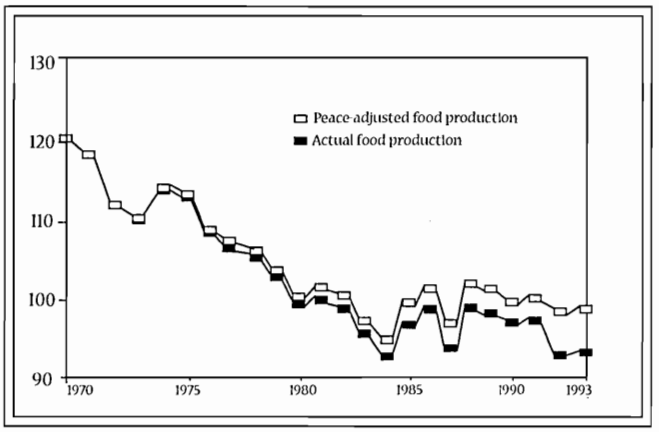
relationship exists between conflict and declining per capita food production in Sub-Saharan Africa during 1970-93. This shows that countries experiencing conflict on average produced 12.4 percent less food per capita in war years than in peacetime. Comparison of wartime and "peace-adjusted" trends shows that since 1980, peace would have added 2 to 5 percent to Africa's food production per capita per year. In the 1990s, war reduced food production per capita by 3.9 to 5.3 percent (see Figure 1).

Hunger Links to Conflict

Food and economic insecurity and natural resource scarcities-real and perceived-also can be major sources of conflict. When politically dominant groups seize land and food resources, deny access to other culturally or economically marginalized groups, and cause hunger and scarcities, violence often flares. In Ethiopia, Rwanda, and Sudan, food crises resulting from drought and mismanagement of agriculture and relief and development aid led to rebellion and government collapse, followed by even greater food shortfalls in ensuing years of conflict. Denial of the right to food has been linked to uprisings and civil war in Central America and Mexico. Food insecurity is also integral to civil conflicts in Asia. Competition for resources has generated cycles of hunger and hopelessness that have bred violence in Sri Lanka as well as Rwanda.

Since the 1980s, aid agencies have moved food into conflict zones to prevent noncombatant famine deaths. Unfortunately, combatants often hijack food aid and use it to reward supporters, starve opponents, and keep conflict alive. The challenge is to deliver aid that saves lives and renews productive capacities without fueling further fighting.

***Figure 1-Actual and peace-adjusted food production in Sub-Saharan Africa, 1970-93**, Index of per capita food production (1979-81=100)*



Source: World Hunger Program, Brown University, calculated from FAO data

In southern Sudan, for example, both government and opposition forces have used food and hunger as weapons to control territory and people. Armed groups have commandeered food aid. By 1998, 2.6 million people required emergency food aid, and a third of the country's children were malnourished. Northern Arab Islamic interests vie with those of southern Black animists and Christians in a protracted struggle over the south's fertile land, water, and petroleum, in addition to hearts and minds.

Linking Relief to Development and Peace

Breaking the links between hunger and conflict must become a goal of food, agricultural, environmental, and economic development policy. For the international community this will entail paying closer attention to relief of food insecurity that can lead to conflict; delivery of development aid in ways that prevent competition leading to conflict; distribution of essential food aid in ways that do not prolong conflict; and special attention to reconstruction assistance.

By 1996, 10 cents of every aid dollar went to emergencies; at the same time official development aid had decreased 15 percent from 1991. This means fewer resources for investments in human well-being - including primary health care, clean water, sanitation, education, agricultural research, environmental restoration, and food security - that could help forestall conflicts.

To address this dilemma, aid officials have emphasized aid that links relief to development, leading to long-run economic growth and averting the need for further aid in the future. But emergency relief also must include conflict mitigation whenever possible. Once the conflict ends, aid agencies need to engage the affected communities in transforming humanitarian programs into reconstruction and development activities. Aid should provide incentives for intergroup cooperation, rather than reinforcing the competition that led to violence to begin with, and should draw, where appropriate, on traditional social structures and conflict resolution mechanisms.

For example, post-conflict Eritrea has established an ambitious reconstruction plan. Demobilized troops and returning refugees receive credit and training for reconstruction and income generation activities. Workers are often paid with food aid. But administrative costs are high, financial constraints are severe, and the government has not consistently forged partnerships with communities for project design and implementation.

Policy Recommendations and Further Research

It is essential to include conflict prevention in food security and development efforts, and to link food security and economic development to relief. Savings from conflict avoidance should be calculated as "returns" to aid. Humanitarian assistance must include agricultural and rural development components that lead to secure livelihoods and build sustainable social and agricultural systems, such as efficient water management, biodiversity in seed selection, and community participation. Such new thinking would shape new policies:

- Official aid agencies and nongovernmental organizations, in partnership with developing-country governments and communities, should develop conflict early-warning systems incorporating social, cultural, political, and economic factors.
- Relief and development assistance in pre-, active, and post-conflict zones must reach the most vulnerable civilians and nurture peaceful development.
- Aid agencies should work with both women and men in affected communities to identify appropriate seeds, tools, labor organization, land and water management, and links to government agencies and markets to achieve rehabilitation

of agricultural production and build local capacity to respond to hunger and prevent conflict.
- Aid should be delivered in ways that demand accountability from those delivering it, so that it reaches those who need it most.
- Government planning and aid programs should consider whether policies will promote peace, assessing their likely impact on food security, equity, and poverty alleviation.

Supportive research should identify immediate and underlying causes of conflict, key early-warning indicators, and social, political, and economic dynamics that can foster peaceful change in resource-poor areas. Research is also needed on emerging local groups with whom development planners might devise strategies for monitoring conflict prevention, resolution, and reconstruction, and on ways to integrate sustainable management of natural resources, food and livelihood security for conflict-prone populations at local, national, and regional levels.

The relationships among conflict, agricultural underproduction, food insecurity, and natural resource scarcity are clear. Positive scenarios for food, agriculture, and the environment in 2020 depend on protecting peace where conflict is imminent, achieving peace where conflict is active, and sustaining peace where conflict has ceased.

This brief is based on 2020 Vision Discussion Paper 24 of the same title.

[1] *Ellen Messer is an anthropologist at the Watson Institute of International Studies, Brown University, and former director of the World Hunger Program. Marc J. Cohen is special assistant to the director general of the International Food Policy Research Institute. Jashinta D'Costa was associate food security specialist at Save the Children Federation/U.S.*

Of Ports and Partnership

Kevin Tobin, CRS

The two-year, OFDA-funded Commodity Storage & Loss Reduction Project comes to a close September 30th, 1998. CRS, CARE and WVRD all participated with a variety of activities designed primarily to identify and reduce losses in the food aid pipeline. Collaboration among the participating PVOs, FFP, OFDA and USDA was encouraged from the beginning. Collaboration has taken the form of sharing commodity loss data, sharing ideas for activities and methodologies, and invitations for multi-PVO participation in meetings, trips and workshops. A summary of the results of the projects activities were presented at two dissemination workshops held over the summer in Haiti and South Africa. The proceedings and recommendations have been published by FAM and are now available from the FSRC.

One of the activities CRS worked on under this project can illustrate the value of collaboration/cooperation/partnership - whichever term you prefer - in our efforts to be good stewards of the food aid commodities entrusted to us by the US government.

First, some background. All food aid shipments are surveyed at discharge in the foreign port by independent surveyors hired by the PVOs or USDA. These surveys are the primary means for determining the quantity and quality of the commodities unloaded and serve as a basis for filing loss claims against the steamship companies. CRS enters the information from these surveys into a database at our NY Shipping office and we now have more than five years of data available. That information shows us that half of all marine losses over the past five years are due to short landed commodities - in other words the commodities were not unloaded at the destination port for whatever reason. For CRS this amounts to 220,000 units (a unit is one 25 or 50 Kg bag or one carton or pail of vegetable oil) - enough to fill a large warehouse and feed thousands of people. What happened to these commodities?

PVOs actually take title of their food aid commodities as they are unloaded into the US port warehouse, before they are loaded onto the ship. Traditionally the PVOs, CRS included, have not had a presence at the US ports, but rely on the ports and steamship companies to properly handle the commodities. Also, USDA implemented a Vessel Loading Observation Procedure (VLOP) four years ago whereby a Federal Grain Inspector witnesses the loading of blended commodities onto the vessel to insure that no damaged bags go onto the ship.

In an effort to track down some of the short landed commodities, CRS decided, with the advice and encouragement of the USDA Kansas City Management Office and the USDA packaging specialist, to visit a US port during the loading of commodities. We hired an independent survey company to count all the commodities in a call forward bound for Madagascar out of Lake Charles, Louisiana. The survey involved counting the commodities in the port warehouse after they arrived and again during the loading of the vessel. The survey revealed inadequate warehousing and security before and during the loading, and an inaccurate bill of lading. Damaged commodities not loaded were included in the BL and torn rice bags were sown up and loaded without reconstitution or notice that they were underweight. The loading survey, along with the discharge survey, confirmed however that the VLOP worked -very few if any damaged CSB bags were loaded onto the ship.

We shared these findings with USDA and in a spirit of partnership we were invited to participate in meetings with USDA in Kansas City and in Washington, DC to discuss the problems and the potential solutions. The results are encouraging. The port has implemented changes to improve warehousing and security. USDA has decided to extend the Vessel Loading Observation Procedure to include all commodities - not just blended commodities. This is due to go into effect on January 1st after the guidelines are revised - with PVO input. USDA has issued a Notice to the Trade requiring all Bills of Lading to accurately reflect what is loaded onto the ship, not what was unloaded off the railcars into the port. USDA has also committed to participate with CRS and CARE in a further study of both US ports and a foreign port in an effort to create guidelines for encouraging proper handling and loss reduction in food aid shipments.

We hold this up as but one example of what can be/has been accomplished when a spirit of partnership and communication serves as a foundation in our work. In our opinion, this spirit has been instrumental in the overall success of this loss reduction project and has opened the door for increased cooperation in the future among all the players involved in the food aid pipeline.

If you want more information on this matter please contact: Kevin Tobin at Catholic Relief Services kjtobin@catholicrelief.org.

PVO Monetization Manual

At FAM's annual meeting last October, three working groups were formed to address specific issues related to Title II food aid programming. One of these groups, the Monetization Working Group, established as one of its primary objectives the identification of areas of collaborative action for the purposes of strengthening capacity of cooperating sponsors to design and carry out monetization activities.' Among the first decisions taken by the Monetization Working Group was to commission the publication of an updated monetization manual and corresponding training materials to be used by all cooperating sponsors involved in monetizing Title II commodities. Bridget Ralyea was hired to complete the task. She provides us here with frequently asked questions about the manual.

Q: Food for Peace (FFP) is in the processing of finalizing its updated Monetization Field Manual, and a number of the Title II cooperating sponsors (CSs) already have their own monetization guidelines in place. Why do we need another manual?

A: FFP's manual provides background on USAID's policy with regard to Title II monetization, and it guides the CS on how to comply with government legislation, regulations, and policy requirements associated with Title II monetization. What the manual does not do is provide specific guidance on the nuts and bolts of monetization. Existing CS manuals do provide this type of guidance. However, most of these manuals were written in the late 1980s or early 1990s and thus are not current with respect to the circumstances, issues, and challenges the CSs are facing today. (For example, USAID has instituted a "cost recovery benchmark" that most monetization transactions must be able to meet; traders in recipient countries now have access to up-to-the-minute pricing information and thus are bargaining harder than ever before; the percent of monetized non-emergency commodities reached approximately 40 percent in FY 1998, which has raised some red flags among commodity producers and processors.) Most importantly, however, the manual was commissioned to facilitate collaboration between and among CSs with respect to monetization.

Q: What will be the focus of the training materials, and how will they be used?

A: The training materials will be developed as independent modules, one module to correspond to each chapter of the manual. If, for example, a particular field office requires training in managing monetization proceeds, a trainer can take that individual module to the field to present the material. Where applicable, the training modules will include exercises and problems for workshop participants to complete in order to further their understanding of the material.

Q: Many of the CS field staff who work day-to-day with monetization have acquired valuable knowledge and experience. How will this knowlege and experience be incorporated into the manual?

A: The current plan is to incorporate at least one case study into each chapter. The case study will present a "best practice" or "lesson learned" that is relevant to the chapter material. For example, in the chapter concerning "commodity sales," a CS might relate its experience about the importance of providing samples of the commodity being monetized so that the buyers know exactly what they'll be getting.

Q: Who will supply the case studies?

A: Responsibility for the case studies rests primarily with CS field staff since they are the ones who have learned the lessons and discovered the best practices. In July and again in August, CS headquarters staff members who participate in the Monetization Working Group were asked to forward the following documents to those field offices who are involved with monetizing Title II commodities: the draft outline for the PVO Monetization Manual; the objectives for each chapter; and a list of ideas for case studies. At the time these documents were forwarded to the field, the field offices should have been asked to provide feedback on the outline and to volunteer to write one or more case studies. Working Group members will be canvassed at the end of September to find out which of their field offices will be writing case studies and what the case study topics will be and whether any of the field offices provided feedback on the outline.

Q: When will the manual and training modules be available?

A: The project is scheduled to be completed by March 31, 1999.

Q: I would like more information about the PVO Monetization Manual or would like to offer some thoughts and ideas. How can I contact Bridget Ralyea?

A. Bridget can be reached by telephone at 703-527-4520 or by e-mail at bridgetr@aol.com. She is very eager to be in touch with monetization practitioners.

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

The **FAM annual meeting** will be held in Baltimore on November 4-6, 1998. The first two days are reserved for a monetization workshop which will focus on the current state of monetization, new policies and where this use of food aid may be headed. November 6th will be used to discuss FAM issues and get updates from the working groups on Local Capacity Building, Monetization and Monitoring and Evaluation. FAM will also seek the input of members on the priority issues for the coming year.

During the week of September 14-18, **CARE organized a Title II conference** to examine the direction of their food aid programs in the future. The conference brought together many CARE field office representatives as well as headquarter staff, other PVO representatives, private sector reps, guest speakers from IFPRI, Congressional Research Service, and USAID's Office of Food for Peace. The conference reiterated the importance of food aid as a resource to CARE and other PVOs and provided a basis for planning on how to make the best use of this resource for programming and as leverage for other resources.

The **Reports on the Nutrition Situation of Refugees and Displaced Populations** (RNIS) are quarterly reports issued by the UN Administrative Committee on Coordination's Sub-committee on Nutrition (ACC/SCN) with "the intention of raising awareness and facilitating action to improve the situation". Updates are issued in the event of a rapidly changing situation. The reports can be accessed on the web at: www.unsystem.org/accscn/. The report relies on NGOs for some of its information and would like to receive reports from field offices working in refugee and displaced population situations. If you or your organization would like to contribute information to a report or receive them, please contact:

Jane Wallace, RNIS Coordinator
ACC/Sub-Committee on Nutrition (V222)
20, Avenue Appia
1211 Geneva 27, SWITZERLAND
Tel. (41-22) 791-0456, Fax. (41-22) 798-8891
e-mail: accscn@who.ch

The **annual WFP/NGO meeting** was held on October 1-2 in Rome and involved over 15 NGOs from Europe and the US. Issues discussed included a food aid review and development, preventive strategies to enhance security, food aid needs assessments as well as a proposed WFP policy paper on collaboration with the NGOs. In addition, WFP is planning a consultation with its partners for October 23-24 to review WFP's development programs. This is part of a review initiated by WFP's Executive Board on WFP's role in food aid for development.

Food Security Resource Center News

An increasing number of FSRC users have requested resources on participatory rural appraisal (PRA) for use in their food security and development programs. The bibliography below lists a sample of the PRA resources available at the FSRC. For more specific information or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact me at

Jessica Graef, Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212, Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC RESOURCES ON PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISAL (PRA)

Participatory rapid appraisal for community development. Training manual based on experiences in the Middle East and North Africa. *1991. Save the Children; Theis, Joachim and Heather M. Grady; Ford Foundation; International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). 150p. FSRC #5406.* This manual is designed to help put on a participatory rapid appraisal training. Includes background information on PRA, PRA tools and techniques, design, and implementation of PRA program.

Rapid appraisal methods. *1993. Kumar, Krishna (ed.). World Bank Regional and Sectoral Studies. 218p. FSRC#1139.* Collection of chapters on rapid appraisal methods. Includes a case study of application of PRA methodology to a community development program in Kenya.

Regional PRA exchange meeting: Challenging practice attitudes, documentation on the meeting. *October 12-16, 1997, Amman, Jordan. Near East Foundation. 77p.* Proceedings from regional workshop focusing on the attitudes and behavior of PRA practitioners. Includes the following topics: presentations by Robert Chambers, current situation of PRA, history of PRA in the region, PRA methodology and processes, behavior and attitude discussions, and community participation methodology.

Using rapid rural appraisal to study food security: An experience in the Kajiado District of Kenya, case studies. *May 1997. Catholic Relief Services. 74p.* Presents results of participatory food security learning activities. Examines the difference between RRA and PRA, outlines methodologies and techniques, and examines case studies.

Participatory rural appraisal handbook: Conducting PRAs in Kenya. *1991. National Environment Secretariat; Egerton University; Clark University; Center for International Development; Environment*

of the World Resources Institute 90p. FSRC #1241. PRA guide intended for village leaders and field extension officers working in local resource management. Provides background information on PRA; data gathering procedures; problem ranking techniques.

Participatory monitoring and impact assessment of sustainable agriculture initiatives. *July 1998. Guijt, Irene. SARL Discussion Paper No. 1. IIED. 112p.* Presents steps for planning and implementation of participatory monitoring process for sustainable agriculture programs. Includes descriptions of several participatory monitoring methods.

Changing views on change: Participatory approaches to monitoring the environment. *July 1998. Abbot, Joanne and Irene Guijt. SARL Discussion Paper No. 2. IIED. 96p.* Reviews participatory approaches to monitoring environmental change. Examines PRA and several other participatory monitoring techniques.

Rural appraisal: Rapid, relaxed and participatory. *1992. Chambers, Robert. 90p. FSRC #1988.* Outlines the principles, approaches, methods, techniques, and applications of RRA and PRA. Examines the strengths and weaknesses of PRA.

Whose reality counts? Putting the first last. *1997. Chambers, Robert. 297p.* Analyzes PRA methodology. Includes theoretical discussion, comparison of PRA and RRA, practical applications, insights from the PRA experience.

Learning from the poor: A participatory poverty assessment in Kenya. *May 1996. Narayan, Deepa and David Nyamwaya. World Bank Environment Department Paper No. 034. 65p.* Report on methodology and findings of Participatory Poverty Assessment conducted to complement statistical studies of poverty in Kenya. Data collection methods included PRA techniques. Outlines methodology and findings.

Can participatory evaluation meet the needs of all stakeholders? Evaluating the World Neighbors' West Africa program. *Rugh, Jim. Practicing Anthropology, vol. 19, no. 3, summer 1997. 6p.* Evaluates participatory research. Makes use of several participatory techniques, including PRA. Examines methodology, instruments used, advantages and limitations.

Annex 4: Selected techniques for M&E data collection and analysis - short takes. *Guidelines to monitoring and evaluation: How are we doing? January 1997. Barton, Tom. CARE-Uganda.* Includes sections on PRA tools such as social mapping, historical mapping, rapid social organization profile, group brainstorming, and ranking exercises.

Tools for the field: Methodologies handbook for gender analysis in agriculture. *1994. Feldstein, Hilary Sims and Janice Jiggins (eds). 270p. FSRC #1088.* Handbook on gender-sensitive research tools. Includes case studies of a wide range of research techniques, including PRA.

Gender is not a sensitive issue: institutionalizing a gender-oriented participatory approach in Siavonga, Zambia. *1997. Frischmuth, Christiane. Gatekeeper Series No. SA72. 16p.* Examines Zambian agricultural extension department's development of a participatory extension program that builds on PRA and takes gender into account.

Participatory program evaluation: A manual for involving program stakeholders in the evaluation process. *1994. Aubel, Judi. Catholic Relief Services-USCC. 70p. FSRC #1261.* Manual with guidelines for planning and implementation of participatory evaluation. Includes background on PRA and other participatory methods. Discusses concepts, practical steps, and references.

World Bank participation sourcebook. *1996. World Bank. 259p.* Includes sections on World Bank participatory approaches; participatory planning and decisionmaking; techniques to enable the poor to participate; appendices of methods and tools; working paper summaries. Includes sections on PRA methodology.

Rapid rural appraisal: Social science as investigative journalism. *1990. Gow, David. Methods for social analysis in developing countries. Finsterbusch, Kurt et al (eds). 20p. FSRC #2766.* Outlines the PRA socioeconomic data collection methodology for design of integrated rural development project in Afghanistan.

Rapid assessment procedures: Qualitative methodologies for planning and evaluation of health related programmes. *1992. Scrimshaw, Nevin and Gary Gleason (eds). International Nutrition Foundation for Developing Countries. 528p. FSRC #1057.* Covers a wide range of rapid assessment methodology, procedures, and applications. Includes the following PRA articles: applications in health and nutrition; experiences in Africa and India; use in nutrition surveys; comparison between RRA and PRA; use in development research.

Participatory evaluation: Tools for managing change in water and sanitation. *1993. Narayan, Deepa; World Bank. 121p. FSRC #1270.* Provides policymakers, managers, and planning and evaluation staff with ideas about the participatory process and indicators that can be used to involve community members and others in program evaluation. Includes sections on PRA.

Toward participatory research. *1996. Deepa Narayan. World Bank Technical Paper No. 307. 265p.* Guide to the planning and implementation of participatory research. Includes principles of participatory research, methodology and techniques (including PRA) used in the field, best practices, and checklists.

PLA Notes (Notes on Participatory Learning and Action). *IIED.*

- **Participatory monitoring and evaluation**. *Issue 31, February 1998. 96p.* Contains articles on use of transect walks and chapati diagrams in PRA; participatory community planning; institutionalizing participatory approaches in local NGOs; and participatory monitoring and evaluation.
- **Participation and fishing communities**. *Issue 30, October 1997. 108p.* Use of PRA to assess impact of tannery pollution; rapid food security assessment PRA-based methodology; adapting RRA methods for wetland assessment; use of PRA methods in fisheries management; and PRA for community-based coastal resource management.
- **Performance and participation**. *Issue 29, June 1997. 108p.* Analyzing communication in participatory appraisal; using

PRA in organizational self-assessment; using PRA in involving local farmers in agricultural extension; role of PRA in performance/visual arts.

- **Methodological complementarity**. *Issue 28, February 1997. 103p. FSRC #5214.* Role of PRA in understanding traditional knowledge and folklore; PRA and surveys.
- **Participation, policy and institutionalisation**. *Issue 27, October 1996.93p.* Linking PRA to policy in conflict analysis framework; attitude and behavior change in PRA.
- *Issue 26, June 1996. 73p.* Analysis of impact of macro-economic policies using PRA; PRA in international agricultural research; process observation in PRA.
- **Notes on participatory learning and action: Children's participation**. *February 1996. 90p. FSRC #5214.* Time-related PRA methods for refugee program; use of PRA for community mapping; gender and PRA; and PRA in conflict areas.

Participatory Rapid Appraisal: NEF Experience and Applications. *Near East Foundation, Eastern Mediterranean Region. 19p.* Brochure provides overview of PRA methodology and techniques. Discusses issues to consider in selecting PRA, techniques, tools, training, as well as use of PRA for data collection, evaluation, and institutional strengthening.

A participatory evaluation guide for OIC affiliates. *1996. OIC International, Inc. 95p.* Manual designed for use by OIC program managers and staff. Provides overview of internal and external evaluation methodology. Covers logical framework (LogFrame) approach, planning and implementation steps for an evaluation.

Alternative approaches to locating the food insecure: Qualitative and quantitative evidence from South India. *January 1997. Chung, Kimberley et al. IFPRI Food Consumption and Nutrition Division Discussion Paper No. 22. 103p.* Report on two methods for identifying alternative indicators of food insecurity. Data collection methods section outlines PRA-based portions of the surveys.

ON ORDER:

Le diagnostic participatif (participatory rural appraisal): Astuces et aides-memoires pour les participants d'un atelier d'initiation. *1992. Ellsworth, Lynn et al. PRAAP.*

Looking back and looking forward: A participatory approach to evaluation. *1994. Aaker, Jerry and Jennifer Shumaker. Heifer Project International.*

Toolkits: A practical guide to assessment, monitoring, review And evaluation. *1995. Gosling, Louisa with Michael Edwards. Save the Children/UK.*

A basic guide to evaluation for development workers. *1995. Rubin, Frances. Oxfam Publishing.*

Partners in evaluation: Evaluating development and community programmes with participants. *1993. Feurstein, Marie-Thérèse.*

Social survey methods: A guide for development workers. *1991. Nichols, Paul. Oxfam.*

PRA WEBSITES

The following websites contain useful PRA information:

http://nt1.ids.ac.uk/eldis/pra/pra.htm
Eldis Participation Guide. Provides overview of organizations working on participation and PRA issues, links to relevant full-text documents and web sites, and links to PRA bibliographies.

http://www.iadb.org/ENGLISH/POLICIES/participate/index.htm
Inter-American Development Bank Resource Book on Participation. Full-text version of the IDB Resource Book on Participation. Includes sections on PRA methodology.

http://www.oac.uoguelph.ca/~pi/
Participatory Initiatives . Information on PRA and other participatory methods, tools, and approaches. Includes discussion lists and links to on-line resources and relevant organizations.

http://iisd1.iisd.ca/casl/CASLGuide/PRA.htm
Community Adaptation and Sustainable Livelihoods (CASL) Guidebook. Guidebook on participatory field research projects. Discusses various research methods (including PRA)

http://www.nur.edu/rcpla/
Resource Centres for Participatory Learning and Action Network Homepage. Still in development stages. Links, organizations, events, information services.

http://www.ids.ac.uk/pra/index.html
The PRA Pages. Site maintained by Institute of Development Studies (IDS). Background information on PRA as well as list of sources and contacts.

SAMPLE LIST OF NEW ACQUISITIONS:

U.S. foreign policy and the four horsemen of the apocalypse: Humanitarian relief in complex emergencies. *Nastios, Andrew S. CSIS. 192p.*

The future of food aid: A policy review. June 1998. Edward Clay et al. Overseas Development Institute. 70p.

Agriculture, food and nutrition for Africa: A resource book for teachers of agriculture. *1997. FAO. 412p.*

Human nutrition in the developing world. *1997. Latham, Michael C. FAO.*

Food aid: Is it development assistance, trade promotion, both, or neither? *Barrett, Christopher B. American Journal of Agricultural Economics. August 1998. pp. 566-571.*

CARE Food Resources Manual. *1998. CD-ROM, diskettes, Office 97.*

Survey trainer's guide for PVO child survival project, rapid knowledge, practice and coverage (KPC) surveys. *January 1997. Johns Hopkins University.*

Frontline diplomacy: Humanitarian aid and conflict in Africa. *1996. John Prendergast. Lynne Rienner Publishers.*

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Making Inventory Credit Work in Ghana

Contributing authors to this article are Steven I. Lodner, Frank Hicks, George T-M. Kwadzo, and Henry Panlibuton of TechnoServe

Background

Small-scale farmers make up 60 percent of the Ghanaian farming population. Although their production represents nearly half of the country's GDP, small-scale farmers do not enjoy any real market clout. As a result, they remain classic "price takers" generally isolated from market information and profitable market opportunities.

At harvest time, with immediate cash needs and no storage facilities available, they must sell their produce to traders at the very bottom of the annual price cycle. Although produce prices will likely rise substantially later in the year, small-scale farmers are unable to hold their crop for later sale at these higher prices.

Months later, many families find themselves buying back these same basic foodstuffs from the same traders, paying two or three times the price they received. Poorer families often end up hungry and malnourished.

Cash-poor again at planting season, these farmers are unable to purchase agricultural inputs, yields stagnate, and the cycle continues.

Inventory Credit

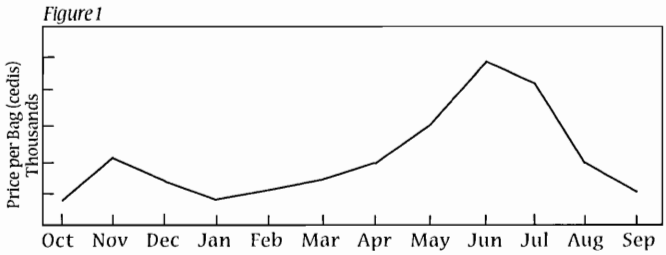
In 1989, TechnoServe introduced inventory credit in Ghana. Inventory credit is the use of securely stored goods as collateral for commercial loans.

As applied to small-scale agriculture, participating farmers store their produce between harvest time and the "lean season," when prices are at their peak. Farmers use their stored grains as collateral for loans that are taken at the time of storage when they need cash. Months later when prices rise, the grain is sold at substantially higher prices, earning farmers greater profits.

From storage, farmers can choose to sell their grain or buy it back for home consumption. In either case, proceeds are first applied to repay the bank loan, as well as storage and handling costs. Participating farmers that choose to sell their produce earn a profit. Those farmers who decide to buy back (or "redeem") their produce for consumption realize significant savings by avoiding high lean season food prices.

Figure 1 depicts the typical annual price swings of maize in Ghana. The "major season" harvest occurs in June/July, while the "minor season" harvest normally occurs from November through January in the southern half of the country, where the majority of Ghana's maize is produced.

Figure 1



The inventory credit program is profitable only when the increase in the value of the stored goods exceeds the costs of storage and the borrowed funds (i.e. interest payments, bank fees, etc.). Since inventory credit is essentially a speculative activity, the implementation of such a program must be managed carefully. A viable inventory credit program requires diligent monitoring of stored goods, price fluctuations and market supply trends.

TechnoServe and Inventory Credit

In Ghana, TechnoServe has applied inventory credit primarily to maize marketing. The price of maize during the "lean season" is typically 75-250 percent higher than the harvest time price, due to factors such as poor roads, inadequate transport and lack of market information in rural areas. The amount of credit provided by local banks is pegged to a pro-

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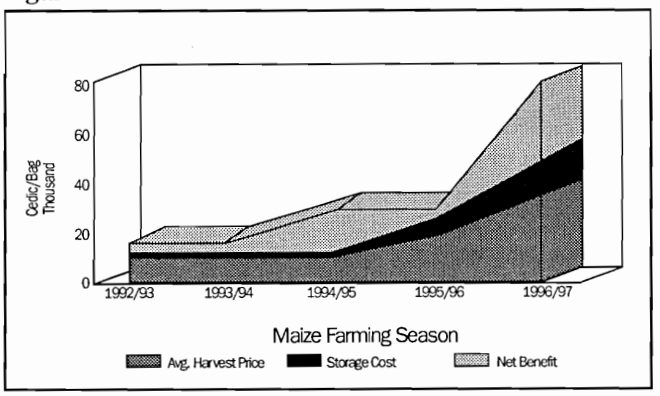
portion of the current market value of the stored grain, usually between 70 and 80 percent of the prevailing market price. This limits the lender's risk should the price not rise as anticipated.

TechnoServe hoped to achieve the following with its inventory credit program:

- Create an opportunity for small-scale farmers to take advantage of seasonal price swings otherwise captured by local traders, thereby accumulating savings for investment in less speculative ventures;
- Enhance food security for farmers who could buy back (or "redeem") their produce from storage rather than selling it cheaply at harvest and buying back at high prevailing market prices; and
- Reduce risk for banks which were skeptical of lending in rural areas.

From 1992-1996, farmers participating in the inventory credit program in Ghana's Brong Ahafo Region were able to increase their profit on grain sales by an average of 66 percent per year (see Figure 2). This achievement is particularly significant given the prevailing interest rate of 42 percent charged on the loan.

Figure 2



During the most recent season, (1997/98) the 133 farmers' groups assisted by TechnoServe in two regions of Ghana were extended loans amounting to 300 million cedis (approximately $170,000) to undertake their inventory credit activities. Perhaps more significantly, for more than eight years, the scheme has achieved a 100 percent repayment rate for the inventory credit extended to participating farmers.

Benefits of the Program

While increased profits have certainly benefited inventory credit participants, it is becoming increasingly evident, however, that this underestimates the full benefits of inventory credit. Most of the benefits stem from the investments farmers make using their profits from grain sales (e.g. expanded farm size, investments in basic agro-processing equipment, housing renovations, etc.).

A banker (on left) collects on the inventory credit loans that farmers in Offuman, Ghana have received using their corps as collateral

Improved Food Security

Food security is only rarely a severe urban problem, more commonly affecting remote rural areas. Food security is a function of several factors: food availability, food accessibility and food utilization. The first two reflect food production and trade. When food crop production is more profitable, it spurs production. The inventory credit program raises farmers' incomes improving the availability of local food and making food more accessible.

Stable Food Prices and Incomes

Inventory credit's potential profitability is based on the magnitude of seasonal price swings which, in Ghana, remain large for maize and several other grains. Over time, expansion of inventory credit activities and continued improvements in rural infrastructure should lead to stored produce being released into the market more evenly and systematically. Therefore, the seasonal price swings will gradually become less extreme. In turn, incomes that farmers earn from grain sales should also become more stable.

Creation of Market and Service Linkages

Individual smallholders live and farm largely out of the mainstream. They have only limited access to formal sector markets, agencies and services. However, through their involvement with local farmer groups and the inventory credit program, a range of doors are opened. Their affiliation with a group provides improved access to government services and to larger and more reliable grain traders. They also gain assistance from other external organizations, such as the Sasakawa Africa Association and the Natural Resources Institute, UK, which provide the knowledge of applied research and improved post-harvest technologies.

Promotion of Local Investment

Improved family incomes through the use of inventory credit not only raises immediate living standards, but also generates capital, thereby introducing the rural poor to new possibilities of economic production via savings and investment.

Groups involved with inventory credit invest in less speculative, value-adding agro-processing activities, such as maize shelling and milling, cassava processing, palm kernel cracking and soap-making. Groups also put their profits into production activities, including other types of farming, agro-forestry, bee-keeping, poultry and livestock. At least one group, the Offuman Cooperative Society, has invested in road maintenance to facilitate marketing.

Individuals have used their profits to expand their farms, to purchase modern inputs, and to improve animal husbandry. They are also improving their housing and farm buildings, and paying for their family's health care and their children's education.

Group Development

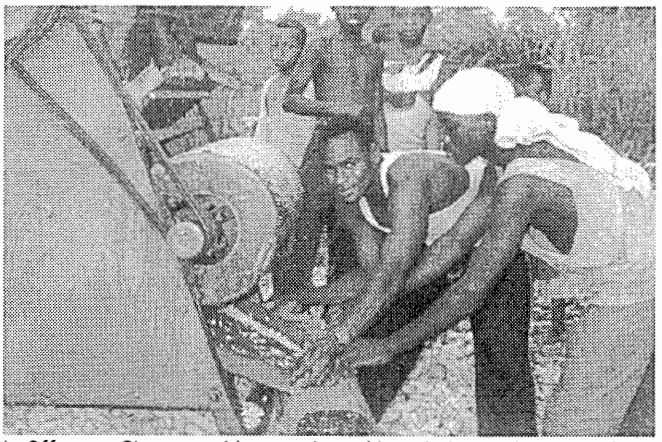
Strengthening farmer groups is central to TechnoServe's development strategy, and lies at the heart of the inventory credit program. By forming groups, farmers are able to qualify for inventory credit loans from banks which are not available to individual farmers. Group members can also accumulate the capital required to make larger investments in a range of food processing and other equipment. With access to such equipment and initial managerial assistance, these groups are able to create and operate their own agro-processing businesses.

While TechnoServe believes group formation is essential, the formal structure of the group is not itself important. TechnoServe currently assists a range of local group structures to access inventory credit, as long as they are formally constituted and can be recognized by financial institutions.

Transporting bags of corn to market

Reduction in Post-Harvest Losses

Overall post-harvest losses in Ghana continue to be high. The loss estimates for grains vary from 10-30 percent, depending on a number of local factors and the time span of measurement. All too commonly, farmers are unable to harvest and transport maize from their fields due to limited access to local transport (which is especially severe at harvest time),



In Offuman, Ghana, residents strip and bag their corn harvest. these bags will be put into storage until the lean "season" when it can be sold for a much higher price

or the inability to hire sufficient labor to undertake these tasks. The situation is compounded when farmers anticipate low returns for their grain and are, therefore, unwilling to spend their limited cash on harvesting and post-harvesting activities.

With the expectation of earning higher prices through inventory credit, many farmers are willing to expend the extra effort and expense to harvest their maize and to try new storage methods, such as shelling the dried maize and treating it with appropriate insecticides. Moreover, as farmers earn more money from one year to the next, they typically have additional cash reserves to pay for extra labor to harvest and store their produce.

Once grains have been bagged and stored by program participants, post-harvest losses incurred for up to six months have been reduced to less than 2 percent. Losses in the field and in preliminary crib drying/storage facilities are difficult to measure but are estimated to be sharply reduced, based on increased volumes of maize placed in storage and the observed adoption of improved practices.

Adoption of the Model by Banks and the Government

As a result of TechnoServe's positive experience with the inventory credit program, the Agricultural Development Bank of Ghana has begun to promote large-scale commercial inventory credit programs. Starting from a low base of inventory credit lending in 1992/93, the Bank has built upon the model developed with TechnoServe. In 1996/97 alone, it extended 12 billion cedis (approximately US $6 million) for inventory credit. It has also branched out to provide inventory credit loans for other products, such as coffee and frozen fish, in addition to grains. The Bank plans to continue to expand the use of this model in the near future. In addition, inventory credit has come to the attention of the government of Ghana. In the 1998 country budget report, the Ghanaian Ministry of Finance allocated 40 billion cedis (approximately US $18 million) for the development of inventory

credit programs throughout Ghana. This is the first time that the government has made provision for the use of such funds.

Conclusion

TechnoServe views inventory credit as a means to an end, rather than an end in itself. When properly designed and managed, inventory credit can allow small-scale farmers to progress from being "price takers" to "price negotiators" and operate successfully in the local market economy. It can also provide the means for rural entrepreneurs to accumulate capital that can be invested in more diversified and sustainable ventures fueling long-term rural economic growth and development.

In the short term, market conditions in Ghana will likely continue to favor the use of inventory credit, provided market prices and trends are monitored closely. TechnoServe will, therefore, employ various strategies to increase the flow of inventory credit to small-scale farmers. However, as Ghana's agricultural economy and grain marketing systems continue to expand and become more efficient, inter-seasonal price differences will diminish, eventually making inventory credit less profitable.

In the medium term, therefore, TechnoServe will assist farmers currently engaged in inventory credit to develop sustainable marketing relationships with larger institutional buyers that can pay premium prices for produce meeting industry specifications. With TechnoServe's help, farmer groups and rural entrepreneurs will develop local agri-businesses and establish linkages with larger commercial buyers that can spur rural growth and development. In addition, TechnoServe will seek to assist farmers groups to participate in Ghana's rapidly expanding non-traditional export sector (i.e. pineapple, cashews, Asian vegetables, shea nuts, etc.) which should offer a range of new opportunities for progressive, organized rural entrepreneurs to produce higher value cash-crops.

TechnoServe sees itself as part of a broad network of private and public organizations focused on raising incomes, increasing productivity, creating jobs and improving food security in rural Ghana. TechnoServe looks forward to collaborating with these organizations to help achieve these goals.

Presidential Food Aid Initiative Update

by Paige Harrigan

President Clinton announced on July 18 that the U.S. Government would purchase approximately 2.5 million metric tons of wheat from the domestic market. This wheat is being purchased under the authority of the Commodity Credit Corporation Charter Act and donated under Section 416b of the Agriculture Act of 1949. These surplus commodities are to be donated for overseas aid in the form of grants to PVOs and governments. An initial list of countries eligible for this aid was provided by USDA and USAID. Country allocation decisions take into consideration poverty levels, harvest estimates, and existing international donations within the proposed countries. PVOs were invited to submit Concept Papers to USDA to access Section 416(b) commodities for use in their programs.

The funds appropriated to support this program are not charged to the International Affairs 150 budget account but are treated as domestic programs because commodities are generally taken from the U.S. Agricultural Price Support Program. The 416(b) resources only become available when a commodity surplus is determined. Unlike P.L. 480 Title II programs, 416(b) awards are typically allocated for short term programming. Monetized proceeds generated from an initial award can be programmed over a period of up to three years.

Generally, 416(b) program administration is less involved than PL 480 Title II regulations. In the shipment of 416 (b) commodities, USDA contracts for port surveys and files claims on behalf of PVOs. In P.L.480 Title II programs PVOs are responsible to contract for port surveys and file maritime claims themselves. The cost requirement for monetized commodities is different in 416(b) than in Title II programs. Under the 416(b) program, there is no cost recovery benchmark that needs to be met. The major consideration is that there will be no disruption to the local market because of the quantity or sales price of the commodity being imported. In both Title II and 416 (b) activities the costs associated with ocean freight, and inland freight for landlocked countries, are covered by the donor. The reporting requirements are significantly less rigorous in the 416 (b) programs than what would be expected in a Title II program.

Since the President's July announcement, the first 2.5 million metric tons of the wheat and wheat products were

awarded in November 1998. The initial award involves 1.25 million metric tons of U.S. wheat and wheat products donated under government to government programs. Under this arrangement, host country governments contact the USDA and allocations are determined by the food need in the country as well as the foreign policy objective. The World Food Programme received 1 million metric tons of commodities and the remaining 275,000 metric tons (MT) went to PVOs.

Of that 275,000 metric tons, 180,000 metric tons will be shipped to Indonesia where the commodities will be monetized. CRS is the lead agent in that monetization effort, including allocations to Church World Service, CARE, World Vision, ADRA, and PCI. Approximately 95,000 metric tons remain for the PVOs and letters were going out to the PVOs informing them directly about the results of their concept paper submissions. Although the original allocation to PVOs was 275,000 MT, the PVOs may expect closer to a total of 400,000 MT of wheat for programming as this initiative evolves.

USDA is currently accepting proposals for Russia Food Aid under both Section 416(b) and Food for Progress programs for the 1999 food assistance package to Russia. One and a half (1.5) million metric tons of Section 416(b) wheat have already been allocated to Russia in a government to government agreement. 200,000 tons of wheat will be sold as concessional sales under P.L. 480 Title I. According to USDA press releases, several additional countries are eligible to receive wheat through the Food Aid Initiative.

If you would like to learn more about the legislation governing Section 416 (b) of the Agricultural Act of 1949, the citation is 7 CRF 1499 chapters 10 -12. The URL for the Code of Federal Regulations is now available at: http://www.access.gpo.gov/nara/cfr/cfr-table-search.html

This is a new address. More information about USDA and the 416(b) program can be found on the USDA web site. The USDA home page URL is www.usda.gov.

FAM

Adventist Development & Relief Agency, Africare, ACDI - VOCA, American Red Cross, CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Feed the Children, Food for the Hungry, Int'l OIC International, Project Concern International, Mercy Corps, Save the Children, TechnoServe, World SHARE, World Vision Relief & Development

Assessing the Nutritional Status of Children: A Save the Children Workshop

On October 19 - 21, 1998, Save the Children hosted a workshop in Washington, D.C. on assessing the nutritional status of children using anthropometric techniques-height and weight measurements. Participants included representatives from various PVOs aand USAID. Irwin J. Shorr and Karunesh Tuli facilitated the workshop and Bruce Cogill presented the opening remarks.

The workshop had the overall objective of emphasizing the importance of the nutritional status of children as an impact indicator for food security programs and the use of anthropometry for measuring nutritional status. Topics covered in the workshop included: anthropometry theory (uses, anthropometric measures, derived anthropometric nutritional status indices, growth references, cutoff points, and classification systems), measurement procedures (standing height, recumbent length, weight, mid-upper arm circumference), and anthropometric data entry and analysis using Epi Info software. Save the Children hopes to offer the workshop on a biyearly basis. It is open to all FAM members. A limited number of workshop manuals are available for $75.00.

Please contact Thoric Cederstrom at Save the Children for more information (Tcederstrom@dc.savechildren.org).

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

The **FAM annual meeting** was held in Baltimore on November 6 in historic Fells Point. The three FAM working groups gave updates on their activities for the past year. The Monitoring and Evaluation working group reported on the completion of the initial phase of work on the M&E best methods project. The review of agricultural baseline survey methods was completed and is now available. The Monetization working group reported steady progress on the Monetization manual by Bridget Ralyea. She is scheduled to complete the manual by the end of March 1999. The Local Capacity Building working group has been less active but it was agreed at the meeting that activities will be increasing in the coming months. The three main activities for the Local Capacity Building/Partnership Working group are 1.) Measuring Local Capacity Building, 2.) Collection and dissemination of country office case studies on successful local capacity building, and 3.) Launching of a local capacity building listserv. To develop these activities further the working group is now in the process of collecting existing manuals and case studies about Local Capacity Building and Partnership. Relevant documentation and case studies are welcome and should be sent to FAM, so that the greater membership will benefit. Just prior to the meeting, **Mercy Corps** became the fifteenth member of FAM. We welcome them to our community. FAM also presented its updated web site that now houses a great deal of additional information. FAM will continue add more in the future. Check it out at **www.foodaid.org**.

A **Monetization meeting** was also held in Baltimore during the two days preceding the FAM annual meeting. The meeting was very productive and included several overseas staff from east and southern Africa. The increase in the use of monetization in recent years has created some concerns in USAID, Congress and among the processor groups who have seen a decline in the use of their commodities as a result. Participants established some recommendations to address these concerns and also increase information flow among USDA, USAID, processors and PVOs. USDA staff made excellent presentations on marketing and explaining their role and U.S. Wheat Associates and the North American Millers Association also made informative presentations.

An international workshop on **Enhancing Nutritional Quality of Relief Foods** will be held March 3-5, in Washington DC, to discuss recent research and practice related to improvement in the nutritional value of ration foods given in humanitarian aid programs including emergencies, refugee/IDP camps, and transition situations. The core participants will be NGO staff responsible for food aid programs. The workshop will focus on the exchange of experiences of fortifying and improving ration quality, also discussing potential future field research to test new technologies for fortifying foods. The workshop is being organized by Food Aid Management, the Congressional Hunger Center, the American Red Cross, SUSTAIN, the Micronutrient Initiative of Canada and USAID.

The **Commodity Reference Guide** (CRG) is undergoing a major revision and update from the version originally issued in 1988. The update is being carried out by SUSTAIN in cooperation with USAID and through collaboration with PVOs, processors and technical experts. This Guide is intended to provide the Title II cooperating sponsors with the reference information (including nutritional values, physical and chemical properties and other relevant data) they need to select commodities, calculate ration size and determine composition appropriately. Since the Title II program's inception, the formulations and fortification requirements of processed and blended commodities have been modified and the specific objectives and components of development and emergency activities have evolved over the last decade.

The update will be designed to ensure that the information included in the CRG is accurate and useful to the ultimate customer — the cooperating sponsors — so that the food aid recipients get maximum nutritional and food security benefit under both development and emergency conditions. Access to the document will also be easier since the full CRG will be placed on the web in a downloadable format. By housing the material on the Web, the CRG becomes a living document, making it possible to more regularly update and include new information along as well as solicit input from the field and other interest groups (e.g., the commodity growers and manufacturers). SUSTAIN will have completed revisions of the CRG, posted it on the web, and presented it for USAID review by February 1, 1999. Please contact Teresa M. Lozeau at SUSTAIN for more information ‹tlozeau@sustaintech.org› or write SUSTAIN at 1400 16th St., N.W., Box 25, Washington, DC 20036.

An all day workshop will be held on Friday, December 18 of the **FAM Environmental working group** to review lessons learned from recent workshops and to establish a training plan for FY 1999. This workshop will bring together USAID staff from regional bureaus as well as PVO field and HQ staff. Specifically, the workshop will review lessons learned during past environmental trainings, identify weaknesses and opportunities for future environmental training on environmental compliance and "beyond compliance", and establish guidelines for future environmental trainings and coordination among USAID and PVOs. The workshop should produce guidelines and priorities for FY99 trainings, a training plan outline, and general guidelines on the coordination among USAID and PVOs in how to move beyond compliance.

Food Security Resource Center News

Environmental issues figure prominently in food aid and food security programs. The FSRC has a broad collection of environmental resources that cover a wide range of issues.

These materials address such issues as the relationship between food security and the environment, a dynamic that impacts programming decisions in food aid/food security programming. In addition, the FSRC environmental collection includes resources that may aid program staff in the design of environmentally sound food aid/food security projects that do not adversely impact the environment and that are in compliance with donor regulations and reporting requirements.

The bibliography below includes a sample of the FSRC's environmental resources. A more complete bibliography on environmental topics appears on the FSRC page of the FAM website (www.foodaid.org).

For more specific information or to request copies of the materials listed below, please contact me at

Jessica Graef
Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC RESOURCES ON ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

Environmental documentation manual: For P.L. 480 Title II cooperating sponsors implementing food-aided development programs. *Draft, April 1997.* USAID Bureau for Africa and Sustainable Development and Bureau for Humanitarian Response, Office of Food for Peace. Bingham, Charlotte; Knausenberger, Walter; Fisher, Wes. 215 p. Manual developed to assist cooperating sponsors in the design of environmentally sound development activities and to prepare USAID environmental documentation as required under USAID's environmental regulation 22 CFR 216. (The final version of the Environmental Documentation Manual will be ready for distribution in January 1999.)

A field guide to USAID environmental compliance procedures: Based on the USAID environmental documentation manual for P.L. 480 Title II Food for Development programs. *March 1998. Burpee, G.; Harrigan, P.; Remington, T. 49p.* General introduction and reference to USAID environmental regulations and procedures.

Food for all in 2020: Can the world be fed without damaging the environment? *1996. Pinstrup-Andersen, Per and Rajul Pandya-Lorch. Environmental Conservation, Vol. 23, No. 3. 9p. FSRC #6803.* Addresses the question of whether the world can feed future generations and eliminate hunger without further damaging the environment.

WFP and the environment: Issues and priorities. *September 1998. World Food Programme. 19p.* Summarizes policy and operational issues faced by WFP when integrating environmental concerns in its operations.

Participants' sourcebook: Africa regional environmental assessment training course. Food aid and the environment: Doing better at doing good. Mekelle, Ethiopia, February 24-28, 1997 and **Participants' sourcebook: Africa regional environmental assessment training course, Tamale, Ghana, December 7-12 1997.** *Bingham, Charlotte, Wes Fisher, Walter Knausenberger, Michael Lazarus, Idrissa Samba. USAID.* Covers wide range of topics, including environmentally-sound project design; USAID procedures; EA methods; IEE; and monitoring and evaluation. Includes case studies, reading, and exercises. FSRC also has accompanying facilitator's guide.

International conference on strategies for poverty alleviation and sustainable resource management in the fragile lands of sub-Saharan Africa. *1998. McCulloch, Anna Knox et al. EPTD Workshop Summary Paper No. 7. IFPRI. 81p.* Topics include: challenges facing sustainable development of fragile lands; potential interventions; interactions with farmers.

World resources 1998-99. *1998. World Resources Institute, UNEP, UNDP, World Bank. 369p.* Focuses on the following issues: environmental change and human health, global environmental trends, and sustainable development.

Critical links: Food security and the environment in the Greater Horn of Africa. *1998. Thrupp, Lori Ann; Megateli, Habiha; World Resources Institute. 57p. FSRC #6828.* Discusses challenges and opportunities in food security-environment nexus in the Greater Horn of Africa. Examines underlying causes of food insecurity and environmental degradation and presents options to address these problems.

Malthus revisited: People, population and the village commons in Colombia. *1998. Cardenas, Juan Camilo; International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). 20p. FSRC #6786.* Argues against the theory that population

growth alone is a threat to natural resources. Contends that technological and structural factors play role in determining the effect of population density on conservation of local resources.

A hidden threat to food production: Air pollution and agriculture in the developing world. *1997. Marshall, Fiona et al. IIED. 24p. FSRC #6783.* Examines the constraints air pollution poses to agricultural productivity. Discusses the food production and food security policy implications.

Towards sustainable development: Environmental indicators. *1998. OECD. 129p. FSRC #6773.* Presents major indicators as well as selected socioeconomic and sectoral indicators with environmental significance. Highlights links among environmental indicators, environmental performance, and sustainable development.

Environmental guidelines for small-scale activities in Africa: Environmentally sound design for planning and implementing humanitarian and development activities. *1996. USAID; Knausenberger, Walter I. et al. 201p. FSRC #5617.* USAID environmental guidelines developed for PVOs and NGOs for the design, implementation, and monitoring of humanitarian and development programs.

Refugee operations and environmental management: Key principles for decision-making. *1998. UNHCR. 75p. FSRC #06764.* Booklet aims to strengthen the ability of refugee operation decision-makers to make judgments that are in the interests of refugees and the local environment.

UNHCR environmental guidelines. *1996. UNHCR. 68p.* Presents environmental issues concerning refugee assistance, principles of UNHCR environmental activities, operational guidelines, and conduct of environmental operations.

Sustaining the soil: Indigenous soil and water conservation in Africa. *1996. Reij, Chris; Scoones, Ian; Toulmin, Camilla. 260p. FSRC #6737.* Compilation of chapters on the following issues: soil and water conservation in Africa; local knowledge of water harvesting; expansion of water harvesting; traditional planting; and rehabilitation of degraded land.

The FSRC collection includes the following IEE examples:

- **CRS/Kenya Initial Environmental Examination.** *1998. 25p. FSRC #6941.*
- **CRS India program, Initial Environmental Examination report.** *September 1998. 28p.*
- **CRS/Haiti Initial Environmental Examination.** *October 1998. 21p.*
- **Initial Environmental Examination (IEE) - Draft, Gambella food security food initiative.** *April 1998. Africare/ Ethiopia. 19p.*
- **Pesticide Evaluation Report (PER): Food Security Training and Outreach Services Initiative.** *OIC International, 4 p.*
- **Assessment of agricultural pest status and available control methods in the Guinea Natural Resources Management Project.** ***July 1994. Chemonics Int'l, USAID/ Conakry. 20 p.***

Changing views on change: Participatory approaches to monitoring the environment. *July 1998. Abbot, Joanne and Irene Guijt. SARL discussion paper no. 2. IIED. 96p.* Reviews participatory approaches to monitoring environmental change. Draws on experiences of project in Brazil that aims to develop a participatory monitoring program to assess the social and environmental impacts of their efforts to develop more sustainable agricultural practices.

The agricultural link: How environmental deterioration could disrupt economic progress. *August 1997. Brown, Lester R. Worldwatch Paper 136. Worldwatch Institute. 73p.* Examines agriculture, energy, and population policy options that can help secure future food supplies.

Shrinking fields: Cropland loss in a world of eight billion. *July 1996. Gardner, Gary. Worldwatch Paper 131. Worldwatch Institute. 56p.* Discusses cropland loss and the policies necessary to reduce degradation, thereby improving food security.

Natural resource management and Title II food aid: An evaluation. *1994. Catterson, Thomas; Buccowich, Mark; Helin, William; USAID; USDA. 147p. FSRC #1190.* Evaluates natural resource activities of NGOs in Ethiopia using P.L. 480 food. Evaluation carried out at the program level and aimed at analyzing the impact of regular food aid on the objectives of improved food security and environmental rehabilitation.

FAM

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Vital signs 1998. *1998. Brown, Lester R.; Michael Renner; Christopher Flavin. Worldwatch Institute. 207p.* Presents global environmental trends, including indicators concerning the following key sectors: food, agricultural resources, energy, atmospheric, economic, transportation, communication, social, and military trends.

State of the world 1998. *1998. Brown, Lester R. et al. Worldwatch Institute. 251p.* Examines the "environmental effects of continued economic growth as the economy outgrows the earth's ecosystem". Presents strategies to improve environmental situation. The FSRC also holds previous years of the State of the World series.

Worldwatch database disk. *June 1998. Worldwatch Institute.* Data from all Worldwatch publications published over the past two years. Includes tables and graphs of global environmental, social, and economic data. Includes such topics as agriculture, biodiversity, climate change, transportation, population, security, global economics, and alternative energy.

Conserving land: Population and sustainable food production. *1995. Engelman, Robert; LeRoy, Pamela; Population Action International. 48p. FSRC #5379.* Examines the influence of population growth on agricultural sustainability. Discusses the global food supply and the factors which limit food supply ability to meet population growth needs. Presents strategy suggestions.

Win-win approaches to development and the environment: Environmental trusts and endowments. *1996. USAID; Center for Development and Evaluation. 2p. FSRC #6974.* Overview of how environmental trusts, USAID funding mechanisms, may be used in environmental projects.

Entitlement and ecology: Sustainable food aid. *1990. Skully, David W. 10p. FSRC #6421.* Examines the problem of recurrent famine and poverty in marginal environments from the perspective of ecological economics. Employs model focusing on relationship between population, the carrying capacity of the resource base, and external transfers. Shows that food aid transfers to marginal areas is not a sustainable solution.

Dividing the waters: Food security, ecosystem health and the new politics of scarcity. *1996. Postel, Sandra; Worldwatch. 76p. FSRC #6224.* Examines the problem of water scarcity. Emphasizes political ramifications and environmental consequences. Recommends water marketing and price changes.

When livestock are good for the environment: Benefit-sharing of environmental goods and services. *1996. Mearns, Robin; IDS. 28p. FSRC #6864.* Examines the positive environmental externalities associated with livestock production. Addresses policy options to enhance sharing of environmental benefits between users of the environment.

Roads and the environment: A handbook. *1997. World Bank; Tsunokawa, Koji; Hoban, Christopher. 225p. FSRC #6791.* Describes practical methods for the design and execution of effective EAs for road projects.

Regional workshop on environmental security for Central America and the Caribbean with emphasis on water and sanitation, hillside agriculture and rural road construction. *1998. Solberg, Scott; Walter, Ed; CARE/Honduras; USAID; CRS/Guatemala. 26p. FSRC#6990.* Summary of workshop that focused on environmental soundness of food security projects; compliance of Title II-funded NGOs with USAID Environmental Regulation 216; environmental design considerations. Includes the following:

- **Pests, pesticides and environmental impact.** *May 1998. Hruska, Allan, Zamorano. 75p.*
- **Part I, Integrated Pest Management for vegetables: A manual for extensionists.** *Scholaen, Susan (ed.); Zeiss, Michael. 15p. (Chapter 2 only).* Overview of principles of Integrated Pest Management (IPM) in Spanish language.
- **Part II, From safe use to sustainable crop protection: Lessons learned from CARE Nicaragua's Integrated Pest Management project.** Chronicles evolution of project from a pesticide to IPM focus. Appendices include several resource lists of pesticide classifications (in both English and Spanish languages) and an Internet directory for useful pesticide and IPM web addresses.

Environmental assessment sourcebook. Volume 1: Policies, procedures, and cross-sectoral issues. *1991. World Bank Technical Paper No. 139. Environment Department. 227p.* Examines the environmental review process; global and cross-sectoral issues in environmental review; social and cultural issues in environmental review; economic analysis with consideration of environmental costs and benefits; strengthening local capabilities; and community involvement and the role of NGOs.

Environmental assessment sourcebook. Volume II: Sectoral guidelines. *1991. World Bank Tech. Paper No. 140. Environment Dept. 282p.* Discusses EA issues related to the following sectors: agricultural and rural development; population, health, and nutrition; transportation; urban development; and water supply and sewerage.

Environmental assessment sourcebook. Volume III: Guidelines for environmental assessment of energy and industry projects. *1991. World Bank Tech. Paper No. 154. Environ-*

ment Dept. 237p. Covers EA issues in relation to the energy and industry sector, examining plant siting and other factors.

Series of reviews prepared for the United Nations Conference on Trade and Environment:

- **Environmental impact of coffee production and processing in El Salvador and Costa Rica.** 1993. Olman Segura B. 54p.

- **Environmental effects of agricultural production and related measures: Illustrative examples from developing countries.** 1994. UNCTAD Secretariat. 20p.

- **Rice and the environment: Environmental impact of rice production, policy review and options for sustainable rice development in Thailand and the Philippines.** 1993.Witte, Rob et al. 66p.

Technical report: Programmatic environmental assessment, Guinea-Bissau. *April 1997. Krahl, Lane et al. Tropical Research and Development, Inc. 59p.* Programmatic environmental assessment that examines environmental impacts of USAID/ Guinea-Bissau programs. Addresses agriculture, fisheries, forestry, and environmental management sectors.

Water and sanitation guide (draft). *May 1997. Baer, Franklin C. IMPACT. 37p.* Indicators guide for monitoring water and sanitation programs. Discusses importance of environmental health indicators in process; health benefits of improved water and sanitation; and potential water and sanitation indicators.

Unique model in potable water programs (Modelo unico proyectos de agua potable): Education in sanitation and environment in rural areas. *Institute de Fomento Municipal Programs "Agua Fuente de Paz" 75p.* Report prepared by Government of Guatemala outlining a multidisciplinary approach to modernize and improve the sanitation and potable water sector, via a coordinating activity called El Comité Permanente de Coordinación de Agua Potable y Saneamiento (COPECAS). Document is in Spanish language.

Manual of road construction and improvement on rural highways with manual labor. *CARE/Honduras, USAID, Secretary of Governance and Justice Government of Honduras. 60p.* Handbook on construction of roads that have low traffic volumes, with guidance on road maintenance. Document is in Spanish language.

Environmental assessment: CARE Title II food security program, Program in environmental security and sustainable development for the most vulnerable in Honduras, 1996-2000. Proyecto de Oportunidades de Desarrollo y Empleo Rural (PODER). *October 1997. Myton, Becky et al. CARE/Honduras. 100p.* Environmental evaluation for PODER project. Evaluation recommends that the road improvement and construction activity component will require further mitigation measures to ensure that there is no significant adverse impact to the environment. Outlines mitigation actions and includes directives for an environmental survey in the program area. Document is in Spanish language.

Policy taxonomy and analysis of policies affecting natural resources and the environment. *1992. Agricultural Policy Analysis Project, Phase II; USAID. 217p FSRC #6328.* Discusses forest management policies, agricultural and livestock policies, land tenure and colonization, protected and reserved areas, wildlife protection and trade, coastal zone management, water policy and watershed management, environmental management policies, macroeconomic policies, and population.

Poverty monocultures, the richness of diversity. *1997. Shiva, Vandana. 7p. FSRC #6244.* Discusses view that sustainability and food security are conflicting objectives. Outlines a diversity paradigm that addresses biodiversity, gender justice, and food security. Available at www.u-fondet.no/aktuel/konf/2-4.html.

Saving phytogenic resources in times of war and immediate post-war period: Report of Huambo workshop. *1995. International Committee of the Red Cross. 10p. FSRC #6649.* Reports on workshop on the conservation of phytogenetic resources and preservation of biodiversity in war and post-war situations.

Population agriculture and environment nexus in Sub-Saharan Africa. *1993. Cleaver, Kevin; Schreiber, Gotz. World Bank. 229p. FSRC #6157.* Examines the linkages between rapid population growth, poor agricultural performance, and increased environmental degradation. Makes recommendations for strategies for agricultural intensification, reduced family size, land tenure reform, conservation, and programs to address gender issues.

Participatory research and the race to save the planet: Questions, critique and lessons from the field. *1994. Rocheleau, Dianne E. 21p. FSRC #4110.* Discusses participatory research as a means to address sustainable development issues.

Gender and environment: Lessons from social forestry and natural resource management - Sourcebook. *1992. Warren, Sarah T.; Aga Khan Foundation Canada; Winrock Institute for Agricultural Development; Yale School of Forestry and Environmental Studies; Faculty of Environmental Studies. 98p. FSRC #5518.* Presents background material on gender, environment, and natural resources. Includes case studies, exercises, and bibliography of resources.

Forestry and food security: Proceedings of a seminar held in Hanoi and Phu Ninh, December 5-8, 1994. *1995. Vietnam Ministry of Forestry. Forests, Trees and People Programme; Ogle, Britta; Chu Chu, Ha. 56p. FSRC #5179.* Reports on findings from pilot studies conducted in Bolivia, Tanzania, Thailand, and Vietnam to examine the reliance on forest and tree products for food security.

Food security and the environment: Conflict or complementarity? *1991. Davies, Susanna et al. IDS. 47p. FSRC #5158.* Examines the linkages between food security and the environment. Analyzes the policy trade-offs between access to food and conservation. Presents conflicts and complementarities between food security and the environment at the international, national, and local level. Offers suggestions for the future.

Feeding the world, preventing poverty, and protecting the Earth 2020 Vision. *1996. International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). 28p. FSRC #5212.* Booklet that describes the mission of the 2020 Vision program in non-technical language. Examines the interaction of hunger, poverty, and environmental degradation and proposes solutions.

Cost-effectiveness analysis in food-aided forestry. *1990. Nembot, Timothy Fomete; North Carolina State University. 61p. FSRC #103.* Master's thesis, North Carolina State University. Examines the applicability of cost-effectiveness analysis in food-aided forestry programs. Discusses projects in Ethiopia, Mali, and Haiti. Covers project planning; monitoring and evaluation of projects; and valuation of trees, land, and workers.

Population, poverty and the local environment. *1995. Dasgupta, Partha S. 5p. FSRC #5181.* Discusses the linkages between poverty, population growth, and degradation of local resources in poor areas of the world. Points out that these factors do not directly cause the others, but they influence one another. Analyzes theoretical models and empirical findings from anthropology, demography, ecology, economics, nutrition, and political science.

Disasters and the environment. *1993. Wilches-Chaux, Gustavo; Intertect Training Services. 51p. FSRC #1316.* Training module looks at disasters from an environmental point of view. Examines how environmental degradation of the earth's ecosystems increases a society's vulnerability to disaster and how disasters alter the environment. Promotes environmental awareness to gear development efforts towards mitigation and prevention of disasters.

Agriculture and the environment: Issues and policies. *1998. OECD. 37p. FSRC #6769.* Analyzes ways in which governments might promote market solutions and design and implement policies to achieve environmentally, economically, and socially sustainable agriculture at minimal resource cost to the economy and with the least trade distortion.

Overcoming malnutrition: Is there an ecoregional dimension? *1996. Sharma, Manohar et al. IFPRI. 19p. FSRC #05221.* Discusses linkages between poverty and malnutrition and agroecological environment.

Land degradation in the developing world: Implications for food, agriculture, and the environment to 2020. *1996. Scherr, Sara J.; Yadav, Satya; IFPRI. 36p. FSRC #5225.* Report on workshop on agricultural land degradation issues. Presents policy recommendations.

The FSRC houses a series of IFPRI 2020 Vision reports on challenges to food, agriculture, and the environment in Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa, and South Asia. Includes analysis and development of strategies to address these challenges.

- **2020 vision for food, agriculture, and the environment in Sub-Saharan Africa.** 1995. Badiane, Ousmane; Delgado, Christopher L. 56p. FSRC #5215.
- **2020 vision for food, agriculture, and the environment in Latin America.** 1995. Garrett, James L.; 20p. FSRC #5217.
- **Major natural resource management concerns in South Asia.** 1995. Gill, Gerard J. 29p. FSRC #5219.

In addition to these resources, the FSRC collection includes the following periodicals that address a wide range of environmental issues:

- **Forest, Trees, and People Newsletter**
- **World Watch**
- **Environment bulletin: Newsletter of the World Bank environment community**
- **EnviroNet: Newsletter of the project in development and the environment**
- **ILEIA Newsletter for low external input and sustainable agriculture**

ON ORDER:

Environmental impact assessment: Index of useful internet web sites. *April 1998. CIDA.*

Environment assessment manual for community development projects. *1996. CIDA, Asia Branch.*

CIDA handbook on assessment of NGO and institutions programs and projects. *1997.*

Independent development trust environmental manual. *1996. ODA. LG Mouchel and Partners.*

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Soil and Water Conservation Works

With Farmer-led Associations in Cape Verde: A Study in Rural Capacity Building

Tom Gardiner- ACDI/VOCA - January 1999

There are many Title II activities that use food-for-work or cash-for-work to compensate poor, rural residents for their manual labor on infrastructure and natural resource management activities. The priorities of such programs are balanced to improve a limited infrastructure in rural areas as well as provide needed employment and income to impoverished, remote people. This article is a case study of how, with some good local partners and a visionary staff, ACDI/VOCA was involved in the transformation of a traditional public works program into a vehicle for local empowerment, community accountability, entrepreneurial initiative, and grass-roots capacity building.

Until recently, Cape Verdean hillside farmers and the landless (especially women) were viewed as mere appendages to government programs promoting watershed rehabilitation in this Sahelian archipelago nation (average annual rainfall of only 250 to 300 mm). For the most part, the role of rural people was restricted to working as day laborers on the works being built. The outcomes of this approach were not encouraging, and they included such problems as:

- A welfare attitude among workers where they expected to get paid for just showing up.
- Low worker productivity.
- Relatively costly works, and hence fewer works built from available funding.
- Poor quality control of works constructed.
- Farmer reluctance to maintain what was built because they viewed rural infrastructure, even terraces on their land, as property of the state.

Disturbed by the previous results, the government soil and water conservation service (DGASP) decided to experiment with a new approach to watershed development with support of ACDI/VOCA's Title II program (monetization). Beginning in 1995, DGASP opted to use farmer-led associations and gave them a mandate to develop annual soil and water conservation (SWC) plans for their localities and then perform the work authorized through fixed-price contracts. For the first time, sixteen associations on Santiago Island assumed full responsibility for managing the watersheds where they lived. Today, 41 associations on three islands (Santiago, Fogo, and Santo Ant,o) implement SWC

continued on page 2

Getting Connected: Reducing Livelihood Insecurity by Investing in Social Capital

Timothy R. Frankenberger, CARE/USA and James Garrett, International Food Policy Research Institute. December 1998

This paper has been edited for publication. It is the first in a series of 2 installments. This issue will focus on the theory behind the concept of social capital and includes some case studies. The next issue will explore the operational implications of incorporating social capital considerations into program design and highlight other case studies. For more information on this concept and the full version of this paper please contact Tim Frankenberger (frankenberger@care.org) at CARE USA.

Poverty is more than an economic phenomenon of limited income and physical resources (Cross et. al. 1998). Complex social dimensions can mediate fluctuations and interruptions in household resource flows and can help people act effectively to deflect economic shocks. Until recently, formal economic growth models have ignored the importance of these social dimensions (Statz 1998). Development approaches have been evolving from an almost exclusive focus on physical capital towards a people centered approach, emphasizing the social dimensions of development, especially the role of human and social capital (Morris 1998). Social capital is now seen as one of the most important resources to take into account in poverty reduction programs.

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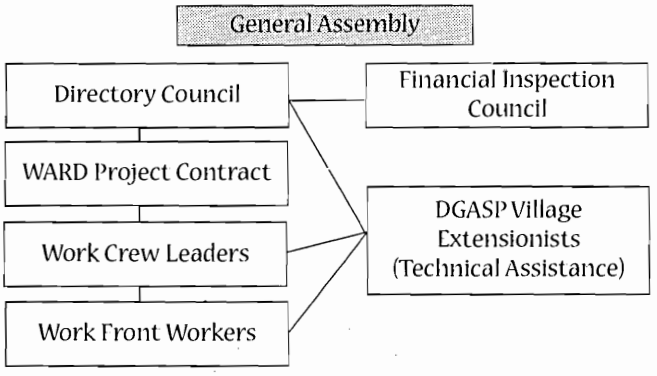
contracts with DGASP, and the economic portfolio of association contractors has grown from $368,000 in 1995 to $1,800,000 in 1998.

Watershed associations construct check dams and contour rock wall terraces to protect up-stream watershed areas. Other work that DGASP contracts with associations includes: well lining and repair, irrigation canals construction, water captation dam construction, community cistern construction, nursery production and planting of trees, and planting contour vegetative barriers. Program technicians develop the contracts and technical specifications, provide organizational and technical assistance, and assure that contractors meet pre-established quality control standards. Associations receive payments based on stringent quality control inspections and actual measurement of the volumes of work produced. ACDI/VOCA provides on-going training to the associations in small business development, accounting, organizational development, participatory planning, technical aspects of SWC contracting, and quality control of work executed.

Cape Verde farmer associations - member-owned small businesses - now contract directly with DGASP to construct and/or rehabilitate rural engineering works and other SWC activities including afforestation. The associations now identify types of SWC works and appropriate sites, produce work plans, hire work crews, purchase/acquire tools and construction materials, follow quality control guidelines, bill for work completed, and pay workers in a timely manner. For all association contractors, worker productivity has shot up, resulting in the balance of the fixed price contracts remaining in the watersheds as retained earnings to the association. The organizational structure of a typical association is presented below:

Typical Organization of a Farmer-Led Association



Notes:
1) Associations sign a protocol agreement with OASIS (an association umbrella of NGOs in Cape Verde) which requires the association General Assembly to meet monthly.
2) The Directory Council also meets on a monthly basis.
3) To assure dialogue (especially "bottom up" communication) during the construction season (January through June), the members of the Directory Council hold the following schedule of meetings:
   a) first week of month - meeting with crew leaders
   b) second week of month - meetings with workers
   c) end of month - meeting with General Assembly Council
4) Extensionists provide technical assistance to the association at the levels indicated.

ADVANTAGES OF CONTRACTING WITH ASSOCIATIONS

Contracting with the member-owned associations has demonstrated several advantages that are highlighted below.

Lower administrative and recurrent costs. As compared to the state construction firm, more rural engineering works can be built for each dollar invested. The following table compares association prices for building check dams with the price charged by the State Construction Company in 1995:

Comparison of Unit Prices Authorized for Watershed Association Contractors and State Construction Company-1995-1996

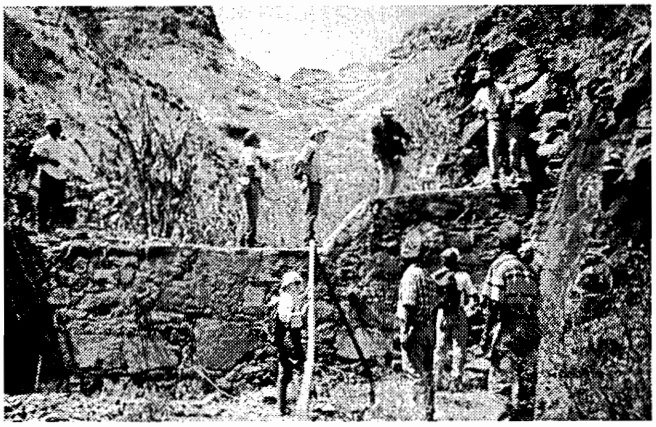
Large and Medium Check Dam Construction

Constr. Activity and Unit of Measure	Assn. Price (US Dollar)	State Price (US Dollar)	Assn. Price as % of State Price
Excavation (M^3)	$ 5.00	$ 6.10	82%
Foundation (M^3)	$ 9.00	$25.04	36%
Above-ground Construction (M^3)	$12.00	$32.39	37%

Increased participation by local farmers in rehabilitating their watersheds. Since the contractor associations propose SWC and afforestation activities they would like to see implemented, local people become involved in the identification, planning, construction, field monitoring, and evaluation phases of watershed development. Association leaders have been trained in simple participatory rural appraisal methods that they use to encourage female and male farmer participation in the annual SWC planning process.

Enhanced "social appropriation". The government of Cape Verde and USAID were concerned that when the structures were built, the local watershed residents took little responsibility for maintaining them. An attitude that "if the state built it without asking us, then the state can maintain it" was quite prevalent amongst the watershed inhabitants of Santiago. However, with watershed associations now contracting to do the work, the rural residents' perspective has changed. Associations consult with local farmers about the proposed SWC works and require that any individual receiving construction benefits on his/her property sign a maintenance agreement with them. Four years of field experience have shown that the associations take great pride in what they build because they now see the SWC structures as belonging to them. Coupled with a systematic program of quality control assurance, the sense of ownership assures that the associations produce durable SWC works, thereby helping to reduce future maintenance costs. Furthermore, associations use part of their profit to carry out routine maintenance.

Positive changes in workers' attitudes. With the associations acting as direct contractors, workers are no longer compensated following a "lean-on-a-shovel-and-get-paid" work ethic, but rather based on their productivity. Association leaders monitor work progress to assure that worker productivity stays high. Associations are committed to paying their workers according to their ability; thus each



Technicians inspect the quality of a check dam.

association compensates skilled and productive workers directly for their efforts.

Improved quality control of the works being implemented. DGASP found that decentralization helped assure stricter quality control and monitoring. Field-based Cape Verdean technicians and Santiago watershed residents developed a model of Community-based Technical Assistance using Village Extensionists - female and male technicians who work out of their homes to provide technical assistance to watershed farmers. Village Extensionists help the associations identify viable types of SWC works as well as technically-sound work sites. They visit the work sites to orient construction activities and to monitor work progress, they help orient the association's daily management activities, and they act as construction inspectors by participating in the monthly SWC works measurement/billing and in the quality control surveillance.

Capital Transfers to rural communities. Monetization funds can have a "multiplier effect" on rural communities. By encouraging the Cape Verde government to contract directly with the watershed associations, USAID guarantees that a certain amount of funding stays in the rural areas where it is most needed. Even though associations contract at significantly lower prices than the state firm, they still generate profits. Associations invest their earnings in the watershed communities - rural areas that traditionally are poorly served by a government already hard-pressed to meet other compelling commitments.

LIMITATIONS OF CONTRACTING WITH FARMER-LED ASSOCIATIONS

The associations' capabilities as general contractors are limited to works that use principally manual labor and those that, for the most part, only require on-site construction materials. Associations cannot and should not execute all types of rural engineering works because they have neither engineering design capability nor equipment (backhoes, dump trucks, hydraulic compressors, etc.). The larger, more complex, and costly rural engineering works (e.g. main tributary structures, primary road construction, etc.) are more in the domain of incorporated construction firms.

Working with associations requires significant investment in training. Most of the farmer members and their elected leaders have little formal schooling, and state institutions traditionally are only able to invest scant resources in primary and adult education programs. Training needs to be adapted to the rural learning style (learn by doing) and to a reading/writing level of semi- and non-literate participants. Notwithstanding, Cape Verde experience shows that returns on training investments are high since people gain practical skills and self confidence, allowing them to take control of the development of their own watershed communities.

It is impractical to believe that all associations will be successful. A more realistic expectation is to accept that there will be some attrition. ACDI/VOCA - Cape Verde works on the premise that each association has the right to succeed or fail on its own. Three groups that had contracts in 1996 have been eliminated from the program. As of January 1999, DGASP is investigating management anomalies of two others. The principal causes for association demise are mismanagement, unscrupulous leaders, or member apathy. Association failure is often due to a mixture of the above mentioned factors.

Results to Date

From 1995 to 1997 association contractors built 310 medium and large check dams, protected 265 hectares with contour rock wall terraces, constructed 8,000 meters of cement-lined irrigation canals, and planted trees and contour vegetative barriers on 210 hectares as part of their portfolio of activities. Associations have also built fuel efficient cook stoves, community and household cisterns, and other water-conserving infrastructure (impermeable mini-dams, cement-mortar water tanks, etc.).

Key to the SWC contracting process is the fact that efficient associations make a profit that stays in the local community. Only two of 25 contractor associations (8%) did not turn a profit in 1997. Each of the 23 groups that did turn a profit for that year on average made $4,555 from their SWC contract. Examples of how associations use profits include: 1) financing other income-generating endeavors (e.g. livestock production, cottage industries, street vendors, etc.), 2) funding local community infrastructure projects (e.g. drip irrigation equipment, pumps, community buildings), and 3) supporting education/social services programs (e.g. kindergartens, adult literacy programs, etc.). Associations also annually distribute approximately 30% of their profits as bonuses or dividends to their member workers.

In 1996 sixteen associations from Santiago Island formed an umbrella NGO, OASIS (Organization of the Associations of Santiago Island). Ten of the OASIS associations recently pooled their capital to create their own rural bank (ASDIS). ASDIS will be geared to providing loans for productive investment activities to qualified lenders from within the associations' ranks.

Rural women are actively participating in the association movement. Fifty-four percent of association members are women (1,445 female members) of the 2,682 total for three islands. On Santiago, women who previously worked as day laborers under state-run employment programs, now find employment as skilled stone masons, crew chiefs, association accountants, and many have been elected as association leaders. OASIS has an active women's commission that

works to promote gender equity within the association movement.

Working with farmer-led associations is a programming option that has been successful in Cape Verde. Increased resource flows are going to the rural areas and are being invested locally. Other benefits can also be monitored and include, improved productivity, a greater sense of partnership between the government of Cape Verde and the associations, and increased participation of local citizens in soil conservation and watershed development. ✤

If you want to learn more about this activity please contact Tom Gardiner at ACDI/VOCA at tgardiner@acdivoca.org.

continued from page 1

Although many development practitioners now want to measure and create social capital in their projects, there is still no clear consensus on what social capital is or how to measure it. The concept of social capital is often being adopted indiscriminately, adapted uncritically, and applied imprecisely (Woolcock 1997).

I. What is Social Capital: An Abridged Review of the Literature

The origins of the concept of social capital date back to the 1940's and 1950's in anthropology and sociology, where it was viewed as critical for social cohesion and social change (Moser 1997). Recently, it has gained wide usage across a range of disciplines. James Coleman, a sociologist, wrote a key paper in 1988 that made a comprehensive attempt to define and describe social capital. He defined social capital as those aspects of networks and relationships that allow actors to meet their objectives. One of the most influential recent publications is Robert Putman's book, Making Democracy Work (1993), written with Robert Leonardi and Rafaella Nanetti. In this work, Putman uses the term social capital to refer to features of social organization such as networks, norms and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit.

Several studies have since been carried out to determine the link between social capital and economic development. They use a variety of approaches, conceptions, and measures of social capital to address this issue (Morris 1998). (For a comprehensive review of the literature, see Woolcock 1997.)

One of the major conceptual problems associated with these works is that social capital is defined differently by different authors, and they are not at the same conceptual or operational level. This can lead to conceptual and measurement confusion. Despite this, some common themes can be drawn from the literature (Wood 1998). These include:

- social relations link economic, social and political spheres;
- stable relationships among actors can enhance effectiveness and efficiency of both collective and individual action and interaction;
- enhancing social capital involves strengthening the relationships among individuals and helping them to engage in a range of activities more effectively;
- desirable social relationships have a public good characteristic which endorses the principle that such social relationships and institutions merit public support;
- social capital can be strengthened and this will require resources;
- people use networks, associations and broad principles of social organization as a means of reducing risk, accessing services, protecting themselves against depredation and acquiring information (Wood 1998).

Most approaches to social capital focus on those social relationships that have a positive effect on development outcomes, such as the quality of information flow, the integration of social groups, fostering organizational behavior to achieve goals, and enhancing quality of life (Wood 1998). However, these approaches down play the negative consequences of strong social relationships that can lead to exclusion, forced conformity and downward leveling pressures (Harriss and de Renzio 1997). Thus social capital can have a downside (Woolcock 1997).

II. An Operational Definition of Social Capital and its Key Dimensions

A. DEFINING SOCIAL CAPITAL

There are a number of definitions of social capital found in the literature. Drawing on the body of knowledge on social capital, the following definition is proposed:

Social capital *is defined as the quantity and quality of social resources (networks, membership in groups, social relationships, access to wider institutions in society) upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods (adapted from Scoones, 1998). The quality of these networks is determined by the level of trust and shared norms that exist among the network members. People use these networks to reduce risk, to access services, protect themselves from deprivation, and to acquire information to lower transaction costs (adapted from Wood 1998).*

We can think of social capital as a productive resource just like physical, financial or human capital. Machinery and buildings are physical capital that firms can use to produce goods or a household can use to achieve livelihood security. Cash or loans provide the financial capital needed to finance production or household income strategies. Investments in education and health strengthen an individual's ability to participate in and manage these productive processes and achieve his or her objectives. People use social relationships to acquire and use all of these capitals more effectively and also engage in a range of activities to achieve their objectives more efficiently (Wood 1998).

Intuitively, social capital is "connections" to other individuals, and to other groups. As with other capitals, it can be generated, accumulated, and transmitted (Bourdieu 1993). It can be used to produce these other capitals, or, in combination with other inputs, to achieve other objectives, such as improved livelihood security. Conversely, these other capitals, along with other inputs, could be used to produce social capital. The challenge for the development practitioner is to understand how these "human connections" are formed and how the poor use them along with other resources to improve their livelihoods.

In some ways, social capital is just putting a name to what we already know. By considering human relations as a productive resource similar to the better known capitals, the term "social capital" emphasizes the productive nature of these relationships, and in a short-hand way, helps us understand what it is and how it might be used to improve livelihood security.

B. KEY DIMENSIONS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL

1. What social capital is

In discussing social capital, authors sometimes confuse what social capital "is" with what produces it. Social capital is not tangible, like physical capital, but something more like human capital, not concrete and not easily measured or valued. Individuals can increase their human capital by going to school or exercising to stay healthy. But these things (education and health) are actually only inputs into the production of human capital. If measured, they can only serve as representations of the actual level of human capital. An individual then uses his or her human capital (accumulated skills and capacities) to produce goods or achieve a sustainable livelihood.

Working on projects with other members of the community can help to build social capital, just as going to school can help build human capital. But just as going to school is not itself "human capital", working on projects is not itself "social capital". One might measure the level of available social capital, however, by counting the community organizations an individual belongs to, or the number of people the individual can turn to during a crisis. Likewise, one might get an idea about the level of human capital an individual has by asking about the person's level of education. An individual uses his or her accumulated social capital by drawing on the relationships with individuals or groups to achieve an end.

Just as improving health and education improves human capital, working to enhance and expand social networks improves social capital. A poor person's ability to get a small loan may depend on the lender's confidence (trust) that the individual will pay back the loan. Trust can be built over time through a series of social interactions. The potential borrower then uses that social capital to obtain the loan.

Social capital can also substitute for (or complement) other inputs that the individual uses to achieve objectives. Returning to the example of the loan, the lender's trust in the borrower compensates for the low level of assets she has available as collateral. The lender normally uses collateral to evaluate the borrower's ability to repay the loan. If the borrower uses the loan to start up a business and relies on her social networks to generate demand for her product, then she is using social capital to enhance the value of the loan. Without her social capital, the productivity of the loan would be less.

Repeated, positive interactions can strengthen social capital, and the maintenance of social networks is closely tied to the prospects of continuous mutually beneficial exchange. Betrayal of trust can quickly "poison the well" because it destroys the possibility of continued beneficial exchange. Community networks may break down or become more decentralized under conditions of famine or chronic poverty (and probably in communities wracked with AIDS) because families no longer have the resources to reciprocate adequately. The stock of social capital can not be sustained. Large external shocks may lead to the poorest and most vulnerable segments of the community being ejected from the networks due to the inability of the other members to carry the burden of these vulnerable households through times of stress.

2. Building Blocks of Social Capital

One of the most important building blocks of social capital is trust. Without trust, economic exchanges would be held back that support family welfare or promote development goals. Once trust has broken down, it is very difficult to reestablish it (Cross et al. 1998). Trust is extremely important when markets are imperfect. When trust is present, merchants can lower their guard, economize on transaction costs and allow for the enforcement of contracts (Fafchamps and Minten 1998).

There are three types of trust. Processes-based trust is defined as trust that is based on face-to-face interactions and personal experience. Characteristic-based trust is defined as trust that is fostered by personal characteristics such family affiliation or ethnicity. Institutional-based trust is trust that is established through formal institutions such as laws and courts (Cross et al. 1998).

In stable communities that are often isolated, and vulnerable to risk, process-based trust and characteristic-based trust are more likely to be the basis of social capital. It is scarcity, not sufficiency that often requires people to be generous (Fafchamps 1992), and social capital is important in the management of risk. Principles of generalized reciprocity often govern exchanges in the networks found in such communities, and the people receiving the assistance do not have specific terms regarding when to pay back loans or the form of repayment.

As communities become less stable due to increasing mobility, (process based) trust based on personal, long standing relations may be replaced by institutional-based trust. Although institutions are established to provide guarantees from the law and courts to enable transactions, the poor often do not have access to such institutions because they have few assets to foreclose on (Fafchamps and Minten 1998).

In communities with high mobility, balanced reciprocity often replaces generalized reciprocity. Balanced reciprocity involves the specification of terms with any loan agreement, whereby the borrower is obligated to pay back in a specified timeframe with accrued interest on the amount borrowed (Cross et al. 1998). Balanced reciprocity is less flexible than generalized reciprocity. Poor people are usually unable to meet the balanced reciprocity terms and are therefore often dropped from the networks. The exclusion from community self-help characterizes the experience of poverty for the very poor (Moser 1997).

3. Functions of Social Capital

The purposes of social capital can be subdivided into reactive and proactive uses. Reactive uses of social capital revolve around the management of risk. Social networks manage risk in two ways. First, members in a social network or community solidarity group will try to help each other prevent the occurrence of a food or income shortfall by sharing key factors of

CASE STUDIES

Recently, a number of case studies have been carried out to determine what the contribution of social capital is on household risk management and economic outcomes. From these rural and urban case studies we can identify possible ways to measure social capital and the impact it potentially has on livelihood security.

Tanzania (rural)

A quantitative study that was carried out by the World Bank in rural Tanzania in 1997 tried to determine the effect that social capital had on household welfare of the rural poor. Social capital was measured as a single index across three dimensions: 1) household membership in various voluntary organizations or groups; 2) characteristics of those groups with regards to kin and income heterogeneity; and 3) values, attitudes and trust in various groups and perceptions of social cohesion. A village level social capital index was created by taking the average number of groups found in a village with the average number of characteristics of those groups (in terms of income and kin heterogeneity) (Narayan and Pritchett 1997).

Their findings indicated that the number of networks at the village level has a positive income effect on all of the households in the village. This income effect was much larger when compared to other known determinants of income such as years of schooling and physical assets. Households in villages with more social capital are more likely to have access to better public services, use advanced agricultural practices and join in communal activities. The study also claims that the effect of social capital primarily operates at the village level and not at the individual level (Narayan and Pritchett 1997).

The study has been criticized because it used a single index to measure social capital (Grootaert 1998). By using a single index, it is not possible to determine whether social capital effects operate primarily through the density of existing institutions or through the characteristics of groups. Putman (1993) and others have argued that it is the density of the institutions that is most important. However, the characteristics of groups (i.e., the nature of participation and structure of the groups) may be just as important or more critical.

Indonesia (rural)

Building on the work in Tanzania, another World Bank quantitative study on social capital was carried out in the rural areas of Indonesia. This study tried to determine whether social capital operated at the household or village level, and whether the impact of social capital varied according to different types of institutions to which households belonged. Six aspects were measured to determine the quantity and quality of networks. These included: 1) density of membership (number of associations that the household is a member); 2) heterogeneity of group (neighborhood, kin group, occupation, economic status, religion, gender, age, and level of education); meeting attendance (average number of times household attends group meetings in 3 months); active participation (degree to which the poor and less educated are participating in the groups); collection of membership dues (cash or labor); and community orientation (internally derived or externally imposed) (Grootaert 1998).

The study found that households with higher social capital have higher expenditures per capita, more assets, better access to credit, and are more likely to have increased their savings in a year. These households are also less likely to have their children not attend school. Thus the study found that social capital increases correlated positively with household welfare (Grootaert 1998).

The author of the study hypothesized that social capital positively affected the income of households through: 1) better job connections; 2) access to credit through networks; and 3) better access to inputs. The social capital features that appeared to be the most important to economic performance were:1) the number of memberships in different groups; 2) the internal heterogeneity of associations; 3) the degree of active participation in decision making; and 4) the extent of the payment of dues (Grootaert 1998).

The quantity of networks people were involved in was important because it connected individuals to people that were not experiencing the same sorts of risk. In addition, the more associations the household participates in the more likely the household will participate in collective action (Grootaert 1998).

Participation in a network that is heterogeneous will connect people from different backgrounds with different risk exposures. Building trust among heterogeneous populations participating in networks may take longer than situations where people are more homogeneous, but the benefits are likely to be greater in managing risk (Grootaert 1998).

The most effective local associations in terms of returns to social capital were those where the members were active participants in the decision making processes. Whether the network was internally derived or externally derived was not as important as whether people actively participated (Grootaert 1998).

If membership in internally heterogeneous organizations provides the greatest benefits to individual households, the highest participation in collective action comes from members of internally more homogeneous organizations (like gender segregated groups). Thus there could be a trade-off between the interests of households and those of the community (Grootaert 1998).

The returns to social capital are not the same for each type of social network. Memberships in local associations make the most significant contribution to household welfare. Policy initiatives should aim to create enabling environments to allow for local associations to thrive (Grootaert 1998).

production such as land, labor and physical capital (Fafchamps 1992). For example, people will loan idle land to people who are land-less or land-poor because these same people will be short of food at some later date. In urban settings, risk-minimizing uses of social capital might include labor sharing for house repair, emergency food or financial assistance when household wage earners are ill, and temporarily sharing accommodation.

The second way that people use social capital is through the participation in networks that compensate members experiencing food or income shortfalls. For example, large expenditures on medical and funeral costs are often unpredictable, and can cause significant income and consumption shocks having devastating consequences for the household if the social network does not provide some support. Such transfers usually occur among closely connected individuals, such as relatives, neighbors, and friends.

The degree to which shocks are insured by network members often depends upon their observability (Lund and Fafchamps 1997). Sickness and death of a family member are more observable than underemployment, and are more likely to bring about a response from network members. In rural areas, crop failures are easily observable. Income and food shortfalls are harder to gage for households that are reliant on non-farm income. In such situations, consumption is a powerful yet delayed signal of income or food shortfalls (Fafchamps 1992).

Proactive uses of social capital revolve around acquiring services, managing common property resources and reducing transaction costs. Community-based social networks might lobby the government for the delivery of services such as water, health care or education. Social networks can help manage resources that belong to the community. Transaction costs can be reduced through social networks when information is shared (prices, input supply, commodity markets etc.), and contacts are used.

CASE STUDY

Tanzania (urban)

In a recent qualitative study carried out by CARE (1997) in Dar es Salaam, differences were found in the strength of social capital in different parts of the city. In peri-urban areas, both men and women's groups were present and actively pursuing a variety of development initiatives. In squatter settlements closer to the city center, the men's networks were weak or non-existent, while the women's groups still functioned effectively in sharing childcare duties and short-term credit. In the city center most social networks were weak or non-existent. This was primarily due to the transient nature of the city center where populations are very mobile, ethnic diversity is high, and trust is not in abundance.

It is in these inter-city neighborhoods that crime rates and violence are extremely high, and opportunities for participating in social capital building activities at night are limited due the threats on safety. Such threats restrict mobility for social interaction, eroding space for community associations. Under such conditions, hierarchically structured negative social capital in the form of gangs and organized crime often comes in to dominate poor communities (Moser 1997). These organizations tend to use violence as a sanctioning tool. This form of social capital is often the only one available to urban youth.

The breakdown of social capital in urban areas like Dar es Salaam particularly affects women (Moser 1996). Social capital access is very critical to women because it allows them to balance multiple reproductive/domestic activities with economic pursuits. In addition to small loans, women help each other with childcare, cooking and share living space.

Childcare responsibilities and social restrictions make it difficult for women to seek employment long distances from their neighborhood. Women tend to be trapped inside the community local economy and rely on social capital to help deal with adversity. When shocks hit, women often bear most of the burden of the crisis, although they have less economic options to fall back on (Cross et al., 1998). Economic hardships may lead to increased domestic violence or the breakup of households. In such situations, women try to rely on their social capital networks to adjust to the changing circumstances. Women's social capital networks are mainly among women, and tend to be wider and perhaps deeper than those used by men (Cross et al. 1998). However, because women usually have less income to mobilize than men, support is usually in the form of labor or in-kind exchanges.

II Types of Social Capital and Trends

A. TYPES OF SOCIAL CAPITAL

There are a variety of forms that networks take, depending upon the socio-economic context of a community. The range of connections between people will vary, and may include social relationships, shared beliefs, group identification, and voluntary associations.

People often make a distinction between social capital of the individual and social capital of the collective. Social capital is an individual asset when the individual benefits from knowing others. This is often referred to as social network capital (Fafchamps and Minten 1998). Social capital is an asset of the collective when it contributes to group solidarity that facilitates the provision of public goods. The two forms of social capital are related.

Network crystallization is likely to take advantage of pre-existing relationships such as kinship, neighborhood or affiliation in an organization such as church or club. Community solidarity groups commonly found in isolated, pre-industrial societies have weakened and have been replaced by smaller more decentralized networks (Cross et al. 1998). Three general types of network groupings can be distinguished.

Bounded networks consist of people connected by kinship ties. People are born into bounded networks and rely on these to manage risk through reciprocal lending, provisioning certain collective goods, and sharing information. (Cross et al. 1998). These types of networks can often deliver long term support in the face of serious shocks due to kinship obligations. The very poor in a community rely on these networks whenever they can.

Achieved or choice-based networks are informal and formal networks based on choice and gained through experience or institutional membership. People may create friendships through school, work, service, political affiliation, church, or sports clubs. These choice-based horizontal networks are becoming more and more important through time, especially as people are becoming more mobile. These networks tend to be more decentralized than bounded networks, and tend to be more resilient and flexible in terms of membership than community-based solidarity groups (Fafchamps 1992). These networks often remain small, local, and fragile, and may easily break up over trust concerns. For this reason, choice-based networks provide support to members for short-term shocks through loans, and through provisions of advice, information and connections. Choice-based networks are much more difficult for the very poor to use because they have little to offer in exchange (Cross et al. 1998).

Patron-client networks are those groups where asymmetries in wealth and power exists, such that those with the greatest power and/or resources are expected to provide economic or physical security to those with less power and resources in exchange for loyalty, labor, rent etc. Patron-client relationships are vertical networks, and often arise when the need for insurance based on accumulated wealth is necessary to deal with collective risk (drought, floods, war) (Fafchamps 1992). The patrons in these networks are often traditional authorities that act as representatives of their people to the rest of the world. They are expected by the clients in their networks to insert themselves into regional or national networks on behalf of the rest of the group. Patrons may compete with other patrons for clients. Sometimes poorer households are adversely incorporated into such vertical networks because they have no choice.

Social networks can be formal or informal in nature. The networks can also be locally based or connected to individuals outside the community. Local networks often serve to help manage risk through reciprocal lending, oversee common property, and share information conducive to trade. Extra-local networks link individuals and communities to broader sets of information regarding market opportunities and sources of technology and inputs (Statz 1998).

Because all of these different types of networks can exist simultaneously in the same social setting, network membership for any given household can be complex. Poor people are often obliged to interact simultaneously in several layered and overlapping arenas of rules, cultural norms and opportunities. Tradeoffs are often experienced in exercising participation in the different networks, and households must take into consideration the different opportunity costs associated with participation in each network. The poor households will manage the contradictions, operating among the contesting social capitals (Wood 1998).

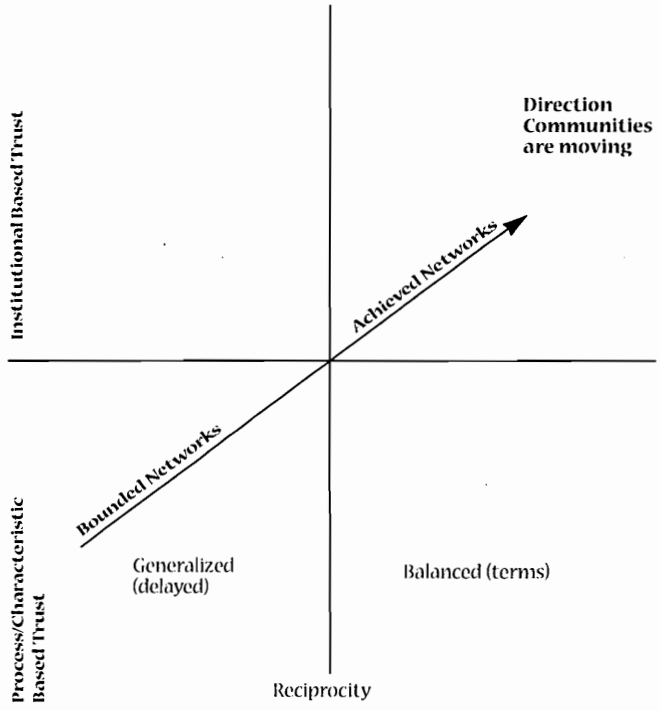
Thus there are different types, levels or dimensions of social capital, with different performance outcomes associated with each combination (Woolcock 1997). It is important to understand these various aspects in the design of any development initiative aimed at reducing vulnerability and/or improving household livelihood security.

B. RECENT TRENDS

The types of social capital available to poor people are constantly evolving, primarily due to rapid economic, political, social, and environmental changes occurring within less developed countries and globally. Inequalities in the distribution of income, resources and opportunities have increased, and political changes in the 1980s and 1990s have resulted in instability and military insecurity, contributing to increased global poverty.

These change processes have led to increasing economic vulnerability of the poor, leading to high rates of mobility and unemployment. Under such rapid change conditions, community based groups that operated under principles of generalized reciprocity are evolving into a differentiated, decentralized webbing of individual networks based on balanced reciprocity (Cross et al. 1998). (See Figure 1) Choice-based networks are surpassing bounded-networks in the volume of transactions, and the most vulnerable, marginal members are being dropped from the networks. Essentially, social capital as a community asset available to everyone is evolving to an individual asset based on the ability to meet reciprocal obligations.

Figure 1



Although marginalized households can still rely on bounded networks for support, even these ties are weakening (Cross et al. 1998). For example in South Africa, some members in bounded networks are finding that the social capital obligations towards the very poor may outweigh the returns on network membership. Relatives of the same generation are

often withdrawing long-term support to each other. It appears that lineal relatives (i.e., grandparents, parents and children) are the only ones still providing long-term support to the very poor (Cross et al. 1998).

The shrinking of networks and high rates of adult unemployment are making poor households highly vulnerable to economic shocks. The point in the household development cycle when the main lineal relative supporter dies often determines what happens to the family's chance for escaping poverty (Cross et al. 1998). The HIV-AIDS epidemic in Africa is making such networks extremely vulnerable. With limited social capital support, poor families find it difficult to keep their children in school when a shock hits. To do so, they often trade off the health of adults (especially women) against investing in the future by keeping children in school (Cross et al. 1998).

Households that are unable to cope with shocks due to the lack of social capital are often the ones that have to cope with the destructive or criminal behavior from household members in despair (Cross et al. 1998). Negative forms of social capital may arise in situations of severe poverty, such as criminal gangs, street children organized for stealing property, and other forms of organized crime. Although these crime networks have a long-term negative impact on the community, they have positive short-term returns for people that participate in the network. In many situations, this may be the only network avenue open to the poor youth in urban slums.

Thus, the evolution of social capital has led to a differentiation and decentralization of network options. Social networks have moved away from inclusive solidarity networks to those that separate the marginal poor from the adequately supported based on the ability to reciprocate. As the very poor slide deeper into destitution, the middle poor are still able to rely on social capital to manage risk and lower transaction costs. As the poor separate out along class lines, the very poor experience a greater sense of isolation and despair. At the same time that social capital for the very poor is eroding or being replaced by negative networks, government provision of resources for safety nets to fill this social capital gap is being reduced. Public and private safety nets have large holes in them through which the very poor drop out (Cross et al 1998).

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What's New

by T.J. Ryan

Change in workshop dates!!

We would like announce that the dates for the workshop entitled 'Enhancing the Nutritional Quality of Relief Foods' have been changed to April 28-30 from March 3-5. These dates are firm and we will provide an updated agenda and hotel and venue information to interested participants in approximately three weeks along with specific contact information for questions and additional information.

Update on FAM activities

In late May, FAM will hold a workshop on 'Sampling for Managers' to address a need expressed by members for some time and reiterated at the annual meeting. The workshop will last three days and include an overview as well as specific exercises for participants to allow for a basic understanding of the requirements for good sampling in surveys and evaluations. The workshop will be developed by the M&E working group and with assistance from the FANta project staff and consultants.

FAM will assist in the organization of a workshop in Bolivia in either June or July on the 'Use of Rations in MCH programs' involving Title II programs from Bolivia and Peru. FAM involvement is designed to provide an opportunity for membership to have access to the results and ongoing work that is expected to result from the workshop. We will keep members informed as workshop details are finalized.

As agreed at the annual meeting, local capacity building will be the theme for the 2 days reserved for workshops at the FAM annual meeting. More information on this will be forthcoming. We will be looking at October, 1999 for this meeting.

FAM will also be looking for a consultant to implement the second part of the agriculture baseline survey SOW. This part of the SOW will focus on the bio-physical aspects to include direct and indirect methods of measuring precipitation, yield, plot size, duration of stored harvest, and key plant/soil variables. Suggestions for a consultant with bio-physical agriculture and baseline survey expertise are welcome.

The **PVO Monetization Manual** sponsored by FAM is proceeding towards completion. Eight chapters have been distributed and commented on to date with an additional 5 chapters currently under review for comment. A number of case studies have been sent and are nearly ready for inclusion. The manual is scheduled to be completed by March 31, 1999. All comments and suggestions should go to Bridget Ralyea at bridgetr@aol.com.

As announced at the FAM Annual Meeting, the **FAM website** has been expanded and improved. Since that meeting, several updates have been made to the site. The FAM working group pages can now be accessed from the table of contents on the site. In addition, selected full-text articles from the Food Forum have been uploaded. New documents have been added to the FSRC page as well. FAM will continue to regularly update the website to address the information needs of FAM members. Please contact Jessica Graef (jgraef@foodaid.org) if you would like to add information to the FAM site.

The **Environmental Documentation Manual (EDM)** has been completed and is available. The EDM is the reference document that can be used by P.L.480 Title II cooperating sponsors as a guide when completing environmental documentation required under USAID's environmental regulations and procedures (22 CFR part 216). The EDM is not official USAID guidance. The EDM will be distributed to appropriate staff in your organization, specifically those who are involved in preparing environmental documentation for FFP. FAM will soon have electronic copies available on diskette and the EDM will be posted on the FAM website. Any remaining copies of the EDM would also be available through the FSRC. ✤

Food Security Resource Center News

As part of its large nutrition and food aid collection, the FSRC houses several very useful publications on fortification of food aid commodities. I have generated a list with a sample of the types of fortification resources available in the FSRC. For more specific information or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact me at

Jessica Graef
Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC RESOURCES ON FORTIFICATION

Vitamin A fortification of PL480 vegetable oil. *1998. Bagriansky, Jack; Ranum, Peter. SUSTAIN Micronutrient Assessment Program. 54p. #7348.*
Examines vitamin A fortification of PL 480 vegetable oil. Report "suggests that distribution of fortified PL 480 vegetable oil could significantly reduce the rate of childhood blindness as well as the morbidity of mortality rates stemming from common childhood infections." Provides technical analysis of fortification studies and offers recommendations. Discusses safety and technology issues.

Effects of iron fortification in a school feeding scheme and anthelmintic therapy on the iron status and growth of six-to eight-year-old schoolchildren. *March 1996. Kruger, Marita et al. Food and Nutrition Bulletin. Vol. 17, No. 1.* Study of the effect of iron fortification of soup (iron and vitamin C) in a

school feeding scheme and anthelmintic therapy on haematological and iron status and on growth in schoolchildren aged six to eight years in South Africa.

Report of a technical review of vitamin C and iron levels in P.L. 480 Title II commodities. *1990. USAID. 20p. FSRC #401.* Report from panel formed to investigate the increased fortification of Title II commodities. Recommended actions include the following: increased iron fortification; maintenance of the current level of vitamin C; investigation of alternate delivery systems due to stability problems.

Use of food aid in locally processed infant foods: Sustainable approach to reduce hunger. *1994. Huffman, Sandra; Nurture/Center to Prevent Childhood Malnutrition. 8p. FSRC #1039.*
Testimony that urges that processed fortified instant cereals be made available through the US food aid program.

Micronutrient fortification and enrichment of P.L. 480 Title II commodities: Recommendations for improvement. *1994. OMNI; USAID; JSI; Horton, Susan; Buescher, Ron. 70p. FSRC #1259.*
Examines the options for micronutrient fortification of food aid commodities. Provides technical information about enrichment and fortification practices, quality assurance of the fortified commodities, product, and fortificant stability, and appropriate and safe levels of fortification. Offers recommendations.

SUSTAIN results report on the vitamin C pilot program. *1997. SUSTAIN; Ranum, Peter; Chomé, Francoise. 154p.FSRC #6883.*
Contains the results of pilot program to determine appropriate vitamin C fortification levels in U.S. food aid commodities. Focuses on corn soy blend (CSB) and wheat soy blend (WSB) provided to Tanzania and Haiti, which were fortified with higher levels of vitamin C.

Acceptability and use of cereal-based foods in refugee camps: Case-studies from Nepal, Ethiopia, and Tanzania. *1998. Mears, Catherine; Young, Helen; OXFAM. 132p. FSRC #7139.*
Nutritional study of the use and acceptability of cereal-based foods in refugee camps, as well as opportunities for fortification of cereals with micronutrients at the household level. Case studies conducted in refugee camps in Nepal, Ethiopia, and Tanzania.

Vitamin C fortification of food aid commodities. *1997. Institute of Medicine; Committee on International Nutrition; Food and Nutrition Board. 87p. FSRC #7165.*
Discusses the cost-effectiveness of scaling up vitamin C fortification in Title II commodities, mainly CSB and WSB. Makes recommendations, discusses alternative mechanisms for providing vitamin C to refugees, and identifies areas in which additional research is needed.

Fortification of wheat flour with vitamin A: Update. *1998. USAID; UNICEF; OMNI Project/John Snow Inc. 16p. FSRC #7221.*
Focusing on fortification of wheat flour with vitamin A, discusses the technology and issues related to stability of vitamin A, sensory characteristics, quality assurance and control, and cost of wheat flour fortified with vitamin A and other micronutrients.

Manual for sugar fortification with vitamin A:
Part I - Guidelines for the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of vitamin A sugar fortification program. *1996. Arroyave, Guillermo; Dary, Omar. 57p. FSRC #7222.*
Part II - Technical and operational guidelines for preparing vitamin A premix and fortified sugar. *1996. Dary, Omar; Arroyave, Guillermo. 41p. FSRC #7223.*
Part III - Analytical methods for the control and evaluation of sugar fortification of vitamin A. *1996. Dary, Omar et al. 81p. FSRC #7224.*
Part I describes the importance of preventing and reducing vitamin A deficiency and how to go about establishing such a program. Part II covers general aspects of the fortification process; manufacture of the premix and procedures for adding the premix to sugar; quality control. Part III presents field and laboratory methods to estimate the content of vitamin A in the premix and in fortified sugar.

Early response to the effect of iron fortification in the Venezuelan population. *December 1996. Layrisse, Miguel et al. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition (vol. 64, no. 6). 903-7.*
Results of preliminary survey carried out in Caracas in 1994 of a sample of children aged 7, 11, and 15 years. Shows that prevalence of iron deficiency and the prevalence of anemia were reduced as a result of an iron fortification program under which precooked yellow and white maize and wheat flours were enriched.

Interagency meeting: Iron fortification in the Americas. *March 1998. Pan American Health Organization (PAHO). 9p.*
Reports on March 1998 workshop that focused on iron fortification programs. Provides background information on iron deficiency and its prevention and control. Includes discussion of quality assurance and epidemiological surveillance. Examines premix and compound strategies. Includes consensus points, research priorities, and discussion items.

Food fortification: Technology and quality control. *1995. Istituto Nazionale della Nutrizione. FAO Technical Consultation. 34p.*
Includes summary of conclusions and recommendations as well as background information on food fortification. Contains sections on iodine, iron, and vitamin fortification technologies; legislation information; monitoring procedures; and fortification in food aid programs.
Available at www.fao.org/WAICENT/FAOINFO/ECONOMIC/ESN/fortify/fortify.htm.

Preventing micronutrient malnutrition: A guide to food-based approaches. Manual for policy makers and programme planners. *1997. FAO, International Life Sciences Institute. 105p. FSRC #7549.*
Discusses food-based approaches to combating micronutrient malnutrition and provides guidelines for policy makers in the implementation of these strategies.
Includes sections on increasing small-scale (e.g., gardening programs) as well as commercial production of micronutrient-rich foods, maintaining micronutrient levels in common foods (improved storage, food safety, and preparation), plant selection and breeding, food fortification, and communication strategies.

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Washington, DC 20003
Attn: **FOODForum**
Tel: 202.544.6972
Fax: 202.544.7065
E-mail: fam@foodaid.org.

Food Aid Management
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20003

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A Description of Africare's Food Security Activities in Mozambique

by William Noble, Africare/Mozambique Country Representative

Introduction

Africare considered the meaning of the term "food security" and the definition included in USAID's policy determination at its first Title II field workshop held in Niger in September 1992. When the *Food Aid and Food Security Policy Paper* was issued in March 1995, the focus on increased agricultural productivity and improved household nutrition was considered at a Workshop held in Guinea Bissau in November 1995 which involved all Africare Country Representatives. These concepts were analyzed in relation to Africare's twenty-five years of experience in Africa. The deliberations resulted in the conviction that it would be difficult to achieve a situation where "all people at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life" by activities which focus only on agricultural productivity or household nutrition. Increased agricultural productivity alone cannot assure that the utilization condition needed for achievement of food security is met. Similarly, improved household nutrition cannot be sustained unless it is linked to increased supply and availability. Since that time, Africare programs have been designed to develop interfaces between activities focused on both agricultural productivity and household nutrition to demonstrate ways to make the linkages. The following discussion of Africare's *Manica Oil Seed Food Security Initiative*, an activity with an implementation period from FY 1997 through FY 2001, considers the benefits and challenges of this approach.

Background

In October 1996, Africare began implementation of the Manica Oil Seed Food Security Initiative (MOSFSI), a five year development activity that takes place in five districts of Manica Province, in central Mozambique. The goal of the MOSFSI is to significantly enhance food security in the Barue, Gondola, Guro, Manica and Sussendenga districts of Manica Province. There are two objectives which are of equal priori-

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Getting Connected: Reducing Livelihood Insecurity by Investing in Social Capital

By Timothy R. Frankenberger CARE USA, and James Garrett International Food Policy Research Institute. December, 1998

This article is the second in a series of two installments, and has been edited for publication. For more information on the concept of social capital, or a full version of this paper, please contact Tim Frankenberger from CARE USA at frankenb@care.org, or James Garrett from IFPRI at j.garrett@cgiar.org.

I. INCORPORATING SOCIAL CAPITAL CONSIDERATIONS INTO CARE'S LIVELIHOOD SECURITY PROGRAMMING

To promote long-term livelihood security, CARE seeks to understand the role that social capital plays in the lives of the poor. To do this effectively, CARE staff and other PVOs integrating this concept, have to take social capital into account in: 1) the **diagnosis** of any region or area where the organization is considering program activities, and in mid cycle adjustments in on-going projects; 2) the **design of projects**, especially if community participation is an integral part of the design or the focus is on safety nets; and 3) **monitoring and evaluation**.

Social capital is defined in this article as the quantity and quality of social resources (networks, membership in

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ty. The first objective is development of a sustainable, small-scale oil seed production and processing industry in the five districts. The second objective is increased awareness and application of improved nutrition and health practices within the households in these districts. Concurrent with this five year implementation period, a joint umbrella monetization program of Title II commodities is being managed by the six PVO Cooperating Sponsors (CS) with approved Development Activity Programs (DAPs). Two commodities are being monetized, crude oil and wheat.

The design of Africare's DAP focused on addressing the twin objectives of increased agricultural production and improved household nutrition. The central province of Manica was traditionally a large producer of maize, other cereals and a variety of cash crops produced by the small-scale sector. During the seventeen years of civil war in Mozambique that ended in 1992, the majority of the province's agricultural base was abandoned, and there was significant migration to Zimbabwe and Malawi, to escape the fighting.

By 1996 (when Africare's DAP was designed), the majority of the people that had abandoned the province had returned to Mozambique, but were only just starting to return to the interior areas of the province to bring land back into production. It was estimated that less than 20% of the province's arable land was under production in 1995. This percentage has increased significantly during the past three years. Nutritional status surveys conducted during the period of repatriation identified high rates of chronic malnutrition of under 5 children and recognized that even with radical increases in food production during the immediate term, household nutritional status would remain extremely vulnerable. This was confirmed during Africare's baseline survey conducted in June-July 1997, which identified a stunting rate (height-for-age) of under 5 children of 50%.

The MOSFSI was designed to address the three aspects of food security as defined by USAID (access, availability - oil seed production and processing, and utilization - improved nutrition education and monitoring). The monetization of Title II crude oil with national refineries was viewed as an additional support to increase the availability of edible oil in the national market, a key constraint that was identified in USAID/Mozambique's Food Security Strategy completed in 1996. Africare works with small-scale farmers and manual press operators to increase edible oil for sale at the village level. In addition, Africare has developed partnerships with the commercial sector in central Mozambique to increase market linkages for these organizations to access needed raw material (improved oil seed) from the small-scale farming sector. The sale of Title II crude oil over the five year period is a "pump-priming" activity geared toward supporting these companies to make needed investments to increase their oil production and sources of raw material from within the country. Other PVO CSs are working in the oil seed sector in other parts of the country.

Low incomes were a principal constraint to improved food security in Manica Province. Oil seed was identified as a crop with significant potential because it was historically produced in this area prior to independence and studies indicated it had as high (or higher) returns to labor as other small-scale cash crops produced in the area (tobacco and cotton). Improved nutrition of under 5 children is a function of available income to purchase food and enhanced knowledge and behavior of household caretakers about the types and frequency of food to be consumed. Consumption of oil in Mozambique is extremely low (estimates of oil consumption in rural Mozambique are 1.5 Kilograms (KG) per year, significantly lower than other Southern African Development Community countries and well below the minimum needed for good health). The oil is a key food in good childhood nutrition both as it is a dense source of calories and is essential to the assimilation of vitamin A. The experience with the promotion of manual oil seed processing technology in both Mozambique and Southern Africa has been quite positive and profitable. The combination of increased oil seed production and processing to increase household income and targeted nutrition education and monitoring to improve understanding of the importance between better eating, improved household-managed preventative practices and general health status is designed to address all aspects of household food security.

Methodology

Africare's outreach methodology is implemented via integrated planning between the field staff of both technical components. It was decided during start-up that the primary criteria by which a community would receive support was its potential for increased oil seed production and processing. This criteria was reflected in the communities visited for the baseline survey. Nutrition promotion activities are initiated in those villages that have begun to increase oil seed production and processing.

Working in collaboration with government extension agents and other agencies involved in agricultural development, Africare began an intensive training and extension effort with small-scale farmers during the 1997-98 growing season. The objective was to transfer improved husbandry practices about sunflower and sesame, working with improved varieties of open-pollinated oil seed. 50 Leader Farmers were trained to work with more than 200 farmer's groups in the target districts. More than 14 MT's of improved seed were marketed during 1997-98; most of these sales took place through the private sector. It is estimated that more than 4,500 farmers planted improved seed, in addition to another 4,500 farmers that planted retained seed from the previous year.

Africare staff organized more than 200 community demonstrations of the manual oil press during 1997-98. The purpose of this activity is to show the value of this technology for the transformation of oil seed and identify potential entrepreneurs who are willing and able to establish a pressing enterprise. The presses are sourced from a factory in Zimbabwe and a factory in Manica Province. Starting in 1998, oil press sales are made on consignment to 14 rural stores in the target districts. The cost of the press is on average $250; Africare is not involved in the provision of credit for these purchases. Training has been provided to rural artisans in the repair of the presses and Press Owners receive regular technical assistance and monitoring from Africare staff about the management of these enterprises. 76 presses were functioning in the target districts at the end of FY'98.

Africare nutrition staff complete a general health diagnosis of each community. Based on these contacts and meetings with local leaders and MOH staff, Village Food Security Committees (VFSC's) have been created. This community organization completes a "3A" diagnostic process (Appraisal, Analysis and Action) with support from Africare about its food security situation and identifies the principal constraints to improvement. This analysis is on-going and forms the basis for a community-managed effort to monitor and improve the different aspects of its own food security.

A Nutrition Activist (NA) is identified who is the contact between mothers of under 5 children and Africare. The NA's have received training in Africare's nutrition curriculum (focusing on general nutrition, exclusive breast-feeding and diarrhea management). Nutrition Volunteer Groups (NVGs) have been organized in more than 60 communities. These are made up of mothers of five and under children, supported by a NA. Activities that are implemented with NV's include culinary demonstrations, general health discussions, monthly growth-monitoring and house visits to mothers with under-nourished children. Based on focus group research completed in early 1998, a series of 43 flip charts have been designed that are used to transfer key nutritional messages both in group discussions and house visits. Theatre and dance performances are organized that reinforce nutrition messages in addition to monthly radio programming in local languages.

During FY'98, Africare completed a pilot experience in three villages with the HEARTH methodology, a targeted intervention to increase children's weight via regular training and support to "Model Mothers" during a four week period. The experience was quite successful and a second trial was completed during the first quarter of FY'99 in four other villages. On average, more than 75% of participating children gained weight. More importantly, this program increased the skills of a large number of volunteer mothers about improved nutrition and feeding practices and has increased the involvement of MOH personnel in Africare's outreach. HEARTH will be expanded to a total of 80 communities before the end of FY'99.

After beginning the sale of monetized crude oil, Africare developed a survey mechanism to monitor the prices of both refined commodities in the Mozambican market (wheat flour and edible oil). The purpose of this activity is to identify price margins between importation of the raw commodity, wholesale prices of the Title II traders and marketing margins to retail markets (both urban and rural). After completing two trial surveys, Africare provided training to the field staff of the other CS's to expand this activity to more than 70% of the country. Two national price surveys were completed during FY'98.

Technical Component Integration

There are numerous overlaps between the direct beneficiaries of both components. Many of the farmers that plant oil seed are women, who also participate in nutrition outreach. Other farmers have wives that are NVG members, who are supported by an activist. Press owners are members of the VFSC in their community, and have participated in the "3A" process that has identified community-managed activities to improve their food security situation. Press demonstrations have been organized to take place with a culinary demonstration in the same community, so that the oil that is pressed is used immediately in the preparation of enriched porridge by participating mothers. Research completed by the Nutrition Component has included the preparation of sesame and peanut "cake" taken from the ram press after oil extraction, to be presented as a low cost and nutritional food for young children. Sesame and peanut cake is being consumed on a regular basis in many of the target communities. Sunflower cake is recognized as a key ingredient for improved animal feed. All press owners are selling sunflower cake to owners of livestock, especially for smaller animals (goats, chickens and pigs). This livestock is often kept at the house by women, who are members of the volunteer groups supported by a Nutrition Activist.

Activity Results

Oil Seed Promotion: The 1998 oil seed harvest was 819,443 KG's of sunflower and sesame, a four-fold increase over the 197,000 KG's that were produced in 1997, prior to the beginning of Africare's outreach. More importantly, most of these seed were improved open pollinated varieties (with high germination rates in the second and third generation) which have a high oil content (minimum 45%). The market price for oil seed also increased by as much as 20% in certain areas (over 1997) despite the large increase in supply. Average income to a farmer growing oil seed increased from an estimated $13 in 1997 to $19 in 1998. This increase was a function of the increase in the farm gate price and an increase in average area planted (2,842 HA's planted in 1998 as compared to 533 HA's planted in 1997). The number of farmers who planted oil seed in 1998 was 20% of the total households in Africare's program area, as compared to 7% in 1997. Africare supported the efforts of two commercial refineries to source oil seed from small-scale farmers; 7% of this harvest was purchased by the commercial sector. An increase in this linkage will be a key determinant of long-term sustainability of small-scale oil seed production.

Significant increases in gross income to the press owners that operated during 1998 were identified. On average, each press owner received $1,794 in gross income during the 1998 pressing season (compared to $172/press owner in 1997). This dramatic increase is a function of the large harvest and a "repressed" demand for edible oil at the village level. The market price of pressed oil remained 20% lower than the price of commercially-refined oil. The increase in competition from commercial companies that will source more oil seed from the small-scale farming sector will have two results: a probable increase in the farm gate price paid to the farmer for his/her oil seed, and lower profit margins for individual press owners. However, manual pressing will remain a lucrative activity because many of the villages are isolated and regular market linkages for commercial products are still being developed. During the 1999 planting season, Africare is supporting efforts of both commercial companies and press owners to establish independent "outgrowing" arrangements with farmers (i.e. contract farmers to sell their production to these enterprises at the time of the harvest).

Household Nutrition: 3,689 mothers of under 5 children participated in nutrition outreach activities supported by Africare during FY'98. The behavioral changes required to show improvement in nutritional status are not easily measurable on an annual basis. However, data from a limited diet recall survey completed at the end of FY'98 indicated several positive trends in consumption practices.
Examples include an increase in the:

- % of HH's that consume locally-processed oil once per week (0% in 1997 to 4% in 1998),
- % of HH's that consume vegetable oil once per day (18% in 1997 to 52% in 1998), and
- % of mothers that give supplemental feeding to underweight children (16% in 1997 to 38% in 1998).

Monthly growth-monitoring takes place in 64 communities. The purpose of this activity is to clearly show the mothers the relationship between better eating, general health status and weight gain. 8,690 children were weighed on a regular basis during FY'98.

As a result of the "3A" approach, VFSC's prepared proposals for small-scale projects to be implemented in their communities to address specific constraints to improved food security. These proposals were reviewed by Africare to be funded by the Micro-Project Fund, that was created as part of the Household Nutrition Component's program. Thirteen proposals were funded at the end of FY'98. The activities to be supported include small-scale animal husbandry, horticulture and fishing. In each case, all labor is provided by the community, who receive regular management support by Africare's field staff. Project funds are used to purchase needed materials only (an average of $200/micro-project).

Monetized Oil: The initial experience working with national oil refineries was less positive than expected. At the end of 1996, the Mozambican government drastically increased tariffs on commercially-refined oil imports as a protection to local industry. However, during the subsequent year, a large volume of oil was imported with a reduced or no tariff payment. This resulted in a much lower amount of sales by the four oil refineries in the country than was projected during FY'97. A total of 9,970 MT's of Title II oil was monetized during FY'97 as compared with a total of 5,500 MT's of oil in FY'98. More than 50% of the original FY'98 total had to be converted to wheat for monetization because the refineries were not in a position to increase their sales. This situation improved significantly during the last half of CY'98 and the monetization program was able to sell all of its FY'99 oil (9,000 MT's) during the first four months of the fiscal year.
Price surveys indicate significant margins being realized on both Title II commodities. The margin between what is paid by a Title II oil refinery and the price of its refined product to the wholesale market is approximately 90% of the import price. Oil margins between a wholesale trader and a retail trader in a rural market can be as high as 40%, reflecting poor infrastructure and limited competition from other sources. However, it has been confirmed that there is an increase in the amount of oil available within the national market and especially in those provinces where oil seed production is being promoted by US PVO's, oil consumption has increased in the rural areas.

Sustainability and Conclusion

Africare is working with a large number of partner agencies to promote continuation of oil seed promotion and improved household nutrition beyond 2001. For oils promotion, this includes extension agents of the Ministry of Agriculture (all of these agents in Africare's districts have been trained in oil seed husbandry and it is expected that this technical package will be adopted by the ministry for its official outreach program). More important is the role of the private sector. One commercial farm has already established itself as a source of improved oil seed and began to refine and market oil. This same farm has begun to work with farmers to produce oil seed for their own processing needs. The large commercial refinery in central Mozambique has also begun to work with farmers to produce oil for their refining needs. Other NGO's working in agricultural development in the central part of the country are promoting improved oil seed and manual presses, after receiving training from Africare.

Improved planting seed and manual oil presses are marketed at the retail level by the private sector. The wholesale supply of seed and presses is currently being financed by Africare (multiplication contracts with commercial farms and the sourcing of presses from manufacturers). During the next year, efforts will focus on transferring this responsibility (and financing) to the commercial farms and private businesses, who would then provide these products to already established retail outlets.

By definition, nutrition outreach is more closely aligned with efforts of the public sector and Africare has developed a strong working relationship with the Ministry of Health. The expansion of the HEARTH methodology will increase the role of both district nurses and model mothers. The nutrition curriculum and Information, Education and Communication materials that have been developed are being used by ministry staff in certain communities. Africare's efforts during the remaining years of implementation are focused on increasing the working relationship between district health staff and community members that have adopted Africare's outreach program, especially in those areas where there is no permanent MOH presence.

The integration of activities implemented by both technical components and the complementarity of the groups of direct beneficiaries is a key support for a continuation of the activities Africare is supporting in the medium term, after the end of the DAP implementation period. From the perspective of sustainability, oils activities are probably farther along this process than household nutrition activities. In part, this is due to the Aprofit" motive which has been easily visible by all stake-holders since the beginning of the program. The type of behavior change discussed above vis-a-vis the nutrition component requires a time frame sufficiently long for community residents to Ainternalize" the benefits from improved eating and increased knowledge of preventative health practices. However, the complementarity between oil processing and nutrition promotion activities will significantly accelerate this internalization process during the remaining DAP implementation period.

GIRASSOL EM MANICA

AFRICARE INTRODUZ PRENSAS MANUAIS E PRODUÇÃO "EXPLODE"

- *Realidade: já se pensa na exportação de sementes ao Zimbabwe, enquanto Sagrev está disposta a tudo para baixar preço do óleo alimentar no mercado local*
- *TechnoServe vai dar outra dinâmica ao sector, através da distribuição de insumos e fortalecimento da rede de comercialização*

Por ABUBACAR BELEMANGY • Fotos do ARQUIVO

Com uma população estimada em 18 milhões de habitantes, Moçambique é tido como um país potencialmente agrícola, actividade que absorve cerca de 80 por cento da população, distribuída pelos aproximadamente 799.380 quilómetro quadrado (incluindo 13 mil quilómetros quadrados de superfície de águas interiores) que constituem a sua extensão territorial. A prática da agricultura foi largamente afectada pela vigência do conflito armado durante 16 anos e desde 1992 — ano em que a guerra terminou — até esta parte, o "andar das coisas" neste ramo tem sido, — naturalmente, no sentido positivo, tudo na perspectiva de tirar o país da condição de dependente em termos alimentares. O exemplo disso vem da província de Manica, onde a produção do girassol está a "explodir" a já se fala da exportação de sementes à vizinha República do Zimbabwe. Bem hoje, Moçambique!

A produção do girassol está a "explodir" em Manica, onde os agricultores começaram a ser bem sucedidos

Permanecer de conhecimento de dois alternativas no Moçambique há material, potencial comprador da semente de girassol em Manica

A APOSTA DA SAGREV

EU TENHO UMA PRENSA MANUAL...

— António Jorge, baseando em Honde, a 34 quilómetros do distrito de Báruè.

Editor's note: Below is a summary of the article above that originally appeared in the "Diário de Moçambique on November 8, 1998.

AFRICARE INTRODUCES MANUAL OIL PRESSES AND PRODUCTION "EXPLODES"

Africare has been working in Manica province in Mozambique since the end of the war. In October of 1997, Africare introduced manual oil presses that extract edible oil from sunflower seeds. "We had already finished the emergency phase and were initiating the development phase" explained Jose Manual Almeida, Africare's assistant director.

In the beginning phase, Africare identified the areas with the highest production of sunflower, contacted the people most interested in buying the oil presses and proceeded to sell the oil presses. The average price was $ 200 US.

The idea took root, affirmed Mr. Almeida, adding that from the time that the oil press owners began to buy sunflower seeds and extract oil, the farmers began to feel encouraged and increased sunflower production as a result. Indicators on harvest levels show that in 1992 approximately 70 tons were produced in the area and today that has reached 600 tons, mainly the "Black Record" variety of sunflower which gives 40 percent edible oil.

As for the oil presses, they are the biggest reason for the increase in sunflower production, according to Mr. Almeida. "From October of 1997 to the current month, we have already sold 63 oil presses and each one can produce about 131 liters per month. As an illustration, in the month of July alone 4,973 liters of oil were produced". Mr. Almeida pointed out that these figures indicate that sales of the oil presses should increase and include other regions of the country, especially the North. At the same time, Jose Manual Almeida underscored that "the project has everything necessary to be sustainable, because the farmers sell their seeds, the oil press owners make oil and have a good market where the population is able to buy edible oil at low prices. In sum, this is development".

"I HAVE A MANUAL OIL PRESS" (EU TENHO UMA PRENSA MANUAL...)

Antonio Jorge is 50 years old, skinny and with an intelligent look. He is the kind of person who knows how to speak and listen quietly and with a perfect understanding of the world around us. Experienced. He said that he bought an oil press last year for 2,500,000 Mozambican meticais ($200). He paid immediately because "I was taught that having debts is a nightmare". In the town of Honde, where he installed his oil press, he is the only businessman doing this activity and this gives him some advantages, especially in purchasing oil. There are also disadvantages such as not being able to buy all the locally produced oil. "My oil press has the capacity to produce between 18 - 20 liters per day," says Antonio Jorge for whom the business is profitable. First, because he has a guaranteed market and second because there is plenty of raw material. Each liter of oil cost consumers about $1.36 US. Monthly profits run about $32 after paying for the sunflower seeds which cost 16 US cents per kilo and the salary of two workers, which costs $28. When asked about Africare's plans to introduce more oil presses, Antonio Jorge said that this would be positive. He isn't afraid of the competition since, in his view, this could ultimately lower the price of oil and create greater demand.

It is said that one of the positive influences in business is when the owner has a vision of the future. Antonio Jorge has a businessman's vision and is already thinking about starting his own sunflower farm to reduce the costs of buying seeds. "I would like to start with a 3 hectare field. This would be good for the business and me in that I will initially invest only in seeds, which have a marginal cost when compared to buying the sunflower from other farmers. The best thing is to save on costs while increasing profits. In all cases, I'm sure that the farmers will not have problems as they are organizing themselves to sell their production to large consumers." ◆

Social Capital continued from page 1
groups, social relationships, access to wider institutions in society) upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods. The quality of these networks is determined by the level of trust and shared norms that exist among the networks members. People use these networks to reduce risks, to access services, protect themselves from deprivation, and to acquire information to lower transaction costs (Frankenberger and Garrett 1998).[1]

A. Diagnosis

Holistic diagnostic activities should try to identify the types of social capital that exist, who is participating in these networks and who is not, and how these networks are evolving over time. The case studies described earlier provide examples of how social capital may be measured. These measures should be viewed as proxies of social capital and not a comprehensive analysis of the social relationships at play in the community. It is important to emphasize that a rapid livelihood security assessment is not likely to capture all of the important aspects of social capital in a one-off study. Many of the most important features related to informal networks may not be easily detected until much later during project implementation. Local staff who understand the social and cultural dynamics of a community can provide good insights into the networks that are critical for program success.

As part of the diagnosis, one way to capture some of the associations that may represent the mix of social capital available to the households in a community is to review the internal and external relations that characterize the local context (See Figure 2). This review would take into account the important links with the private sector, the government and civil society found within the local surroundings.

In situations where social capital is eroded, the diagnosis should enable the program planners to identify alternative delivery mechanisms that may compensate for the lack of a stable and cohesive community. The diagnosis should help determine what the room to manoeuvre is for external interventions in building social capital by NGOs. Sometimes there may be limited capacity on the part of development agencies to reform existing patterns of social relations through which livelihoods can be pursued (Wood 1998).

B. Design

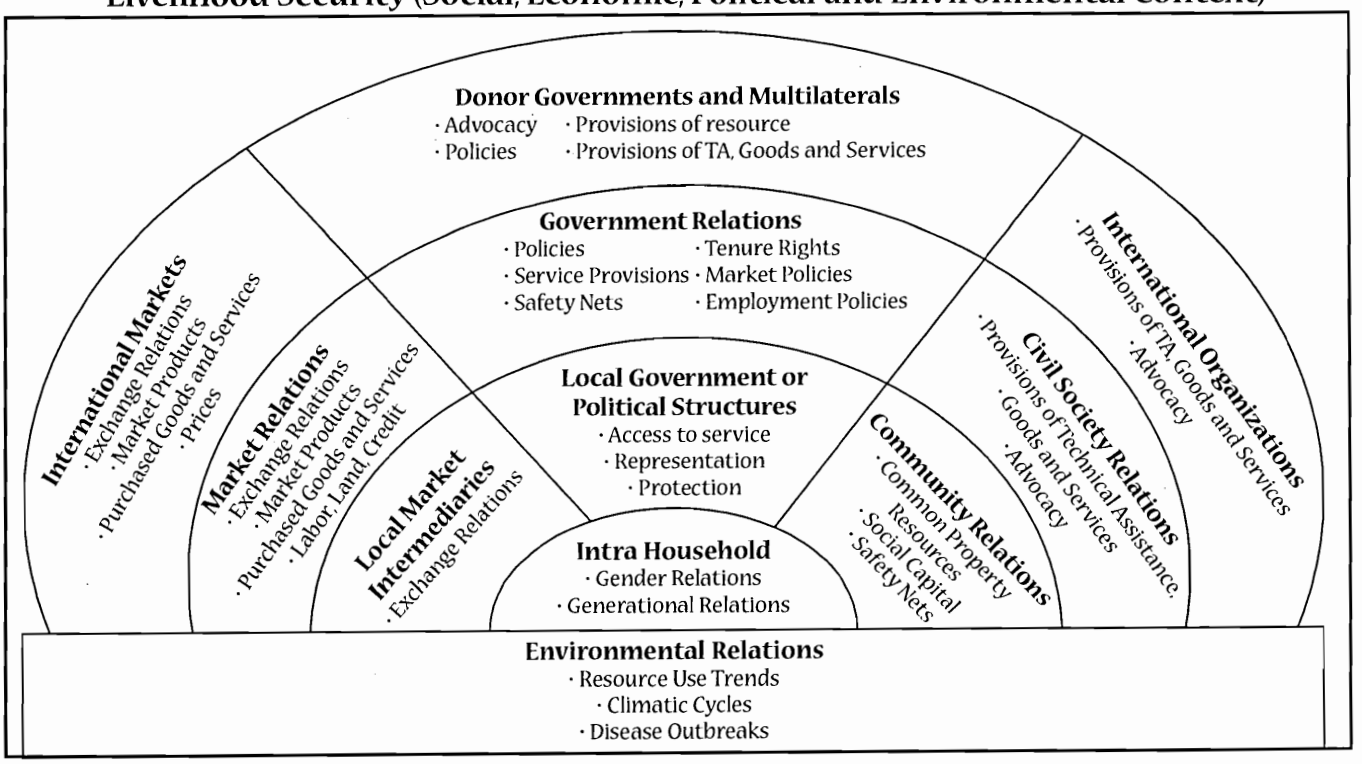
Currently, the experience of development practitioners in creating social capital is rather thin. In fact, past efforts on the part of the government and other development assistance may have undermined rather than created social capital. Formal community groups were created that displaced the functions of existing informal networks. One of the first principles to follow in any design is to do no harm to existing positive social capital, and to build on these networks as much as possible.

To enhance the social capital available to the poor in a community, it is important to work with already established community institutions rather than creating new institutions. The function of existing institutions can change. Communities recognize that problems arise with the creation of multiple competing community level institutions (e.g. school committees, health committees, road building committees, etc.)

However, some communities may have conflict that exists between local networks. Working with one of these networks exclusively may aggravate social tensions. Thus how the development agency disperses the funds may increase

Figure 2

Internal and External Relations that Influence Household Livelihood Security (Social, Economic, Political and Environmental Context)



CASE STUDIES

Recently, a number of case studies have been carried out to determine what the contribution of social capital is on household risk management and economic outcomes. Case studies are drawn from rural areas in Madagascar and the Philippines, and from Bangladesh in an urban setting. From these case studies we can identify possible ways to measure social capital and the impact it potentially has on livelihood security.

Madagascar (rural)

A quantitative study was conducted in Madagascar to determine whether better connected traders had significantly larger sales and gross margins than less connected traders. It was found that social capital raised both total sales and gross margins, even after controlling for working capital and equipment, labor, human capital and management. The two most important dimensions of social capital appear to be the number or traders known, and the number of people the respondents can count on in case of trouble. Thus there is the social capital of merchants that lowers transaction costs, and the social capital of merchant households that helps manage shocks (Fafchamps and Minten 1998).

The study found that a doubling of known traders raised sales and gross margins by 19 and 29 percent respectively. A doubling of the number of people who could help in times of trouble similarly raises sales and gross margins by 20 and 28 percent respectively. When traders have people they can count on during shocks, trade efficiency goes up because traders are able to deal with liquidity risk (Fafchamps and Minten 1998).

Philippines (rural)

A quantitative study conducted in the Philippines found that mutual insurance does not take place at the village level, but rather households receive help primarily through networks of friends and relatives. More than 65 percent of the informal loans are from relatives, with the remainder from neighbors and friends. Thus borrowers and lenders are well acquainted. Informal networks allow households to counter the effects of income variation caused by large expenditures such as medical or funeral costs or production failures due to weather or crop pests. Risk is shared primarily through flexible, zero interest informal loans. Most loans are taken for consumption rather than investment purposes (Lund and Fafchamps 1997).

The degree that certain types of shocks are supported through networks often depends upon their observability. The more observable income shocks are sickness and death of a family member. Less observable shocks like unemployment are not likely to receive much support (Lund and Fafchamps 1997).

The size of a household's network is an important determinant of informal borrowing and lending. Larger groups are better able to pool risk. People who are unable to reciprocate in a timely manner are often dropped from networks (Lund and Fafchamps 1997).

Bangladesh (urban)

A recent qualitative study found that many network features found in rural Bangladesh, are reproduced in the urban context of Dhaka. Vertical, patron-client relations are the dominant forms of local class relations, where many are dependent on a few individuals for access to land, employment, credit and other resources. The livelihood prospects of the poor are heavily conditioned by their position within vertical structures and inter-linked chains of brokerage and inter-mediation. Rich and poor families are distinguished by the differential quality of their social capital (Wood 1998).

Embedded in the urban society, characterized by pervasive patron-client relationships, is the Mastaan structure. Mastaans are perceived as rent seeking operators that maintain a tight grip on their local urban communities by forcing their constituents to be subservient. Although Mastaans are viewed in a negative light, they do serve important functions for the poor. The Mastaans link the socially excluded urban poor to a series of livelihood requirements (labor markets, shelter, residential security, credit, essential services such as water, sanitation and schools, and food security). Thus, Mastaans are a key factor in accessing resources and managing livelihoods (Wood 1998).

Although the Mastaans provide a way for poor urban households to meet their short-term needs, the exploitative nature of this vertical relationship prevents the poor from being empowered to seek wider options for securing their livelihoods in the long-term. The security of this short-term needs fulfillment may prevent poor people from opting for other less exploitative avenues of meeting these needs such as those offered by NGOs. Poor people have to be convinced that the NGO programs will ensure secure access to stocks and flows on a sustained basis before they will abandon the Mastaan structure. Otherwise, they will opt for programs that promote horizontal social capital that can exist side-by-side Mastaan structures, and mange the contradictions (Wood 1998).

Thus the poor in Dhaka secure access to resource opportunities and services through three strategic options: 1) the Mastaan structures; 2) a variety of reciprocal arrangements (kinship and neighborhood-based relations); and 3) support of NGOs and their mobilization. These alternative forms illustrate how complex the web of social capital links can be in urban settings. Social capital can therefore be derived through both vertical and horizontal relations, can be equal as well as unequal, and can deliver resources and opportunities both through exploitation and reciprocity (Wood 1998).

or decrease the divisive aspects found between competing social capitals. In situations where patron-client relations may be threatened by the external intervention, care must be taken to understand the various roles that these vertical networks play for households before they are displaced. It may be necessary to introduce new horizontal social capital networks in a non-threatening way to exist side by side patron-client networks.

In designing social safety nets for vulnerable communities, efforts should be made to build on existing indigenous social capital safety nets. Communities and households have their own mechanisms for addressing vulnerability, such as risk-minimizing strategies, loss-management strategies, asset replacement strategies and generalized welfare strategies. The design of these safety nets should take into account: 1) the context of the community (i.e., urban, rural, conflict, post-conflict, etc.); 2) the types of vulnerable groups found in the community; 3) what are the types of shocks these groups are exposed to; 3) the resources and capacities of these groups to respond to the shocks; 4) community mechanisms for responding to the shocks; 5) programming opportunities to build on indigenous social capital; and 6) possible constraints to program opportunities that need to be addressed to make the program successful.

Programs constituted to build civil society should recognize that social capital is one of the key ingredients that must be in place to enable democratization processes to take hold. Many program designs aiming to strengthen civil society in regions with no history of democratic institutions do not take this critical building block into account, and try to focus at a much higher level. Understanding the existing social features and networks will enable the program to determine what the trajectory of the democratization process is likely to be.

C. Monitoring and Evaluation

Although most project monitoring and evaluation systems are set up to capture tangible outputs and outcomes, not enough attention has been paid to improvements in social capital at the household or community level. Improvements in these intangible outcomes could be captured by determining the number and types of groups that households belong, how actively they participate in group decisions, how many people they can turn to in times of need, and the degree of trust they have for local leaders and neighbors. Strengthening social capital can lead to improvements in community empowerment. Given the importance of social capital to the livelihood security of the poor, all projects should attempt to monitor changes in the functioning of these networks.

In projects where institutional strengthening is not an explicit goal, efforts should still be made to monitor social capital changes. This is necessary to determine if existing patron-client networks might disrupt project outcomes because they feel their power base is being threatened by the project. In addition, social capital changes should be monitored to insure that the project does not have adverse affects on existing positive social capital networks.

To obtain information on these networks, household case studies should be conducted during the life of the project to capture trends. This qualitative information can then be used to develop question frames to be included in midterm and final evaluations.

II. CONCLUSION

From the previous discussion, it is obvious that social capital is a critical asset upon which the poor rely to help meet their livelihood security needs. It is also important to take into account that different types, levels or dimensions of social capital can bring about different performance outcomes. Social capital can be used in a reactive way to manage risk, or in a proactive way to secure services, manage common property or lower transaction costs. Different networks may serve these different functions.

Given that different types of networks can exist simultaneously in the same social setting, network membership can be complex. Poor people will spread risk and lower transaction costs by participating simultaneously in several layered and overlapping social capital networks. These networks are not static, but are constantly evolving due to rapid socio-economic, political and environmental changes. These change processes have led to increasing economic vulnerability of the poor, leading to high rates of mobility and unemployment. Income shortfalls have made it difficult for the very poor to meet their reciprocal obligations, leading to their exclusion from many networks operating in the community. Social capital as a community asset is evolving into an individual asset based on the ability to meet social obligations. The very poor are falling through the informal community safety nets and are not being picked up by formal government or private safety nets. Thus the livelihood security of the very poor is threatened by this social exclusion.

PVOs need to focus more on the crucial role that social capital plays in helping the poor meet their livelihood security needs. This will involve understanding the various types of social capital that exist in a community through better diagnosis, designing projects that strengthen social capital or at least do not undermine it, and measuring social capital as a project outcome.

1 All references in this article were listed in the previous issue of the Food Forum. If you have any further questions about any of the citations, please refer to issue # 46 of the Food Forum (January – February 1999), or contact the authors of this article directly. ◆

FAM

Adventist Development & Relief Agency · Africare · ACDI - VOCA · American Red Cross · CARE · Catholic Relief Services Feed the Children · Food for the Hungry Int'l · Mercy Corps International · OIC International · Project Concern International · Save the Children TechnoServe · World SHARE · World Vision

What's New

by T.J. Ryan

FAM is organizing a "**Sampling for Managers**" workshop on May 24-26, 1999. This workshop is being put together by the FAM Monitoring and Evaluation working group in conjunction with the FANta project. As the title implies, this workshop on sampling methods is designed primarily for PVO field and headquarters staff who are involved in Title II program management. Illustrative participants include field-level country representatives/directors and program managers (MCH, Agriculture, Water/Sanitation, Education, etc.), and headquarters-level technical assistants, program managers and backstop officers. This workshop is not designed for statisticians or other staff involved in the technical design and conduct of a survey. The goal of the workshop is to provide PVO Title II managers with basic knowledge of the sampling process in order to be able to provide adequate direction and supervision to the technical staff or external consultants who design and conduct a survey.

A new website dedicated to **Emergency Aid and Development Aid** has just been created by IAAL - USTL (Lille Food Industry Institute - Lille University of Sciences and Technologies). This site may be visited at the following address : www.univ-lille1.fr/pfeda. This interactive site aims at interfacing relief and development food aid and is available in both French and English versions. A Spanish version is in progress.

Different services and information are offered to users:

-The on-line user will have free access to two databases:

- The PARTNERS database identifies the precise addresses of more than 2200 organizations, listed in more than 200 countries (international organizations, (inter)governmental organizations, NGOs, teaching or research centers, newspapers / media, private companies); each recording provides the detailed references of available contacts, with their email and websites
- The FOOD database archives more than 100 food products which are currently used in these programs and extensively describes their technical specifications (nutritional, hygienic, technological, logistical and commercial characteristics). The USDA table of food composition (more than 5500 food products) is also available here for on-line consultation ;

- Additional website features include:
  - free downloading and dissemination of these database for "outside Internet" use; submission by users of corrections through on-line and paper forms;
  - archiving of the contributions to the NGONUT discussion group which links hundreds of nutritionists, physicians and technicians who are directly involved in food aid or solving malnutrition problems;
  - submission by users and diffusion of various technical information : job opportunities, training materials and sessions, meetings and lectures, technical reports, etc.

Columbia University's Joseph L. Mailman School of Public Health, Center for Population and Family Health, Program on Forced Migration and Health, in partnership with International Rescue Committee and World Education are putting together a "**PUBLIC HEALTH IN COMPLEX EMERGENCIES TRAINING COURSE**". This course is a two-week training course that focuses on critical public health issues faced by NGO/PVO personnel working in complex health emergencies. The goal of the course is to enhance the capacity of humanitarian assistance workers and their organizations to respond to health emergencies. This course is best suited for professional staff with previous field experience as health workers, program mangers and/or decision-makers in complex emergencies. Participants are expected to apply what they learn during the course to their immediate work in the field. Medical Coordinators, Health Coordinators, and Program Managers from international and indigenous health organizations, are typical candidates for the course. Foreign health ministry or government officials working in health emergency situations may apply for limited spaces.

The course combines what is scientifically optimal with what is operationally feasible in complex emergencies. Participants will master key competencies in all of the following sectors:

Epidemiology	Training
Management	Nutrition
Communicable Disease	Reproductive Health
Environmental Health	International Humanitarian Law
Psychosocial Issues	Violence, Weapons, and Trauma

An NGO/PVO Health Advisory Committee, representing 16 humanitarian aid agencies is actively participating in the design of the Public Health in Complex Emergencies training program. Members of this committee, joined by other international experts, will oversee course contents to ensure that each module reflects the priorities of those who are working in the field. This course is truly "of the field, by the field and for the field." A Global Advisory Committee, also comprised of experts with significant field experience, will advise the program to ensure that technical information reflects the most current, state-of-the-art knowledge available. Courses are taught by leading international experts with a wide variety of field experience in complex emergencies. Trainers will represent a range of backgrounds from NGO's to multi-lateral, international agencies, academic and research centers.

In order to keep course costs low and include as many NGO/PVO's as possible, courses will be hosted at colleges, universities or basic conference centers around the world.

Course are planned for:

1999:	June 13-26 Adelphi University, Garden City, New York, USA August, Kampala, Uganda
2000:	Four courses, exact locations yet to be determined [Africa (2), Europe, Asia]
2001:	Four courses, exact locations yet to be determined [Africa (2), Europe, Asia]

While the course fee may vary slightly from one site to another, the tuition is approximately US $1,500 per person. The fee includes; room, three meals per day and all course materials. Participants can expect to have private rooms; in

some cases, bathroom/shower facilities must be shared. The fee does not include; transportation, personal phone calls or faxes, or shipping of personal items from the course.
All applications should be sent to:

International Rescue Committee (IRC)
Attn: Lorna Stevens
122 E. 42nd Street, New York, NY 10168 USA
Tel: (212) 551-3005
Fax: (212) 551-3185
Email: shortcourse@intrescom.org

For more information, please contact Columbia University:
Sharon Kim, MPH
Program Coordinator, P.H.C.E. Training Program
Columbia University–CPFH
60 Haven Ave.
New York, NY 10032 USA
Tel: 212-304-5286
Fax: 212-305-7024
Internet: http://www.cpmcnet.columbia.edu/dept/sph/popfam/refugee
Email: ssk19@columbia.edu

The final version of the joint USAID-PVO cable, "**Title II M&E Reporting Requirements**" was transmitted to USAID field Missions on March 11, 1999 (cable number, State 044913). This represents a concerted effort by USAID Washington and PVO headquarter staff to improve coordination between USAID Missions and staff on Title II monitoring and evaluation reporting. The cable also provides useful guidance and references on the development of performance indicators. This cable was cleared by the PVO members of the FACG Sub-Working Group, the three relevant geographic USAID bureaus (Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Asia and the Near East), and the Management Bureau. It is available on the FAM website under USAID documents and PVO staff are encouraged to refer to it while discussing M&E requirements for their Title II programs.

The **U.S. Action Plan on Food Security** was unveiled on Friday, March 26 by U.S. Secretary of Agriculture, Dan Glickman accompanied by FAO Secretary General, Jacques Diouf. In his comments, Secretary Glickman said, "At the federal level we recognize that international food security depends largely on policy reform around the world. The plan calls for the United States to encourage an enabling environment in foreign countries and to enhance coordination of its foreign assistance with other donor nations; promote freer trade to enhance global access to food; improve research capacity and enhance people's ability to help themselves, particularly through education of girls and women; target more food aid to the most needy and improve the efficiency and effectiveness of food aid programs such as Food for Peace; and support the work of the Codex Alimentarius Commission in setting international food safety standards. Our Africa: Seeds of Hope effort is one example of how we are working toward these goals". The U.S. Action Plan is available on the Internet at www.fas.usda.gov/icd/summit/pressdoc.html. ◆

Food Security Resource Center News

As food aid program staff design and conduct assessments, baseline studies, and evaluations, several sampling framework issues are encountered. The FSRC houses several resources concerning sampling techniques that may be of assistance in addressing sampling methodology issues.

For more information on these publications or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact me at

Jessica Graef
Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212, Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC SAMPLING RESOURCES

Sampling guide. *1997. Magnani, Robert. IMPACT Title II Generic Indicator Guides. 47p. FSRC #7005.*
Provides guidance on choosing samples of communities, households, and/or individuals for surveys. Includes information on measurement objectives, determining the sample size requirements, selecting the sample, and analyzing the data.

Survey trainer's guide PVO child survival project rapid knowledge, practice and coverage (KPC) surveys. *1997. Johns Hopkins University: School of Hygiene and Public Health; PVO Child Survival Support Program. [100]p. FSRC #7238.*
Guide developed to help standardize the implementation of PVO Child Survival Rapid Knowledge, Practice and Coverage (KPC) surveys in the field. Covers survey preparations, training survey supervisors and interviewers, conducting interviews, analyzing results, and reporting on findings. Includes information on gathering population data and selecting 30-clusters from the sampling frame.

KPC survey instructions. *Food for the Hungry International. 56p. FSRC #6951.*
Food for the Hungry's guidelines on conducting knowledge, practices, and coverage (KPC) surveys. Includes information on multistage cluster sampling and identification of cluster boundaries.

Sampling methodologies. *1997. Food for the Hungry International. 10p. FSRC #6952.*
Food for the Hungry's guide for conducting sampling methodologies and surveys. Provides tips and recommendations for conducting surveys. Covers simple random samples, stratified sampling, systematic sampling, and cluster sampling.

Social survey methods: A fieldguide for development workers. *1995. Nichols, Paul. OXFAM Development Guidelines no. 6. 131p. FSRC #7157.*
Guide to social survey methodologies designed to help fieldworkers decide when and how to conduct a survey. Chapter 5, Choosing the Sample, discusses issues involved in deter-

mining the target population of a survey. Examines sample size in relation to cost and accuracy. Covers methods and techniques for choosing the sample (random, non-random, and repeat sampling).

Chapter 3: Methods of nutritional assessment and surveys. *1995. Nutrition matters: People, food and famine. Young, Helen; Jaspars, Susanne. 151p. #7171.*
Chapter of book on nutrition issues in famine situations. Chapter 3 discusses sampling methods for nutritional surveys, looking at survey coverage, simple random sampling, systematic sampling, cluster sampling, cross-sectional, longitudinal, and sample design.

Appendix 2 - Nutrition surveys. *1994. Health care for refugees and displaced people. Mears, Catherine; Chowdhury, Sue. Oxfam Practice Health Guide No. 9. 112p.*
Section of guide that focuses on the provision of health care in emergencies. Appendix 2 contains information on planning and conducting a survey, including types of sampling methods.

Field operations guide for disaster assessment and response, version 3.0. *1998. USAID, Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance.*
Chapter 2 focuses on assessments. Includes brief section on sampling options (simple random, systematic random, stratified, and cluster sampling). Available at www.info.usaid.gov/hum_response/ofda/fog/FOG_v3_toc.html.

Sampling methodologies for cost-effective collection of food consumption and expenditure data. *1988. Zalla, Tom. 42p. FSRC #5121.*
Reviews sampling methodologies used in rapid appraisal consumption surveys. Discusses data collection. Presents an approach to sampling that can be applied rapidly, that uses formulas to estimate variances where computers are not available, and that makes use of rigorous methodology.

Conducting mini surveys in developing countries. *1990. USAID. Kumar, Krishna. A.I.D. Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report. 61p. FSRC #319.*
Discusses methodologies involved in conducting smaller scale surveys (limited number of variables and small samples). Sampling section focuses on probability versus informal sampling, sample size for probability sampling, probability sampling methods, and informal sampling.

User's manual for conducting child nutrition surveys in developing countries. *1992. Quinn, Victoria J. 65p. FSRC #529.* Field manual on data collection in child nutrition surveys. Provides guidelines on anthropometric indicators, survey organization, data collection, data processing and analysis, and data presentation. Brief section on describing the sample when presenting the data.

Section 8.5, Formal surveys: value, design, and implementation. *1995. The Farming Systems Approach to Development and Appropriate Technology Generation. Norman, D.W. Norman et al. FAO. 9p.*
Section from publication on farming systems approach. Concentrates on formal survey methodology. Includes information on sampling for formal surveys — biases, sampling unit specification, sample frame preparation, sampling method selection, sample size determination, and sample selection. Available at www.fao.org/docrep/x0044e/x0044e0a.htm.

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Surveillance in a Post-Emergency Situation

Margaret Stansberry and Lesley Schaffer
American Red Cross, International Relief & Development

Simple on-going feeding program surveillance systems can be effectively conducted by volunteers. The American Red Cross is relying on the participation of over thirty Dominican Red Cross volunteers to closely monitor the status of beneficiaries receiving food aid in a post-Hurricane Georges Title II program in the Dominican Republic.

Background

In September of 1998, after traversing the Atlantic Ocean with swirling winds that approached 150 mph, Hurricane Georges leveraged full destructive force on the Caribbean Islands. Regionally the hurricane left more than 600 people dead, nearly 500,000 homeless and has adversely affected the lives of over 1,000,000 people. Of all island nations, losses were greatest in the Dominican Republic (DR) where over 300 people died and the Dominican Secretary of Agriculture conservatively estimated that there has been US$260 million worth of damage or about 90% of this critical national sector. Most of the banana and plantain plantations in the south were destroyed and there were major losses of basic foodstuffs, including rice, plantain and cassava. Over 300,000 people faced significant short and long-term problems with access to food.

Role of the Red Cross

In October, 1998, the American Red Cross (ARC) in cooperation with the Dominican Red Cross (DRC) and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) proposed a food assistance project for 156,000 people in the Dominican Republic to target the most vulnerable among the hurricane-affected, including:

- Shelter population;
- Small farmers along with populations in the "bateyes," the plantation communities of landless agricultural workers;
- Two-parent families with four or more dependents;
- Single parent families;
- Pregnant and lactating women at the time of census, and those who give birth over the life of the project (infants 0-6 months old are anticipated to be breastfed);
- Elderly people with limited means of support;
- Mentally or physically disabled or house-bound individuals.

In November, 1998 USAID Bureau of Humanitarian Response, Food for Peace approved ARC's proposal and committed 12,170 metric tons (MT) of food, in the form of rice, beans, vegetable oil and corn soya blend, to the ARC Dominican Republic relief effort under their Title II Emergency Food Programs.

CDC Assessment

ARC requested the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) to perform a needs assessment for the activity. The objective of the assessment was to estimate the food and health needs of the hurricane-affected population to assist in directing ARC's relief and rehabilitation efforts. The text that accompanies this article is from the CDC final report of the Dominican Republic Needs. *(see Part II of this article)*

The Red Cross Partnership

Due to serious transport delays, the USAID commodities originally due to arrive in December, did not arrive into the Dominican Republic until mid-February, 1999, however there was little indication that the emergency food needs of the hurricane-affected population had subsided. Funding from other sources, including the European Community Humanitarian Office (ECHO), was used to purchase foods locally, providing initial assistance to the most vulnerable. Dominican agricultural production was still at least 12 months away from coming back on-line sufficiently to increase access to food among the 156,000 identified Red Cross beneficiaries. In March, 1999, the DRC and ARC began targeted food distributions, of supplemental rations. Even before beginning the food aid distributions, ARC carefully considered how best to address the CDC report recommendation to institute ongoing surveillance of needs at food distribution sites to assess changes in the beneficiary population.

The successful distribution of about 1,200 MT of food each month depend on the well-coordinated collaboration and participation of the Dominican Red Cross. ARC's secondary

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objective in carrying out the feeding program has been to build the institutional capacity of the DRC through implementation of each piece of the project. The joint ARC-DRC Operational Plan includes the commitment of hundreds of DRC volunteers and paid staff, spread across the targeted regions, who collect and update census information to formalize beneficiary lists and supervise the delivery, storage, repackaging and distribution of the commodities. It was determined that a core group of these regionally based DRC volunteers should also be involved in the on-going surveillance of their program.

Monitoring Survey Objectives

The objectives of the baseline assessment examined self-reported access to and availability of basic needs. It described the major food and health needs of the hurricane-affected population by examining access to food/food availability, access to health care, illness patterns, medical needs, and access to water and sanitation. After reviewing questionnaire design, the follow-up monitoring questionnaire was edited to include questions on meal frequency and diet variety, in addition to the baseline questions on major food sources and qualitative questions about food needs. Questions concerning medical needs, water and sanitation use and sources and access to health care also remained to help track changes in basic needs over the course of the Title II Program. Although the Title II intervention remained focused on distributing food commodities, the information captured by the monitoring form would offer feedback on re-targeting as the program progressed. Additionally, on-going monitoring information would provide the DRC and its partners (ARC, IFRC) with data around which new interventions could begin to be investigated or by which referrals to local NGOs or other service providers could be made.

Monitoring Methodology

The CDC-designed methodology to be used to collect the monitoring data is different than the initial rapid assessment. Cross-sectional surveys are to be conducted by independently selecting a random sample of 200 households from the Red Cross beneficiary population every two months for the duration of the Red Cross feeding program. Households will be selected by using a random number generator from the list of beneficiaries to determine the proportion of households to be interviewed from each distribution point. The households will then be selected interviewing every seventh beneficiary until the number of surveys for that distribution point is complete. In order for a household to be considered for the study, the household must be registered as a beneficiary of the Red Cross feeding program, and a member of the recipient family must be present at the food distribution site to answer the survey. A sample size of approximately 200 households was calculated using Epi Info 6.1, and will be the same for each independent random sample taken.

Interviewers will be trained to perform the interview by CDC and Red Cross staff, so that surveys can be conducted as beneficiaries are processed at the feeding stations each month. Interviewees will be told that the survey is anonymous and will not affect their food aid. Interviews will be conducted in Spanish and will represent information on all those living in the same living space (household). One person per household will be interviewed for information on all household members. The survey tool will be the same throughout the duration of the follow-up. Surveys will be collected at the food distribution sites and transported with the Red Cross inventory records and sent to the capital, Santo Domingo, to be forwarded to the CDC for analysis. No personal identifiers will be collected with the survey tool. Information will be sent to the CDC, entered into an Epi Info 6.1 file, analyzed by the principal investigator, and a report will be provided to the Red Cross. ARC is currently increasing its capacity to analyze this level of data so that future analysis can be conducted by Red Cross personnel.

Interviewer Training

Two DRC volunteers from each of the 17 provinces included in the feeding program were identified to participate in a workshop on survey interviewing techniques. In April 1999, these 34 individuals from a spectrum of backgrounds, including high school students, tourism workers, radio operators, and teachers, came together in Santo Domingo for a Monitoring Surveyors Training conducted jointly by the CDC and ARC. Because most of these volunteers faced traveling up to four or five hours from their homes in order to arrive at the workshop site, the DRC Director General wrote official letters of invitation describing the importance of the volunteers' participation so that employers and schools provided participants ample time to ensure their attendance. The workshop participants were enthusiastic to be be involved in not only beneficiary identification and food distribution, but now in the process of collecting data about their communities that would assist the DRC in continued and future community-based programming. The training session included discussion of the purpose of a monitoring survey, detailed analysis of each survey question and survey methodology. Through role-play, the participants identified how to avoid and correct problems such as leading beneficiaries' answers and clarifying illogical responses. Even after the training session concluded and the interviewing began, the volunteers are clarifying questions and doubts with the ARC delegate in-country, who is also taking every opportunity to observe, assist, and correct problems as they occur. This ensures that the monitoring interviews are continuing on schedule and as designed.

The monitoring interviews began in April, and will be applied every other month of the program through the end of the year. Initial results will be available in June 1999.

Lessons Learned or 'Reaffirmed':

ARC is very pleased with the involvement of the Dominican Red Cross volunteers in this process of information collection and has been reminded of the following important lessons:

1. Survey objectives and indicators need to be clearly identified prior to designing a questionnaire.

2. When working with inexperienced survey interviewers, take time to practice the questionnaire in the field. It is also important to provide on-going assistance on-site to volunteers so they can clarify questions and doubts as they occur.

3. Local NGOs often have strong volunteer personnel capacity to offer programs even when depending on the NGO partner for technical assistance and financial support.

This resource can be identified early in the project-planning phase and involved in every aspect of project implementation. Critical technical skills are transferred to dedicated and loyal volunteers who in turn strengthen the local NGO.

Part II

Summary of

CDC Rapid Assessment of Post-Hurricane Needs in the Dominican Republic[1]

Dr. Julie Jacobson & Dr. Juan Acuña
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
Text from the Final Report, Prepared for the American Red Cross April 1999

Methods

CDC and ARC personnel conducted a survey of a randomly selected sample of households affected by the hurricane to determine their food and health needs. One of CDC's principal investigators trained Spanish-speaking ARC personnel to use the survey questionnaire. The survey, which took 15 to 20 minutes to conduct, consisted of questions about food and water availability, housing, health, and storm preparation. A modified cluster-sampling method (1) was used to select 210 households from 33,000 families.

The country was divided geographically into clusters with roughly equal number of households per cluster (see Table 1). Thirty clusters were chosen using a random number generator. One adult family member was interviewed from each of 7 randomly selected households within each cluster. A total of 207 interviews were completed out of the 210 planned, representing 1,414 household members.

Data were analyzed using Epi Info 6.1. Frequencies of variables were calculated for the study population as a whole. Comparisons were made among three groups, one consisting of people residing in housing other than bateys or shelters and two other groups consisting of people that ARC had initially identified as being in need: (1) people residing in migrant farm worker settlements called bateys [35 of 207 households] where baseline conditions were thought to be harsher; and (2) people residing in shelters [50 of 207 households] who had been displaced from their homes and resources.

Table 1: Geographic Characteristics of Study Clusters

Region: Number of Families	City	Number of Clusters
Eastern: 16,500	Altagracia	7
	La Romana	2
	El Seibo	6
	Hato Mayor	4
Central: 8,250	Distrito Nacional	2
	Sanchez Ramirez	1
	La Vega	1
	San Cristobal	1
	Duarte	2
Southwestern: 8,250	San Juan	2
	Azua	1
	Baourco	1
Total Families: 33,000		Total Clusters: 30

Results

During the month prior to the survey, many of the people sheltered in schools were relocated to new facilities or back to their homes for the beginning of the school term. At the time of the survey, 59% of families included in the Red Cross beneficiary group were living in single family homes, 24% were still living in shelters, 16% were staying with friends or family, and only 1% were living in temporary tents. The final sample included 16% living in bateys. Thirty-nine percent of beneficiaries' homes had been completely destroyed and 46% were damaged for a total of 85% of homes damaged or destroyed. Household size increased since the hurricane from an average of 5.5 persons to 6.9 persons. Forty-four percent of families had children under the age of 2 living in the household and 26% had people over 65 living in the home. Twelve percent of households had a pregnant female in the home; 35% of these women felt their pregnancies had been negatively impacted by the hurricane.

Food Availability

The availability of food decreased dramatically after the hurricane. Eighty-six percent of households reported not having enough food since the hurricane, an increase of 35% since before the storm. Families reporting insufficient food for 5 or more days per week increased significantly from 7% before the hurricane to 29% after. Only 35% of households reported having enough food in the home to last for 3 days at the time of the interview. Twenty-three percent of families reported relying on food from relief services; 82% of these families reported inadequate food despite the support. Seven percent of families still had food being supplied from a garden. Eight percent had found alternative sources of food, most commonly from friends or family.

Before the hurricane, people residing in a batey reported a higher number of days each week with insufficient food than did people residing in other types of households (a mean of 2.7 days compared with 3.3 days). Of the 33 batey households, 10 (30%) reported having insufficient food 5 or more days per week, compared with 35 households of other types (24%). Seventy-five percent of batey households reported needing food, and 16 (50%) batey households were relying on relief services for food.

The shelter population's baseline need for food was not different from the comparison group before the hurricane; however, since the hurricane, 40% of the shelter population reported being without enough food for 5 or more days a week. Forty-seven percent of these families identified food as their greatest need. Relief efforts provided food for only 32% of people in shelters.

Overall, food was one of the top 3 needs in 62% of households and 42% of families reported food to be their most important need.

Health Care

Representatives from households reported a need for medical attention and medication. They also reported on illness of household members.

Table 2. Health Care Access and Reported Current Health Care Need After Hurricane Georges by Household Type

Household Type	Have Health Care Access	Currently Need Health Care
Shelter	32/48 (67%)	23/48 (48%)
Batey	13/18 (72%)	1/14 (7%)
Other	102/138 (74%)	24/123 (20%)

More households in bateys and shelters reported gastrointestinal and respiratory diseases than other types of households, but both were less likely to request medication. Shelters had the least access to health care (67%) and the highest need for health care (48% of households compared to 20% in the other types of households). Shelter households were also more likely to have had a family member die in the hurricane (8.2% compared to 1.9%). *(See table 3)*

Water and Sanitation

At the time of the survey, 97 (47%) households had running water. Eighteen households (9%) relied on river water and 18 (9%) on rainwater. Eighty-five households(41%) had wells but many of these households still listed water as a need. Most (93%) households reported access to a bathroom or latrine. Forty-three percent had waste removal services.

Households with Flood Damage vs Wind Damage

Nine clusters in areas that were reported by the ARC to be predominantly wind-damaged in the east were compared to nine clusters in the western and central regions that the ARC reported to have more flood damage. Households that experienced flood damage were almost twice as likely to have their homes completely destroyed. At the time of the survey they were also twice as likely to be living in a shelter. Households with wind damage were more likely to be living in a home, than a shelter or batey (31.3% compared to 3.2% of the flood-damaged). Household size was roughly equal in both areas.

A higher percentage of households that experienced more wind damage reported a family member dying, but the difference was not statistically significant. Households with flooding were more likely to report that someone was injured during or after the hurricane, but the difference was not statistically significant.

During the storm, 17.4% of households had someone injured in flooded homes, and 10.1% had someone injured after the storm. In households with wind damage, 4.7% had someone injured during the storm, and 4.7% had someone injured after the storm. Both the flood and wind damaged households had roughly the same frequency of illness.

Food needs differed between these groups. The need for food was significantly higher in the flood-damaged areas, with 98.5% of households reporting insufficient food since the hurricane, compared to 76.6% in the wind-damaged areas. The mean number of days a week without food in the flood-damaged area was 4.3 days and 3.0 days in the wind-damaged. Thirty-nine percent of households went without sufficient food for 5 or more days of the week, compared to 20% in wind-damaged areas.

Storm preparation for households varied; households in the wind-damaged areas were significantly more likely to store food and supplies), and secure their windows. There was no significant difference in sandbagging or evacuating.

Households With a Pregnant Female vs Households Without a Pregnant Female

Households with a pregnant female at the time of the interview were more likely to have had someone die in the hurricane than those without (14.8% compared to 1.6%). Household size was higher in a "pregnant household" before the hurricane (6.7 people compared to 5.3 people), and after the hurricane, 5.5 people compared to 6.6 people. Proportions of illness and food needs were roughly equal, although families with a pregnant female were more likely to identify food as their most important need (60% compared to 40%), although the difference is not statistically significant.

Households in Which a Death Occurred

In households where a family member died in the hurricane, food needs were higher with 100% of households reporting insufficient food since the hurricane. Seventy-one percent of these households went without enough food for 5 or more days of the week. These households (57.1%) were also more likely to include a pregnant female; 75% of these pregnant women felt that their pregnancies had been negatively affected by the hurricane.

Table 3. Self-Reported Illness in the Past Month by Household Type

Type of Household

Type of Illness in Past Month	Batey	Shelter	Other
Type of Illness in Past Month	Batey	Shelter	Other
Illness overall	17/21 (81%)	41/50 (82%)	129/157 (82%)
Gastrointestinal	11/21 (52%)	27/50 (54%)	59/158 (37%)
Respiratory	14/21 (67%)	33/50 (66%)	89/158 (56%)
Stress	2/21 (10%)	3/50 (6%)	16/158 (10%)
Chronic	5/21 (24%)	7/50 (14%)	31/158 (20%)
Injury	1/21 (5%)	4/49 (8%)	14/147 (9%)

Conclusions

The most striking finding was the high level of need for food and medical care two months after the hurricane, demonstrating the benefit of and need for repeated evaluation after a disaster event.

During the month prior to the survey, to prepare schools for the beginning of the semester, many of the people sheltered in schools were relocated to new facilities or back to their homes. Shelter households were particularly dependent on relief efforts because 83% of their homes were completely destroyed. Their needs were changing because many newer facilities used as shelters were farther removed from urban areas and had less sanitation capacity.

Through information from this assessment of short-term needs, we have identified families that may need additional help in the future and indicators for families at risk. Public health workers and relief agencies should monitor populations' needs for changes over time to determine if changes in interventions are required.

Limitations and Cautions

Cluster areas that were not accessible because of logistic problems (e.g.,access was not possible due to road conditions) were replaced as representatively as possible altering the original sample.

Because of the small size of sub-populations (i.e., batey, shelter, and other), comparisons should be interpreted with caution. Differences between these populations may be under represented due to the small sample size when stratifying (i.e., when no or non-significant association was found).

This report is based on self-reported data and is limited by any bias that may be present in the beneficiary population.

Recommendations

1. Immediately address food needs in the entire beneficiary population.
2. Focus on nutritional needs in bateys because baseline food need is higher in the batey population putting them at higher risk.
3. Make food distribution to the shelter population a high priority.
4. Institute ongoing surveillance of needs at food distribution sites to assess changes in the beneficiary population as families are added to the beneficiary list and services available change.
5. Be aware that approximately 20,000 pregnant females (based on the projected 170,000 beneficiary families) will become beneficiaries of relief services resulting in an increase in the beneficiary population by 12%.
6. Health care needs should be addressed in the shelter population. With the recent movement of shelter populations, there may be an even greater need as many facilities now used as shelters have less sanitation and are not prepared for the peoples needs.
7. Evaluate and make recommendations for the hurricane warning system with special attention on preparation, mitigation and education of the public.

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[1]This report has been edited for publication. For more information, or a copy of the full CDC report, please contact Lesley Schaffer (schafferl@usa.redcross.org) or Margaret Stansberry (stansbem@usa.redcross.org) at the American Red Cross.

Addressing the Immediate Causes of Malnutrition: The Positive Deviance Approach to Household Food Security[1]

Thoric Cederstrom, Food Security Policy Advisor
Save the Children

Introduction

Household food security is measured ultimately by the nutritional status of its individual members, especially young children. Malnutrition is the result of many interrelated factors: poverty, inadequate health services, poor maternal health and childcare practices, inadequate water and sanitation, and insufficient food security. For communities with a high prevalence of malnutrition, it may take years or decades before all these factors can be addressed. Today's malnourished children cannot wait for the results of a long-term approach, food security programs need to address their plight quickly. The positive deviance approach, used in the Hearth Nutrition Model by Save the Children and other organizations, offers a way to address the immediate causes of malnutrition—direct food intake—that is economical, sustainable, and promotes community empowerment.

Theoretical Basis of the Positive Deviance Approach

The Positive Deviance nutritional model is based on the pioneering work of Marian Zeitlin in Nicaragua and other countries and has its historical roots in the Mothercraft Centers, implemented in Haiti and other countries in the 1960s.[2] In terms of young child nutrition, "positive deviants" are "infants and preschool children who grow adequately in low-income families in communities where a large portion of children suffer from growth retardation".[3] Positive deviance among low-income families is "social, behavioral, and physiological adaptability to nutritional stress".[4] According to this perspective, good physical growth, easily

measurable, serves as a marker for good health, normal cognitive skills, and satisfactory social adjustment. Parental coping strategies that permit poor children to grow well also protect their long-term health and development.

Theoretical Basis in Graphics

The statistical definition of positive deviance are those children identified in a nutritional survey that deviate "positively" (rather than negatively) from the median of the target population and fall within the range of normally nourished children in the international reference population. They would be on the right-hand tail of the curve, within -1 Z and + 1 Z-scores[5] of the reference population. The graphic below illustrates the relationship.

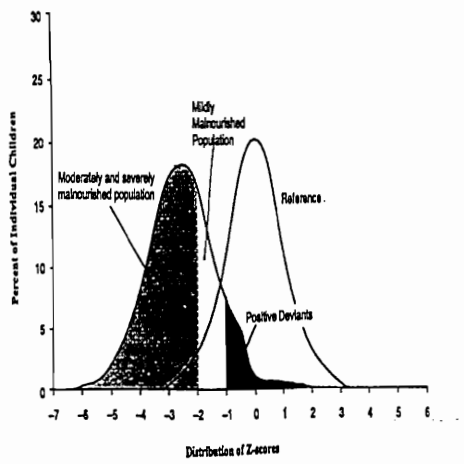

Figure 1. Distribution of a Malnourished Population Compared to the Reference Population (Figure from WHO)

While Positive Deviance can be defined as "adaptive responses for satisfactory child growth under harsh economic circumstances such as food scarcity...," Negative Deviance can be seen as the "the failure of children to grow satisfactorily, even under good economic conditions".[6] This can be illustrated conceptually by a two by two table: high/low socioeconomic status (SES) and nutritional status (> - 1 Z Score = good + and < - 1 Z scores = -).

	Nutritional Status	
	+	-
High SES		Negative Deviants
Low SES	Positive Deviants	

Premises for Practical Application

Through a Positive Deviance Inquiry (PDI) that uses participatory and qualitative research methods, it is possible for program staff together with community members to identify the unique practices of some community members that set them apart from others within the same community, and allow them to cope more successfully within the same resource base.[7] This study forms the basis for subsequent programming: the program staff and community partners can not only learn about practices, but also can act upon them in immediate and practical ways.

This approach has been renamed Hearth Nutrition Program (because the nutritional rehabilitation takes place in the home) by implementing organizations. The program in its initial phase identifies poor families who have well-nourished children. These are called "positive deviant children" (PD Children) and positive deviant families (PD Families). They are clear evidence that it is possible in the community for very poor families to have well-nourished children before economic development occurs.

Through a PDI, villagers together with program staff identify PDFs special and demonstrably successful current feeding, caring, and health-seeking practices which enable them to "out perform" neighbors whose children are malnourished but who share the same resource base. Based on PDI findings, (i.e. successful feeding, caring and health-seeking behaviors), villagers and staff plan a Hearth Nutrition Program featuring "Nutrition Education and Rehabilitation Sessions" (NERS) to address the problems of malnutrition in their community immediately.

Components of a Hearth Nutrition Program

In general, the goal of a Hearth Nutrition Program is to sustainably rehabilitate malnourished children as well as prevent malnutrition in young children in the community through the discovery and promotion of existing successful child feeding, caring and health-seeking behaviors. Specifically, a Hearth Nutrition Program seeks to accomplish the following:

- to rehabilitate identified malnourished children in the community
- to enable families to sustain the rehabilitation of these children at home on their own
- to prevent malnutrition in future children born in the community

Save the Children has applied the positive deviance methodology in the following way. Each month in the village or neighborhood, caretakers of malnourished children participate in a monthly Nutrition Education and Rehabilitation Session (NERS) of 12 days for as long as needed. These sessions are assisted by neighborhood volunteer mothers (health volunteers) and are held in the home of a neighbor. Every day of the 12 day session, these Health Volunteers supervise caretakers preparing and cooking energy-rich, calorie-dense meals that they feed to their malnourished children. As price of admission and a key strategy, caretakers are required to make a daily contribution of specific positive deviance food identified in PDI. These PD foods are supplemented with local staple foods (fat, grains, and eggs) provided by the program. The goals are simple: (a) rehabilitate and (b) independently sustain and improve the improved nutritional status for the malnourished children at home. Each malnourished child receives an extra daily meal, prepared in turn by a caretaker participant, on each of the 12 session days. The sessions also teaches key health messages to the caretakers.

In the community, all children participate in a Growth Monitoring and Promotion (GMP) program on a monthly or every other month basis where their weight is measured and

feedback is provided to caretakers. The Village Health Committee (VHC), organized as part of the Hearth Nutrition Program, also meets monthly or every other month to review the NERS (results, problems, and solutions) and review vital events (deaths, births, and migration). Guidelines for malnourished children who fail to gain weight, including referral for treatment to local or district health facilities are established and implemented as necessary. A Hearth Nutrition Program may include additional health interventions for all children of the community such as periodic distribution of Vitamin A per Ministry of Health policy or bi-annual deworming, preferably at the GMP session. Families of children who fail to recover nutritionally after participating in two or more programs are eligible for revolving loans of 10 laying hens, which produce on average 90 eggs a month, of which 20 have to be fed to the child, 20 sold to repay the loan over two years, and the remaining 50 can be used to supplement the family needs.

In summary, the main components of a Hearth Nutrition Program include:

- identification of successful behaviors among Positive Deviant Families (PDFs) through a Positive Deviance Inquiry (PDI)
- monthly or bi-monthly weighing of all children through a GMP activity
- monthly NERS for identified malnourished children and caretakers in local kitchens community management of Hearth through monthly or bi-monthly meeting of VHC
- vital events monitoring

Results

Save the Children's original application of this approach took place in Vietnam in 1993-1995. Vietnam, which is transitioning from a central planned economy to a market economy, has a high malnutrition rate (at the national level 45% of children under 5 are low weight), though the under-five mortality rate is relatively low (48/1000). During its initial research among very poor households, Save the Children discovered that over half of children from these households were not malnourished. This unanticipated finding sparked an inquiry into the foods consumed by these "positive deviants." The study found that diets of the well nourished children included such things as small shellfish from rice paddies, greens, and other freely available plants that could be added as supplements to mainstay foods. Mothers teaching other mothers the methods of the positive deviance became part of the approach that was used by SCF-US in its Poverty Alleviation and Nutrition Program (PANP) in rural Vietnam from 1993-1995.

The results of the approach in improving the nutritional status of children under three were impressive. All of the results listed were statistically significant. The overall weight-for-age of the program children improved 0.36 Z-scores (from -2.14 to -1.78) without sex difference. The severely malnourished children (<-3 Z) improved 1.44 Z-scores (from -3.58 to -2.14). The prevalence of severe malnutrition decreased from 23% to 6%, and the prevalence of normal weight for age increased from 42% to 56%. Most importantly, however, the results were sustainable: children (18-23 months) at baseline improved weight for age (mean Z score at baseline: -2.475 vs. -1.644 after year one) and maintained improvement after graduation from the program. The communities and families involved were truly empowered through the realization that they could improve the lives of their children with local resources.

Other organizations, such as the Albert Schweitzer Hospital in Haiti and World Relief and Christian Service Society in Bangladesh, have successfully implemented Hearth Nutrition Models employing a similar positive deviance approach. Currently, Save the Children has positive deviance components in its Title II programs in Mozambique and Ethiopia and will soon apply it in Nicaragua. Other Title II Cooperating Sponsors are also using the approach in their food security activities.

Constraints

While the positive deviance approach has proven to be successful in sustainably reducing the prevalence of malnutrition through the use of local resources, important constraints do exist. In conditions of absolute poverty and high prevalence of extreme household food insecurity, such as complex emergencies and their aftermath, such an approach may not work optimally. The target population could be so malnourished and livelihood conditions so extreme that no positive deviants exist. Also, in cases of weak community structure and institutions, the positive deviance approach may not receive the support it requires to become sustainable after the official program ends. Equally important, strong governmental support and quality health services are vital to successful implementation of a Hearth Nutrition Program. Finally, the Positive Deviant Inquiry may determine that a "scaling up" of using positive deviant foods may be not sustainable given the ecological conditions of the locale. That is, certain wild foods or other resources may exist in finite quantities that would not permit their mass harvesting.

Future Directions

In a recent food security proposal to USAID-Bangladesh, Save the Children is attempting to expand the positive deviance concept for an Integrated Child Development Initiative that includes all child-rearing behavior, including psycho-social care and cognitive-linguistic development. The proposed program will also apply positive deviance methodology to agricultural practices that are "successful" under the same difficult farming conditions (limited access to land) that constrain other households. The PDI, therefore, will seek to identify positive coping mechanisms that not only permit household food security and create well nourished children but also document those child-rearing practices that encourage an integrated and holistic development of children. It is anticipated, based on previous work on nutritional rehabilitation, that the promotion of these locally developed strategies will be much easier to scale up to other households and communities and that they will be more sustainable than "solutions" introduced from the outside. Children that benefit from such a process will be better equipped to enter an adult life in a rapidly changing society.

For More Information

Save the Children has detailed the positive deviance approach for the Hearth Nutrition Program in a field guide called, *Designing a Community-Based Nutrition Program Using the Hearth Model and the Positive Deviance Approach: A Field Guide* that is available for free to all interested. To order, contact:

Aurea Cruz, Save the Children,
54 Wilton Road
Westport, CT 06880

Notes and References

[1]This article is based on an earlier paper that was presented at the 1999 Annual Meetings of the Society for Applied Anthropology, Tucson, Arizona in the session entitled "Household Livelihood Security: Rethinking Vulnerability" Timothy J. Frankenberger, organizer.

[2] Berggren GG, Alvarez M, Genece E, Amadee-Gedeon PM, and Henry M. The Nutrition Demonstration Foyer: A Model for Combating Malnutrition in Haiti. HOVIPREEP Mongraph Series No. 2. Cambridge: International Food and Nutrition Program of MIT. 1984.

[3,4] Zeitlin, MF, Ghassemi H, Mansour M, Levine RA, Dillanneva M, Carballo M, and Sockalingam S. Positive Deviance in Child Nutrition: With Emphasis on Psychosocial and Behavioral Aspects and Implications for Development. Tokyo: United Nations University, 1990.

[5] A Z-score is the number of standard deviation units above or below the mean, where a measurement falls. The mean is zero, and in a discussion about measuring nutritional status of children in contexts where there are malnourished children, the objective is to measure an increase in the z-score from the left to right.

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Sternin M, Sternin J, Marsh D, Rapid, "Sustained Childhood Malnutrition Alleviation Through a 'Positive Deviance' Approach in Rural Vietnam: Preliminary Findings" in Keeley E, Burkhalter BR, Wollinka O, Bashir N (eds) The Health Nutrition Model: Applications in Haiti, Vietnam, and Bangladesh, Report of a Technical Meeting at World Relief Corporation, Wheaton, IL, June 19-21, 1996, Arlington: BASICS, 1997.

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What's New

by T.J. Ryan

The first of a series of **Monetization Working Group** workshops will be held for West and Central Africa programs. The workshop will take place the week of July 12. Further information on venue and agenda issues will be provided directly to PVO headquarter offices.

CARE is sponsoring an **Environmental Training Workshop On Rural Road Construction and Rehabilitation**, from November 1- 5, 1999 in Jiicaro Galan, Honduras. The objective of the training is to assist key decision-makers and managers from Title II supported NGOs and their counterparts, to improve the quality and effectiveness of rural roads and infrastructure projects. This will be done by providing training and technical materials on how to incorporate environmental considerations and mitigation measures into project design, as well as the identification and use of appropriate monitoring and evaluation indicators. In addition, participants will gain skills and experience in preparation of Regulation 216 environmental compliance documentation required of Title II food and cash for work projects. The workshop will also incorporate lessons learned and case studies from road rehabilitation and housing construction projects in a post-emergency setting. This will be facilitated by the experiences of CARE, CRS and Save the Children in designing and implementing emergency infrastructure projects developed as a result of the extensive damage caused by Hurricane Mitch. For more information, please contact Scott Solberg of CARE Honduras by email solberg@care.hn2.com or Fax: 00-504-232-0913.

FAM continues to expand its **website** to meet the information needs of the food aid and food security community. Recent additions to the FAM website include the following:

- Full-text version of the CARE Food Resources Manual (both in English and Spanish).
- Electronic copy of the Environmental Documentation Manual (EDM - February 1999).
- Updated list of links to websites for commodity market information and price indications.
- Details on the Sampling Workshop.
- Information on the April 1999 "Enhancing the Nutritional Quality of Relief Diets Workshop"
- Supplemental Information Packet Relating to BHR/FFP Development Programs (FY2000 Info Packet).
- Bibliographies of FSRC resources covering the following topics: commodity management, monetization, fortification, and assessment.

Check out these and other resources available on our website at www.foodaid.org!

This is my last What's New. I have accepted a position at Abt Associates in Bethesda, Maryland as Project Director for an NGO support project. I have thoroughly enjoyed my three years here at FAM where I have had the luxury of meeting many extraordinary people who work so hard to improve the food security situation of those who struggle on a daily basis for adequate food. I would like to thank the many different people who have contributed to FAM in the past three years by offering time, ideas, articles, documents and many other things in an effort to benefit the program implementers who use FAM. I know you will continue to do so. The FAM staff is extremely capable and will stay on top of the many initiatives and issues that makes FAM a dynamic consortium. It has been a privilege to work at FAM and I will miss it very much. I look forward to continued contact with many of you.

Food Security Resource Center News

The FSRC collection includes several resources on food security assessments. These publications address a wide range of food security assessment topics including everything from assessment design and methodology issues to implementation and analysis of assessments. In addition, the FSRC assessment collection includes examples of assessments that have been conducted in both emergency and development settings.

The bibliography that appears below represents a sample of the food security assessment resources that are available through the FSRC. A more comprehensive bibliography of assessment resources can be found on the FSRC page on the FAM website (www.foodaid.org). For more specific information or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact me at

Jessica Graef
Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC RESOURCES ON FOOD SECURITY ASSESSMENT

Latin America regional guidelines: Application of household livelihood security indicators in baseline studies. *1998. CARE: Latin America and Caribbean Regional Technical Committee. 62p. FSRC #7133.*

Developed through series of meetings in 1997 and 1998, this document presents guidelines for operationalizing HLS indicators in baseline studies and evaluations in CARE's Latin America/Caribbean Region. Sourcebook provides detailed information on the household livelihood security indicators selected by the Latin America Regional Technical Committee and various options for applying the indicators in baseline studies.

Household livelihood security assessment planning guide. *1997. CARE Asia Region; Schroeder, Judy; Sastry, U.V.K.V. 35p. FSRC #7051.*

Based on two household livelihood security assessment experiences (India and Sri Lanka), serves as a resource guide for CARE Country Offices in the Asia region. Concentrates on the critical planning stage and outlines a number of basic planning steps, checklist, and model timeline to prepare for a Household Livelihood Security Assessment.

Preparing for a rapid livelihood security assessment (RLSA): Guidelines and checklist. *CARE - East Africa Region. 28p. FSRC #7038.*

Document prepared to guide CARE country offices in their planning and implementation of Rapid Food and Livelihood Security Assessments (RLSA).

Chapter 2, Assessments. Field operations guide for disaster assessment and response (version 3.0). *1999. USAID; Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance. [200]p.*

Chapter from USAID/Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance's Field Operations Guide. Chapter serves as guide to conducting initial assessments in disaster situations. Discusses purpose, types, and elements of an assessment; collecting and analyzing data; preparing recommendations; and submitting assessment reports to OFDA. Includes assessment checklists and reference information by sector and reference annexes for displaced populations at risk.
Available at http://www.info.usaid.gov/hum_response/ofda/fog/

Assessment guidelines: Role and impact of WFP-food aid with respect to national and household food security. *1997. World Food Programme. 8p. FSRC #7010.*

Food security assessment guidelines for World Food Programme country offices.

Field guide on rapid nutritional assessment in emergencies. *1995. World Health Organization Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean. 62p. FSRC #7009.*

Guide designed to assist in designing, planning, implementing and reporting reliable nutritional assessment in emergency situations.

Food security assessments in emergencies. *1998. Van der Kam, Saskia; Médecins Sans Frontières Holland. 6p. FSRC #6986.*

Bibliography prepared by participants of the Food Security Assessment in Emergencies Workshop, held in Amsterdam on December 2-3, 1997.

Food security assessments in emergencies: Report of an inter-agency workshop. *1997. Médecins Sans Frontières Holland; van der Kam, Saskia. 50p. FSRC #6985.*

Report of a conference organized by Médecins Sans Frontières in Amsterdam on December 2-3, 1997, whose purpose was to share and develop and understanding of the various food security assessment methods in emergencies.

FAO/WFP crop and food supply assessment mission to Indonesia. *1998. Food and Agriculture Organization. 24p. FSRC #6905.*

Report of a mission by FAO/WFP to Indonesia in April 1998 to assess the crop and food supply situation and to determine food import requirements.

Review of agriculture project baseline surveying tools of Title II funded PVOs. *1998. Bonnard, Patricia; Food Aid Management. 40p. FSRC #6837.*

Presents the findings of a rapid first-cut review of baseline survey methods employed in the implementation of USAID Title II agriculture products. Emphasis is placed on tools for which information and supporting documents were readily available, on problems shared by the majority of member PVOs,

and on short-term recommendations that can be instituted easily by most PVOs regardless of their resource and technical capacity.

Identifying the food insecure: The application of mixed-method approaches in India. *1997. Chung, Kimberly; Haddad, Lawrence; Ramakrishna, Jayashree; Riely, Frank; International Food Policy Research Institute. 70p. FSRC #6798.*

Reports on two methods for identifying alternative indicators of chronic and acute food insecurity for use in targeting food aid. Uses data collected in four villages in the semi-arid tropics of south-central India to illustrate a qualitative and quantitative method for identifying alternative indicators.

World Vision International food security assessment, Liberia. *1997. World Vision International. [40]p. FSRC #6578.*

Summarizes findings of food security assessment conducted in Liberia. Outlines methodology. Includes information on food availability (crop data, agricultural assessments), food access (access assessments, ration schedules, food aid), and food usage (diet, maternal and child nutrition, nutritional assessments, access to health care). Presents recommendations.

Baseline vulnerability assessment for Haiti. *1993. Hutchinson, Charles F.; Hall, Robert E.; University of Arizona. 22p. FSRC #6434.*

Presents findings of 1992 prefeasibility assessment conducted in Haiti to develop preliminary recommendations for food security monitoring. Outlines results of food security and vulnerability assessment, the procedures by which the assessment was conducted, the results of data workshops, and recommendations for next steps.

Alternative approaches to locating the food insecure: Qualitative and quantitative evidence from South India. *1997. Chung, Kimberley; Haddad, Lawrence; Ramakrishna, Jayashree; Riely, Frank; International Food and Policy Research Institute. 100p. FSRC #6415.*

Report on two methods for identifying alternative indicators of food insecurity. Uses data from four villages to demonstrate methodology for identifying alternative indicators. Outlines methodological framework of data collection, discusses study design, presents qualitative and quantitative results, and evaluates data collection process.

Cape Verde food needs assessment. *1992. Belknap, John; USDA; Ferris-Morris, Margaret. 53p. FSRC #6323.*

Findings from food needs assessment conducted in Cape Verde. Discusses nutritional status, agricultural food deficits, role of monetized food aid. Nutritional status includes information on nutritional assessment of vulnerable populations, food and nutrition problems, factors affected nutritional status, and analysis of policies.

Summary report: Systems analysis and baseline study of the maternal and child health and nutrition program CRS/Kenya. *1991. Teller, Charles H.; Owuor-Omondi, Lucas; Catholic Relief Services. 36p. FSRC #6251.*

Outlines findings of systems analysis/baseline study conducted for maternal child health project redesigning purposes. Includes information on rapid assessment procedures.

Mozambique food security in a post-war economy: Rapid livelihood security assessment for Mabote district. *1995. CARE International Technical Advisors Team for Africa; Diriba, Getachew; Leonhardt, Anne; Cooke, Neol. [100]p. FSRC #6105.*

Report on rapid assessment conducted in Mozambique. Details demographic and social structure, production resources, forest foods, coping strategies, market infrastructure, health, and nutrition.

CARE International in Tanzania, Rapid rural and livelihood security assessment in Shinyanga, Mara & Mwanza regions: September 1995, executive summary. *1995. CARE. 18p. FSRC #5850.*

Assessment of causes of food and livelihood insecurity in selected districts in Lake regions.

World Vision International food security assessment, Sierra Leone: November 11-25, 1996. *Food Security Program; World Vision International. 35p. FSRC #5743.*

Reports on food security assessment conducted in Sierra Leone in November 1996. Presents results of assessment of food availability, food access, and food usage. Provides programming recommendations.

Vulnerability assessment of Zambia: Baseline and current analysis

Volume 1: Results and future directions. *1995. World Food Programme; USAID. [40]p. FSRC #5281.*

Volume 2: Detailed methodology, vulnerability and preparedness maps, and data tables. *1995. Flamm, Bradley; WFP; USAID. [40]p. FSRC #5282.*

Report on vulnerability assessment and baseline study conducted in Zambia. Volume 1 includes information on vulnerability analysis, methodology, and recommendations. Presents vulnerability findings concerning crop risk, market access, coping strategies, and assets. Volume 2 provides details on methodology, vulnerability maps, and data tables.

Rapid food and livelihood security assessment: In Shinyanga, Mara & Mwanza regions, CARE International in Tanzania. *1995. CARE International/Tanzania. 152p. FSRC #5266.*

Report on rapid food and livelihood security assessment in selected regions of Tanzania. Provides information on methodology as well as findings on popu-

lation, resources, infrastructure, government services, farming systems and production, non-agricultural livelihood strategies, coping strategies, and nutrition and health status.

Food needs assessment study for Huila and Cunene provinces, southwestern Angola. *1994. University of Arizona; CARE. [78]p. FSRC #4833.*

Details food needs assessment conducted in southwestern Angola. Presents findings on livelihood systems, food security vulnerability, coping strategies, and nutritional status of children. Outlines recommendations for food aid and development assistance programs.

Methodology for measuring basic needs requirements and identifying vulnerable groups: Kurdistan, Northern Iraq. *1994. Silva-Barbeau, Irma; Templer, Guy; Ward, Patrick; USAID; Famine Mitigation Activity. 105p. FSRC #4278.*

Details information on measuring basic needs requirements and identifying vulnerable groups. Based on assessment conducted in Kurdistan, discusses characteristics of the population; economic trends; nutritional and health situation; coping strategies; measurement and vulnerability; targeting food aid; implementation of sample household survey.

Assessing disaster needs in megacities: Perspectives from work in megacities in developing countries. *1994. Kelly, Charles. 13p. FSRC #3220.*

Discusses the assessment of disaster needs in relation to megacities. Examines disaster assessment and identification of causes and impacts of disasters. Presents suggestions for improving disaster assessment in megacities. Looks at experiences in emergency urban food security project in Luanda, a food security information system in Haiti, and other programs.

Disaster assessment. *1991. Stephenson, R.; UNDRO; UNDP. 40p. FSRC #1308.*

Describes process involved in the gathering and analysis of information about disasters and disaster response. It details the cause, the needs of those affected, and the available resources for responding to those needs.

Disaster assessment: Trainers' guide. *1991. Stephenson, R.S.; UNDRO; UNDP. 65p. FSRC #1307.*

Companion guide to the module on Disaster Assessment and gives basics and specifics on the assessment process (FSRC #1308).

Vulnerability and risk assessment: Trainer's guide. *1991. UNDP; UNDRO. 54p. FSRC #1306.*

Trainer's guide accompanying the module on vulnerability and risk assessment (FSRC #1305).

Vulnerability and risk assessment. *1991. Coburn, A.W.; Spence, R.J.S.; Pomonis, A.; UNDRO. 57p. FSRC #1305.*

Training module designed to increase participants' awareness of nature and management of disasters. Considers the nature of risk, difference between actual and perceived risk and discusses assessment techniques for natural hazards and risk of future losses.

Food needs assessment study for Hula and Cunene provinces, Southwestern Angola. *1994. CARE; University of Arizona. [90]p. FSRC #1114.*

Details food needs assessment conducted in southwestern Angola. Presents findings on livelihood systems, food security vulnerability, coping strategies, and nutritional status of children. Outlines recommendations for food aid and development assistance programs.

Rapid field assessments of food and nutrition security selected CARE programs in the Philippines, Ethiopia, and Peru Summary of methods, findings, and recommendations, September - November, 1993. *Teller, Charles; Pragma Corp.; CARE; USAID. 30p. FSRC #1111.*

Report summarizes the findings and recommendations of the rapid field assessments of Title II programs conducted in Philippines, Ethiopia, and Peru. Identifies common lessons learned and recommends improvements in Title II programs.

FY98 Food Aid Report accessible on the Web

The 1998 U.S. International Food Assistance Report is now available on the USAID External Home Page (www.info.usaid.gov). You can access the report from the Home Page itself, or from the Humanitarian Response section. The Report consolidates reporting on USG provisioning of 3.5 million metric tons of food assistance during FY 1998, valued at $1.22 billion, to 67 developing and re-industrializing countries, reaching millions of people.

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Fax: 202.544.7065
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Economic Policies and Smallholder Agricultural Performance: The Case of Malawi

By Dave Evans, Food Security M&E Program Team Leader, Food for the Hungry International

Since 1991, the IMF and World Bank have continued to press for stabilization and structural adjustment of Sub-Saharan African (SSA) economies, albeit with the recognition that safety nets should be in place in order to mitigate these policies' negative effects on the very poor. The question remains as to the success of those policies in bringing about the desired income growth. This article focuses on the effects of economic policies and agricultural performance. It contains primarily pre-1991 data and is therefore somewhat dated. However, many of its findings and conclusions remain relevant to the debate on food security in Malawi and Sub-Saharan Africa.

According to recent research conducted by Catholic Relief Services (CRS) in preparation for its Development Activity Proposal (DAP) for Malawi, "Malawi faces a serious development challenge with regards to food security. According to national level statistics, 60 to 65% of both rural and urban populations live below the poverty line...Malawi's food insecurity and malnutrition indicators stand among the worst in SSA." CRS further states that "food security remains precarious for a large number of Malawian households...Recent Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRA) data confirmed that there is only enough maize produced to adequately feed an average family of five for a little over five months...poor food availability was one of the most commonly cited problems and a main concern of village members."

Given that structural adjustment remains the main diet offered by international financial institutions, SSA nations like Malawi are still faced with a myriad of difficult decisions regarding smallholder agriculture. In addition, many FAM members are faced with difficult choices regarding SSA Title II agricultural program design and implementation. Among the weightier of these is the degree of promotion of food vs. non-food crops, in more general terms, the debate between increasing availability vs. access. The CRS findings suggest that the debate over smallholder agriculture in Malawi continues to be crucial both to policymakers and Title II cooperating sponsors searching for ways to help smallholders increase their maximized household food security by carefully taking into consideration all three components of availability, access, and utilization.

INTRODUCTION

The effects of economic policies on agricultural sector performance in Sub-Saharan Africa have received substantial attention from both government policy makers and international aid organizations over the past several decades

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Rethinking Child Survival Programs in Nicaragua, Food Security and the Test of Hurricane Mitch

By Nina P. Schlossman, PhD, Iván Tercero-Talavera, MD MPH, Alberto Araica, MD MPH, and Mirette Seireg, MS[1]

As October 1998 ended, Central America was hit by Hurricane Mitch, what is recognized to be the most devastating natural disaster in the history of Nicaragua and Honduras since the Managua earthquake of 1972. In Nicaragua alone, more than 3,000 people perished, the majority in the massive mudslide at the Las Casitas volcano. Nearly 900,000 people were affected by floods, mudslides, and heavy rains; between 200,000 and 300,000 lost their homes completely or partially. Among the hardest hit were areas where ADRA (Adventist Development and Relief Agency), SAVE (Save the Children Federation) and PCI (Project Concern International) had been providing Child Survival (CS) services for several years and, since 1996, had distributed Title II food as a complement to their well-established CS activities.

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(World Bank, 1981a; Lecaillon et al, 1987). External shocks of the 1970s (high fuel costs and low commodity prices) combined with internal structural difficulties hampered growth in many SSA countries, leading some to seek financial and policy assistance. One such country is Malawi. The agricultural sector in Malawi contributes significantly to the country's gross domestic product (GDP), employs the majority of the population, and is the primary source of foreign revenue. Thus, the performance of the Malawi agricultural sector is a crucial factor in the performance of the economy as a whole.

Past research on the effects of policy on the agricultural sector in Malawi has focused largely on price factors, specifically, implicit taxes and subsidies on various agricultural commodities which directly affect incentives or disincentives to produce (Belassa, 1976; Kydd and Christiansen, 1982; Ansu, 1985; and Harrigan, 1988). Indeed, the cornerstone of the IMF and World Bank structural adjustment lending (SAL) policy prescriptions after 1979 in Malawi was the reform of incentive structures to ensure the market determination of producer prices, especially for the smallholder sub-sector.

Competing Agendas and Conflicting Policies: SAL vs. the GOM

The goal of SAL, vis-à-vis the smallholder sector in the 1980s, was to re-establish the sector as a prime producer of export crops, primarily tobacco; the main policy instrument used was price liberalization (World Bank, 1982). However, the smallholder policy goal of the government of Malawi (GOM) was primarily to ensure maize self-reliance via subsidized maize prices. The effects of price liberalization on the supply of food crops like maize were not considered in SAL (Kydd and Hewitt, 1986; Harrigan, 1988). This resulted in conflicting policy goals of the World Bank and the GOM, and an incomplete implementation of SAL policies.

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Associate Editors and Staff Contributors:
Jessica Graef and Trisha Schmirler

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Global Food & Nutrition Inc. provides a full line of technical assistance, training research and evaluation services in food security and nutrition programs and policy.

The success of SAL price policy strategy in increasing export crop production in the 1980s depended to a large degree on: 1) price responsiveness of the Malawian smallholder export crop supply; 2) smallholder supply responsiveness to non-price factors; and 3) the degree of GOM implementation of the policies in question. Past research on the role of producer prices in Malawian smallholder agriculture has presented evidence of a positive price elasticity of supply for most agricultural commodities (Dean, 1966; Bond, 1983; Askari and Cummings, 1976). That is, as price increases for a certain commodity—other things being equal—farmers will increase production of that commodity in order to take advantage of the higher price. Based heavily on these findings of positive price elasticity of supply, the World Bank's SAL proposed a radical change in price policy that would move producer prices to their market-determined levels. Thus, producer prices for export crops such as cotton and tobacco would be increased to the world market levels, initiating increased production among smallholders. It was envisaged that this increase in production at higher prices would increase smallholder incomes and put Malawi back on its former GDP growth track.

The Smallholder Response

Despite these premises and plans, the growth of smallholder production of tobacco and cotton did not materialize during the 1980s. In fact, the average annual production of both commodities declined, as demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1

Average Annual Smallholder Non-food Crop Production

	Tobacco	Cotton
1973-79	16,000 Metric Tons	24,000 Metric Tons
1982-88	13,400 Metric Tons	21,400 Metric Tons

Source: World Bank, 1990.

It has been suggested by some that non-price factors influenced by economic policies may have been equally or more important in influencing production (Harrigan, 1988; World Bank, 1990). Binswanger (1989) asserts that in the developing world, supply response to price changes, generally, is smaller than that suggested by researchers concentrating primarily on the effect of price factors. He suggests that the role of other factors such as transport and marketing services are also important in determining supply response. Studies done to date on smallholder supply response in Malawi have concentrated almost exclusively on price factors (Kirchner et al., 1985). However, the World Bank (1990), in reviewing adjustment programs in Malawi during the 1980s, wrote that the price reforms implemented over the period achieved little for the majority of smallholders, mainly due to structural constraints such as land availability.

The third factor determining SAL policy success was the degree of implementation of SAL policies by the GOM. Although the World Bank prescribed the liberalization of all producer prices, the GOM chose to continue to subsidize maize and rice supply throughout the 1980s, resulting in maize and rice prices above world market levels. Further, the liberalization of non-food crop prices was delayed until the mid-1980s by the GOM, and then only liberalized in small

annual increments. These policies distorted SAL policies targeted at increasing smallholder non-food crop production, influencing their potential success.

Prior to independence in 1964, colonial economic policy in Malawi encouraged smallholder production of non-food crops. This changed from 1964 to 1979, as GOM economic policy directed at the smallholder sub-sector was increasingly designed to subsidize the production of food to satisfy domestic demand, while at the same time implicitly taxing the production of non-food crops as a source of government revenue. After 1979, the involvement of the IMF and the World Bank in economic policy-making in Malawi led to a gradual shift in policy toward encouraging smallholder production of export crops in addition to the production of food crops. Pricing policies were primarily used in the latter two periods to influence smallholder production.

In that these policies had objectives for influencing smallholder performance, it was important to analyze and evaluate the degree of policy effectiveness in achieving the desired goals. However, given that numerous variables influenced smallholder performance over the period, such analysis required the development of a model that allowed for relationships among policy-influenced and non-policy-influenced variables and smallholder performance. In the early 1990s, a study was conducted by the author with the following objectives: 1) to estimate smallholder supply responsiveness to price and non-price factors; and 2) to use those estimates to analyze the effects of economic policies—particularly IMF stabilization and World Bank SAL policies—on smallholder agricultural performance in the country of Malawi. The study covered the period from 1969-1988. With regard to policy analysis, the effects of several policy areas were analyzed, including: 1) producer price distortions and 2) exchange rate distortions.

The study estimated Malawian smallholder supply and marketed surplus response to price and non-price factors. The results were then employed to investigate and analyze the impacts of economic policies on smallholder supply and marketed surplus in the country of Malawi from 1978 to 1988. Smallholder supply and the quantity marketed in response to changes in price and non-price factors were estimated, via the construction of an econometric model designed to capture the realities of the Malawian smallholder sector. Models of agricultural household production decisions were tested empirically to determine the effects of labor and consumer market participation on the production decisions of smallholders.

The results indicated that Malawian smallholders are price responsive for most crops. Scenarios were then modeled to capture the effects of the removal of price and exchange rate distortions, and changes in non-price policies and policy-related factors. The results of these simulations showed that, in general, under full and instantaneous price liberalization prescribed by the World Bank in Structural Adjustment Lending, smallholder supply of non-food crops such as tobacco and cotton would have been greater throughout most of the period 1978-1988 than was the case under partial and incremental price liberalization. Conversely, smallholder supply of food crops such as maize and rice would have decreased more under full price liberalization than was the case under partial price liberalization. The results also showed that exchange rate devaluations, combined with full price liberalization, would have increased tobacco and cotton output for the period 1978-1988, while it would have decreased maize and rice supply.

Implications for Policy Makers and Title II Cooperating Sponsors

Price policy may be an effective policy instrument in influencing smallholder supply of certain crops. Indeed, that was the intention of both the GOM and the World Bank/IMF when they developed their respective economic policies. The former sought to ensure food self-sufficiency through the subsidization of smallholder food crops. The latter sought to stimulate smallholder production of non-food crops by removing direct and indirect producer price distortions. Therein lies the crux of the price policy implications brought out in this study. Consistent and coherent price policy objectives and instruments acceptable to both the World Bank/IMF and the GOM were never agreed upon throughout the course of structural adjustment lending (1979 to present). In order for price policy to be successful in producing the right mix of crops agreeable to the smallholders, all of the parties, including the GOM, and the World Bank/IMF, would need to cooperate.

Working at the micro level, Title II Cooperating Sponsors (CS) are not involved in setting price policies for agriculture. That said, the tradeoffs associated with food and non-food crop production are at the center of policy debate of many of the countries in which we work. As in Malawi, the success of economic policies in achieving their desired ends in places like Kenya, Tanzania, and Mozambique must be based on a clear a priori understanding of the possible effects of various smallholder sector interventions. As CSs, we often are involved in encouraging and providing incentives for farming households to increase the production of one or more crops to the detriment of others. In that we provide a subsidy to those households in the form of training, inputs, or other services, we influence smallholder production decisions. We would do well to understand and analyze various possible outcomes of our subsidies before we design our agricultural production and marketing programs, so that we may avoid causing unintended negative impacts on overall household food security.

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"Nicaragua" continued from page 1

In early November 1998, the PL 480 Title II and CS programs were put on hold while the private voluntary organizations (PVOs) and their communities attended to emergency feeding and recovery in the most affected areas, where food insecurity is prevalent even in normal times. Food-for-Work began in January and February 1999 and was slated to continue through April 30, but the transition has been extended through the end of September 1999. Changes in the PVOs' modus operandi of their Title II food-assisted CS Programs in the first ten months of 1998 led to new opportunities for the PVOs to address community food security issues [see Food Forum, March-April 1998] in a more participatory manner and to use participatory appraisal techniques for rapid food situation diagnosis and planning in the aftermath of Hurricane Mitch.

In March 1999, USAID conducted a needs assessment for planning future PL 480 Title II, Cash for Work and Food for Work programs along with the extent of U.S. commodity support for the World Food Programme's (WFP) new two-year, $26 million program in Nicaragua. The USAID Mission and cooperating sponsors were concerned about the large influx of food. As a result of the 1998 experience with participatory techniques for rapid food security assessment and program planning, the PVOs worked with a similar methodology to undertake a set of rapid participatory situation assessments with their communities using the new techniques. They were thus able to determine food and other resource needs in the affected areas in a short period of time. Moreover, they were able to determine which dimensions of food security (e.g., access, availability, or utilization/consumption) were disrupted.

This article describes the process that the PVOs underwent to recognize that change within their own institutions was the first step to becoming promoters of community action for food security, rather than food and service providers. The impact of the actions taken are illustrated by the accomplishments that the PVOs working with their communities were able to achieve in ten months.

A Bit of Background...

Despite the many programs in place in 1995, USAID and its partner PVOs observed that, although Mission-funded child survival programs were largely successful in bringing about changes in knowledge and attitudes in key CS variables, participating families were unable to convert this knowledge into practice due to lack of food and other resources. A three-year operations research (OR) project was approved which added an identical Title II component to the three PVO projects that already had well-established CS programs. CARE was included as a control CS project which promoted sustainable food security without the use of donated food. The OR framework did not include provisions for long-term security planning, however. Recognizing this problem, USAID, together with the Project Management Unit (PMU) administered by Development Associates, Inc., and the Title II cooperating sponsors, undertook a radical reorientation of the Title II program in 1998.

The PVOs underwent a critical change, from playing the role of providers of food and child survival services to promoters of social mobilization, helping to identify and accelerate positive processes already present within the communities that were likely to yield sustainable long-term food security activities. To achieve this shift, the PMU team employed proven business principles, such as appreciative inquiry and healthy competition, which are used regularly in team building and organizational development in Fortune 500 companies.

This process concerned the three PVOs -- ADRA, PCI, and SAVE -- running the Title II Food Assisted Child Survival (FACS) projects. The workshop series and specific technical assistance designed to support this process were expanded to include three other PVOs -- CARE, TechnoServe, and World Relief Corporation -- implementing Title III activities in overlapping project areas. Specifically, the institutional change and community mobilization process focused on strengthening the capacity of the PVO partner organizations to incorporate a longer-term food security orientation into current and future programs. The PMU developed a training and technical assistance program with the PVOs to meet their needs for capacity building in food security programming and in participatory rapid assessment (PRA) techniques to assess, monitor, and evaluate the impact of their programs on nutrition and food security. Training took place from March through mid-October 1998.

The conceptual framework for the training process involves four stages: experience, leading to reflection, to generalization, and, finally, to action. Applying PRA tools, posing open-ended targeted questions, and implementing project activities generated experience. Using appreciative inquiry techniques, the experience was then processed so that participants gained a complete understanding of what had happened and why. The process of reflection enabled participants to generalize key attitudes or behaviors, to investigate how these attitudes and behaviors are found as part of a pattern that advances or hinders food security improvements, and to reach conclusions about the process. Action, the final stage which determines what to implement, required participants to ask themselves: "In light of the three previous stages, *what can I do to improve food security in the areas where I work or live?*" Doing nothing was considered an intentional option whose consequences had to be addressed.

The approach outlined in the conceptual framework was implemented through a series of three workshops designed so that the PVOs could share experiences and information, forge strategic alliances, and practice working as a team. The process highlighted each PVO's unique strengths, best practices, and lessons learned, while continuously searching for common approaches, models, and food security indicators. Every workshop was followed by PMU technical assistance team visits to each PVO in its institutional setting and in the communities, again using workshop concepts to help the key individuals consolidate their learning and complete their own personal shifts. The hope was that those individuals would then apply these skills in persuading other stakeholders in their institution and within their communities to shift from providing services to facilitating community processes and actions that would promote food security. Once a critical mass of individuals achieved transformation within the organization, these individuals would be able to facilitate the same process in the larger community, ultimately leading to the desired social mobilization.

By the final workshop in October 1998, 400 communities covering over 11,500 families were reported to have been engaged in PRA activities aimed at improving food security. These reports suggested that the PVOs were continuing to facilitate the process on the community level. The three Title II PVOs -- ADRA, PCI, and SAVE -- to varying extents, had incorporated the new food security framework into their program activities.

Best Practices

The multidisciplinary PMU Team combined a set of complementary skills and expertise to facilitate change, during the workshops and in visits to the PVOs and communities. After each workshop, technical assistance was scheduled for those PVOs who requested it. The amount of time, effort, and financial resources needed to initiate PRA techniques was of primary concern to the PVOs. Due to PRA's flexibility and emphasis on discovering creative ways to make rapid and easy appraisals, the PMU team visits were aimed at discussing possibilities and designing techniques that simultaneously met needs and addressed the PVOs resource limitations. Though participation was voluntary, attendance at the workshops and the demand for technical assistance was high and positive.

A collateral effect of the initiative was to facilitate coordination of Title II and III activities. Even the Title III PVOs not directly involved in food distribution attended all three workshops. Including Title III PVOs in this process allowed for a rich interchange of experiences that would not have occurred otherwise. As a result, TechnoServe developed a strategic alliance with PCI to collaborate on food security.

The framework for PRA was based on the concepts of social mobilization, community participation, and empowerment, within the context of the three food security components. It was designed by the PMU team specifically for Title II assisted child survival programs and focused on simple tools that could be developed with and understood by both community members and PVO promoters. New tools like the community-generated food basket or the community-based SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis for strategic planning, were used for the first time as part of a food security initiative. Further steps would have involved the design of a participatory process for developing indicators to monitor and evaluate the impact of food security and document the process of individual transformation, institutional change, and community development.

Although the Title II PVOs were not required by their grant agreements to implement PRA activities, they recognized that the process strengthened their existing projects and granted them the ability to achieve greater success on future projects. At each workshop, the PVOs shared their own designs and results of their PRA activities. Reporting on progress and accomplishments to other PVOs stimulated a sense of fruitful competition.

Identifying and setting common objectives provided a framework for the PVOs to share approaches, use each other as reference points, and relate to each other as members of the same team. This could be particularly useful for identifying and measuring a set of common food security indicators and for planning and designing the mid-term evaluation. All PVOs focused on methods that would increase community participation.

PRA techniques and simple participatory indicators can be used, understood, and adopted at all levels. The simpler the approach, the better the chances for implementation, and the more likely the achievement of results. More importantly, simple participatory tools effectively generate community and staff ownership of tools, decisions, and results. Using simple approaches allowed PVOs to expand the positive effects of their PRA activities, exemplified by their reaching over 11,500 families in less than ten months.. Then, suddenly, Hurricane Mitch devastated Nicaragua, with some of the project areas being the hardest hit.

Conclusion and Lessons Learned

These shifts, even when understood in a conceptual manner, are difficult to implement. PRA techniques were not fully put into practice, or were slow to be implemented for a variety of reasons. The primary reason was that PRA was perceived to require resources that the PVOs did not have. The most challenging element was for the PVO to assume the role of facilitator, rather than provider of services and answers when using PRA tools in the community. The shifts did not occur in the workshops, but rather, in the field, when simple yet key questions were posed to groups that stimulated reflection and dynamic discussions. PMU technical assistance supported these initial transformations.

The usefulness of the tools became apparent in the aftermath of Hurricane Mitch as they were put to practice in an immediate way. ADRA, PCI, and SAVE, along with CARE played a critical role in the immediate post-hurricane activities. Their respective areas were hard hit and they used the PRA techniques to complete rapid situation assessments. Moreover, they used the tools with the survivors to identify actions that they could take immediately and over the long term to help families and communities mitigate their losses. The disaster situation required simple but highly effective tools. The PVOs selected the PRA techniques as the best choice for the circumstances.

CARE used participatory techniques to assess availability, access, and utilization of food items in the affected communities. They used the results to classify which communities were severely, moderately, or slightly affected so that they could prioritize their responses. They also helped the communities locate aid that was available from other organizations and institutions. Interviews with key informants, focus groups with community members, seasonal calendars, community maps and Venn diagrams were the most useful in identifying which organizations were working and where. PCI in Jinotega also used PRA techniques to prioritize the losses and communities. PCI used focus groups, social mapping, seasonal calendars and key informant and community member interviews. ADRA used a similar set of tools for their assessments. In ADRA's Nueva Segovia project area, for example, communities used the results to prepare one-page project descriptions which were then submitted to the Mayor's office for approval. ADRA continues to monitor progress of the approved projects (e.g., latrines, wells, road clearing, and reforestation).

Airlifts of food flooded into the country as part of the world response to the disaster. The PVOs were swamped with delivering food and other resources through December. From January 1999 onward, programs were converted to Food for Work with one family member completing 120 hours of reconstruction work a month in exchange for an 85 kilogram ration consisting of rice, beans, oil, and corn-soy-blend.

The biggest concern now is that the progress made during the PRA effort is being eroded by the hurricane and the humanitarian response. Although the PRA techniques helped the PVOs and communities identify the food security problems and solutions rapidly and effectively, the magnitude of the disaster response by the international community drowned the country in food. According to the PVOs, the initial rations were too large and participation standards were relaxed. Food availability no longer seems to be a problem (McIntyre , March 1999). Food prices are lower than they had been before the disaster and access is a problem, as always, in some areas of the country. The focus on reconstruction continues to be all-consuming, and is well underway. Food donations had been the modus operandi for decades in Nicaragua and the Title II PRA food security initiative was instrumental in facilitating a change, one which is seriously in danger of unraveling and also more firmly cementing the old paradigm. It will be at least two years, however, before the communities and PVOs can return to development and long-term food security issues.

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[1] Nina P. Schlossman, PhD, President of Global Food & Nutrition Inc., was Food Security Consultant and Team Leader of the Development Associates Inc. Project Management Unit (PMU) Food Security Initiative. Iván Tercero-Talavera, MD MPH, was the Child Survival Specialist in the PMU and on the Team; since its close in July 1999, he works with Management Sciences for Health managed PROSALUD Project. Alberto Araica, MD MPH, was the PMU Information and Research Specialist and also on the Team; he currently works with the Health and Human Resources Office of USAID/Managua. Mirette Seireg, MS, is a Nutrition, Training and Organizational Development Consultant and was Participatory Training Consultant to the Team.

Monitoring Progress of Emergency Food Aid

By Anne Ralte, MCH/Emergency Programming Specialist FANta/AED

The Office of Food for Peace/Emergency Response Division (FFP/ER) recently completed a review of its FY 1998 programs.[1] The U.S. provided 921,350 metric tons of Title II emergency food aid, valued at over $481 million, to more than 22 countries. The 37 programs implemented by the World Food Programme (WFP) and PVOs reached at least 16.4 million beneficiaries. 1998 saw an increase of over 42% in the number of beneficiaries reached through Title II emergency food aid from the previous year (11.5 million beneficiaries). In addition to the above, the U.S. provided 217,120 metric tons of food aid, valued at more than $116 million, to beneficiaries of the World Food Programme's Protracted Relief Operations (PROs) in 12 countries.

Title II Emergency Food Aid Beneficiaries Reached in 1998, by Region:

	# Beneficiaries Reached	% Reached of Targeted
Africa	8,411,780	68%
Asia & Near East	7,541,621	97%
Europe	235,158	31%
Central America	296,740	95%
Total:	16,485,299	77%

Similar to last year, the majority of programs were implemented in Africa, then Europe, Asia and Near East, and then Latin America and the Caribbean. Beneficiaries included internally displaced persons (IDPs), returnees/resettled, and refugees.

Title II emergency food aid programs seek to meet critical food needs of people affected by disasters and civil strife. These are implemented by using the "5 rights" approach: provide the right food to the right people in the right place, at the right time, and in the right way. The majority of performance targets were met or exceeded. To resolve continued delivery delays, FFP/ER pre-positioned food commodities in U.S. ports in anticipation of sudden-onset emergencies. In some cases, this reduced the time to less than 30 days to provide critical food need in selected locations. Without this new measure, the time frame is normally 12-150 days.

Programs seek to maintain or improve the nutritional status of children aged 6-59 months living in regions affected by humanitarian emergencies. More than half of the programs reported to have changed and/or maintained nutritional status of beneficiaries. The quality of nutritional status reporting improved significantly in 1998 with implementing partners providing nutritional data and survey results as part of the performance review process.

FFP/ER's program takes the major part of USAID's responsibility for reaching the U.S. Government's foreign policy goal to maintain the nutritional status of children under 5 affected by emergency situations. Nutritional status of children under 5 and crude mortality rate (CMR) were recently adopted as two of USAID's specific goal indicators to track overall progress in humanitarian assistance. Information is shared with the Refugee Nutrition Information System (RNIS) of the ACC/SCN and the Health Information Network for Advanced Contingency Planning (HINAP) of WHO that monitors health and nutritional status of refugees and displaced populations.

ACC/SCN can be accessed at www.unsystem.org/accscn and HINAP can be accessed at www.who.int/eha/hinap on the Web.

[1] USAID's Office of Food for Peace, Emergency Response Division (FFP/ER) administers the U.S. Government's P.L. 480 Title II emergency food aid. The Development Division undertakes Title II development activities related to food security, focusing on household nutrition and agricultural productivity.

The Procurement Puzzle

By Rebecca A. Lee, Agricultural Marketing Specialist
Procurement and Donations Division USDA

Many people are aware that the U.S. Government procures food for needy countries, and that the food is distributed by Private Voluntary Organizations (PVOs), but how many people know what goes into procuring the food and how all the pieces fit together?

Recent years have marked many changes in the way food is procured for humanitarian assistance. Originally the donated food came to the government via surplus removal. Surplus removal was the government's way of stabilizing the U.S. agricultural economy. While surplus removal still occurs for some commodities, it is not as prevalent as 20 years ago. But there is still a need for humanitarian aid. So how does the government go about procuring food now?

Let's take a look at the procurement puzzle:

Piece One: The Politics

There is much that proceeds the procurement process. Officials within the USDA determine if there are commodities which cannot be procured for humanitarian aid. This decision is generally based on commodity availability and market conditions within the U.S. Unless a commodity is prohibited for procurement, program offices, such as USAID, can make the decision to procure that commodity. Commodities can only be procured if there are funds available in the budget provided to the agencies by Congress. Globally, approximately 800 million people are undernourished, and with USAID annually feeding nearly 40 million people in 56 developing countries under Title II programs, the money allotted must be carefully spent. Typically commodities which will aid in relieving hunger while helping to promote or bolster American agriculture are preferred for humanitarian programs. Another contributing factor to the commodities procured is the number of people that can be adequately and nutritiously fed for every dollar spent.

Piece Two: The Technical Details

When the money is available, what behind the scenes work must happen? Marketing specialists with the USDA in Washington, DC maintain commodity purchase announcements which contain product specifications and contract terms for vendors supplying food for humanitarian aid. The specialists frequently review the announcements, ensuring that the specifications are compatible with current industry practice and will allow for maximum competition among potential suppliers. The marketing specialists are in constant contact with program offices such as USAID to make sure that the procured food meets present need. They consult with USAID on issues ranging from caloric content to micronutrient content of the commodities. Packaging of the commodity is also reviewed to ensure that it reaches its destination in the best possible condition. Frequently, industry and academia are involved in this process, broadening the resources available to the government.

The contract terms consist of different issues, including the requirement that commodities must be of domestic origin and be processed in the U.S. Other requirements include the type of inspection required. For some commodities, vendors are required to maintain their own verifiable quality control system which can be audited under the Total Quality Systems Audit (TQSA) Program. Other commodities require continuous online inspection by a Federal inspection agency such as Federal Grain Inspection Service (FGIS). The commodity purchase announcements, which are made available to the food industry, remain in circulation and are amended or revised as needed.

Piece Three: The Procurement

This puzzle piece starts with a request from a PVO. The request states what commodities are wanted, the needed quantities, and when and where they are to be shipped. Specialists review the request for completeness and resolve any outstanding issues. The request is confirmed with USAID to assure that funds are available for that procurement. Often requests from several PVOs are combined to procure commodities in larger quantities, thus reducing the costs of the commodities and the associated procurement costs. Availability and tentative price are checked. If the commodity can be reasonably procured, an invitation for bids is written and distributed to the industry. The invitation outlines what commodities are being requested, the final destinations, the anticipated date of shipment, and the date bids are due. Vendors then develop and submit their sealed bids to the USDA Commodity Office in Kansas City, MO. The submitted bids are based on a vendor's capacity, current market prices, and processing costs. On the appointed date, the bids are opened and reviewed. Contracting officers take many factors into consideration before awarding even a partial contract. These factors include bid price, quantity, past history of the vendor, and whether the vendor is eligible to bid on government contracts. Once the contracting officer has reviewed all the bids, awards are made based on the lowest cost. Often more than one vendor is awarded a contract under a single invitation, even for the same commodity. When multiple vendors of the same commodity are awarded a contract, the quantity requested is more than a single vendor's production capacity.

Piece Four: The Production

Once the award has been made, the next piece must be added to the puzzle. Vendors must begin production well in advance of the anticipated date of shipment to ensure that the product reaches the shipping port in time to be loaded onto the vessels. For some commodities, such as beans, whole grains, or raw rice, little goes into production beyond

cleaning, sorting, and packaging for transport (either in railcars, large totes, or bags). For other commodities, such as flour, corn-soy blend, and other processed products, the processing is more elaborate and detailed. All commodities are held to the same production, sanitation, and quality standards as food sold in the U.S. In most cases the food procured for humanitarian assistance is the same as what we would buy off the shelf here in the U.S. Only those commodities which are specialty formulations (e.g., corn-soy blend) and those requiring additional fortification are different. Product is inspected for quality, condition, and wholesomeness. After the product is produced, it is appropriately packaged in either railcars, bags, or cans and prepared for transport to the U.S. shipping port. Once the product has been transported to the ports, it is loaded onto vessels for transport to the overseas recipient ports and is on its way to the recipients.

These pieces all form a dynamic puzzle put together with the input and cooperation of all stakeholders: the procurement offices, the program offices, the PVOs, and the recipients. Without constant feedback and communication, the system would fail to accomplish its vital mission— relieving malnutrition and hunger.

For more information contact:
Ms. Amy Harding, Marketing Specialist, Export Operations Branch, Procurement and Donations Division, Farm Service Agency, USDA, Stop 0551, 1400 Independence Avenue, SW. Washington, D.C. 20250-0551. Phone: (202)690-3818; E-mail: Amy_Harding@wdc.fsa.usda.gov

Web sites of Interest for More Information: U.S. Department of Agriculture (www.usda.gov) and U.S. Agency for International Development (www.info.usaid.gov).

What's New

FAM is pleased to welcome **Counterpart International** to our membership. Counterpart brings experience and success in developing nations to government agencies, non-governmental organizations, communities, and private enterprises. The organization considers food security a very important aspect in almost all of its programs, some of which have been developed specifically to improve access to food, enhance nutritional preparation of food, and support greater food production, especially from degraded lands. Today Counterpart works with partners and affiliate NGOs in more than 70 countries. Please visit their web site at http://www.counterpart.org.

The regulation for the new **OMB Circular A-133 Foreign Food Aid Donation Program Compliance Supplement** is now posted on the web. OMB Circular A-133 is applicable to audits of states, local governments, and non-profit organizations. The document can be read online from the FAM web site at http://www.foodaid.org in the USAID Documents section. To download the posted sections of the Compliance Supplement in WordPerfect or Word, visit the White House/Office of Management and Budget web site at http://www.whitehouse.gov/OMB/circulars/a133_compliance/99toc.html. The supplement is effective for audit periods commencing on or after June 30, 1998.

The **Food Aid Convention (FAC)** has been renegotiated in terms of its policies and objectives. The changes to the FAC, which has been in effect since the first of July, are based on recommendations adopted by the World Trade Organization (WTO), and the Declaration on World Food Security and the Plan of Action outlined by the Rome World Food Summit. A new agreement is now open for signature by the United Nations. Like its predecessor, the 1999 FAC is considered a treaty, and will be subject to U.S. Senate advice and consent for ratification.

The FAC is composed of representatives from Argentina, Australia, Canada, the European Union and its member states, Japan, Norway, Switzerland, and the United States. Its objective is "to contribute to world food security and to improve the ability of the international community to respond to emergency food situations and other food needs of developing countries," with emphasis that the aid is directed to the alleviation of poverty and hunger, of the most vulnerable groups. The basic structure of the 1999 FAC remains the same. A preamble has been added, which includes the FAC's basic mission statement calling for the securing of at least 10 million tons of food aid annually, new provisions on determining the wheat equivalence of other foods, limits on the use of concessional loans, and improved communication among members. Cereals will continue to represent the bulk of aid under the 1999 Convention. Priority is given to least-developed and low-income countries, many are on the WTO's list of Net Food-Importing Developing Countries (NFIDCs). Lower Middle-Income Countries and other NFIDCs also are potential recipients, when experiencing food emergencies, or when food aid operations are specifically targeted towards vulnerable groups. It will have an initial 3 year duration. The Convention can be read on the FAM website on the FSRC page. More information regarding specific changes to the FAC can be obtained from the following web sites: www.igc.org.uk/pr990331.htm; www.igc.org.uk/pr989903.htm; and www.un.org/depts/treaty/collection/notpubl/19-41c-eng.htm

Food Security Resource Center News

Monetization of food aid has been the focus of several ongoing discussions in the food aid community. This bibliography represents a sample of the resources on monetization that are available in the FSRC.

For more specific information or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact me at:

Jessica Graef

Technical Information Specialist
Food Security Resource Center
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
202-544-6972 (phone), 202-544-7065 (fax)
jgraef@foodaid.org

FSRC RESOURCES ON MONETIZATION

P.L. 480 Title II Cooperating Sponsor monetization manual. *Forthcoming. Ralyea, Bridget; FAM Monetization Working Group. [140]p.*
Cooperating Sponsor monetization manual that includes chapters on Food for Peace regulations and policies, starting up a monetization program, program agreements and Food for Peace guidelines, commodity selection and program budget, Bellmon Analysis, umbrella monetization, principles of commodity sales, open and competitive commodity sales (tender sales), open and competitive commodity sales (open outcry auctions), negotiated sales, sales agreements and purchaser payment, managing proceeds, calls forward, commodity shipment, commodity losses, reporting monetization sales and use of proceeds, third country monetization, and endowments.

Monetization field manual P.L. 480 Title II programs. *1998. Office of Food for Peace; USAID. 35p. #7579.*
Final version (October 1998) of updated 1998 Food for Peace Monetization Field Manual for Title II programs. Presents guidelines on measurement costs, monetization requests, mechanics of monetization, mission roles and responsibilities, review of monetization requests, call forward and price quote requests procedures, the sale, reporting requirements, management and accountability, umbrella monetization, coordination with other donor programs, third country monetization, and Title II activity close-out.

P.L. 480 Title II FY1990 - FY1998 budgets, approved monetization programs. *1998. USAID. 22p. #7501.*
Monetization budgets from FY90-FY97 for all countries where Title II was programmed. Provides statistics broken down by country, Cooperation Sponsor, commodity, tonnage, and dollar figures.

United States Department of Agriculture Farm Service Agency, Kansas City Commodity Office, Export Operations Division. *1998. Merrick, Austen; USDA; Farm Service Agency; Kansas City Commodity Office; Export Operations Division. 36p. #7369.*
Copies of slides from presentation delivered by Austen Merrick to the FAM Monetization Workshop, November 1998. Includes overview of the processes in commodity procurement (orders, announcements, invitations, bids, awards, freight invitations, freight bids, freight awards) and guidelines for commodity market interpretation (concepts, definitions, futures, pricing, etc.).

Monetisation: Linkages to food security? *1996. Cekan, Jindra; MacNeil, Amy; Loegering, Steve. 41p. #7364.*
Describes Title II monetization programs and their linkages to food security. Examines monetization process and rules.

Bellmon disincentive analysis. *May 1998. Kimberley Smith. May 1998. 25p.*
Training materials prepared for Bellmon Analysis workshop conducted by Kimberley Smith and hosted by TechnoServe. Includes overview of Bellmon Analysis and the legislation, information on where to obtain the necessary data, and tips on writing the analysis.

Draft guidelines for conducting monetization market analyses in West Africa. *1999. Aker, Jenny; Catholic Relief Services. 4p.*
Provides guidelines for conducting market analyses in West Africa. Includes information on issues to consider concerning agricultural sector, government policies, commodity markets, role of food aid, storage and handling capabilities, and feasibility of monetization.

Bellmon Analysis for Title II commodities planned for distribution in 1998. *August 1997. KUAWAB Business Consultants, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia; Submitted to SCF/USA. 132p. FSRC #7594.*
Bellmon Analysis conducted for CARE, CRS, Ethiopian Orthodox Church, FHI, Relief Society of Tigray, Save the Children/USA, and World Vision International Title II programs in Ethiopia.

Utilizing the charitable trust as a vehicle for food aid monetization in Ghana: Institutional Support Grant No. PDC-0801-A-00-1083-00, Final report. *July 1993. USAID. 84p. #6536.*
Presents a report of the activities associated with ISG-supported program to develop the institutional capacity required for the management of a local currency endowment created to support expanded program activities.

Chapter V: Monetization. *1996. Africare Food for Development Handbook. 1996. Africare. 6p. #5749.*
Covers the following topics: monetization proposal, host government approval, identification of the commodity, pricing, and terms and guarantees.

Shaping the future of monetization: An evaluation of the P.L. 480 Title II monetization program, Final report. *March 29, 1996. Mendez England and Associates; Office of Food for Peace; USAID; USAID Bureau for Humanitarian Response. 123p. #5146.*
Report of monetization evaluation conducted by Mendez England and Associates. Includes an overview of Title II monetization (history, current program context); critical issues (cost recovery, ancillary impacts, disincentive effects, coordination, programming proceeds); reports on monetizations in Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, and Peru.

Monetization comes of age: Review of U.S. Government, PVOs, and cooperatives' experience. *1990. Pines, James A.; USAID; Bureau for Food for Peace and Voluntary Assistance. [50]p. #3973.*
Study of experience with Title II and Section 416(b) monetization since the Monetization Field Manual was issued in August 1988. Presents background on monetization. Includes a survey of monetization projects -- compliance with statutory mandates, regional trends, commodity trends, the use of monetization proceeds, and Cooperating Sponsor participation. Discusses the following monetization issues: proposals, protection of proceeds, endowments, overhead, and avoiding dependence on monetization. Presents lessons learned.

Monetizing food aid: A guide for PVOs. *1993. Food Aid Management. 179p. #2530.*
In addition to providing background information on monetization, the guide covers all stages of the monetization process -- conceptualization, appraisal, planning, implementing, and management of proceeds. Includes case studies.

Monetisation or distribution in kind: A review of the issues. *1993. Maxwell, Simon; Templer, Guy. 45p. #856.*
Outlines the monetization versus distribution debate. Examines targeting, management of markets, and macro-level fiscal and monetary policy issues.

Step-by-step guide to monetization. *1992. CARE. 75p. #560.*
Designed as a guide to CARE field staff for the monetization process, from research and development phase through the conduct of the sale and management of the program.

Background paper and guide to addressing Bellmon Amendment concerns on potential food aid disincentives and storage. *1985. USAID. 26p. #422.*
Discusses potential disincentive effects of food aid and outlines guidelines for analyses for Bellmon Determination.

Monetization implementation manual: A how-to manual on implementing monetization projects in the field. *1993. Save the Children; Marine Overseas Services, Inc. [200]p. #405.*
Detailed monetization manual that covers the following topics: market analysis, managing monetization, common sale elements, sales by negotiation, sales by auction, tender sales, financial management, and records and reporting. Includes multilingual dictionary of terms, sample forms, lists of reference materials, applicable regulations.

Experience with auctions of food aid commodities in Africa, Volume II: Case studies and annotated bibliography, Final Report. *1990. Bremer-Fox, Jennifer; Bailey, Laura; Lang, Paola; Mervenne, Mary; USAID. 150p. #404.*
Volume II in the study, Reference Document #403. #404 contains the case studies and annotated bibliography.

Experience with auctions of food aid commodities in Africa, Volume I: Summary of field experience and guidelines for auction design, Final report. *1990. Bremer-Fox, Jennifer; Bailey, Laura; Lang, Paola; Mervenne, Mary; USAID. 77p. #403.*
"...A.I.D. increasingly is using U.S. food aid to support liberalization of grain markets. This interest has led the Agency to look for ways to channel the food aid itself through private sector outlets. One such mechanism is to sell the food aid to private traders through an oral auction or through sealed bids. Both these mechanisms are generally referred to as auctions..." 5 countries, guidelines and literature review included in report.

In addition to these documents, the FSRC houses several **Development Activity Proposals** that include monetization plans and Bellmon analyses.

New Book on Scaling Up and Scaling Down

A new publication, Scaling Up, Scaling Down: Overcoming Malnutrition in Developing Countries, is available for purchase. This book, edited by Dr. Thomas Marchione from USAID/BHR/PPE, contains essays championing the idea of scaling up (increasing) grass roots operations in an attempt to provide nutritional security, which is defined as the successful, sustainable achievement of nutritional status necessary to maintain a healthy and active life.

The notion of scaling up entails strengthening local capacities to improve and expand upon successful programs by building upon local culture and organizations. From this position, programs are able to better their relationships with national governments, international donors, and non-governmental organizations. Scaling down concerns the ways and means by which these organizations encourage and complement local development; as local capacities scale up, national and international control over decisions and functions ideally scale down. A chapter selection includes the title headings: Eliminating Hunger After the Cold War: Progress and Constraints; Nutritional Status: A Master Key to Child Survival; Scaling Up a Poverty Alleviation and Nutritional Program in Vietnam; Rapid Food and Livelihood Security Assessments: A Comprehensive Approach for Diagnosing Nutritional Insecurity: and others. This book can be ordered on the world wide web, at http://www.amazon.com (both hard and soft cover) and at http://www.gbhap.com (hard cover only).

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Tel: 202.544.6972
Fax: 202.544.7065
E-mail: fam@foodaid.org.

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Institutional Strengthening and Sustainable Livelihoods: What is the Connection?

by Timothy R. Frankenberger and Jeanne Downen, CARE USA

Introduction[1]

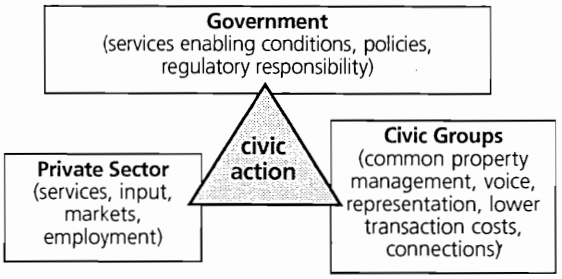
Sustainable development is an illusive concept that is difficult to define and even harder to put into operation. From our perspective, significant and lasting change that all development agencies seek to achieve is not obtainable unless their focus shifts from direct delivery of goods and services to beneficiaries to a focus on changing processes and structures. Three institutions that are essential for any sustained delivery of goods and services and risk management are the government, civic groups and the private sector. If any of these institutions are weak or non-existent, it is quite likely that any intervention, no matter which sector it is in, will not be sustained. These institutions have both proactive and reactive roles that create the enabling conditions to support peoples' livelihoods and food security. In addition to their separate roles, it is the dynamic interaction between these institutions that creates the space for civic action. This paper discusses what these roles and interrelationships are and why we need to take them into consideration in any institutional analysis and program design. Furthermore, this paper argues that a rights-based approach to development and institutional strengthening should be incorporated.

Strengthening Civil Society

In its simplest form, **civil society** is defined by CARE as the range of institutions and organizations that represent individual citizens and /or that provide people means through which to collectively connect themselves to government or the private sector (CARE Africa Taskforce on Civil Society 1999). **Civic action** is the dynamic and collaborative relationship among citizens, government and the private sector that contributes to the wellbeing of individual citizens (Beckwith 2000). It is important to recognize the value of productive and collaborative institutional relationships in pursuit of common interests, advocating for change, and improving the delivery of services to people who need them most.

CARE's civil society strengthening efforts include: 1) building organizational capacity and strengthening institutions; 2) supporting mechanisms for dialogue and advocacy between the three types of institutions; 3) increasing the effectiveness and synergy between these institutional actors for the benefit of individual citizens; and 4) promoting the inclusion of the poor, disenfranchised and marginalized citizens in benefits derived from civic action (CARE Africa Task Force on Civil Society 1999).

Civic groups can be made up of both formal and informal networks. These groups play a proactive and reactive role in support of household livelihood security. (See figure 1 and 2). Proactive roles include the management of common property resources (e.g., roads, forest reserves, water systems, pasture, etc.), representation of common needs for service acquisition, voice in policy deliberations, and connections for employment opportunities. In addition, through individual relationships, transaction costs can be lowered through access to better information. Maintaining strong social capital can be one of the most important intangible assets a household can have, and much is done to maintain these links.



Proactive Livelihood Promotion Through Institutional Strengthening

Strengthening community groups is a common objective for many NGO projects. In many cases most of the effort is geared towards supporting such groups to enhance their proactive capabilities. However, we often do not focus on the risk management side of community networks. It is this reactive aspect that needs more attention in capacity building initiatives.

continued on page 4

[1] *This article is a companion piece to the previous submitted series of articles on Social Capital to the Food Forum. Please see Food Forum issues 46 and 47, "Getting Connected: Reducing Livelihood Insecurity by Investing in Social Capital."*

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Farm Service Agency's (FSA) Food Aid Diagnostic Action Plan

The Farm Service Agency Commodity Operations Office at the United States Department of Agriculture handles the acquisition, procurement, storage, and distribution of commodities. It helps achieve domestic farm program price support objectives, produces a uniform regulatory system for the storage of agricultural products, and ensures the timely provision of food products procured for domestic and international food assistance programs and market development programs.

The FSA provides commodity procurement services to USAID's Office of Food for Peace for Titles II and III activities and to USDA's Foreign Agricultural Service (FAS) for Section 416 and Food For Progress activities. For many PVOs and other Cooperating Sponsors, export food aid program administration has become a highly complex, multi-layered labyrinth, and the administrative requirements involved have grown cumbersome. USAID, FSA, and FAS agency personnel are stretched relentlessly to meet the demands of program deliveries. In Fiscal Year 1999, FSA furnished record quantities of commodities, i.e., about 7.8 million metric tons worth nearly $1.5 billion.

The food aid community is concerned that demand will eventually outstrip the capacity to deliver food aid effectively, with maximum positive impact. As a result, FSA has spearheaded an effort to bring USAID, FAS, FSA, and the PVOs together to seek new ways to increase efficiency and productivity, reduce waste and duplication, and lower the potential for burnout for all parties concerned. FSA hired a contractor, Brandegee, Inc., to diagnose the environment and lead the development of an action plan for short-, mid-, and long-term improvements to address the multiplicity of needs and problems confronting the export food aid community. Short term was defined as 6 months or less, medium term as 6 - 12 months, and long term as more than 12 months. Following intensive research, surveys, and discussions with PVOs and other stakeholders, USAID, FAS, and FSA developed a collaborative action plan targeting five areas:

1. Transportation
2. Program Guidelines
3. Procurement Planning
4. Communication (includes electronic transactions)
5. Education and Training

A key element in the success of this effort is the standardization of requirements between the USAID and FAS programs. Although there are legislative, operational, and cultural differences between the USAID and FAS programs, all parties expressed interest in developing a hybrid system of documentation requirements. By USAID and FAS working together to incorporate the best features of each agency's paperwork requirements, PVO documentation requirements will ultimately be similar for all programs. Further automation of these processes would significantly improve operations across the board. Now that there is an action plan in place, we look forward to the continued commitment of our partner agencies and PVOs to making these changes a reality. We appreciate all of the assistance received to date from the PVO community. We will certainly be contacting many of you in the future for additional contributions.

This food aid diagnostic effort is running concurrently and collaboratively with the USAID Title II reengineering process and deals with the coordination between the agencies for USAID and FAS programs, both of which use FSA as the procurement arm for commodities. If you have any questions or comments regarding this initiative, please contact Ms. Cathie Johnson, Deputy Director, Procurement and Donations Division at (202) 720-4254, or by e-mail at cathie_johnson@wdc.fsa.usda.gov.

News from Washington

by Ellen Levinson, Food Aid Coalition

January 31, 2000

Starting with this issue of the Food Forum, I have been asked to write a column on news from Washington, DC that is pertinent to US food aid programs. As the Executive Director of the Coalition for Food Aid, since 1985 I have had the opportunity to work with PVOs on public policy matters affecting food aid, to represent their views before Congress and administrative agencies, and to build alliances with agricultural and other constituencies in the US that have an interest in food aid. I look forward to sharing information on US public policy topics and procedures with Food Forum readers.

FY 2001 Budget Process—Overview

In January 2000, the second session of the 106th Congress convened. On February 7, their work will begin in earnest. This is the date that the President presents his proposed "FY 2001 Budget of the United States Government"—referred to as the "Administration's Budget." It is a lengthy document developed by the White House Office of Management and Budget (OMB).

Each government agency presented its FY 2001 budget request and rationales to OMB in the Fall of 1999. Over the next few months there were negotiations between each agency and OMB to develop the final line items for each government program.

There are 10 major accounts or function areas in the budget. PL 480 Title I, which is the USDA concessional loan program, is under budget function 350, the agricultural account. PL 480 Titles II and III are under budget function 150, the foreign operations account.

The Administration's Budget is just a starting point – it will be up to Congress to decide what will actually be spent on each program. Starting in February, the House and Senate

Food Forum

Editors and Staff Contributors:
Mara Russell, Paige Harrigan, Trisha Schmirler, Jessica Graef, Carol Horst, and Harold Tarver

Food Forum is published quarterly by Food Aid Management (FAM), an association of 16 United States Private Voluntary Organizations and Cooperatives working together to make U.S. food aid more efficient and effective. With its members, FAM works towards improved food security outcomes by promoting information exchange and coordination, providing forums for discussion and collaboration, and developing food aid standards. The Food Forum provides food aid and food security professionals with a forum for the exchange of technical information, field experience, and recent events.

Funding for the Food Forum is provided by the Office of Food for Peace, Bureau for Humanitarian Response, U.S. Agency for International Development. The opinions expressed are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of USAID.

Appropriations Committees will hold hearings to review purpose and funding needs of various government programs.

By September, these Committees will have drafted the thirteen FY 2001 appropriations bills that specify funding levels for each government program. The goal is to pass the thirteen bills before the beginning of the new fiscal year, which starts on October 1. Often, this time frame is not met and short-term funding measures are passed by Congress to assure continued appropriations during the interim period.

PL 480 is funded as part of the Agricultural Appropriations Bill, which is drafted by the House and Senate Agricultural Appropriations Subcommittees. Each title of PL 480 has a separate line item in the budget. All of the PL 480 funds are provided to USDA, which then gives USAID the funds appropriated for Titles II and III.

FY 2000 Budget – What Actually Happened

Last February, for FY 2000, the Administration requested $787,000,000 for Title II – a $50,000,000 cut from the $837,000,000 appropriated by Congress for FY 1999.

During last year's congressional hearings on PL 480, Members of Congress asked USAID why the Administration recommended a cut in Title II. USAID responded that there were adequate carryover funds in the Title II account to make up for the $50,000,000 cut.

PVOs and others disagreed with the Administration and told Congress that the cuts are not warranted. The Coalition for Food Aid presented testimony to Congress, arguing that there is always carryover in Title II from year-to-year, since it is not possible to predict exactly how much will be needed for commodities and transportation costs. This carryover has been very helpful by providing much-needed contingency funds for emergencies.

Fortunately, Congress decided to be more generous than the Administration and appropriated $800,000,000 for Title II for FY 2000. For FY 2001, let us hope that the program will be restored to $837,000,000.

Emergency Supplemental Appropriations

To finance the war in Yugoslavia and the humanitarian crisis in the Balkans, last year the Administration asked Congress to approve "emergency supplemental appropriations" for FY 1999, which could be used in FY 1999 and 2000. The Administration did not seek any funds for food aid as part of this supplemental.

However, the Coalition for Food Aid and WFP joined forces and explained to congressional leaders why $149,000,000 in emergency appropriations was needed for Title II. Congress agreed and approved this amount. This additional money helped to cushion the FY 1999 and 2000 Title II budget during a time of great emergency demand.

Woman-Centered Approach Shows Promise

The International Center for Research on Women (ICRW) is pleased to share results from a set of 5 action research studies that aimed to improve micronutrient status through a "women centered" approach. The studies were conducted in Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Peru and Thailand by teams of program practitioners and researchers. The teams engaged women in a problem solving process that led to intervention trials that reduced women's resource constraints and strengthen their contributions to household nutrition.

Not surprisingly, all five intervention trials focused on improving production, processing and preparation of food. Significantly, the results from each of the five studies suggest that this woman-centered approach led to nutrition improvements in a relatively short period of time—*4 months* in the case of Peru.

Nutrition researchers and practitioners should be heartened by these results which suggest that, indeed, food-based approaches can yield timely results—if they begin with women.

A series of reports are now available through ICRW. These include Summary Reports of the Ethiopia, Kenya, Peru and Thailand studies, and an overarching synthesis paper. The Tanzania Summary Report and a paper that presents the conceptual underpinnings for this women's resource approach will be available in the near future.

All of the currently-available documents are accessible on our web site (http://www.icrw.org)—go to the "What's New" section. You can also receive copies by contacting Brij Mathur (bmathur@icrw.org) and copy me with the message (for donor reporting purposes). Be sure to indicate in your message which document you would like.

Charlotte Johnson-Welch, Public Health Specialist
International Center for Research on Women
1717 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Suite 302
Washington, DC 20036 USA
tel: 202-797-0007, ext 129 fax: 202-797-0020
email: charlotte@icrw.org

Andrews University Announces Winter 2001 MSA in International Development

Call for Applications

The Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA) and Andrews University program, the ADRA Professional Leadership Institute (APLI), is now taking applications for the Winter 2001 – Summer 2005 MSA Program in International Development. APLI, which was profiled in last quarter's Food Forum, began in 1995, and will graduate its first class of over 200 this summer. The interdisciplinary program draws on the strengths of all six schools of Andrews University. In addition, students attend sessions at extension sites in Kenya, Peru, Bolivia, Costa Rica, and Thailand. The program is designed for current employees of NGOs, however, anyone may apply. To be admitted, students must have a four-year bachelor's degree or its equivalent. To receive more information and an application, fax your request to (616) 471-6937 or e-mail your request to jhopkins@andrews.edu. Application forms may also be downloaded from www.andrews.edu/GRAD/IDP, or write to:

James Hopkins, Admissions Officer
Off-Campus MSA, International Development Program
Andrews University
Berrien Springs, MI 49104-0801
USA

Readers, please note!
The FSRC at FAM has the following readers compiled for APLI courses:
The Global Food System. LaBianca, Dr. Oystein S. Reader #19, International Community Development Series. Andrews University. 351p.
Food Security Implementation. Tobing, Sharon. Reader #20, International Community Development Series. Andrews University. 393p.

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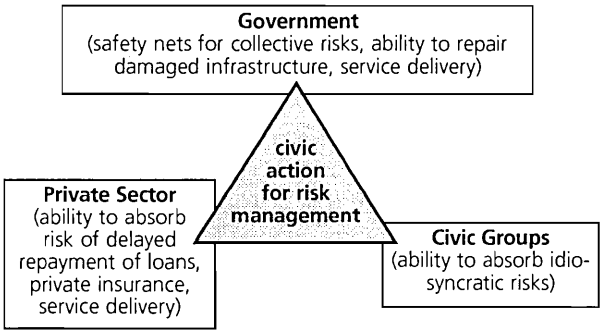


Reactive Livelihood Protection Through Institutional Strengthening

Reactive roles performed by civic groups have to do with absorbing the **idiosyncratic risks** faced by households that participate in the civic networks. For example, if some households do not produce adequate amounts of food from their fields in a given year due to weather induced risk, other households may support them through the shortfall period.

Similarly, if one of the household members of a particular household is ill or has died, other households may provide labor, food or money to support the troubled household through its time of difficulty. Social capital links between households are often effective in supporting households through times of idiosyncratic risk; that is when only a few households may suffer at a time. If all the households in a community are vulnerable, then community support groups can quickly become overwhelmed. It is at this time when many of the poorest in the community become socially isolated. Under these circumstances, it becomes important that other institutions external to the community come into play to deal with this **collective risk**.

Collective risk involves a risk event that affects the whole community at the same time such as a flood, drought, or a hurricane. When communities are exposed to collective risk, it is difficult to have an adaptive response without some outside assistance.

Idiosyncratic risks are the risk events that each individual household faces in meeting its food and other livelihood needs. Not all households in a community will face the same sorts of risks so it is possible to share resources for risk management.

Strengthening Local Government

In many countries where CARE works, partnerships are well established with local government institutions. Most of this collaboration involves strengthening planning and service delivery. One of the key findings from a recent evaluation of the program in Bolivia was that Municipal partners are very effective institutions to promote household livelihood security programming. This is because these institutions are holistic in their service delivery.

In terms of proactive roles, governments are often mandated to provide basic services, the enabling conditions that allow business transactions to occur, and a regulatory environment. Unfortunately, not all local governments have the staff, resources or will to deliver these services on a regular basis. Part of the support provided by many donors and implementing agencies is to strengthen local governments' capacity to deliver these proactive services at some minimum level. What is not included in capacity building activities is strengthening governments' capacity to deal with collective risk.

One of the most important functions of government is to mobilize resources to help communities deal with collective risk that overtakes the adaptive capacities of communities. Safety nets that can be put into place by government in a timely fashion can protect livelihoods that are vulnerable by preventing the sell off of productive assets. Similarly, a government's ability to repair damaged infrastructure quickly can reestablish market systems to allow for the flow of goods and services. It is this reactive role of government that is often overlooked in institutional strengthening efforts.

Strengthening the Private Sector

Most institutional strengthening programs carried out by NGOs often leave out the private sector as a viable partner that could require support. This is because it is assumed that the private sector consists of wealthy entrepreneurs that primarily exploit the people that are the main focus of the NGO's poverty alleviation program. One way to address this dilemma is to clearly differentiate a program strategy from the beneficiary target. If the objective is to create better access to markets and inputs for the poor, one way to do this is to strengthen the market linkages that extend to the target group under question. Again this involves understanding the proactive and reactive roles that the private sector plays in securing sustainable livelihoods for a given population.

From a proactive perspective, the private sector provides services, inputs, markets for the products produced by the poor and employment. If market incentives are poor, such market services will be underdeveloped. Considerable donor resources are allocated to improve market systems to create a conducive incentive structure. However, in high risk environments, merchants are subjected to considerable vulnerability with regards to the outlay of their operating capital. With little means to absorb such risk, many merchants pursue risk averse strategies that often exclude the poor in transactions. For example, in an agricultural project in Zimbabwe, CARE found that the marketing system was distorted because merchants were not willing to distribute inputs on credit to poorer households due to the perceived risk of such loans.

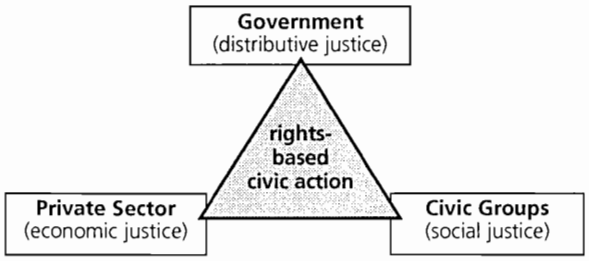
Thus a reactive role for the private sector also needs to be considered in any institutional strengthening efforts. The private sector needs to have the means to absorb collective risk in order to allow the poor to delay repayment of outstanding loans when disasters hit. It is this type of capacity building that is rarely included in any of the institutional strengthening programs.

Rights-Based Approaches and Institutional Strengthening

There is a strong link between a rights-based approach to development and institutional strengthening. A rights-based approach requires us to view the poor people we serve as rights-bearers. This involves a commitment on the part of the NGO to respect the people they work with and to help them in their efforts to realize their rights. NGOs that are rights-focused try to raise people's awareness of their rights and to build and support their capacities to participate in decision-making processes that affect their lives (Beckwith 2000).

First, a rights-based approach recognizes that governments are usually accountable for respecting, protecting, facilitating and fulfilling the rights of their citizens. At a minimum, govern-

ments are the foci of distributive justice (CRS 1999). It is often the governments' responsibility to insure that the poor have equal access to basic services that enable them to meet their basic needs. Through advocacy and institutional strengthening, governments can be held accountable for their distributive justice efforts. The private sector and civic groups also play a significant role in ensuring that distributive justice is promoted.



Linking a Rights-Based Framework with Institutional Strengthening

Second, a rights-based approach recognizes that much of the social injustice is manifested in the social and cultural fabric of local societies (CRS 1999). Some of these patterns are very difficult to change, especially if change threatens the existing power base and status quo. Institutional strengthening efforts aimed at civic groups (both formal and informal) need to engage in a social dialogue that addresses the inequalities that are being perpetuated among ethnic groups and gender relations to overcome the unequal treatment of marginalized individuals and groups. Again, these social injustices are also likely to be embedded in the private sector and government.

Third, a rights-based approach seeks to identify the economic injustices that are being perpetuated by market systems that are distorted. Economic justice requires transparency, fair trade, and mutual respect for trading partners (CRS 1999). Any institutional strengthening effort aimed at the private sector needs to incorporate these principles in capacity building activities. In addition, the government and civic groups are the key leveraging institutions to insure economic justice is in place.

Conclusion

In summary, civic groups, the government and the private sector are all critical to the sustainable development of any society. Viable civic action requires the participation of all three institutions. Therefore, in any institutional analysis, we must consider all three. The institutional analysis needs to take into account both the proactive and reactive role of these institutions to determine where the capacity building resources need to be concentrated. Strengthening the ability of each of these institutions to manage risk will lesson the vulnerability of the poor in the long term.

In addition, respect for peoples' rights enables the various institutions that insure sustainable service delivery and risk management to reach their fullest potential. Therefore, it is essential to take these rights considerations into account in any institutional strengthening efforts. This will insure that the minimum civil, political, economic social and cultural conditions are in place to allow for the poor to meet their livelihood security needs and to live in dignity.[2]

[2] *In a forthcoming Food Forum, Catholic Relief Services will submit an expanded piece on their justice framework.*

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Catholic Relief Services 1999. CRS' Justice Lens. CRS working paper. September.

CRS Rural Appraisal Manual Available to All Interested Parties

Have you ever wished there were tools to assess sectoral and cross-cutting issues at the village level? How does a community cope with political, economic, social and environmental changes, and when are their livelihoods compromised? This manual, Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): A Manual for CRS Field Workers and Partners, written by Karen Schoonmaker Freudenberger, presents lessons learned through the application of RRA/PRA methods in the context of CRS' development projects. These methods are both participatory and qualitative and can be valuable tools for people to gather and analyze information about the challenges and opportunities facing their families and communities.

The manual is divided into two volumes. The first volume presents the methodology for conducting a RRA or PRA. The second volume provides sector-specific tools in microfinance, agriculture/natural resource management, health, education and food security to be applied during an RRA or PRA. An RRA case study conducted by CRS and local partner staff in Kenya illustrates how these tools were applied in an actual field study.

CRS is pleased to share this manual with as many organizations and individuals as are interested. While we do have a generous supply, photocopying is encouraged for wide distribution. We are considering publication of French and Spanish translations as well, but first want to allow time for feedback. Your comments on this English version, and an estimate of demand for translations, are encouraged.

Kindly address requests to Dawn Sheckells with a check for $3 per copy (to cover shipping and handling) payable to Catholic Relief Services, 209 West Fayette Street, Baltimore, MD 21201-3443. She may also be reached by email (dsheckells@catholicrelief.org).

FAM web site updates

FAM continues to update its web site on a regular basis. The following documents have been recently posted on the FAM web site:

- PVO Monetization Manual
- Enhancing the Nutritional Quality of Relief Diets work shop proceedings
- FAM Environmental Working Group meeting minutes
- Selected new Food Forum articles
- Local Capacity Building workshop proceedings
- Training calendar

Check out these and other documents on the FAM web site (www.foodaid.org)!

FAM Members Respond in Mozambique

Cyclone Eline on top of unusually heavy rains has produced the worst floods in Mozambique and other Southern African countries in thirty years. Here are brief synopses of the programs some FAM member agencies are implementing in the wake of the disaster. The following list was produced by InterAction, a coalition of more than 160 US-based private relief, development and refugee assistance agencies. Additional information was gleaned from FAM member web sites or provided by member organizations where noted.

Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA)
The Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA) already delivered US$25,000 of food aid in the areas outside Maputo and Motola, reports Curtis Hesse, ADRA Mozambique director. The Euro-Africa Division funded the relief. ADRA is organizing additional assistance through its international network. ADRA Germany is organizing the production of emergency kits for thousands of families. ADRA Mozambique staff met with the governor of Maputo to discuss the distribution of the emergency kits and additional food. The emergency kits will include such items as tarpaulins, mosquito nets, blankets and cooking pots.

Africare
This information was provided by Africare.
Africare is planning initially to provide household items (soap, utensils, clothing, building tools) to flood-affected families in the southern districts of Manica Province in Mozambique. This will be followed by distribution of seeds and agricultural implements before the next planting season. An estimated 3,000 families have lost crops and property in the districts of Machaze, Mossurize and Sussendenga. Africare also is assessing needs in southeastern Zimbabwe and in northeastern South Africa.

American Red Cross International
In response to the Southern Africa floods , ARC released an initial USD 100,000 of ARC funds in support of the Red Cross Relief operation in the affected countries, particularly Mozambique. The funds are contributing to the assistance being provided by the Red Cross societies in the region, particularly Mozambican Red Cross, which has assisted 35,000 people and is aiming to serve approximately 100,000, and continues to provide food, shelter and clean in accessible are in an around Maputo Province. ARC is sending a needs assessment team to the region in the next few days and plans to further respond based on the findings and recommendations of the team.

CARE
Some information was taken from CARE's web site.
CARE in Mozambique did an assessment and started immediate response activities in Maputo, one of the worst affected provinces, with an allocation of $30,000. The allocation will be used for clearance and reinforcement of existing drainage systems and erosion ravine control. A CARE cash-for-work program is offering an immediate source of income for people who are being paid to clear thousands of tons of silt from aged, long-neglected storm drains to prevent storm gullies from further expanding and destroying the community's homes, schools and critical infrastructure.

Catholic Relief Services
CRS plans to assist all three countries and in the coming week will be carrying out assessments in Zimbabwe and Mozambique with the aid of the CRS Emergency Response Team and regional emergency expertise. They have already contacted partners in Zimbabwe and South Africa to assess needs and plan a response. And they are contacting dioceses in Mozambique, where they do not have an office, to identify partners. At this stage, a clear problem is the lack of capacity of their partners to deal with the scale of the emergency needs. Many are feeling overwhelmed by the destruction and need help planning and implementing an emergency response. They will offer their emergency expertise to help their partners think through their response, and provide technical assistance where appropriate.

Feed the Children (FTC)
This information taken from FTC's website.
Feed The Children is concentrating its efforts in ways to provide food, clothing and much needed emergency supplies to the area.

Food for the Hungry
Food for the Hungry (FH) is assisting flood victims in Sofala province of Mozambique. They are further exploring whether to provide aid to flooded areas near Maputo, where they operate child development program activities.

Mercy Corps International
This information taken from Mercy Corps' web site.
Mercy Corps is immediately responding to the Mozambique floods by helping partner agencies already on the ground. Mercy Corps' partners are now supplying food to flood victims in hard-hit Maputo province and addressing sanitation and hygiene needs in temporary camps and shelters. Mercy Corps can leverage the impact of every donated dollar by working through established distribution networks, supply lines and local leadership.

Save the Children (STC)
Save the Children Federation / USA is providing support in 4 districts of Gaza Province: Chibuto, Manjacaze, Xai Xai and Bilene with activities in health, education and agriculture. STC is refining a plan to provide health support to six relocation centers in Gaza Province, with a focus on cholera prevention and diarrheal management. STC will also provide seed baskets to some 3,000 of the hardest-hit families in Gaza. Assistance will be provided to UNICEF to re-supply and clean up schools. STC is providing potable water and survival kits in relocation centers throughout Gaza province. STC will continue to assist the Government with needs assessments, coordination and the development of emergency plans.

World Vision
Some information taken from World Vision's web site.
World Vision is planning to distribute food, survival kits, and tools once the water level decreases. They plan to assist 1,117 families (approximately 5,700 people) with 23 MT of food a week, and then, as soon as possible, 1,500 families with survival and recovery kits. In the meantime, World Vision is partnering with Oxfam in rescue operations, making available $50,000 that will allow for the renting of a helicopter with a capacity to rescue 500 people per day, at the rate of 50 people per trip. Also, a small aircraft is being rented to help transport survival kits containing "capulanas" (women's wrap-around), axes and cooking pots, and blankets.

Potential Uses For Food Aid To Support HIV/AIDS Mitigation In Sub-Saharan Africa

At a recent meeting for USAID staff, the Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) and subcontractor Cornell University presented potential policy and program options for the use of food aid and other food security interventions in mitigating the impacts of HIV/AIDS. The policy recommendations are based on interviews with food security and HIV/AIDS stakeholders in the United States, Kenya and Uganda and a review of the literature on the impacts of HIV/AIDS and coping strategies used by households and communities. This discussion was the first in a series of meetings that will take place within USAID and with cooperating agencies. The Bureau of Humanitarian Response (BHR)/Office of Food for Peace (FFP) recognizes the challenge the HIV/AIDS pandemic in Africa presents to the achievement of their program objective and will be developing guidelines for the effective use of Title II resources for mitigating the pandemic's impacts.

There are more than 23 million men and women ages 15-49 living with HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa. This pandemic undermines the food and livelihood security of many households and communities in the region. In responding to the impacts of the pandemic, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) is developing a multi-sectoral strategy that builds on the strengths of its current HIV/AIDS prevention, care and support programs. Food aid resources will be targeted as part of this strategy and PVO input will be included.

There are no well-tested approaches for using food aid to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS on individuals and communities. However, experience from food security programs using food and other resources provides guidance to develop strategies. Experiences from complex emergencies or natural disasters, such as prolonged drought, also provide insights for more effective and efficient use of food aid to reach vulnerable populations.

Some dietary guidelines have been developed for people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) by international agencies and a number of indigenous NGOs. There is a growing body of documented and assessed experiences in providing home-based care. These experiences include basic medical, support and sanitary factors as well as dietary needs. This information could be used to help determine the levels of food aid needed for PLWHA and their households.

There is less experience in using food aid to support HIV/AIDS mitigation activities. In both Uganda and Kenya, food and feeding programs have been used to attract clients for care, counseling, training, or income-generating activities (IGA). In Kampala, Uganda, for example, a pilot project supported by the World Food Program (WFP) used food as an incentive for street children (many orphaned by AIDS) to participate in vocational training programs. In other instances, food programs offered general relief to HIV- positive individuals and their families and helped safeguard existing assets which otherwise would be used to acquire food. In Kenya, several AIDS service organizations use donated food to run feeding programs for HIV-positive individuals and families affected by HIV/AIDS.

USAID Title II food resources could be used to help mitigate the impacts of HIV/AIDS by:

1. Providing direct humanitarian assistance to destitute and vulnerable groups such as PLWHA, orphans, and family members managing after an AIDS death in the household;
2. Integrating food resources with other development activities to help prevent divestiture of productive resources or decreases in food consumption levels in households before and after the death of a household member to AIDS; and
3. Providing incentives in programs promoting sustainable livelihood skills for vulnerable groups.

General relief/humanitarian assistance may be needed specifically for groups such as PLWHA in institutions, orphans in institutions, and as a social safety net program for street children. Also, other groups such as households with elderly grandparents taking care of orphans may need a social safety net. Other food security interventions that promote sustainable development, such as intensifying agricultural production, should be implemented with households that have productive members who will contribute to the household livelihood security. For example, in the case of home-based care for orphans, food aid may be utilized in the short-term to assist the household with the additional food consumption needs, but participation in other interventions such as programs that offer vocational skills should be encouraged for longer-term development.

It is important to note that persons who are identified as HIV-positive are productive members of society until they become ill. Every effort will need to be made to provide access for their participation in productive activities in order to sustain their livelihood. Policymakers and program planners will need to examine the social environment and introduce interventions that will reduce stigma and isolation of HIV-positive individuals. To reduce the risk of stigmatization, general targeting does not need to be limited to households affected by HIV/AIDS.

The table describes some potential interventions where food aid could play a supportive role. The level of community awareness of the implications and impact of HIV/AIDS and willingness to respond will influence the effectiveness of directly supporting HIV/AIDS affected households. To more effectively reach individuals, households and communities in need of food assistance, a set of criteria must be developed for groups affected by HIV/AIDS.

Because of the unique nature of HIV/AIDS' affect on a person and their household, the type of food security interventions will vary based on the changing needs of each group over time. The table on the following page suggests interventions for three broadly defined timeframes. The table shows the likelihood that suggested interventions will extend beyond and overlap with the initial time period because objectives (such as food to attract clients for skills training) may not be achieved within the timeframes or because specific food needs would still exist.

LIFE Initiative

Developed by the White House Office of National AIDS Policy, the LIFE Initiative (Leadership and Investment in Fighting an Epidemic) provides additional funding to USAID and the Department to Health and Human Services to assist 12 African countries and India in FY 2000 in their efforts to fight the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The initiative will focus on four program elements: (1) primary prevention, including mother to child transmission and voluntary counseling and testing, (2) improving home and community-based care and treatment, (3) caring for children affected by AIDS, and (4) capacity and infrastructure development including the strengthening of surveillance systems. USAID has received an additional $55 million. The countries selected to receive additional support include Ethiopia, India , Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. These countries were selected based on the severity of the epidemic and the commitment of their governments to stop the spread of the disease. The Office of Food for Peace is targeting $10 million of Title II food resources for children affected by AIDS.

Editor's Note: It is our understanding that the targeted $10 million of Title II food resources for children affected by aids does not represent an additional allocation of funds. This represents a reprioritization within the Office of Food for Peace.

The Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) is a regular contributor to Food Forum.

Potential Food Security Interventions

Status of Individual and/or Households (HH)	Options for interventions: Short-term (< 6 months)	Medium-term (6-24 months)	Long-term (>24 months)
HH with PLWHA:			
PLWHA:	Food to meet special dietary needs →		Institutional distribution: hospitals and hospices
Other HH members	Food to maintain consumption; IGA →		
Other HH members HH with productive members after AIDS death in HH	Food for safety net	Community-planned food assistance combined with locally available foods	
	Take home rations through MCHN Programs (HH with young children); School feeding; IGA →		
HH headed by widows, children, elderly	Food for saftey net →		
		Foods to attract clients for vocational and agricultural skills training	
	School feeding →		
Orphans with home-based car (relatives/guardians)	IGA; skills training; school feeding →		
Orphans in institutions	Food aid to assist with cost of care →		
Street children (orphans)	Food to attract clients for skills training; comminity-based feeding programs →		
Other HH in community (preventions strategy)	Food aid to attract clients for education and testing, and to increase understanding and awareness →		

The draft paper is available from: fanta@aed.org.

SNAPSHOTS From the field

World Vision, Somalia. Habibo Warsame Hassan and eight of her children fled from their home village after the militiamen attacked their place. In 1996, when World Vision started the agricultural program in Dujumo, Habibo received tools and different types of seeds. Habibo and her children now cultivate 3 hectares, and every year they harvest two times.

Your photo here!
Email or send
your field pictures to FAM:
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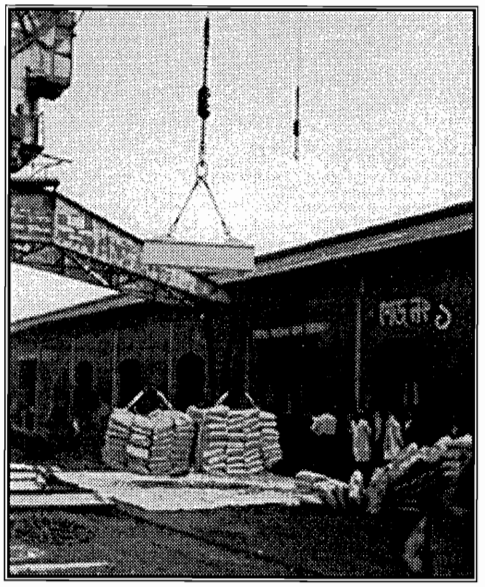
Your submission should have a food aid/food security relevance. Please include a caption with your photo.



Spreader bar unloading pre-slung CSB, Waterman LASH Barge in Calcutta, India
CSLRP Proceedings

FSRC Resources on Sustainable Agriculture

This bibliography contains only a sample of the sustainable agriculture resources that are available at Food Aid Management's (FAM's) Food Security Resource Center (FSRC). Sustainable agriculture is an enormous topic, and a search in the FSRC database yields results ranging from agricultural inputs and farming methods to larger policy implications.

For more information, or to request copies of the materials listed, please contact FAM at
300 I Street, NE Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
(Phone) 202-544-6972, (Fax) 202-544-7065,
(email) fam@foodaid.org

Agriculture and the environment: Issues and policies. 1998. OECD. 37p. FSRC #6769. Analyzes ways in which governments might promote market solutions and design and implement policies to achieve environmentally, economically, and socially sustainable agriculture at minimal resource cost to the economy and with the least trade distortion.

Alleviating poverty, intensifying agriculture, and effectively managing natural resources. 1994. Pinstrup-Andersen, Per; Pandya-Lorch, Rajul; International Food Policy Research Institute. 21p. FSRC #1104. Discussion paper that is part of IFPRI's 2020 Vision initiative that seeks to develop an international consensus on how to meet future world food needs. Shows that poverty and environmental degradation are linked with inadequate agricultural intensification.

A Guide to USDA and Other Federal Resources for Sustainable Agriculture and Forestry Enterprises. May 1998. Vasatova, Romana A; Greenberg, Laurie S.Z.; USDA and the Michael Fields Agricultural Institute. 160p. FSRC #7017. A Guide of US federal programs available to support innovative enterprises in agriculture and forestry in the United States. Specifically the guide addresses program resources in diversified agriculture and forestry, sustainable land management, and community development.

The agricultural link: How environmental deterioration could disrupt economic progress. August 1997. Brown, Lester R. Worldwatch Paper 136. Worldwatch Institute. 73p. Examines agriculture, energy, and population policy options that can help secure future food supplies.

Land degradation in the developing world: Implications for food, agriculture, and the environment to 2020. 1996. Scherr, Sara J.; Yadav, Satya; IFPRI. 36p. FSRC #5225.Report on workshop on agricultural land degradation issues. Presents policy recommendations.

Agriculture, technological change and the environment in Latin America: A 2020 perspective. 1995. Trigo, Eduardo J.; International Food Policy Research Institute. 19p. FSRC #5220. Explores the role of technology in addressing rural poverty and environmental degradation. Argues that improved technology can help to bring about the agricultural intensification needed to alleviate poverty and reduce environmental deterioration. Stresses the need for new institutional models to develop and disseminate technologies.

Shrinking fields: Cropland loss in a world of eight billion. July 1996. Gardner, Gary. Worldwatch Paper 131. Worldwatch Institute. 56p. Discusses cropland loss and the policies necessary to reduce degradation, thereby improving food security.

Agroecology: Creating the synergism for a sustainable agriculture. 1995. UNDP. 87p. FSRC #5641. Examines the role of agroecology and economics of sustainable farming in sustainable agriculture and rural development programs.

Population agriculture and environment nexus in Sub-Saharan Africa. 1993. Cleaver, Kevin; Schreiber, Gotz. Agriculture and Rural Development Series No. 9. World Bank. 229p. FSRC #6157. Evaluates the linkages between rapid population growth, poor agricultural performance, and increased environmental degradation. Makes recommendations for strategies for agricultural intensification, reduced family size, land tenure reform, conservation, and other programs to address gender issues.

Promoting food security in Rwanda through sustainable agricultural productivity: Meeting the challenges of population pressure, land degradation and poverty. 1995. Michigan State University, Department of Agricultural Economics; Clay, D.; Byiringiro, F.; Kangasniemi, J.; Reardon, T. 116p. FSRC #5377. Examines factors contributing to agricultural productivity decline in Rwanda. Discusses impact of erosion, organic input use, soil conservation, fertilizer and lime, and land use strategies on productivity. Presents policy implications.

A hidden threat to food production: Air pollution and agriculture in the developing world. 1997. Marshall, Fiona; Ashmore, Mike; Hinchcliffe, Fiona; International Institute for Environment and Development. 24p. FSRC #6783. Evaluates the importance of air pollution as a constraint to agricultural productivity in developing countries. Discusses the food production and food security policy implications.

Indigenous natural-resource management systems for sustainable agricultural development: A global perspective. Rajasekaran, B.; Warren, D.M.; Babu, S.C. 24p. FSRC #4029. Identifies consequences of the disappearance of indigenous knowledge systems concerning natural resource management and develops model that takes these indigenous practices into account.

Population pressure, the environment and agricultural intensification: Variations on the Boserup hypothesis. 1989. Lele, Uma; Stone, Steven W.; Managing Agricultural Development in Africa. 79p. FSRC #6146. Examines the relationships between population densities, agricultural production, land, labor, and rural incomes. Argues that the faster the improvement of factor productivity, the smaller the amount of land and population needed in agricultural employment, and the greater the amount of area that can be left fallow or reforested.

Environment-population technology growth nexus: Micro-level African perspective. 1990. Tshibka, Tshikala; International Food Policy Research Institute. 18p. FSRC #6651. Calls for the use of mineral and organic fertilizers, high yielding seed varieties, as well as the development of anti-erosion and other structures and increased education to enhance farmland conservation and reduce pressure on marginal lands.

Natural process. 1994. Rosetti, Julia. Ceres (September-October 1994). 4p. FSRC #4124. Provides an overview of composting for fertilizer in tropical regions.

New crop varieties in a green revolution for Africa: Implication for sustainability and equity. 1991. Cleveland, David A. Political economy of African famine. Downs, R.E.; Kerner, Donna O.; Reyna, Stephen P. (eds.) 13p. FSRC #2045. Chapter that analyzes proposals to adapt the green revolution to Africa's environmental and socioeconomic conditions. Contends that the green revolution approach is not ecologically sustainable or socially equitable.

Integrating environmental issues into a strategy for sustainable agricultural development: Case of Mozambique. 1991. Djenes, Alemneh; Olivare, Jose; World Bank. World Bank Technical Paper No. 146. 32p. FSRC #6338. Analyzes the agricultural and rural development, social, and economic factors affecting the environment in Mozambique.

Livestock, nutrient cycling and sustainable agriculture in the West African Sahel. 1993. Powell, J.M.; Williams, T.O.; International Institute for Environment and Development. 15p. FSRC #3995. Examines nutrient cycling by livestock in West African Sahel and its role in sustaining agricultural productivity. Assesses relationship between ruminant livestock and soil productivity.

Integrated management of agricultural watersheds: Land tenure and indigenous knowledge of soil and crop management. 1991. Taylor-Powell, Ellen. 30p. FSRC #4508. Reports on findings of an on-farm survey on land tenure and land management. Assesses land tenure and documents indigenous knowledge of soil and crop management, farmer perceptions of agricultural problems and solutions.

Dryland farming in Africa. 1993. Rowland, J.R. 336p. FSRC #4127. Addresses the following issues: agricultural development in dryland Africa, dryland farming environment, drought and crop adaptation, dryland farming principles, traditional farming systems, crop production, soil and water conservation, and weed and pest control.

FSRC Fee Structure

All users will be charged on a per request basis. Users will be invoiced for the following:

- $.15 per photocopy
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Any materials specifically purchased for requestors will be billed at cost.

CALL FORWARD

The Food Forum Editorial Column

Some Positive Thoughts

By Mara Russell, FAM Coordinator

People often submit editorials as a way of attacking something they are not pleased with. Sometimes they launch into criticism, so as to attack an entrenched position by exposing hypocrisy or stabbing at an Achilles heel.

Unfortunately, for those of you who enjoy a good fight, I shall not launch a vitriolic diatribe.

This does not mean that within the food aid arena, there are not major problems to contend with at the moment: the future of monetization, the reduction of dollar funds to support food security programs, the need to ensure that staff are both qualified and committed, the need to demonstrate short-term results in a constant tension with producing long-term impact, and finally, successfully building capacity in the countries where we work that can make the business of development a matter of local responsibility, not an endeavor primed and propped up from the outside, even in the face of disasters and emergencies of catastrophic proportions.

However, I am optimistic.

This does not mean that I am Candide living in the best of all possible worlds. The world is not necessarily a pretty place at the moment. The number of malnourished children in the world remains appallingly high. There are now more than a billion people living in poverty in the world (State of the World's Children, 2000). Natural disasters are still devastating. Finally, wars and armed conflicts will continue to pose the greatest problems and challenges—as ironically, they are often exacerbated by our responses.

So, why am I optimistic?

Mostly, I am impressed with the many improvements I see as I reenter the business of food aid and food security programming after six years, particularly in my work with FAM.

Of course, the biggest changes have been in the way in which food is now programmed. A much greater proportion of Title II food programmed by PVOs is monitized. No longer is food aid limited to distributing food rations and counting bags, although building and maintaining capacity in the arena of food distribution is still a critical issue for a number of FAM members. Yet, addressing food security requires a much broader analysis and a greater range of interventions than it did in the past. It is interesting to see many organizations running food aid programs that do not fit any of the parameters that feeding programs did in the past. Food is now truly seen as a flexible development resource: not just in terms of the funds generated through monetization, but also the positive impact food can have on markets, as well as how food *as food* can be used most effectively to improve food security.

Another major change, as I see it, is the in degree of collaboration and the type of working relationships now possible among the FAM members. I find this particularly impressive. This type of collaboration simply did not exist in the past, and has meant that all members can benefit from working together to develop the solutions to common problems. In the past, each of the PVOs had to work individually. Of course, PVOs still do work independently, but there are now more opportunities for them to share their ideas, results and methods with each other. There are still many disagreements, but now there is a place in which to have them.

Of course there are the changes in FAM itself. From humble beginnings as a five- member consortium, FAM has grown to 16 members who address food security through a wide spectrum of programs. FAM's Food Security Resource Library now contains over 7500 items, and is available for use by members and non-members alike. The Food Forum you are reading has a worldwide circulation of 700, and is growing monthly. In the new quarterly format, there is more space for articles --including this column, "News From Washington" by Ellen Levinson, and more articles and pictures from the field...

(This is a plug: We really want you in the field to send us articles and pictures. Send us things that you think are important to share with others: findings, lessons learned, success stories, and new ideas. Of course, your letters and submissions to this column are also highly welcome!)

This is also the first issue of Food Forum that members are helping to edit. Many thanks to Harold Tarver of Africare and Carol Horst of World Vision who have volunteered to help edit Food Forum this year. I'd also like to thank Jessica Graef, former FAM Technical Information Specialist, who has included a column on "What's New on the FAM website", and Trisha Schmirler, FAM's Administrative Assistant who has been actively involved in improving the format and editing. And, of course, Paige Harrigan (who has sadly left us) contributed her commitment, creativity and vision, without which Food Forum would simply not exist.

In addition, there is the FAM website. Launched 3 years ago, the website now provides an impressive number of features including: links to numerous other sites including USAID, USDA, IFPRI, FAM Members, FEWS, etc.; a training calendar; proceedings of recent meetings and workshops; selected Food Forum articles; FAM generated papers and manuals; and instructions to join your choice of four Listservs (monetization, monitoring and evaluation, local capacity building, and environmental). These Listservs (or electronic mail distribution lists) provide the opportunity for you to share information with and ask questions of a very large segment of the PVO food aid industry simply by using email. We invite everyone who can to subscribe and make use of this powerful tool for consultation among food aid professionals.

Last, but certainly not least, there are now four active FAM working groups: monetization, monitoring and evaluation, local capacity building, and environmental. The issues being addressed and the tools being generated are all important for enabling food aid programs to adequately meet food security objectives. These working groups are now beginning to work more autonomously, with members chairing groups and sharing more of the work between working group members. There have been very useful outputs generated: for instance our new Cooperating Sponsor Monetization Manual. There are still a few copies left, if any of you are interested. It is also on our website.

With the resources now at our disposal to communicate with one another and collaborate, I believe we really have got the tools, or potential tools, to address many of the problems PVOs must face when using Title II food aid to achieve food security objectives.

Still, there are challenges ahead. The collaborative process is slow. People disagree, and even work at counter purposes. Organizations have different sets of agenda and articulate different priorities. Collaboration can create new opportunities, but can also bring about new risks. FAM's mandate is to continuously nurturing the collaborative process, while also taking the lead on developing new strategies, resources and tools that will better address the concerns of members.

Mostly, I look forward to working with all of the members to come up with collaborative solutions. FAM invites your comments, criticisms, suggestions, and ideas. The FAM information resources and working groups are your tools to make FAM work better for you. I encourage everyone to make best use of these, and let us know what you think.

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Tel: 202.544.6972
Fax: 202.544.7065
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Adra's Agroforestry Development Program in Ghana Gives Peasant Farmers New Chances

By Vincent Djarbeng and David S. Ameyaw

Land Degradation in Ghana

Land degradation is a major concern of communities in the Savanna and Transitional zones of Ghana. It is generally acknowledged that the causes of land degradation are mainly human. In fact, land degradation is the cause and the effect of poverty in most rural communities. To combat land degradation effectively, we need to identify and understand its causes, which hinge on socioeconomic and cultural practices within communities.

Ghana has a total land area of 238,539 sq. kilometers. The area of closed forest is declining by an estimated 0.4percentage and the savanna woodland is shrinking by 0.5percentage per year. Approximately 280,000 acres of tree cover are lost every year through improper farming practices. (Forestry Department, 1998.)

Examples of improper farming practices which cause land degradation are shifting cultivation, short fallow period, bush burning, and indiscriminate felling of trees for use as fire wood, charcoal, rafters, poles etc. Other causes are over-grazing, uncontrolled logging and mining. The consequences are decreasing vegetative cover, loss of soil organic matter, accelerated soil erosion, poor soil fertility and siltation of water bodies. These effects result in low agricultural yields and increasing poverty in most rural communities of Ghana. To reverse the current trend in environmental degradation, ADRA has recommended that farmers adopt agroforestry practices as better and more sustainable alternatives to current methods of farming. Through interactive participation methods, ADRA GHANA has developed various agroforestry designs suitable for the different ecological zones found in Ghana. ADRA has educated and guided farmers to understand and to choose designs that best address their unique environmental problems.

continued on page 3

"Red Cross' Humanitarian Mission to Assist the Most Vulnerable"-- Safety Nets Programs and The American Red Cross

By Jindra Cekan PhD, Food Security Manager

Introduction

The concept of a safety net implies assistance to prevent people from falling below a certain standard of living. The necessity for safety net assistance can be a direct result of circumstances brought on by natural disasters, war, discrimination, and economic recession, or due to inherent social characteristics such as being elderly, ill (including HIV/AIDs), homeless, orphaned, or disabled. Populations specifically targeted by food safety nets are unable to access sufficient food to feed themselves and their families. The needs of safety net populations include not only food but also shelter, healthcare, rehabilitation, training, and new employment.

Most governments, PVOs, institutions, and individuals participate in such assistance. Many government programs include pension plans, national health schemes such as Medicare/Medicaid in the US, and national immunization days. Some PVOs assist with general food distributions for the most vulnerable segments of society, create public works schemes to build or improve infrastructure while providing a day's wage, or use subsidized food sales or animal purchases preceding famines. Large institutions such as the UN's WHO and UNICEF focus on health needs of specific groups such as malnourished children, those who are unvaccinated, and pregnant or lactating women. Finally, institutions and private individuals donate funds, goods, services, and time.

The American Red Cross (AmCross), through the International Federation of the Red Cross and through its Movement partners, has long assisted vulnerable populations -- both internally displaced persons (IDPs) and those with persisting and chronic needs -- by providing food aid interventions. These interventions started with direct food distribution programs using

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Washington News

by Ellen S. Levinson, Food Aid Coalition
May 23, 2000

To avoid a last minute budget crisis during an election year, the U.S. Congress is trying to enact FY 2001 government funding legislation by October 1, 2000, the first day of the fiscal year. One of the first funding bills to be considered is the Agriculture Appropriations Bill, which includes money for the P.L. 480 program. In the Senate version $837,000,000 would be made available for the title II program in FY 2001, which is the same amount that was requested by the President in his FY 2001 Budget Request. In the House bill, only $800,000,000 would be provided, mainly because the House allocated less money overall for the Agriculture Appropriations Bill than the Senate.

It is expected that by June, both the House and Senate will have passed their versions of the agriculture appropriations bills. Then, a House-Senate conference committee will be convened to review the differences between the two versions of the bill and to draft a final version, which is called the "Conference Report." The members of the Coalition for Food Aid will encourage the conferees to provide $837,000,000 for the title II program in the Conference Report.

A provision on HIV/AIDS prepared by Senator Richard Durbin of Illinois was also included in the Senate bill. Of the Section 416 commodities made available to foreign countries in a fiscal year, to the extent practicable at least $25,000,000 in commodities shall be used to assist in mitigating the effects of HIV/AIDS, including helping individuals suffering from the disease and households in the communities where HIV/AIDS is prevalent. Agricultural commodities could be monetized and local proceeds used to create or to restore sustainable livelihoods among individuals in HIV/AIDS-affected communities, with an emphasis on individuals caring for orphaned children. This amendment is an outcome of Senator Durbin's trip to Africa, where he saw that U.S. assistance could make a critical difference in helping extended families care for AIDS patients and their children.

When the House and Senate appropriations committees drafted the agriculture appropriations bills, they issued Committee Reports explaining their views on various programs. Below is a summary of the comments made about food aid in the FY 2001 reports.

House FY 2001 Agriculture Appropriations Report

The Report states that "the Committee remains strongly supportive of the monetization of commodities where the proceeds of such monetization are used to respond to the needs of the people of the recipient nation." This statement applies to food aid in general, e.g., Section 416(b), Food for Progress and P.L. 480.

Senate FY 2001 Agriculture Appropriations Report

The report states: "The Committee expects USAID administration of Public Law 480 title II to encourage private voluntary organizations (PVO's), cooperatives and the World Food Program (WFP) to generate a sufficient volume of proposals to allocate roughly three-fourths of the total title II tonnage funded for FY 2001 for the PVO's, cooperatives and the WFP for development food security programs. The Committee recognizes the authority of USAID to waive this minimum when the volume of commodities can not be used effectively and for certain emergencies, but believes this waiver should be used rarely, and only when emergency needs can be weighed against country proposals for fully funded longer-term development programs. The Committee supports the use of the title II funds in FY 2001 to continue the FY 2000 level of funding for the orphan feeding program in Haiti."

The report also states that "the containers used for the distribution of vegetable oil under the P.L. 480 food aid program may not be practical for the end users and may not be suitably durable for transportation under all conditions. The Committee encourages the Secretary [of Agriculture] to evaluate the feasibility, the cost and benefits of using alternative vegetable containers and alternative procurement procedures, and test on a pilot project basis the durability and end use flexibility of alternative containers."

More FAM Monetization Manuals Available!

In response to continued demand, FAM recently ordered thirty new Monetization Manuals from the printer. Due to the limited printing, FAM's costs increased and the cost of the manuals will now increase to recoup some of our expenditures. The new manuals are offered at $37/each plus shipping. Twenty-six are still available, so order your copies soon! To order, contact Trisha Schmirler at FAM: (202) 544-6972 or tschmirler@foodaid.org.

FOODForum

Editors and Staff Contributors:
Mara Russell, Trisha Schmirler, Carol Horst, and Harold Tarver

Food Forum is published quarterly by Food Aid Management (FAM), an association of 17 United States Private Voluntary Organizations and Cooperatives working together to make U.S. food aid more efficient and effective. With its members, FAM works towards improved food security outcomes by promoting information exchange and coordination, providing forums for discussion and collaboration, and developing food aid standards. The Food Forum provides food aid and food security professionals with a forum for the exchange of technical information, field experience, and recent events.

Funding for the Food Forum is provided by the Office of Food for Peace, Bureau for Humanitarian Response, U.S. Agency for International Development. The opinions expressed are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of USAID.

Adra, continued from page 1

Importance of Agroforestry

Agroforestry: a collective name for various land use systems and technologies in which woody perennials (trees, shrubs, palms, bamboo, etc.) are deliberately combined on the same land management unit with herbaceous crops and/or animals, either in some form of spatial arrangement or temporal sequence.

In agroforestry systems, there are both ecological and economic interactions among the different components (Raintree, 1987). A good agroforestry project design should therefore ensure increases in productivity, sustainability and adoption of practices. In the case of this project, the various components of agroforestry practices produce increases in food. The trees and shrubs yield fruits (mangoes, cashew, pawpaw or papaya, sour and sweet sop), leaves for uses such as vegetables and fodder for livestock. These are dependable sources for the supply of fuel wood for domestic energy requirements. In the central region, wood lots established with cassia siamea have become the main source of charcoal production. In the Tolon-Kunbungu district, project farmers now harvest poles to stake yams, rafters and timber for construction as well as sell to generate income. The adoption of agroforestry has contributed to improvement of soil moisture and fertility, increased protection from erosion, reduced loss of nutrients and the restoration of degraded soils. This is a result of leaf litter decomposition and soil nitrogen fixation from leguminous trees. Crop yields have increased from a baseline figure of 400 kilograms per acre to 1,233kg in 1999 with minimal application of chemical fertilizers (50 kg) per acre. In general, project clients attest to the fact that agroforestry has contributed to improved standard of living and quality of life in most projects communities.

Program History

ADRA GHANA's agroforestry project was originally launched in 1989 as the Collaborative Community Forestry Initiative (CCFI) program. CCFI is community owned and managed tree seedling nurseries funded by USAID and implemented by ADRA. The main objective of CCFI is to make tree seedlings available to individuals and communal tree planters to combat desertification in the Northern, Upper Eastern and Western regions of Ghana. Over the last ten years, the 20 CCFI nurseries have together produced more than **four million assorted tree seedlings**. Fruit tree seedlings under production are mangoes, cashew, orange, guava, sweet sop and sour sop. Woody tree species under production include cassia, Leucaena leucocephala, teak, neem, Eucalyptus spp., and Albizia lebbeck (women's tongue tree).

CCFI project has had much success and impact on the livelihood of rural farmers in the three regions. ADRA therefore decided to establish 11 additional nurseries to cover some portions of the coastal savanna area of Southern Ghana. CCFI nurseries serve as entry points to other community development activities supported by this program.

Program Status

In 1997, ADRA GHANA initiated a five-year Food Security program covering the Upper Eastern and Western, Northern, Brong Ahafo, Eastern, Volta, Greater Accra and Central regions of Ghana. The program is to establish 11 additional nurseries and support 15,500 households in establishing approximately 16,000 acres under agroforestry systems during the project period. As of December 1999, ADRA has established all 11 nurseries (100% achievement) and is supporting 16,224 households (4.6% above the target). The project has established 24,800 acres (64.5% above the target) of various agroforestry practices. Farmers have planted the acreage with more than **five million assorted fruit trees and woody species**. The program seeks to promote availability, access to and utilization of food produced through agroforestry technologies. ADRA's approach to the practice of agroforestry is gradually becoming a popular way of farming in most rural communities within the catchment area of the program. In 1999 alone, 1,686 farmers not directly supported by the project adopted the agroforestry systems in the project zones. ADRA's client farmers inter-cropped 1,450,935 assorted tree seedlings with food crops on 19,035 acres of farm land. An average crop yield per acre increased from 780kg in 1997 to 1,181kg in 1998 and than to 1,233kg in 1999.

Ecological Zones

There are five broad ecological zones in Ghana. These are the forest, transition, mangrove, coastal and northern savanna zones. ADRA's agroforestry activities are concentrated to a large extent in environmentally stressed areas where land degradation is prevalent. The program therefore operates in three out of the five main ecological zones: the transitional zone, the coastal savanna zone, and the northern savanna zone.

Transitional Zone

Location: *between the forest and northern savanna zones*
Annual Rainfall: *between 1000 mm and 1200 mm*
Rainfall Pattern: *bimodal starting from mid-March to July and from September to mid-November with a short dry spell in August. The dry season begins in mid-November and lasts from four to five months. Rainfall intensity and distribution decrease from the transition toward the savanna.*
Soil Characteristics: *soils in this zone tend to be sandy with overlying iron pans*
Influences on Land: *farming by shifting cultivation and the use of fire in the production of charcoal has influenced loss of vegetation*

Previous attempts by government organizations, international and national agencies, and Non-governmental organizations to promote tree planting in this zone met with little success. Woody tree species planted by farmers to address fuel wood needs were either abandoned or burnt down by wild fires.

In the Transitional Zone, ADRA is working with 1,500 clients. 42% of the clients are female. The project operates in 75 communities and in three districts of the Brong Ahafo region. 4,500 acres are under cashew cultivation and an additional 800 acres have been planted by non-project clients. In this zone, the agroforestry design being practiced is fruit trees on cropland. Cashew is the principal tree species around which all cropping activities revolve. The introduction of cashews to farmers in this zone has three goals:

1. Assist in the reforestation of the zone
2. Improve the soil fertility through leaf litter decomposition
3. Provide a sustainable income base for the people through the sale of cashew nuts

40 cashew trees are planted per acre. The plot is inter-cropped with annual crops such as yams, cassava, maize and vegetables in a three-year rotation. In the first year, cashew seedlings are out planted on yam farms. At the end of year one the yams are harvested. In the second year, the cashew farm is inter-planted with maize and/or cassava. In the third year, cassava is repeated as an inter-crop on the farm. The system motivates farmers to weed their fields for the benefit of the staple crops, thus enhancing the survival of cashew trees and the prevention of bush fires. After the fourth year, the canopy closes up and the farmer is no longer able to grow any annual crops. At this stage, clients are supported in keeping beehives under the closed canopy of the trees. Benefits associated with bee keeping, such as honey, bees wax, propolis and increases in crop yield through pollination, are derived. The practice also ensures the optimal use of land.

Coastal Savanna

Location: *between 50 and 70 kilometers inland from the coastline*
Annual Rainfall: *600 mm to 1000 mm. per annum*
Rainfall Pattern: *bimodal from mid-March to July and from September to mid-November with a dry spell in August. Unlike the Transitional Zone, the rainfall is erratic.*
Soil Characteristics: *soil ranges from heavy black clays to well-drained sandy loams. The heavy clays are difficult to work with simple hand tools but suitable for rice and vegetable production while the sandy loams support maize and cassava production. Vegetation is predominantly short savanna grassland with widely scattered woody patches.*
Influences on Land: *cultivation, want of firewood, and the use of fire and livestock through grazing*

Northern Savanna

Location: *the entire northern part of the country*
Annual Rainfall: *average annual rainfall is 900 mm*
Rainfall Pattern: *unimodal in distribution. The rains come from mid-May through mid-October. The dry season lasts six to seven months of the year.*
Soil Characteristics: *soil in the southern part of the zone is sandy loam, deep and well drained. Savanna woodland and tall grasses occupy the southern part. The northern portion is lateritic hard-pan with very thin top soil, and has sparse tree population and top soils that remain bare for more than seven months of the year.*
Influences on Land: *both parts of the Northern Savanna experience extreme dry conditions and fire*

Firewood and charcoal are the most important domestic source of heat energy in the savanna regions of Ghana, and account for more than 80% of the total fuel energy used in both the urban and rural areas in these zones (Ankrah, 1996). Some agro-processing activities such as fish smoking, gari frying, kenkey making, bread baking and many others are dominant employment avenues and are entirely dependent on firewood. The per capita fuel wood consumption in Ghana is estimated to be 1.3 kg per person per day. However, in wood deficient communities, this figure is estimated at 0.8 kg per person per day, due partly to the tendency to economize, and partly to the substitution of agriculture residues, such as dried cow dung, uprooted stumps and roots of cut trees (Norton, 1996). Greater Accra in the coastal savanna, Northern, Upper Eastern and Western regions in the northern savanna have been described as wood-deficient regions in Ghana. (PPMED, 1991)

ADRA realized that a contributing factor of land degradation in savanna zones of the country is the gathering of fuel wood and therefore introduced wood lot establishment among other agroforestry systems in the two savanna zones of Ghana. Participatory discussion with farmers showed that cassia, teak, neem, Leucaena leucocephala, Eucalyptus and Albizia lebbeck are preferred species.

During the first year of establishment of the wood lot in the Coastal Savanna, it is inter-cropped with a mixture of maize and cassava. The farm is divided into three or four blocks on a rotational basis. Planting out of the trees in the blocks is done annually. Each year's planting is inter-cropped with a mixture of maize and cassava. The maize is harvested in the first year, while the cassava is harvested in the second year. During the third year, the block is left with a pure stand of trees that forms a canopy. Harvesting of the trees for charcoal and firewood is either done at the end of the third or fourth year. After harvesting the trees, a mixture of maize and cassava is planted again. Unlike the start-up planting, subsequent harvesting of trees is done at one-and-a-half to two years.

Clients in the Northern Savanna Zone prefer to grow a mixture of fruit trees and woody species on the same plot. They plant fruit trees and woody perennials alternating in rows with an East to West orientation. Farmers plant the spaces between the rows with cereals and legumes. They allow the woody species to grow for one year. Then they prune or cut them back at a height of 40 cm. This is done at the beginning of each farming season. The striplings provide stick wood (small firewood) for use in cooking. The leguminous tree species enrich the soil through nitrogen fixation and biomass decomposition. Cashew trees provide fruits and income to the farm family.

In this zone the project is working with more than 3,000 farmers, 42% of whom are females. The project is working in 173 communities and in nine districts. Apart from wood lot production, clients have adopted various agroforestry practices such as boundary planting and alley cropping. Acreage under wood lot production is 1,670 acres.

Practical Economic and Ecological Impacts of the Program

In the Transitional Zone, where the project is in its fourth year, some of the farmers have begun to harvest cashew nuts for sale. One of the farmers who earned 800,000 cedis (200 dollars) from the sale of cashew nuts has stopped the production of charcoal. Charcoal production is considered a menial job in this zone. Hopefully, many more farmers will begin to earn enough revenue to sustain their livelihoods and probably take to other vocations.

In the Coastal Savanna area, a project community of Senya Braku, 17 women and 3 men have come together to form a group. The women are involved in fish smoking and in the past gathered all their fuel wood supplies from the wild. ADRA has supported the group to establish 25 acres of cassia wood lot. The women now have a dependable and sustainable source of supply for firewood to smoke fish.

According to the women, the formation of the group has not only addressed their fuel wood needs but has attracted other

organizations to come to their assistance. One example is the Ministry of Education and Health, which is providing adult education to enable them to read and write in their local language. In the health sector, they benefit from messages on nutrition, sanitation, family planning and AIDS education.

Generally, clients continue to benefit in diverse ways from the various agroforestry practices they have adopted. Though the benefits are just beginning, living standards of farmers are improving. Clients are now able to buy simple assets such as radios and bicycles, pay school fees, medical bills and replace their thatch roofs with metal sheets. The pressure on the natural forest as the main source of firewood, rafters, poles, timber and other forest products is decreasing.

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New Micronutrient Standards for PL 480 Commodities

Submitted by: SUSTAIN

Each year the U.S donates millions of metric tons in food commodities worldwide. Under the Title II, P.L. 480 program alone, more than 1.9 million metric tons were distributed to 45 million individuals in 56 countries in fiscal year 1999. Over forty percent of these commodities (710,000 metric tons worth $237 million) consisted of micronutrient-fortified cereal products and vegetable oil. P.L. 480 food aid commodities not only address general protein-energy malnutrition, but also serve as an important vehicle for reaching undernourished populations suffering from debilitating micronutrient deficiencies.

In response to the need for improving nutrient standards of food aid commodities dispersed through the P.L.480, Title II program, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) commissioned SUSTAIN to conduct the Micronutrient Assessment Project (MAP). The primary objective of the MAP study was to assess the uniformity and quality of micronutrients in P.L.480 commodities and to determine if modifications are needed to improve the diets of mothers, children and refugees receiving food aid in developing countries.

The study traced the added micronutrients from the point of commodity manufacture, through shipping and storage, to the final point of distribution and food preparation in recipient countries. The MAP study was a collaborative effort with significant participation and expertise contributed by individuals from U.S. government agencies (USAID, USDA, FDA), the World Food Programme, NAS, industry (milling companies, ingredients companies, and analytic laboratories), and private voluntary organizations.

Findings included inconsistent uniformity of micronutrients in the end product, low levels of fortificants within some production lots, and the loss of highly labile micronutrients (such as vitamin A) in the manufacturing process and during cooking at recipient sites. These findings were confirmed in companion studies and reviews conducted by USDA and the National Academy of Sciences (NAS). Recommendations contained within the MAP study call for strengthening government specifications for micronutrients in PL 480 commodities and mechanisms for assuring quality control, monitoring and enforcement of those requirements.

Since the completion of the MAP study, significant effort has been made to improve the quality of micronutrient fortified PL 480 commodities. USDA issued several notices to manufacturers stating that: *"...cereal-based processed commodities procured for export assistance programs will be tested on a per lot basis for compliance to vitamin and mineral specifications contained in the purchase announcement"*. Vitamin A and iron were also established as markers for monitoring compliance with micronutrient specifications. Deadlines for compliance with these requirements vary by commodity and fall between February 2000 and July 2000. New requirements for the addition of vitamin A to vegetable oil were also issued in November of 1998.

Table 1: Commodities to be tested and minimum values for vitamin and mineral markers

Commodity	*Vitamin A(IU/lb)*	*Iron (mg/100g)*	*Effective Date*
Corn-Soy Blend	8400	14.7	February 8, 2000
Wheat-Soy Blend	8400	14.7	February 8, 2000
Wheat Flour*	8800	N/A†	February 8, 2000
Cornmeal*	8800	N/A	February 8, 2000
Bulgur*	8800	N/A	July 1, 2000
Sorghum	8800	N/A	July 1, 2000

**Includes all fortified commodities in this category*
†Vitamins and minerals are added to these commodities in the same fortification premix, thus making it unnecessary to measure both vitamin A and iron levels. This is in contrast to CSB and WSB, to which minerals and vitamins are added as separate premixes

In addition to these new specifications, USDA is incorporating P.L. 480 commodities into their requirements for Total Quality Systems Audits (TQSA). Under this program, vendors are required to establish and maintain effective quality control procedures, tests, and records that verify each production lot's compliance with the vitamin A and iron fortification requirements prior to shipment. Products not found to be in compliance in all respects with the applicable commodity procurement specification shall not be delivered to the Commodity Credit Corporation without written authorization signed and executed by the Contracting Officer (USDA NTT EOD-64). These changes are expected to have a significant impact on the quality of P.L. 480 commodities and are part of an ongoing effort to improve nutritional status among vulnerable populations.

For more information on the MAP study or SUSTAIN, please visit our web-site at www.sustaintech.org.

AmCross, continued from page 1

USAID and USDA food assistance made available to AmCross to assist safety net populations such as Russia, Albania, Bulgaria, Uzbekistan, and the Dominican Republic. Other interventions to assist vulnerable populations include physical rehabilitation projects in countries such as Cambodian to aid land mine victims, using a combination of private funding and USAID grants.

This paper outlines the parameters of safety net programs including who qualifies as a recipient; how long it is anticipated that they will remain vulnerable and how this affects program design; and how the NGO community can measure impact in these programs.

Targeting the Vulnerable

In the case of AmCross, safety net programs are usually instigated by an emergency, unlike development responses that involve "non-emergency humanitarian assistance programs" (NEHAP)[1]. In both cases, food insecurity vulnerability comes from insufficient immediate access to food or insufficient longer-term ability to become food self-sufficient.

The determinant for the kind of safety net programming needed is the vulnerability of the recipients[2] and how long their need is anticipated to persist as expressed by the following three categories:

• **Short-Term Transition Safety Nets** are critical for those temporarily vulnerable by minimally helping "those who can help themselves." This is primarily through short-term food distribution or public works programs. Many individuals in need of this type of assistance are temporarily food insecure due to circumstances such as displacement by a disaster that soon recedes, or hospitalized with discharge pending[3]. While public works programs can simply "make work" for able-bodied unemployed, they can also create infrastructure and empower participants, thereby supporting human dignity.

• For those with the potential for self-sufficiency in the near-term such as older orphans or street children, or those mildly disabled, **Longer-Term Transition Safety Nets are key**. This might include food assistance supplementing physical rehabilitation or skills transfer/ training.

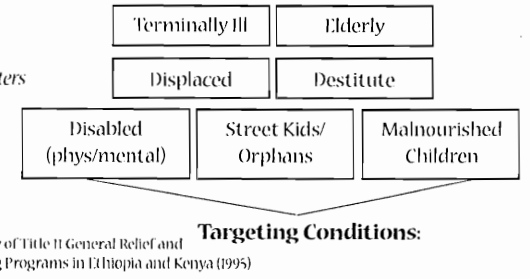
• **Ongoing Relief Safety Nets** for those least able to help themselves over the coming years such as the sick, dying, and infants or toddlers are vital. These populations are likely to remain chronically vulnerable due to their inherent characteristics. In this type of programming some might receive just food assistance to survive until they can regain self-sufficiency. But, the majority will by necessity benefit from ongoing relief as long as they can, given their unchanging vulnerability.

Vulnerable populations served by safety net programs live in their communities and are served by distribution centers such as the local Red Cross branch, while others live in institutions such as community homes, orphanages, or clinics. The array of the safety net populations and targeting approaches is shown in Figure A[4].

Who are the vulnerable and how long will they remain vulnerable? That varies greatly. Figure B[5] illustrates this, with the greatest likelihood of dependency on assistance those high on the left axis, remaining vulnerable (and eligible for safety net assistance) the rest of their lives, such as the elderly and terminally ill (including those who are HIV positive). Those most likely to be come self-sufficient are far along the bottom axis; they may "graduate" quickly. Yet even as some individuals may "graduate," such as people with disabilities who are being rehabilitated, or orphans growing out of the institutions which house them, it is likely that other individuals will take their place in these institutions, thus perpetuating the need for some forms of safety net assistance.

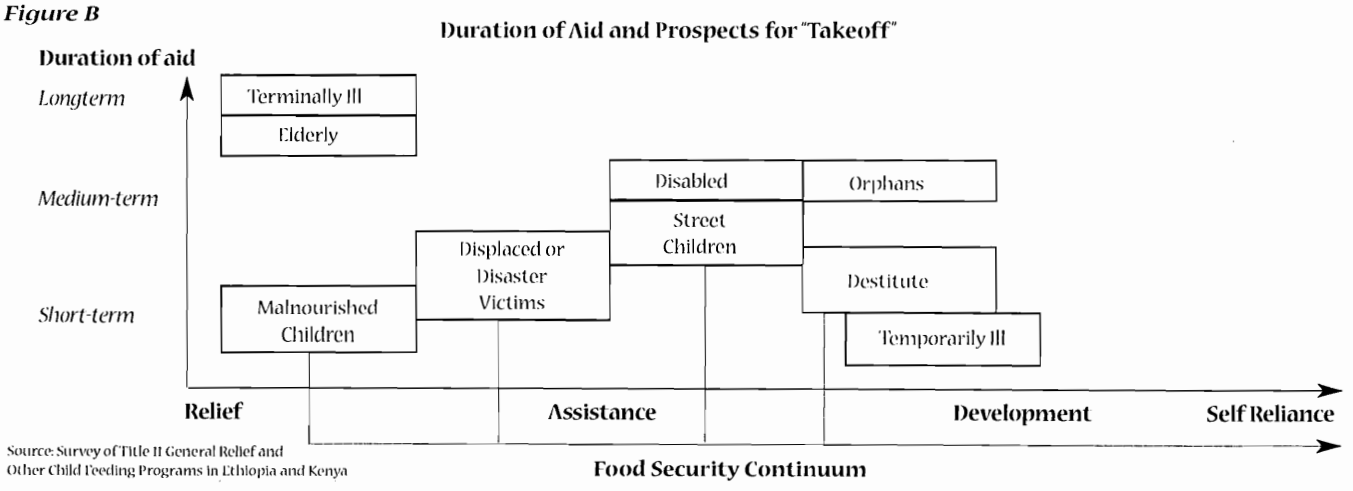
The best targeting is seen to be self-targeting because it "reduce|s| the incentives of non-target groups to claim benefits…" (Grosh, 1994 and Midre 1992 cited in UNRISD 1999). This can involve starting a Food For Work (FFW) project, ensuring that the wage offered is below that of the local minimum wage, with

Figure A



Sources: CRS Survey of Title II General Relief and Other Child Feeding Programs in Ethiopia and Kenya (1995)

Figure B



Source: Survey of Title II General Relief and Other Child Feeding Programs in Ethiopia and Kenya

the beneficiaries working to rebuild the road. Targeting can also be more passive, using commodities that are perceived by the population as "inferior," such as coarse or yellow maize meal or other less-preferred food such as white maize. Finally, the imposition of inconveniences such as long public lines or stigmas can promote self-targeting for those most in need.

> A CAUTIONARY NOTE: The distribution of benefits with regard to who is targeted needs to be carefully monitored. Studies have found a marked "male bias" regarding safety net participation, especially in public works or employment generation projects, in spite of the fact that women are often disproportionately vulnerable. A survey in Honduras indicated that 75% of the jobs created went to men and even in India's rural employment program, only 16% of the participants were women (Beneria and Mendoza 1994 and Harriss, 1993 in UNRISD 1999).

Individual targeting is done by the local Red Cross National Societies, often collaborating with the national and local government. For example, in much of the former Soviet Union there is data on who the most vulnerable are, classified under various categories of "social cases" (equivalent to "safety nets"). These include orphans, single pensioners, disabled, IDPs, the long-term unemployed, and single-parent or multi-children families, whose vulnerability is already government-registered. In other situations such as in natural disasters, the Red Cross relies on its branch staff who work with key members of their communities to select those most affected.

Program Design

The primary types of NGO-based safety net program whether short-term, longer-term or ongoing relief are:

- general distributions (e.g. subsidized food assistance, free immunizations, provision of nutrition supplements, or tools distribution)
- public works programs involving food (FFW) or cash (CFW) as the payment for a day's work to individual laborers or the individual and his/her 4-5 family members
- subsidized sales of food, or subsidized purchases of assets (e.g. low-cost, slender animals in the run-up to famine)[6].

> BEST PRACTICE: Program design in which participants identify the projects themselves in a participatory and inclusive way will help to ensure success. The Federation of Red Cross/Red Crescent Societies suggests using "Vulnerability and Capacity Assess- ment" to determine the best projects for the community. As we have all learned, the cost in time in the short-run will be long outweighed by the benefits to the community in terms of building useful infrastructure, spending, supporting social cohesion, and empowerment.[2]
> 1. Available to readers on the International Federation website (www.ifrc.org/issues/vca).
> 2. From Ethiopia emerged an apocryphal tale of a community told to plant seedlings. Project planners, not knowing they designated a hated landlord's acreage, ended-up with all the seedlings planted – upside down.

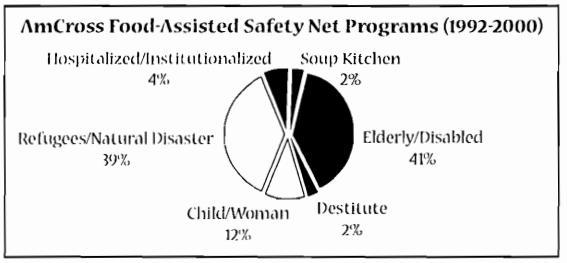
For both institutions and individual take-home rations, general distributions provide recipients with as balanced a ration as possible, accounting for 50-60% of their food intake needs, as befits a supplementary feeding program[7]. In public works, the direct benefits to the recipient are the nutritional input and/or new job skills training, while the additional benefits are improved community infrastructure. Most individuals fed for a time in institutions such as orphanages and clinics will leave the caretaker institutions with better food security prospects than before, not only by surviving but also by increasing their viability and quality of life through the "value-added" of shelter, medical care, physical rehabilitation, or education.

ARC PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

Despite these constraints, AmCross has helped a total of 3 million vulnerable people since 1992, by providing them with access to food through Title II and other resources. Given the humanitarian mandate of the Red Cross, it is not surprising that over 80% of our food-assisted safety net recipients over the last 8 years have been IDPs/disaster affected and the elderly/disabled[8]. The reason why we have listed IDPs/disaster affected in safety nets is because the individuals we have assisted have been across several safety net categories per country, covering the following categories, for instance:

- Albania '93-94: children, pregnant women, elderly and hospitalized// institutionalized
- Dominican Republic '98-99: shelter populations, small farmers, pregnant/ lactating women, elderly with limited support and the mentally/ physically handicapped.

The remaining 20% is more focused aid to mother/children, the hospitalized/institutionalized, destitute, and soup kitchen recipients.



Monitoring and Evaluation[9]

How do we monitor the impact of the safety net programs? That depends on the method of channeling of the assistance.

For those in institutions, serving orphans, disabled, and those in hospitals who need all meals, shelter and medical care, and for those in communities, including the temporarily displaced/ victims of natural disasters, the elderly, destitute, street children, some malnourished children whose families are temporarily in need of food (e.g. AIDS orphans living with other family members) and low-income unemployed families, we PVOs can monitor:

- Food aid delivered
- % of food commodities delivered to the local RC or institution compared to the planned amount
- Number of persons fed over the time period
- Proportion of dietary requirement provided -- % of 2100 kcals per person per day from the food aid ration. For these beneficiaries, 100% of their food intake depends on the institution and their donated or purchased food

[1]For USAID, these are called General Relief/ Other Child Feeding (GR/OCF) – here, joined as "safety net".
[2]Alternative participant selection can be by geographic region (e.g. drought prone or urban), or by registration procedures (e.g. children of certain ages registered for immunization).
[3]This can blur the lines with emergency relief, for those most affected by some disasters and assisted by the Red Cross are often those most pre existingly vulnerable, e.g. the poorest living in hurricane-prone seaside shantytowns, the elderly ill subsisting from pension check to pension check.
[4]Adapted from the final draft: CRS Safety Nets Guidance (3/99) written by J. Cekan and G. Bergeron. Ditto.
[6]The rest of this article focuses on distribution and public works rather than subsidized sales, as AmCross does not have direct experience with these kinds of interventions.
[7]At times, safety net populations will get assistance from a full ration under an emergency general distribution, such as occurred in the Dominican Republic after Hurricane George or in Central America after Hurricane Mitch.
[8]Roughly' because in the former Soviet Union countries, the assistance has gone to an array of populations, not always broken precisely by category, especially those affected by disasters. We have classified them by the largest group most probably affected in that country.

For some communities, we also monitor:

- Income transfer of the food in terms of both local value of the food ration and expenditures on other goods or services which were freed up by the provision of food

The "income transfer" indicators are impact rather than just output indicators, showing the ultimate effect on household food security. This data comes from using market surveys of local prices of the food aid, as well as from doing household surveys with recipients (in addition to end-user surveys). In 1998 in Bulgaria, AmCross' survey found that the pensioners being helped lived on such a low income that they were unable to purchase even a basic foodbasket. The American Red Cross/ Bulgarian Red Cross shared their research with the government; pensions were slightly raised.

Public works are another aspect of serving the needs of the able-bodied vulnerable. For these programs wePVOs can monitor:

- Food aid delivered
- Percentage of food commodities delivered to the local RC or institution compared to the planned amount
- Number of persons fed over the time period

Instead of a nutritional measure, the food is an income transfer in the form of a daily wage. Thus, as in the example above, one could look at:

- The local value of the food ration (amount of food potentially purchased from the daily wage's local purchase)

Additionally, the value of the infrastructure built or rehabilitated could be measured as:

- Number of buildings rebuilt, number of kilometers of road rehabilitated, etc.
- Food access indicators, such as # increased trucks on roads, or increased use of buildings, etc [see USAID's Generic Title II Impact Indicators for FFW indicators].

Not only does the benefit of the food ration assist working individuals (and where appropriate, their families), but the longer-term benefit is in the infrastructure built. "Programs that are primarily employment focused will have fewer direct beneficiaries than those which involve the creation of social infrastructure (schools, clinics)...the benefits of the latter are likely to be spread more widely." (UNRISD 1999).

Finally, for those institutions providing additional training or physical rehabilitation, as AmCross supports in Vietnam, additional indicators can be used:

- Numbers of people rehabilitated/ trained
- Kind of rehabilitation provided in addition to food (type, duration)
- % of cases treated or rehabilitated
- % of cases successfully physically rehabilitated or trained
- Proportion of graduates that are physically self-sufficient (or partial, in case of the physically handicapped getting aids such as glasses, hearing aids, prostheses) and gainfully employed (2-year cohort)

These are another "higher order" of impact indicators, looking not only at the effect of the rehabilitation, but also at the long-term self-sufficiency of the recipient.

POTENTIAL SPILLOVER BENEFITS OF SAFETY NET PROGRAMS:
(1) Food serves as an income transfer to safety net institutions, thereby freeing re sources to be spent on equally important inputs, rather than having to purchase food
(2) Some institutions have been able to use food aid to leverage funding and other resources from other donors which helps them diversify funding sources
(3) Food management and monitoring provides institution building opportunities be it an orphanage or a Red Cross National Society in financial management, staff training, etc.

USAID Safety Net Resources to Date

The impetus behind the recent growth in safety net programming that reverses the decline in USAID's support over the last several years has been:

- continued emergency food assistance from USAID's FFP/ ER (54% of all food aid in FY99)
- increased assistance to the development side of safety net populations under NEHAP

Support comes from two sources, with the first being the 1998 Congressional legislation[10] that earmarked an annual amount of $30 million. USAID's Administrator Brian Atwood committed himself to:

> *"ensure that ... non-emergency activities... including programs that provide assistance to people of any age group who are otherwise unable to meet their basic food needs (including feeding programs for the disabled, orphaned, elderly, sick and dying) are carried out."*

Recently, this was focused a bit more narrowly on HIV/AIDS when the Clinton Administration funded the "LIFE Initiative" (Leadership and Investment in Fighting an Epidemic). The $100 million set aside for this initiative is divided into $65 million allocated to USAID and $35 million to the Center for Disease Control[11]. It covers 13 countries in Africa, plus India over the next year, which is extendable. The elements related to these activities are:

1) Prevention of HIV
2) Community and Home-based Care and Treatment
3) Care for Children (and Orphans) Affected by AIDS
4) Capacity and Infrastructure Development (in Recipient Countries)

Specifically related to safety net food programming, $10 million of the $30 million already earmarked for Title II food is to provide safety nets to those suffering from AIDS. PVOs with development food programming are to link this safety net assistance to longer-term food security programming. As up to $15 million is already committed annually to these populations, that leaves another $5 million still to be requested and programmed by PVOs for such vulnerable populations.

[9] Elements of this section are revised from the final CRS Safety Nets Guidance (3/99) written by J. Cekan and G. Bergeron.
[10] (HR 4283 and S.2283)
[11] AmCross is presently in discussion with CDC about nutritional interventions related to our joint HIV/AIDS programming in Africa.
[12] Readers can reference USAID's/USDA's Commodities Reference Guide for nutritive values at: (www.info.usaid.gov/hum_response/crg). We eagerly await the remaining sections of the CRG on food ration programming to finish being updated, which has been 'in the works' for several years.

The second is the Congressional mandate to use 75% of Title II development food aid in the form of processed and blended foods. While difficult to monetize (over 50% of Title II food aid has been monetized in recent years), these foods are ideal in assisting vulnerable children, elderly and other populations who can benefit from already blended foods such as Corn-Soy-Blend or Wheat-Soy-Blend as part of their food ration[12].

Conclusion

Increasingly, safety nets projects by PVOs are expected to tackle "temporary" poverty, even though for some, they are really the only defenses against more widespread hunger and destitution. Many PVOs are assisting a particular vulnerable subset of the needy among the large percentage of poor in these countries. While "an effective safety net is much more feasible if the poor represent 10% rather than 60% of the population," (Atkinson and Hills, 1991, Burgess and Stern, 1991 in UNRISD 1999), neither donor funding nor public donations are infinite.

There are substantial benefits to safety net programs. They:

- assist selected subgroups temporarily during times of unusual need, e.g. food to the displaced or malnourished children during a disaster; food to vulnerable elderly under a certain income level during economic crisis. Usually these populations are re-absorbed into the social fabric when the disaster recedes, economy recovers, etc;
- create or improve community assets via public works, e.g. roads, dams, buildings, etc;
- improve sustained food security for individuals due to new skills from work, training, or new capacities/dignity from physical rehabilitation (handicapped) and home-based care (those that have AIDS or are otherwise ill);
- improve the sustainability prospects for institutions serving the vulnerable, e.g. freeing institutional monies to be spent on shelter/education for orphans, physical rehabilitation for the handicapped, or their infrastructure, e.g. rebuilt clinics, etc.

There are many substantial benefits to safety net programs, but unfortunately, there are also constraints:

- lack of long-term funding from donors, citing that the need is to be met by governments since most safety net assistance is based on the assumption that it is a "tempo rary bridge"
- dependency on the assistance by the populations without sustained development being put into place (e.g. food to institutions without mechanisms for increased income generation or fundraising to substitute for this food once it is phased out)
- due to low funding, limited intervention options to most PVOs compared to the complexity and duration of needs of the recipients

According to two of the Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross – humanity and impartiality - these populations, and the institutions that serve them need food and other assistance to stay alive. They are most often chosen in collaboration with the national Ministries of Social Welfare and are the poorest strata of their countries. The number of needy have become too numerous for their national governments to cope. National Red Cross Societies work with governments to help such recipients move on to self-sufficiency through channeling US food aid, doing additional health programming, linking them to Red Cross volunteer networks, working to improve the socio-economic situation of the country, etc

AmCross, working through National Societies, and other PVOs who currently help these kinds of populations are determined not to let them disappear from the donor "radar screen." It is clear that while there are some inherent "graduations" from these programs, (e.g. those that return home, grow up, get physically better, etc), this is not the case for others. Those more chronically dependent will benefit from our assistance for a short time, but will remain dependent on local or national institutions and governments. They may fall through those cracks as well, and our only comfort may be that we assisted them while we were able.

It is part of the Red Cross humanitarian imperative to assist, and continue looking for ways to serve those in great need. Several PVOs as well as USAID share this mission to assist these most vulnerable, whose ranks are growing. We are very pleased to note that the commitment to safety nets by USAID, ARC, CRS, CARE and other PVOs is growing stronger, as the new "LIFE initiative" attests. The Title II Cooperating Sponsors should continue to create innovative ways to use such resources – coupled with our own cash and other funding – to help those who are least able to help themselves.

References:

Cekan, Jindra and Giles Bergeron. 1999. "CRS Safety Net Guidance". CRS: Baltimore, MD.

Vivian, Jessica.. 2000. "Social Safety Nets and Adjustment in Developing Countries". United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD): Geneva, Switzerland via Internet.

FAM Welcomes New Member

Food Aid Management is pleased to welcome its 17th member organization, **International Relief and Development (IRD)**. IRD projects an FY2000 revenue level of $30 million and is actively pursuing implementation of Title II programs. They are currently active in Eastern Europe, the Caucasus, and Asia. They are also exploring the implementation of food security, food aid, primary health care, and reproductive health care delivery programs in Eastern Africa, primarily in Eritrea, Ethiopia, and Malawi. Examples of some past and current IRD programs include a USDA-supported commodity monetization program in Armenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Georgia, a Food for Progress urban food aid project in Indonesia, and a pharmaceutical and medical supply distribution and institutional strengthening program for Internally Displaced Persons in Western Georgia. They have a sister relationship with Keys and Associates, Inc. (KAI), a firm which specializes in design, management, monitoring and evaluation of humanitarian relief and development aid projects. IRD Headquarters are located at 1616 P Street, NW in Washington, DC. They may be contacted via phone at (202) 234-2740, by fax at (202) 234-2782, and by e-mail at akeys@clark.net.

Technical Guides On Household Food Consumption and Water and Sanitation

The Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) has developed a series of technical guides to help strengthen Title II program monitoring and evaluation and to improve program management. The guides discuss the technical basis for key indicators and recommend methods for collecting, analyzing and reporting on them. In consultation with PVOs, indicators were developed for the following areas: health, nutrition and maternal/child health; water and sanitation; household food consumption; agricultural productivity; natural resource management; and food for work/credit for work (FFW/CFW). Two new guides were published recently.

1. Measuring Household Food Consumption: A Technical Guide

This publication describes the process for collecting information to assess the food-intake requirements of a household and a step-by-step analysis of the food consumed. The guide focuses on three health and nutrition impact indicators:

- Increased number of eating occasions;
- Increased dietary diversity; and
- Increased percentage of households consuming minimum daily caloric requirement.

The process begins with the design of a questionnaire. Filling in the questionnaire involves detailed interviews with a household member to collect information about the household and food consumption. Food consumption information is obtained using a 24-hour recall. The household respondent (the person in the household responsible for food preparation) is asked to recall the ingredients of each dish prepared during the previous day and the amount each person in the household consumed. The guide provides ideas for approximating the size of different dishes and their weight and defining who is a household member.

Once this information has been collected, it is analyzed and converted into standard formats that can be compared across households. Detailed information about analyzing the household food consumption data is available in a separate appendix document.

2. Water and Sanitation Indicators Measurement Guide

Water and sanitation improvements, in association with hygiene behavior change, can have significant effects on health. These improvements in health can lead to reduced morbidity and mortality and improved nutritional status.

The guide provides information on the following water and sanitation impact indicators:

- Percentage of children under 36 months with diarrhea in the last two weeks;
- Quantity of water used per capita per day;
- Percentage of child caregivers and individuals preparing food in the household with appropriate hand washing behavior; and
- Percentage of population using hygienic sanitation facilities.

Projects with water and sanitation components report on one or more of these indicators. Information is collected for baseline, mid-term and final-year evaluations.

Four monitoring indicators are also identified:

- Percentage of households with year-round access to an improved water source;
- Percentage of households with access to a sanitation facility;
- Percentage of recurrent costs for water supply services provided by the community; and
- Percentage of water supply facilities maintained by the community.

The choice of indicators for annual monitoring and reporting are based on a review of available sources of data and the specific information needs of the PVO and USAID. In addition to improving program management, this information can provide insights about a program's impact on health.

The water and sanitation guide was developed in collaboration with the USAID-supported Environmental Health Project.

The Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) has published four other guides in this series:

• Agricultural Productivity Indicators Measurement Guide

This guide discusses key agricultural indicators and data needed to analyze each of them. The indicators are: harvested crop yields per hectare; the gap between actual and potential yields; yield variability under varying conditions; the value of crop production per household; months of household food provision; percent of crop losses during storage; number of hectares with improved practices and number of crop storage facilities built and used.

• Food Security Indicators and Framework

Integrating food security indicators in to the monitoring and evaluation systems of food aid programs ensures better and more efficient management of these resources and can improve their impact. This guide outlines a process for identifying these indicators and provides a conceptual framework for understanding food security issues.

• Infant and Child Feeding Indicators Measurement Guide

This guide focuses on the changes in infant and child feeding practices for improved nutritional status. The indicators are based on five accepted practices: initiating breastfeeding within the first hour of life; breastfeeding exclusively for the first six months; introducing complementary foods after six months; continued feeding of infants and young children with diarrhea; and after recovering from diarrhea, increasing the nutritional intake of infants and children.

• Sampling Guide

Sample surveys are often the most feasible way of gathering the information required for Title II program evaluations. This publication provides guidance on how to choose samples of communities, households and/or individuals for these surveys. The guide focuses on the use of probability sampling methods.

All the guides are available on the project web site: www.fantaproject.org and can also be requested from fanta@aed.org

Editor's Note: *The 1999 Sampling for Managers Workshop documents, presentation, and exercises are posted on the FAM web site, and also provide valuable sampling resources. The workshop was intended to provide PVO Title II managers with basic knowledge of the sampling process. You can view these documents electronically at: http://www.foodaid.org/moneval.htm.*

Freight Forwarding Quotes in Monetization: A Report from the Food Aid Consultative Group Meeting

By S. Lee Thompson, Assistant Director, Food for Development, Africare

On March 29, 2000, the Food Aid Consultative Group (FACG)[1] met at Africare House in Washington, D.C. to discuss the procedures for obtaining freight rates used in the calculation of cost recovery in the monetization of P.L. 480 Title II programs.

When USAID's *Monetization Field Manual* was being revised in 1997/98, the process of obtaining the necessary commodity and freight information was discussed at length. Previously, Title II Cooperating Sponsors (CSs) requested both commodity and freight quotes from USAID. Then the CSs utilized this information, along with other costs, such as inland freight and other relevant associated expenses, to develop the cost recovery equation. The PVOs often found that the delay in obtaining both the commodity and freight information could put them right up against the deadline for submitting a call forward of commodities, which could put undue pressure on both Food for Peace (FFP) and the PVO. While an acceptable alternative for obtaining the FAS price quote for commodities could not be agreed upon, it was recognized that all but a handful of CSs worked with their own freight forwarding agents for freight-related issues. Therefore, USAID agreed that the CSs could request a freight rate from their freight forwarding agent for use in the cost recovery benchmark equation. It was hoped that this would expedite the process for all parties. The language in the Monetization Field Manual states:

"Estimated non-U.S.-flag rates must be obtained from the CS's freight forwarding agent during proposal preparation and at the time of the call forward. At the time of the call forward, the CS must provide BHR/FFP/POD with the certification of sales price along with the freight indication in support of the call forward."

Cooperating Sponsors were advised to update their freight forwarding agents of the change in procedure, which would include a citation in the commodity request of the source and date of the quote. The freight forwarding agents were to provide a freight quotation for the lowest foreign flag bid of similar cargo under similar terms to the same port or neighboring port which typically commanded a similar freight rate. These bids would have been submitted through the U.S. Government tender process and thus were available to the freight forwarding agents who regularly participate in this process on behalf of the agency they represent.

When the *Monetization Field Manual* was finalized and the revised procedures were implemented, this new freight quote process moved along smoothly from the perspective of the CSs. But in mid-1999, several PVOs encountered difficulties in processing of calls forward because FFP determined that the cost recovery benchmark requirement was not going to be met, despite the information provided by the PVO in the call forward submission. Several PVOs were asked to recalculate their cost recovery equations and to revisit the projected sales prices in order to determine whether or not the call forward would be accepted and processed. Generally speaking, the root of the problem was a difference in the estimation of freight rates. Some PVOs began to receive copies of their returned commodity request forms with typed notations on the right side of their forms which were seemingly included somewhere within USAID during the review of the call forward.

In telephone conversations with the Program Operations Division of the Office of Food for Peace (FFP/POD), some CSs were advised that POD was reviewing the estimated freight rates with USAID Transportation in order to verify their accuracy. Almost without exception, the freight rate provided by USAID was considerably higher than the rate quoted by the CS's freight forwarding agent. Although many calls forward were reviewed and processed, some calls forward were delayed and some were not processed at all. The CSs and USAID spent considerable time hashing over the details of the freight rates and renegotiating prospective sales prices with field offices. In some cases, the process was extensive and resulted in lengthy delays. In almost every case, the actual bids received for the cargo when it was booked reconciled with the original quote cited by the CSs. Even when actual invitation numbers from recent similar bids were cited in calls forward, FFP still sought verification from USAID Transportation.

Numerous individual PVOs explored the issue and discussed it at length in the 2nd Monetization Workshop of Food Aid Management (FAM), held in Johannesburg, South Africa, in November 1999, and attended by Title II Cooperating Sponsors from East and Southern Africa. On behalf of Africare's programs and with information from several PVO partners, Africare sent a letter of inquiry to FFP, requesting clarification on the change in procedures from the one clearly outlined in USAID's *Monetization Field Manual*. USAID's response indicated that, in their opinion, the procedure had not changed and that they would continue the verification process.

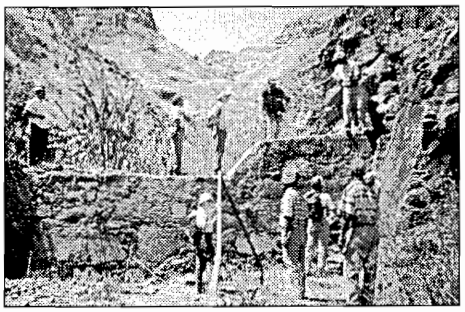
At the time of the February 2000 FACG meeting, when the draft guidelines for results reporting and resource requests were presented by FFP, the cost recovery analysis section was discussed. Questions were raised about the issues surrounding the freight quote matter which were not satisfactorily resolved in the exchanges between the PVOs and FFP. FFP's Director Tom Oliver requested a follow-up meeting to further pursue the unresolved questions.

FAM's Monetization Working Group mobilized the CSs to discuss the matter within their agencies and to recommend agenda items for the proposed meeting on freight quote procedures. CSs and their freight forwarding agents met in advance of the meeting with USAID and all participants in the FACG to establish a draft agenda. It was agreed that the purpose of the FACG meeting was to understand each party's process of preparing freight quotes and to come to common terms on establishing a workable procedure for obtaining the quotes and expediting calls forward without unnecessary delays.

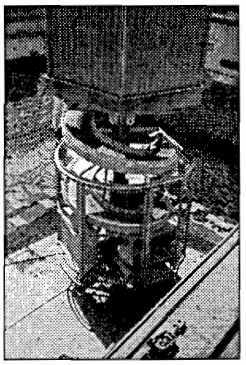
On March 29th, representatives of FFP, USAID Transport-ation and other interested USAID divisions, along with the CSs and their respective freight forwarding agents, met to discuss freight quote procedures. Cooperating Sponsor representation included ACDI/VOCA, ADRA, Africare, CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Counterpart International, OIC International, Project

[1]Under Section 205 of P.L. 480, the Food Aid Consultative Group was established to regularly review the effectiveness of regulations and procedures governing emergency and private food assistance programs being implemented under Title II. It can also address other issues under Title II which involve private voluntary organizations (PVOs), cooperatives or indigenous non

SNAPSHOTS From the field



ACDI-VOCA. Construction of a Check Dam to conserve water in Cape Verde as part of a Title II program.



Africare. The Spiralvator, which facilitates the loading of break bulk cargo at the Jacintoport Terminal, Port of Houston.

Africare. Bagging yellow corn at the Jacintoport Terminal, Port of Houston.

Freight Forwarding, continued from page 11

Concern International, Save the Children, TechnoServe, and World Vision, as well as Food Aid Management. A draft agenda had been previously provided to FFP/POD. The agenda included an initial citation of the procedures as per the *Monetization Field Manual*; a presentation by FFP/POD on their procedures for processing calls forward, with particular emphasis on the freight quote process, as well as elaboration on the seeming change in procedures; an explanation of the process used by USAID Transportation in deriving freight quotes; and, a presentation by the freight forwarding agents on their procedures for obtaining and providing freight quotes to the PVOs. This was followed by brief case studies of select PVOs recent experiences, an open discussion, wrap-up and adjournment.

In his presentation, Jon Brause, Chief of POD, stated that questions on cost recovery in monetization programs, which were under increased scrutiny, had come from both the Office of Management and Budget and USAID's Inspector General. Mr. Brause indicated that FFP's opinion was that some freight forwarders had been utilizing incorrect assumptions when preparing the freight quotes. Thus FFP/POD undertook the independent action of referring the cost recovery information in the calls forward to USAID Transportation (OP/TC) for verification.

Bob Goldman, Chief of OP/TC, described his unit's process of obtaining freight rates. Mr. Goldman explained that OP/TC generally does not know what the PVO quote is and thus prepares an independent assessment. The description of the process provided by OP/TC gave an understanding as to why there could be some differences in the rate quotes from USAID and the freight forwarding agents. OP/TC explained that they use what they determine to be a realistic and average foreign freight quote; this would likely be a different figure than the lowest foreign flag bid. The discussions also suggested that perhaps the information provided to OP/TC by POD may not be as detailed as is necessary to derive the quote. An example was the seemingly different perspective on whether or not one provides a quote as if a cargo would be sent in isolation or whether it would likely be consolidated with other cargo (and thus the freight rate would be lower). Mr. Brause indicated that POD provides OP/TC with everything it needs to determine a fair estimate; however, POD does not give all the specifications unless the staff member thinks it would have an impact on the price. OP/TC's Denise Stone-Scherl further explained details of obtaining rates for bulk cargo, which necessitated a market analysis, and the processing of obtaining packaged cargo rates, either from the U.S. Gulf or West Coast, depending on destination. Mr. Goldman also cited the volatility of freight rates and how a great variance can occur depending on the shipping period. It was generally acknowledged that this was rather an art than an exact science.

Ron Fettig of Fettig & Donalty, presented the procedures used by the freight forwarding agencies in obtaining a quote, which generally follow a four-step process: 1) the last/most recent tenders offered for similar commodities for the area of destination; 2) consultations with brokers and shippers in the market; 3) in the case of bulk cargo, interpolations of voyage calculations; and, 4) the possibility of combining shipments. All freight forwarding agents present acknowledged that they follow a similar process.

Case studies were presented by Amy Volz of TechnoServe, Lee Thompson of Africare, and Paul Blizzard of Muller Shipping. TechnoServe encountered difficulties when calling forward bagged wheat for its program in Uganda; the higher freight quote from USAID forced the Uganda program to commit to an increase in its sales price at a time of severe market pressure. The process delayed the call forward for several months and used considerable USAID and TechnoServe personnel time. Africare's case did not involve delays in the processing of calls forward, but called to question the validity of the new freight quote on its commodity request forms which included a recalculation of the benchmark without consultation with Africare. Mr. Brause responded that the calculation by POD on the commodity request form was for internal use only; the PVO should use its numbers as presented in their call forward for the analysis of its achievement of benchmark. Mr. Brause stated that there were numerous examples of inaccuracies on the part of PVOs in commodity requests. For this and other reasons, USAID would continue its practice of verifying cost recovery numbers.

The key resolution reached in the meeting was based on a recommendation from Mr. Goldman. He suggested that during the time of preparation of calls forward, the freight forwarding agents could consult in advance with OP/TC in order to come to an agreement on a realistic freight quote. It was generally acknowledged that all parties better understood the various processes undertaken and that the meeting had allowed for constructive exchange on moving the programs forward by clarifying the freight rate quotation procedures.

FSRC Resources on Emergencies and HIV/AIDS

This quarter we present two bibliographies in one. The first highlights resources focusing on emergencies, encompassing both natural and human-made disasters. The FSRC holds far more resources dealing with various aspects of emergency management than we can present here, but I have tried to provide a broad cross-section of the available documents. The second section presents FSRC resources on HIV/AIDS in light of last quarter's FANTA article on the role food aid might play in addressing the disease.

If you would like to order copies of any of the following materials please contact:

Trisha Schmirler
Incoming Technical Information Specialist
Food Aid Management
300 I Street, NE, Suite 212
Washington, DC 20002
fam@foodaid.org

Global humanitarian emergencies: Trends and projections, 1999-2000. *1999. National Intelligence Council. 32p.*
Based on the coordinated views of analysts and experts in various agencies of the United States Government, the report focuses on both natural and man-made disasters, reviewing current disasters and predicting their probable futures. Data on funding, numbers of people at risk per country, and food aid deliveries are provided.

Health care for refugees and displaced people. *1994. Mears, Catherine; Chowdhury, Sue. OXFAM. 112p. #7160*
An introduction to the provision of health care in emergencies covering the assessment of health-risk factors and the needs for health care, e.g. discussion of common diseases, HIV/AIDS, food and nutrition, and conducting surveys. Also includes sections on the special needs of long-term refugees and monitoring and evaluation.

Emergency supplementary feeding programmes. *1995. Shoham, Jeremy. Relief and Rehabilitation Network. Overseas Development Institute. 22p. #7158*
Provides a short overview of what may be considered 'good practice' in designing and implementing emergency supplementary feeding programs. Aimed primarily at NGO, UN, and donor staff who are not specialists in nutrition and emergency feeding but who may someday be involved in decisions about feeding programs.

Acceptability and use of cereal-based foods in refugee camps. *1998. Mears, Catherine with Helen Young. OXFAM. 135p. #7139*
Nutritional study of the use and acceptability of cereal-based foods in refugee camps, as well as opportunities for fortification of cereals with micronutrients at the household level. Case studies conducted in refugee camps in Nepal, Ethiopia and Tanzania, where all had histories of acute malnutrition and micronutrient deficiencies.

IDS Programme aid as an appropriate policy response to drought. *1996. Owens, Trudy. Institute of Development Studies. 36p. #7138*
The author argues for program aid as a policy response to drought. This approach can prevent economic hardships which contribute to destitution and a need for emergency food aid, help stabilize food prices, and provide governments with the necessary budgetary resources to fund drought relief programs which are more appropriate than the direct distribution of foreign food.

Provisional framework for preparing for drought in Southern Africa. *1997. Save the Children (UK). 90p. #7033*
Based on a study of the 1992 drought in Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe, this report discusses lessons learned and gives recommendations for drought preparedness in future. It also provides a timeline for drought-related events and conditions.

Engineering in emergencies: A practical guide for relief workers. *1999. Davis, Jan; Lambert, Robert. Red R; Intermediate Technology Publications. 730p.*
Cross-referenced, indexed text which addresses a wide variety of topics including assessment and planning, management, environmental health, water and sanitation, and refugee camps.

Field guide on rapid nutritional assessment in emergencies. *1995. World Health Organization, Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean. 62p. #7009*
Guide designed to assist in designing, planning, implementing and reporting reliable nutritional assessment in emergency situations.

At risk: Natural hazards, people's vulnerability, and disasters. *1997. Blaikie, Piers; Cannon, Terry; Davis, Ian; Wisner, Ben. 299p.*
The authors argue that social, political, and economic environments are as much the cause of disasters as the natural environment, and that mitigation is rooted in human understanding of vulnerability and common action.

IDS bulletin: Linking relief and development. *1994. Maxwell, Simon; Buchanan-Smith, Margaret. Institute of Development Studies. 113p. #6911*
Contains articles written on all aspects of relief and development. Included are pieces on drought, complex emergencies, famine mitigation, and case studies from Botswana, Ethiopia, Mozambique and Zambia.

Institute of Development Studies discussion paper: Linking relief and development. *1994. Institute of Development Studies. 17p. #6910*
This Discussion Paper reports on the "Linking Relief and Development" workshop held at IDS, Susex, UK, in March 1994. Issues addressed include: the relief-development continuum, the interface between relief and development, relief-development strategies, famine mitigation, and rehabilitation.

Role for capital markets in natural disasters: A piece of the food security puzzle. *1998. Skees, Jerry R.. University of Kentucky. 18p. #6879*
Paper presented at the symposium, "Policy Reform, Market Stability, and Food Security," June 26-27, 1998, Alexandria, VA.

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HIV/AIDS Resources

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Call Forward: A Listserv for Technical Support?

by Mario Pareja, Technical Advisor to CARE

These comments draw upon a recent CARE evaluation report of a network, written by M. Pareja with T. Blomley and J. Connell (CARE International, May 2000).

When FAM asked me to comment on their listservs, specifically about the Environmental Working Group's listserv, I could not think of any other way to begin than telling the reader what is that I do, how I do it, and how I think it could be done best.

I work as a technical advisor to CARE on issues related to food security, agriculture, natural resources and the environment. For personal reasons, I live in France, in a small village called Divonne-les-Bains; my supervisors are both in Atlanta at CARE's headquarters; and my clients, the country offices, the field projects and the Title II programs, are out there in the developing world.

My job as an advisor consists of providing technical information and advice to projects, country offices, regional management units, and CARE International members' headquarter offices. My task is partly demand driven (meeting requests that come from the field) and partly offer driven (I actually address issues that I think are important to CARE's programmes). My goal in technical advising is to contribute to improved programme quality, with all its institutional (programmatic and financial) implications..

I work "virtually" while at the office (home) and "physically" when I travel to where CARE's programs need technical support. As an environmental advisor, I link to other PVOs working on USAID/FFP environmental compliance issues related to Title II programming. The CSs regularly meet at one of FAM's working fora, the Environmental Working Group (EWG), to discuss and exchange information, problems, experiences, and lessons related to environmental programming. The group plans and coordinates environmental training activities for CSs, officially links the CSs to USAID/FFP on environmental matters, and holds technical sessions on environmental topics of interest to its members.

Given the physical scenario in which I work, communication is, for me, essential! In order to manage technical information I try to keep a good library at hand: I subscribe to the main technical and scientific journals that are related to my field and I buy rel-

evant books. More and more these days, however, I correspond electronically with other people, institutions, and information nodes: Web sites, chat groups, networks, databases, electronic publications, listservs, you name it! All these are important information sources for me to keep up with new technical developments, as well as to obtain answers to requests and demands coming from the field.

Last month I received two requests that showed me the importance of different types of networking. One was from CARE's conservation and development project in Ecuador, which is helping local communities to utilise forest resources, including timber. The project manager wanted to know what chemical product could be used to protect the timber from fungi and insect attack in its long voyage from the forest to the city market. Although I am a pest management practitioner, I did not have a reply to his question. After searching in my library and in the major web sites (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency included) I could not properly advise the project. I resorted to personal networking, contacting key individuals located in key institutions, such as universities and the EPA, who I knew had knowledge of the subject. If I did not find THE answer, at least I provided some guidance to the project.

The other request came from CARE-Mozambique; they wanted to know about the process and procedures for organic produce certification. I did not have updated information on the topic ready available with me and, this time, I tried another route: institutional networking. The EWG has recently initiated a listserv where technical environmental information, USAID/FFP environmental compliance guidelines, and training opportunities are shared. So, I wrote a short note to the listserv, asking for help in dealing with CARE-Mozambique's request. Within 48 hours I received names, addresses, guidelines and procedures for organic product registration and certification, and other types of information from several CS/PVO colleagues! An amazingly quick and prolific response to the satisfaction, I hope, of CARE-Mozambique!

"An ideal view of a Network: Networking (as a verb) would [occur] when the members have joint activities and when there is direct communication between them. The roles of the different members would vary, depending on their level of development. Weaker members could be seen as 'dots' (receiving technical assistance, information, and training) and the more mature members as 'stars' (providing advise, information, lessons learned, occasional technical assistance, etc.)".1

There are many types of networks. I have just mentioned two very elementary ones, personal and institutional, but even within these types of network there may be various levels of complexity. For example, at CARE we have a "Title II-Environmental Group" with whom I share technical information on the environment as it relates to Title II programmes. Is this a network? Does it have the minimum standards to qualify as such? Regardless of the answers, the important issue to keep in mind is that *"the success of any network depends on how its members relate to one another, and in turn, how they relate the network to their personal motivations, their culture and to the broader socio-political and economic contexts in which they function... Among the principal themes and lessons emerged is the idea that those networks which succeed in fostering sustained social change inevitably do more than simply link discrete units; they are more than associated data-bases or Internet connections. They are social exchange arrangements."*[2]

My concept of technical support is based on "facilitation" and not on "provision." Why facilitate? The amount of information being generated now in any particular technical area is so great that even the best data collection system will not be able to keep a technical advisor up-dated! Then, our response to the problem often may not be the most appropriate or correct! Even when we work in countries with significant technical limitations there exist local experiences, lessons, expertise and capacities that could be mobilised towards learning and improving program quality. Finally, facilitating allows for participation and appropriation of ideas, processes and decisions by the people involved. Activities which should be facilitated include access to and dissemination of information; the decision making process; lessons learned processes; mobilisation of local capacities and expertise; cross-fertilisation amongst projects, programmes, institutions; training; linkages with other institutions; etc. There is no possible way to facilitate technical support without the use of some type of networking mechanism. These could be formal networks with various forms of memberships and roles, but it can also be simpler mechanisms for "social-exchange," such as listservs.

"Networks began as a consequence of pull, therefore -toward realising a defined goal, filling a recognised gap or simply perceiving a value in coming together- are more likely to persist".[2]

Networking, even in a simple format such as the FAM EWG listserv, directly contributes by:

- providing a low cost mechanism for technical (environmental) information exchange (eventually including a database on EPA registration status of chemicals);
- providing a low cost and rapid mechanism for updating members on USAID regulations and policies;
- contributing to co-ordinate members actions on environmental issues as they approach negotiations with USAID/FFP;
- co-ordinating member CS positions on controversial environmental issues, such as pesticides and GMOs;
- contributing to the maintenance of an updated FAM Web site with environmental information; and in general,
- maintaining a core group of CS staff interested in food-aid management issues as they relate to the environment.

This type of low cost activity provides the donor with an efficient mechanism to reach the majority of its co-operating sponsors with updated information: regulations, deadlines, changes in procedures, warnings, etc. To PVOs who are investing in technical support, the far-reaching effects of networking should eventually impact Title II programme quality to the benefit of programme participants, implementing PVOs, and the donor. FAM and the member CSs, could well be more pro-active in making USAID/FFP aware of the effects and impact of the work of the EWG.

"Technical support is to a development organisation what research and development is to any industry: a means to maintain technical backstopping for its products in the field and to innovate, developing new uses for existing products and new products for changing or emerging markets. In summary, technical support is to stay ahead in the business".1

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The Continuing Collapse: Household Livelihood Security in Post-Soviet Tajikistan

Thoric Cederstrom, Save the Children, Washington, D.C.
Kamila Rakhimova, Mercy Corps International, Dushanbe, Tajikistan

Introduction

Since the initial breakup of the Soviet Union, the headlines have fallen silent about the living conditions of people throughout that former empire. Yet little is known about how families are coping with the involution of a political economic system that, in spite of tremendous financial costs and bureaucratic inefficiencies, did assure that a large majority of citizens were food secure. Under current conditions of weak central governments, stagnant economies, decaying infrastructure, and lack of basic services, households are stressed to provide their members with adequate nourishment.

Overall Conditions

Tajikistan faces important challenges to national and household food security. FAO classifies Tajikistan as a Low-Income Food Deficit Country (LIFDC). Estimates of overall malnutrition rates vary, but it is thought that approximately 34 percent of the total population was undernourished during 1995-1997. This means that two million people had dietary energy consumption below the minimum required to maintain body weight and perform light activity. Tajikistan is one of the poorest countries in Central Asia. GNP per capita is US $330 according to the World Bank. About 85 percent of the population is "poor": of these, 67 percent can be considered "ordinary poor" (where family incomes are sufficient to meet basic food and other needs); 12 percent are "extremely poor" (those who face extreme poverty, plus they are unable to care for themselves due to chronic illness or disability; those that are orphaned, aged, or living alone). Poverty is the principal cause of food insecurity. All income groups are affected: the poorest 20 percent only meets 53 percent of their nutritional requirements, and the richest 20 percent meets 76 percent. Real wages have fallen in 1996 to less than 5 percent of their 1991 value.

In terms of national food security, Tajikistan's food production meets only 53 percent of its requirements. Only 7 percent of the total land is arable, and 93 percent is mountainous. Land degradation is rampant. Cotton is the principal cash crop and wheat is the main food crop. Since the breakup of the Soviet Union, the amount of land dedicated to wheat production has increased 172 percent, while areas planted in cotton have declined by 7 percent. With exception to a few districts, most production areas are categorized as per capita wheat deficit. Adding to the overall problem, wheat yields are declining compared to a decade ago mostly due to lack of fertilizer and the improper application of irrigation water.

The food deficit is currently being filled by food aid from international donors. The European Community Humanitarian Organization (ECHO) reported in 1997 that 16.4 percent of households in Tajikistan—approximately one million people—were food insecure and dependent on food aid. The severe level of food insecurity translates into high rates of malnutrition. According to a nutritional survey conducted by Action Against Hunger in 1999, 41 percent of children under five were stunted and 11 percent were wasted. Infectious diseases, such as malaria and tuberculosis, are on the increase. Poor water and sanitation facilities contribute to the high rates of intestinal infections.

Survey Findings

The findings from the Household Livelihood Security (HHLS) survey, conducted during February-March 2000 under the auspices of Save the Children, CARE-International, Action Against Hunger, and Mercy Corps International, concur with the data from previous studies and provide further insights into the coping mechanisms that families are utilizing to deal with the harshness of their new reality in the post-Soviet era. This article briefly summarizes some of those findings as they relate to food security.

Nutritional Status of Children

A total of 730 randomly selected children between the ages of 6 and 59 months were weighed and measured and compared to the international reference population. Over 42 percent of the children sampled were stunted—this means that these children had not attained the height that was appropriate for their age. By international standards, this prevalence rate is considered to be very high. Over 26 percent of the children were underweight for their age, meaning that their weight was not adequate for their age. This could be broken down

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News from Washington

by Ellen Levinson

In July, shortly before Congress recessed for a 5-week summer break and the Democratic and Republican presidential conventions, several actions were taken that affect food aid programming:

1. Both the House and Senate passed versions of the FY 2001 Agriculture Appropriations bill, funding PL 480 title II funding at $770 million and $837 million, respectively. Since the House and Senate versions differ, House and Senate members will meet through September to develop a compromise FY 2001 Appropriations bill, and PVOs are urging acceptance of the higher $837 million figure.

2. A hearing was held by a Subcommittee of the Senate Agriculture, Nutrition, and Forestry Committee to discuss recommendations for legislative and regulatory reform of food aid and other agricultural export programs.

3. The Senate Agriculture Committee held a hearing on a proposal by US Ambassador to the UN agencies in Rome, George McGovern, and former Senator Bob Dole to establish school feeding programs worldwide, so "every child will have at least one meal each day."

Food Aid Administrative Reforms

On July 18, on behalf of the Coalition for Food Aid, Ellen Levinson testified before a Subcommittee of the Senate Agriculture Committee on the administration of USDA and USAID programs, making recommendations for reform. The Subcommittee Chairman (Pat Roberts, R-KS) and Ranking Member (Bob Kerrey, D-NE) were very supportive of the recommendations and would like to work with the Coalition to make improvements through regulation or legislation, as needed. The reforms suggested include:

1. *Establish a real partnership between PVOs and administrative agencies, USAID and USDA.* If a PVO has the capability to conduct programs, the administrative agency should enter into a generalized agreement with the PVO, based on performance standards rather than prescriptive requirements for program objectives, activities and indicators, and should grant the PVO greater managerial responsibility and flexibility for making changes during program implementations.

2. *Provide flexibility so food aid programs can be developed to address local constraints to food security.* For example, under USAID guidance, a PVO is supposed to develop a program that will either show a measurable increase agricultural productivity or improved nutritional status of children under the age of five within a five-year period. These are good measures of success for certain programs, but are not useful for food for education where improved attendance in school and improved educational quality may be appropriate, or for programs that help people create enterprises and increase incomes.

3. *Commodity issues should be addressed on a regular basis by USDA and USAID, in consultation with PVOs, the agricultural industry and agricultural groups, including the quality of micronutrients and packaging and the establishment of a transparent method for selecting eligible commodities for food aid programs and for USAID's "value-added" list.*

4. *Monetization should be guided by fair market price, rather than the USAID benchmark price, and the reality of the market should be factored into program agreements.* The sales value of a commodity estimated in the proposal will likely differ from the actual market price at time of sale since proposals may be developed a year or even more before a commodity is received. Flexibility should also be provided to allow the Cooperating Sponsor to switch to a different commodity or to modify the tonnage level in response to market conditions.

5. *Reliable and consistent time frames and transparent procedures for proposal submission and approval are needed, and staffing at USDA and USAID need to be enhanced.*

6. *Establish a reliable mechanism to provide food aid for urgent emergencies.* When a crisis occurs, rather than diverting commodities away from ongoing valuable programs, a mechanism is needed so the US can respond quickly and effectively to mitigate the loss of life and suffering. One way to achieve this goal is to modify the Bill Emerson Humanitarian Trust so it can be easily replenished. The Trust is a commodity reserve at USDA that can hold up to 4 MMT of a mix of wheat, rice, corn and sorghum, but now only holds 2.5 MMT.

7. *Double the Food for Progress program from 500,000 to 1,000,000 MT per year, triple the transportation funds available and make multi-year programs standard.*

8. *Reform procedures for the Food Aid Consultative Group (FACG) so final recommendations can be made on outstanding topics.* The FACG was established by law to require USAID to consult regularly with other government agencies, PVOs, WFP and agricultural producer groups on title II program requirements. At the last meeting of the FACG, PVO members distributed a list of recommended organizational improvements so that (1) non-governmental input could be timely and meaningful, (2) there is a timetable for action on specific issues, and (3) there are reliable procedures to address different topics and to prepare for meetings. These reforms need to be enacted.

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Food Forum

Editors and Staff Contributors:
Mara Russell, Steve Zodrow, Trisha Schmirler, Suzanne Lennon, Carol Horst, and Harold Tarver

Food Forum is published quarterly by Food Aid Management (FAM), an association of 17 United States Private Voluntary Organizations and Cooperatives working together to make U.S. food aid more efficient and effective. With its members, FAM works towards improved food security outcomes by promoting information exchange and coordination, providing forums for discussion and collaboration, and developing food aid standards. The Food Forum provides food aid and food security professionals with a forum for the exchange of technical information, field experience, and recent events.

Funding for the Food Forum is provided by the Office of Food for Peace, Bureau for Humanitarian Response, U.S. Agency for International Development. The opinions expressed are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of USAID.

Monitoring Progress of Title II Emergency Food Aid

The Office of Food for Peace/Emergency Response Division (FFP/ER) recently completed a review of its FY 1999 programs. FFP/ER provided 792,116 metric tons of Title II emergency food aid, valued at over $513 million, to more than 30 countries. This food aid provided critical support to 26.6 million beneficiaries. These numbers represent beneficiary levels that are supported by reports received from implementing partners, primarily the World Food Programme (WFP) and U.S. PVOs, government-to-government assistance to Ethiopia and Rwanda, and to the World Food Programme's Protracted Relief and Rehabilitation Operations (PRROs) that targeted over 10 million beneficiaries.

Title II Emergency Food Aid
New Beneficiaries Reached in 1999, by Region*:

	Beneficiaries Reached	% Reached of Targeted
Africa	7,484,543	81%
Asia & Near East	1,661,974	64%
Europe & Eurasia	2,510,889	91%
LAC/Caribbean	2,394,760	94%
Total:	14,052,166	82%

*Excludes government-to-government and PRRO programs.

In FY 1999, implementing partners undertook 52 programs, a significant increase from last year (37 programs). The majority of programs were implemented in Africa (19 programs), Latin America and the Caribbean (13), then Europe and Eurasia (10) and Asia and Near East (10).

The reporting year witnessed an unprecedented combination of events that dramatically increased the need for emergency food aid. Hurricanes Mitch and Georges struck Central America and the Caribbean in September/October 1998. This caused extensive damage and loss of life throughout the region. The crisis in Kosovo forced an estimated 700,000 people to cross the borders into Albania, Macedonia and Montenegro in spring 1999. Protracted emergencies continued in Africa.

Title II emergency food aid programs seek to meet critical food needs of people affected by disasters and civil strife. These are implemented by using the "5 rights" approach: provide the right food to the right people in the right place, at the right time, and in the right way. The majority of performance targets were met or exceeded. To expedite food delivery, FFP/ER first pilot-tested the pre-positioning of food items at U.S. load port with an initial authorization of 9,600 metric tons in FY 1998. In FY 1999, the authorization level increased to 65,000 metric tons valued at $30 million in response to the increased level of disasters.

Programs seek to maintain or improve the nutritional status of children aged 6-59 months living in regions affected by humanitarian emergencies. The majority of programs reported to have changed and/or maintained nutritional status of beneficiaries. The quality of nutritional status reporting has continued to improve with an increased number of programs able to provide supporting data. Starting from a base of 37 percent of programs (FY 1996) reporting improvement or maintenance of nutritional status of beneficiaries, this has incrementally improved to over 65 percent (FY 1999).

The Office of Food for Peace takes the major part of USAID's responsibility for reaching the U.S. Government's foreign policy goal to maintain the nutritional status of children under 5 affected by emergency situations. Improving and/or maintaining the nutritional status of children under 5 and reducing the crude mortality rate in emergency situations are two of USAID performance goals. Progress on pilot sites in Angola, Balkans, Burundi, Kenya, Nepal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda are tracked by the Refugee Nutrition Information System (RNIS) of the ACC/SCN and the Health Information Network for Advanced Contingency Planning (HINAP) of WHO that monitors health and nutritional status of refugees and displaced populations. In November 1999, World Vision/Sudan assisted this effort by pilot-testing a methodology to integrate the collection of data on mortality with ongoing nutrition surveys. The methodology will be shared with interested implementing partners. To assess its yearly performance, the Office of Food for Peace relies on reports from its implementing partners. Similar to fiscal years 1997 and 1998, FFP/ER received 100 percent return on the results reporting questionnaires from PVO partners. Information available from WFP also improved significantly. Improved reporting by implementing partners has led to a better understanding of Title II emergency food aid programs and appreciation for efforts and achievements in complex emergency situations. It is important to continue the efforts to monitor progress so that achievements, or lessons learned from failures, are shared.

Anne Ralte, MPH
MCH/Emergency Programming Specialist
Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project
(FANTA)/AED

[1] *USAID's Office of Food for Peace, Emergency Response Division (FFP/ER) administers the U.S. Government's P.L. 480 Title II emergency food aid. The Development Division undertakes Title II development activities related to food security, focusing on household nutrition and agricultural productivity.*

A copy of the Results Review report is available on USAID's website at www.usaid.gov.

continued from page 1

further into severe, moderate, and mild categories. Again, this malnutrition rate is very high by international standards. Finally, and of greatest concern, nearly 6 percent of the children sampled were wasted—their weight was not appropriate for their height. They are thin, their bodies are wasting away. This is a form of severe malnutrition also known as marasmus. This index is interpreted as a measure of current nutritional status of the children and sometimes labeled as "acute malnutrition." These children are thin for their height, which means that they are currently not getting enough food to meet their physical requirements or suffering illnesses such as diarrhea that are impeding food utilization. Such a high rate is comparable to nations with chronic food deficits, impaired distribution systems, rampant poverty, or emergency conditions. Malnutrition rates are higher in the rural areas surveyed than in the urban areas. In the case of Tajikistan, the explanation of such high malnutrition rates requires detailed analysis.

Food Availability

Household food availability in rural Tajikistan is compromised by a convergence of several factors. These are:

• *Land Access:* Due to an incomplete land reform process, access to agricultural land is the principal underlying constraint. Households reported having very limited landholdings, on average less than 0.1 hectares. Consequently, average food self-provisioning (wheat) was estimated to be only between 2-3 months.

• *Farming Systems:* Agriculture is heavily slanted toward cotton and wheat production on collective farms that do not maximize productivity. Use of inputs, such as chemical fertilizers and pesticides, are restricted due to a general lack of availability. Soil conditions, while not assessed in detail, do not seem to be favorable. Years of cotton production have exhausted soil fertility. Soil erosion is a very serious problem. Vegetable and root crop (potatoes) production is restricted to family garden plots. While garden productivity seems high, these crops are not usually consumed by the households surveyed, but rather sold or bartered for wheat to make up the production shortfall. Consequently diets are not diversified, with most households reporting consuming mainly bread and tea as their main daily staples. In urban areas, few households practice any type of agriculture at all. Some have household gardens, but these are usually very small; others have a few cows for milk.

• *Infrastructure and Technology:* The lack of maintenance of irrigation infrastructure—both delivery and drainage systems—has resulted in declined production and increased salinity. Technology, such as tractors and other farm equipment, sorely needs replacement and repair parts are unavailable or costly.

• *Livestock:* Livestock quality, especially cattle, is poor. Animals are stunted and in poor health. Few households reported owning livestock of any kind. There are minimal grazing lands and forage is limited to wheat stubble. Veterinarian support is weak and medicines are scarce.

• *Market Conditions:* Market integration is impeded by poor access roads and bridges in some communities, and high transport costs to regional centers. Farmers perceived farmgate prices to be extremely low and this discourages production for urban markets in faraway communities. Communities closer to the capital city with adequate transportation participated vigorously in the expanding market economy. There is no market information system for farmers to assist them in crop planning, resulting in cyclical downturns in prices due to oversupply of certain crops. Storage and processing systems are inadequate as well, and need to be updated.

Food Access

The ability of households to purchase food is constrained by high rates of unemployment, low salaries, and saturation of the informal sector. Coping mechanisms are varied, but hardly suffice so that families can make ends meet.

• *Unemployment:* Unemployment is rampant throughout all the areas surveyed in this study. A majority of individuals interviewed in the study are unemployed. Many have been unemployed for several years now. Non-professionals, such as women who clean the schools, find few opportunities to become self-employed. The transition to a free-market system is incomplete and will most likely remain so for the near future unless there is a miraculous influx of foreign investment to re-capitalize Tajikistan's rusting industrial infrastructure.

• *Salaries:* Besides high unemployment, those few that can claim to be employed receive very low wages and most have not been paid for a long time. Doctors, nurses, educators, administrators, and many other highly educated professionals find themselves scrambling to make ends meet by selling in the market. Women on the collective farms that cultivate cotton receive no monetary wages and work only for the cotton stubble that they use as fuel.

• *Informal Sector:* Individual coping mechanisms to deal with the lack of salaried income are varied and not always successful to the degree necessary to sustain families adequately. Participation in the market through retailing—either as primary producers or through the resale of something produced by someone else—emerges as a primary livelihood strategy for many households.

• *Coping Mechanisms:* The divestment of assets is another coping mechanism that threatens the underlying stability of household economies. To meet their food and other needs, many families have exhausted their savings accumulated during Soviet times and some have resorted to the sale of furniture (including carpets), farm technology, and other durable goods. Migration to Russia is emerging as an option for some young people in some surveyed communities, although the local population considers the perceived risks to such a venture high. In urban areas, the situation is only marginally better, the advantage being access to more vibrant and diversified markets. The civil war in southern regions left many women widowed and now they face serious challenges to provide for their families alone.

Food Utilization

Several factors coincide to restrict the optimal biological utilization of food by individual household members. These are:

• *Health Services:* Access to quality health services has deteriorated rapidly since Soviet times. Medicines have become scarcer and more expensive. Medical personnel are low paid and salaries are months overdue. De facto privatization of the health system is occurring throughout the areas surveyed where doctors and other health personnel are charging fees for their services and are selling medicines that were formerly subsidized.

• *Health Infrastructure and Equipment:* Health infrastructure is also decaying: hospitals, clinics, and other facilities are in bad shape. Buildings need repair and equipment is either faulty or

simply non-functional. In some cases equipment has disappeared. Few communities have appropriate vehicles to transport the critically ill to better facilities in regional centers.

• *Access to Medicines:* During Soviet times, medicines prescribed by doctors were subsidized. Under current circumstances, there is a charge for medicines by health service providers. Other suppliers of medicines are retailers in the major markets that obtain their goods through different channels and from different sources. Quality of these medicines varies.

• *Caretaker Practice:* Within the household, important behavioral practices contribute to malnutrition. Inappropriate weaning practices, i.e. late introduction of complementary foods and early introduction of complementary liquids—are probably important contributing factors to the high rates of malnutrition. Inappropriate disease management by caregivers also results in prolonged and worsened illnesses. High rates of anemia among women stem from inadequate diets that are low in appropriate iron sources. Malnutrition of women and children make them more susceptible to a host of illness, some of which can be deadly. The combination of malnutrition and illness limits both physical and mental productivity.

• *Water and Sanitation:* Limited access to safe drinking water, especially during the hot summer months, most likely contributes to intestinal infections and subsequent diarrhea results in seasonal weight loss in children. Typhoid was reported as an illness of concern in several communities. Few households reported having good quality water. Most drew their water from irrigation canals or from roof-catchment systems since many of the water pumps are broken. The quality of sanitation systems varies, but in the rural areas most are rudimentary at best.

• *Infectious Diseases:* There is a reported resurgent of infectious diseases such as tuberculosis and malaria that are not receiving adequate attention. Most health care providers reported having neither the necessary equipment to diagnose properly suspected diseases, nor access to the required medicines to treat them.

Education

The education system faces similar problems as the health care system. Dropout rates after primary school are increasing, especially for girls.

• *Salaries:* Teachers receive very low salaries and most have not been paid for months. To provide for their families, many teachers retail in the markets and others tutor students on the side. There seems to be an informal privatization of the education system, similar to what is occurring in the health care system, but the topic is quite sensitive and information provided by teachers and parents was sometimes contradictory with the teachers denying school fees and parents insisting that they did exist. Some teachers receive supplemental income from school gardens.

• *Infrastructure and Teaching Materials:* What was certain was that many schools are in poor physical condition, with general deterioration throughout. Most did not have fuel to heat the rooms during winter. Both teachers and parents reported a lack of school textbooks, teaching materials, and other educational resources.

• *Attrition:* Many parents reported that their children did not attend school due to the poor quality of their clothing. Parents and teachers alike appreciated greatly the school-feeding program, noting that the nutritional input was crucial for their learning. Finally, the assessment detected a disturbing trend that is reflected in national level data—girls are not continuing their education after primary school. The reasons cited were: lack of clothes, school fees, and schools too far away from home. Education, especially for girls, is one of the most important factors determining long-term food security. The fracturing of Tajikistan's educational system poses a serious threat to economic recovery.

Infrastructure

Due to the civil war, serious damage was done to irrigation systems and other aspects of rural infrastructure. A more important factor contributing to the overall decay of infrastructure, however, has been the lack of maintenance and repair. Currently, local communities and district governments struggle to maintain and repair things as best they can.

• *Roads and Bridges:* Main arteries to the south of the country are in fairly good shape. The highway to Darband in the north is in poor shape and many bridges have been destroyed from floods. In the Vose area to the south, many bridges were washed out during the floods of 1998 and have yet to be reconstructed. Access roads to some of the more remote communities are in poor condition. This impedes the active participation of these communities in the market.

• *Water and Sanitation:* Most of the communities did not have functioning drinking water systems. People reported taking their water for drinking and domestic purposes from canals, springs, or from roof catchment systems. Domestic sanitation systems consist mainly of latrines of variable quality.

• *Irrigation:* Irrigation systems, upon which the agriculture of the south is highly dependent, are in poor condition and some are not functional at all. Many of the concrete lined canals were destroyed during the civil war and have not been rebuilt. Earthen canals have taken their place and water loss is probably high. Water application is not maximized because fields are not leveled. Increased salinization is occurring throughout the irrigated areas of the south, because drainage systems are not being maintained. The resulting swamps are also facilitating a resurgent of malaria by providing a suitable habit for the mosquito vector.

• *Electricity:* During Soviet times, electricity was supplied to all households in all communities 24 hours a day. Now, most communities report intermittent electrical service, in some cases only 2 hours a day. Another major constraint is the maintenance and repair of the transformers in each community. When one breaks down, it is often months before the money can be raised to pay for its repair.

Gender

The gender issues surrounding men-women relations in Tajikistan are complex and are a result of the a survival of certain Soviet-era policies and attitudes, the resurgence of traditional belief and practices influenced by Islam, and the pressure of emerging capitalist relationships that force women into the market economy. On paper, women's legal status is protected, in reality the situation is less clear. The issue of women's rights and girls education will be a central concern in the coming years.

continued on page 6

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Community Action

It was the impression of the team that conducted the HHLS survey that people will respond well to a community mobilization approach to the pressing issues that they are facing. Under the previous regime, community affairs were handled in a top-down, centralized fashion so there is limited experience in community action outside the official structure of the government. At the same time, Tajik people have considerable organizational experience from Soviet times. With the right approach, these skills could be mobilized for participatory community development.

Conclusions

Tajikistan faces challenging constraints to livelihood security. A variety of policy issues, ecological factors, behavioral practices, infrastructure decay, institutional degeneration, incomplete market integration, stymied economic development, and generalized poverty collude in both urban and rural areas to create unfavorable living conditions for the vast majority of Tajik citizens. As a result, malnutrition rates among children are unacceptably high for a nation with a good natural resource endowment, a highly educated population, and a formerly dynamic economy. A combination of interventions will be required to create the necessary conditions so that a majority of households can experience a significant and lasting improvement in the quality of their lives that includes secure access to food, stable income generation, improved educational opportunities for their children, and quality health services.

For a complete copy of the report, please contact:
Jennifer Smith (Jsmith@dc.savechildren.org),
Save the Children, 1620 I. St., NW, Washington, DC 20006

continued from page 2

Global Food for Education Initiative

On July 27, 2000, the Senate Committee on Agriculture held a hearing to review the McGovern/Dole proposal for a school feeding initiative. In addition, they reviewed the July 23, 2000 announcement by President Clinton that a $300 million Section 416 pilot program would be conducted in FY 2001 for a "Global Food for Education Initiative" (the "Pilot Program"). Three witnesses presented the PVO perspective: Kenneth

Hackett, Executive Director of Catholic Relief Services, Dr. Beryl Levinger, Education and Food Aid Specialist, and Ellen Levinson, Executive Director of the Coalition for Food Aid. Together, their testimony supported the expanded use of food aid for education and shed light on the technical, programmatic and administrative issues that need to be considered. Chairman Dick Lugar (R-IN) and other Committee members were very responsive to the issues raised by PVOs.

The Pilot Program is on a fast track – USDA will try to have programs underway before the end of the calendar year. Below is a summary of key points made by PVOs about the Pilot Program and how they were received at the hearing, in meetings with congressional offices, and at meetings with USDA and the White House.

1. A food aid initiative for pre-school and primary school is a positive development and should include components to improve the quality of education and access to education. [The White House, USDA and interested congressional offices generally agree, but many of these officials also believe that a meal alone could provide benefits, even if it cannot be measured as a nutritional impact or improved learning.]

2. Countries that have made a commitment to education, but are not able to afford education for all, are appropriate targets. If US assistance is provided, it should target lower income countries and populations. [Congressional offices, the White House and USDA seem to agree with this idea. However, they also would like to be able to target countries that would take over the school feeding within a few years, which is not possible with poorer countries. So, this issue is under discussion.]

3. PVOs would enter into agreements directly with USDA to implement food for education programs under the Pilot Program. [Congress supports this and the White House and USDA have stated their support, as well. Originally, WFP had recommended that the entire program, both food aid and any complimentary funding, should managed by WFP. However, PVOs did not agree that WFP should be an intermediary for PVO programs and that USDA now plans to have some agreements directly with PVOs and some with WFP.]

4. In order for PVOs to enter into agreements with the US Government in a timely and efficient manner, it is necessary to develop a standard, global agreement for PVOs. It can be used in the Pilot Program for entering into agreements with PVOs that have demonstrated capacity to carry out food aid programs and a history of best practices in such things as program development, implementation, monitoring and accountability. [There is interest at the White House and USDA to try this approach in the Pilot Program.]

5. Cash assistance will be needed along with food for internal transportation, storage and handling, administrative costs and technical assistance. [Under the Pilot Program, USDA will permit distribution and monetization, and some dollar assistance will also be available for ITSH and administration.]

6. Multi-year programs are necessary for these programs to be effective. [Up to 3-year agreements will be available for the Pilot Program, but the out-years will be subject to the availability of commodities.]

7. The Initiative would have to be in addition to existing funding and programming under P.L. 480 Title II and Food for Progress, and programs should be new starts or expanded programs, not replacements for existing programs. [So far, this idea has been endorsed verbally by congressional offices, the White House and USDA. PVOs must remain vigilant to be sure that other food aid programs are not reduced to accommodate school feeding and that USAID does not eliminate food for education because of the Section 416 Pilot Program.]

Report From the Field: West Africa Title II Monitoring and Evaluation Workshop

August 8, 2000

Thirty-seven participants from the Title II community attended a recent workshop in Bamako, Mali from 29 May to 2 June 2000. Most of the current Title II programs in the region (sixteen of seventeen) sent representatives along with regional and headquarters staff and a participant from a country about to submit a proposal. Organizations represented included Africare, ACDI-VOCA, CARE, CRS, World Vision, Winrock International, OICI, ADRA and TechnoServe. Staff from the USAID Regional Food for Peace Office (RFFPO), the Title II officer from Conakry, Guinea and from the Program Office in USAID/Bamako also attended.

This workshop was in response to a long-standing request from Title II Cooperating Sponsors in the Region for information on monitoring and evaluation (M&E) and Title II regulation. The USAID Regional Food for Peace Officer, Nancy Estes, advocated for the workshop and identified the necessary resources from USAID.

The development of workshop materials and the participation of the Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) were supported by the Office of Food for Peace with additional funding from the Office of Health and Nutrition of the Global Bureau. USAID/Bamako hosted the workshop and provided invaluable logistical assistance. The Regional Food for Peace Office opened their doors, literally, to the workshop participants, as several of the small groups met in their offices.

There were two major objectives for the workshop: 1) to develop a regional network among monitoring and evaluation specialists, and 2) to provide training in selected areas of monitoring and evaluation. To encourage PVO participation in the development of the workshop, a survey was sent to all the PVOs in January 2000 to determine priority topics. A review of responses with USAID/Washington and the Regional Food For Peace Office resulted in the selection of five topics: managing for results from an M&E perspective; designing an evaluation plan; developing an evaluation scope of work; developing indicators; and data validity and reliability.

The workshop was the first-ever on monitoring and evaluation among the West African Title II organizations. Because of the diverse backgrounds and experiences of participants, an overview of basic M&E principles was prepared. A case study was also developed based on current Title II programs along with a set of group exercises linked to the five technical presentations. The workshop agenda was flexible and organized to allow time for participant questions and discussions including sharing information about their programs.

Based on participant feedback, the technical presentations were condensed to allow more time for discussion and small group work. Because of a decision to be as inclusive as possible, non-francophone participants had also been invited, so the presentations (in French) were translated for English-speaking participants at one table in the conference room.

All of the Title II PVOs prepared presentations on their programs; for example, representatives from Africare shared their community-based information system. There was a great deal of interest in discussing common problems and how to solve them, and participants acknowledged the depth and breadth of regional experience available. Daily evaluation forms and feedback sessions permitted concerns to be voiced and provided a mechanism for modifying the agenda to address these concerns.

There are a number of recommendations and observations from this workshop. FANTA looks forward to working with the FAM members and USAID to ensure valuable and relevant training opportunities.

1) **Regional Networking:** Participants felt that it was useful to have a shared forum for exchanging ideas, solutions and expertise. One way to approach this is to hold separate technical workshops in English and French with a bridge of several days for a regional meeting.

2) **Technical Presentations:** Limit the number of technical presentations. Five technical topics were too many to cover in five days and allow for group work and participation. Limiting the key themes to two would allow these to be explored in more depth.

3) **Workshop Format:** The workshop should be participatory and foster group problem solving and discussion. Technical briefing materials, such as case studies, guides, articles, or lengthy presentations could be sent out in advance of the workshop. This would give people a chance to read and absorb much of the theoretical content prior to the workshop. The workshop could focus on clarifying and providing hands-on practice in applying the theoretical concepts.

4) **Questions/Answers:** The question and answer sessions at the Bamako meeting were lively. For future workshops, it would be helpful to have participants submit questions in advance to jumpstart discussions at the workshop.

5) **Sectoral Focus:** Working groups should be organized by sector with specific activities. This will make the workshop exercises more relevant and encourage regional collaboration among PVOs.

6) **Site Visits:** Participants were divided as to whether the difficulties of logistics outweighed the benefits of seeing the different monitoring elements in action.

7) **Country Program Presentations:** Information about individual programs (approach, sectoral concentration, length in the system) should be presented and linked to the technical themes.

8) **Facilitation/Workshop Management:** There should be a team approach to workshop management and facilitation. Reducing the number of technical presentations to provide more in-depth coverage means that there will be more time for small-group work, site visits, or even pre/post-workshop assignments.

9) **Language of Workshop:** Limit the language to French in the workshop. Using both French and English posed some limitations for the participants and presenters. Future workshops would benefit from the use of one language.

Proceedings from the workshop, frequently asked M&E questions and other workshop materials (in French and English) will be available from FANTA in September. (www.fantaproject.org)

FAM M&E Working Group ISA Progress to Date As of June 2000

Background

At the 1997 FAM Annual Meeting, a Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Working Group was formed to help address the priority M&E issues and needs of the FAM membership during the next five to six years. Two objectives were established for the group:

- determine the needs of FAM's members as they relate to organizational capacity to successfully carry out Title II M&E activities
- oversee the development of a toolbox of recommended M&E methodologies and instruments for a variety of food aid sectors

The first objective was achieved via a survey of FAM membership in late 1997. The second objective was further developed in 1998 and became the main focus of the M&E group's ISA proposal. Thus, the general objective of the FAM M&E working group for the 1998-2003 ISA was to oversee the development of a set of robust tools and instructions for monitoring and evaluating Title II programs. These tools were to focus on the following Title II program areas: agriculture, health and nutrition, natural resource management, small/micro-enterprise development, education, and safety net. For each of these program areas, tools and instructions were to be developed for pre-project rapid assessments, project baseline surveys, project monitoring, mid-term project evaluations, and final project impact evaluations.

The tools and instructions were to be developed by reviewing current tools and instructions being used by experts both inside and outside the Title II PVO community. The review was to include at least the following:

- an analysis and report of what the tool is and how it works
- a detailed cost analysis for the use of the tool in various settings (including human resources, community involvement, etc.)
- a report on the level of rigor and quality of data obtained from the use of the tool
- a report on the circumstances/situations under which the use of the tool would be optimal
- a report on the limitations associated with the use of the tool
- a list and analysis of indicators that can correctly be monitored or evaluated using the tool (beginning with the FFP generic list and working out)
- identification of qualified and experienced technical assistance (especially locally-based) in the correct use of the tool

Progress Toward Achievement of Objectives and Other Activities:

Agriculture Tool

During the first 16 months of the ISA, the M&E working group focused on the food security program area of agriculture. In the early months of work on reviewing baseline surveying methods and tools for agriculture, the working group learned the following lessons and made the following adjustments:

- The proposed separate reviews of baseline, mid-term and final evaluation methods and tools were deemed to be redundant and it was decided to combine the three into one review.
- Useful cost data were extremely difficult to obtain and it was decided not to include this area in the review.
- Due to insufficient information and contacts, the identification of qualified and experienced technical assistance (especially locally-based) in the correct use of the tool was not possible and it was decided not to include this area in the review.

The first review was completed in September 1998. It is entitled "Review of Agriculture Project Baseline Surveying Methods of Title II Funded PVOs: Part I - Socio-economic Methods." The document can be obtained from FAM's website (www.foodaid.org).

In the process of completing the first review, it became evident that a second review would need to be conducted — one which would focus on agricultural bio-physical baseline and evaluation methods. This review began in July 1999 and the first draft was completed later that year. Due to the desire of the working group to create a user-friendly product, it is still going through revisions with a scheduled uploading to the FAM site set for August 2000.

Health and Nutrition Tool

The health and nutrition review is currently being done, with an expected completion date of September 30, 2000. The review is focusing on current techniques, methods, and tools that are available for use in health/nutrition baseline surveys or evaluations in Title II programs.

As with the agriculture review, the decision was made to combine baseline and evaluation methods into one review, and not to address the cost associated with the tool or methodology. The review will include:

- an analysis of what the method or tool is and how it works
- a report on the level of rigor and quality of data obtained from the use of the method or tool
- a report on the circumstances/situations under which the use of the method or tool would be optimal
- a report on the limitations associated with the use of the method or tool
- a list and analysis of indicators that can be correctly evaluated using the tool, focusing on the FFP list of generic indicators and other specified indicators commonly used in Title II health/nutrition programs

Workshops

The working group partnered with FANTA to hold a "Sampling for Managers" workshop in May 1999. A total of 16 participants were present for the three-day event. A post-workshop evaluation completed by the participants revealed that 94% felt that the training objectives were achieved and their expectations were met. In the final session of the workshop, participants brainstormed on next steps and it was decided that a follow-up data analysis workshop would be organized in the field. A committee within the working group is now planning that workshop which will be held in Nairobi in November 2000. Proceedings from the Sampling workshop can be downloaded from the FAM website.

FANTA/FAM Technical Advisory Group (TAG)

An additional activity of the M&E working group's ISA proposal was to form a technical advisory group within FANTA. Over the past two years, the TAG has been working on the following areas/tasks:

- adapting positive deviance approaches to Title II development programs
- strengthening MCHN within Title II programs
- working with Credit with Education
- conducting operations research activity to field test a hunger index indicator for Title II development programs, both as a food security indicator and as a proxy for income and food consumption
- transitioning from emergency to development programming
- planning M&E workshops

News on progress regarding these 6 initiatives can be obtained by contacting the FANTA project (fanta@aed.org).

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Concepts of Community Development	Jan 29-02	Mar 26-30	Apr 23-27	2
Practicum/Research Supervision	Jan 15-02	Mar 12-30	Apr 09-27	1

2002: Planning and Evaluation (7 SC)	**Kenya**	**Costa Rica**	**Thailand**	**Credits**
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Program Planning/Grantwriting	Jan 21-25	Mar 18-22	Apr 15-19	2
Program Evaluation	Jan 28-01	Mar 25-29	Apr 22-26	2
Practicum/Research Supervision	Jan 14-01	Mar 11-29	Apr 08-26	1

2003: NGO Mngmt. and Leadership (7 SC)	**Kenya**	**Costa Rica**	**Thailand**	**Credits**
Organizational Behavior	Jan 13-22	Mar 10-19	Apr 07-16	3
Management of NGOs	Jan 22-31	Mar 19-28	Apr 16-25	3
Practicum/Research Supervision	Jan 13-31	Mar 10-28	Apr 07-25	1

2004: Accountability (7 SC)	**Kenya**	**Costa Rica**	**Thailand**	**Credits**
Comprehensive Examination	Jan 12-13	Mar 08-09	Apr 05-06	1
Financial Analysis and Reporting	Jan 14-23	Mar 10-19	Apr 07-16	3
Ethics in Development	Jan 26-30	Mar 22-26	Apr 19-23	2
Practicum/Research Supervision	Jan 12-30	Mar 08-26	Apr 05-23	1

Concentrations (6-12 Semester Credits)

Various concentrations are being designed, scheduled and delivered with input from students and participating NGOs.

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- Collegiate Development Education
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- Infant and Maternal Health
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FSRC Resources on Maternal/Child Health

This quarter we are presenting a bibliography on maternal/child health. The FSRC contains many documents relating to maternal/child health in areas concerning child malnutrition, infant and child feeding (including breastfeeding and complementary feeding), maternal/child nutrition, supplementary nutrition and child survival. This is an overview of what the FSRC contains on the topic of maternal/child health. The FSRC holds many more documents, some general, and some more specific, related to the topic we are presenting.

If you would like to order copies of any of the following materials please contact:

Food Aid Management
1625 K St. NW 5th Floor
Washington, DC 20006
fam@foodaid.org
ph: (202) 223-4860

Suzanne E. Lennon
Intern

CARE India's RTE Experience in Uttar Pradesh (An Assessment) Supplementary Nutrition Food for Preschool Children, Pregnant Women and Lactating Mothers. *Integrated Export and Shipping Services Company. 104p. 1998. #7404* The paper discusses CARE India's Ready to Eat (RTE) experience in its Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) program, which targets the improvement childhood malnutrition with supplementary nutrition. Supplementary nutrition is provided by a chain of Anganwadi Centers (AWCs) who receive PL-480 Title II food commodities from the Integrated Nutrition and Health Program (INHP). The paper provides a collection of data and findings on the importance of RTE.

Infant and Child Feeding Indicators Measurement Guide. *FANTA. 54p. 1999.* This is a series of guides developed by FANTA (formerly IMPACT) to assist Cooperating Sponsors and USAID in monitoring and evaluating MCH Title II programs. The guide includes indicator definitions and a prototype questionnaire, developing the questionnaire, designing a survey, staff preparation, instructions for interviewers, and calculating and interpreting the indicators. This document can be downloaded free of charge from FANTA's website, which can be found by searching www.fantaproject.org/publications.htm

Vital Nutrients: Supporting Life, Health, and Productivity through Iron, Iodine, and Vitamin A Nutrition. *Vitamin A Field Support Project (VITAL); International Science and Technology Institute, Inc. (ISTI); Sangvi, Tina G. 36p. #7225* This document is an overview of recent studies on micronutrients, why micronutrient deficiencies occur, who is at risk, and how professionals can prevent and control micronutrient deficiencies. Micronutrients have been found to save the lives of mothers and children, to initiate mental development, protect against disease, and improve strength for physical work.

Population of dynamics of Sub-Saharan Africa: Effects of Health Programs on Child Mortality in Sub-Saharan Africa. *National Research Council, Ewbank, Douglas C., Gribble, James N., Committee on Population, Panel on the Population Dynamics of Sub-Saharan Africa. 191p. 1993. #7176* This report is part of a 4-part study conducted by the Panel on the Population Dynamics of Sub-Saharan Africa. This volume attempts to document the effects of general health and child survival programs on mortality, and examines the effects of general health programs that have been implemented in various settings in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Innovative Approaches to Child Survival: Summaries of Evaluation Studies by La Leche League, Project HOPE, Project Concern, and World Relief. *BASICS, Burkhalter, Barton R., Bashir, Naheed. 39p. 1998. #7001* A collection of summaries of child survival programs conducted by four different PVO's. The studies demonstrate creative ways to solve today's problems relating to child survival. Some of these new approaches include breast-feeding counselors, community nutrition programs, and peer training programs which teach immunization to improve coverage and quality.

Child Survival Program for the Children of Tombouctou, Mali: Focus Group Survey. *Islamic African Relief Agency (IARA). 40p. 1997. #6960* The purpose of this project is to reduce the rates of infantile and maternal morbidity and mortality in the five subdivisions of Tombouctou. This paper reports the findings of a survey conducted in October 1997 with eleven groups from the region, and reveals customs and practices with regard to health and nutrition. The groups included in the survey were six groups of women and five groups of men, all who are parents of children up to two years of age. Results of survey helped obtain applicable information on infant nutrition, the diets of mothers, and the use of health services.

Development Activity Proposal FY 1997-2001: Ghana. *Catholic Relief Services, Gilliland, Lynne. 90p. 1996. #6930* CRS proposes to increase food security in the Northern, Upper East, Upper West, and Brong Ahafo regions of Ghana. The goals of this DAP are to increase food security at the household level; to improve rural primary education and to reduce child morbidity and mortality among rural infants and children aged 0 to 23 months. Special objectives include the preparation for and response to emergency situations and to phase out general relief activities.

Gender, Household Food Security and Coping Strategies. *Laier, Julie Koch, Davies, Susanna, Milward, Kirsty, Kennan, Jane, Institute of Development Studies. 119p. 1996. #6865* An Annotated Development Bibliography drawing together diversified literature on household food security and strategies for coping with food crises in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, with gender and women as the point of entry. Instead of looking exclusively at women and children, this bibliography analyzes the inequality between men and women, the implications of food security, and coping strategies of men, women, and children in the household.

Trends and Differentials in Child Mortality: Zimbabwe, 1970-1994. *Demographic and Health Surveys, Macro International, Inc., Marindo, Ravai, Hill, Kenneth. 16p. 1997. #6820* This study presents

findings from the 1988 and 1994 Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey Project data to examine time trends in mortality in young children as well as differences in mortality risk among population subgroups. It explores questions about the timing of change, about differentials, and about the factors associated with change, focusing on the relative contributions of improvements in education versus the effects of declining fertility. The study provides informative graphs and data tables.

Key Indicators for Family Planning Projects. *Bulatao, Rodolfo A. 33p. 1995. #6793* The paper includes a specific list of ten indicators that are advantageous to most programs. These ten touch on all areas of the family planning program including inputs, capacity and process, outputs, behavioral outcomes, and demographic outcomes. An important factor that family planning brings to maternal/child health is birth spacing. Birth spacing allows the mother to gain energy between pregnancies, devote more time to other children, and provide longer time intervals for breastfeeding.

Development Project Proposal (DPP): Targeted Food Assistance to At-Risk Mothers and Children and Food-for-Work for Health and Sanitation, Leon and Chinandega, Region II, Nicaragua. *Save the Children (Nicaragua). 21p. 1995. #6624* Development project proposal from Save the Children to apply PL 480 Title II food commodities to control food insecurity in Nicaragua. The project proposal directs attention toward reducing household food insecurity of pregnant and lactating women and children under the age of five, reducing maternal and child morbidity and mortality, and improving sanitation.

Food, Health and Care: The UNICEF Vision and Strategy for a World Free from Hunger and Malnutrition. *UNICEF. 40p. 1996. #5623* A commentary in which UNICEF offers their vision and strategies for combating infant and adult malnutrition, protein-energy malnutrition, and micronutrient deficiencies. UNICEF plans approaches based around the promotion of breast-feeding, the availability of supplements or fortified foods and the triple-A approach which combines assessment, analysis, and action to improve the nutrition of women and children.

Africa Nutrition: Nutrition and Health Status of Young Children and Their Mothers. *USAID, Macro International Inc., IMPACT/ FANTA Food Security and Nutrition Project. 1992-95. Four volumes #5595-5598.* Findings from the demographic and health survey conducted in four different areas over the course of four years. These areas included Senegal (1992-93), Kenya (1993), Zimbabwe (1994), and Uganda (1995).

Beyond Child Survival: An Assessment of Infant and Child Nutrition in Africa. *Nutrition Communication Project, USAID. 73p. 1995. #1464* Report on the state of maternal/child health in Africa touching on the effects of nutrition on child survival and long-term goals. The chapters focus on a variety of different areas. These areas include the relationships between child mortality, malnutrition, and high fertility rates; the status of African women and children based on women's feeding practices and nutritional status before and after pregnancy; and possible solutions involving nutrition interventions to address child survival.

Maternal Nutrition and Pregnancy Outcomes: Anthropometric Assessment. *Krasovec, Katherine, Anderson, Mary Ann, Pan American Health Organization. 213p. 1991. #1110* A resource looking at the significance of maternal outcomes in maternal/child health. Most of the concern in the area of maternal/child health has been directed to the needs of the child, however this document confirms the significance of the nutritional status of the mother. The book offers useful information and recommendations for the identification of anthropometric indicators that can be applied under conditions in developing countries.

Learning to Listen to Mothers: A Trainers Manual to Strengthen Communication Skills for Nutrition and Growth Promotion. *Nutrition Communication Project, USAID. 79p. 1993. #1060* Training manual designed to educate people on how to counsel mothers of small children. The manual targets field supervisors of Growth, Monitoring, and Promotion (GMP) programs.

Disaster Relief and Rehabilitation: Policy Issues Related to Women and Children. *Sapir, Debarati G., WHO. 20p. 1993. #910* This paper identifies seven areas where steps can be taken to improve relief response to disasters. The paper is describes the context of natural disasters and draws attention toward issues, which affect children and the maternal status women.

Question/Answer on Infant Feeding: A Panel of Experts Takes a New Look. *Roberts, Anne, Koniz-Booher, Peggy, Fishman, Claudia, Parlato, Margaret. 29p. 1991. #599* A reference laid out in question/answer format to address infant feeding. Topics of discussion include the relationship between breast-feeding and maternal nutritional status, the growth of an exclusively breast-fed child, the use of supplemental liquids, and when to introduce complementary foods.

The Effectiveness of Maternal and Child Health (MCH) Supplementary Feeding Programs: An analysis of performance in the 1980's and potential role in the 1990's. *USAID, Mora, Jose, King, Joyce, Teller, Charles H., Logical Technical Services Corporation. 129p. 1990. #374* A review of MCH feeding programs during the 1980's to examine how programs can be improved in the 1990's. The document looks at findings from the previous program and offers recommendations to improve future MCH feeding projects.

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Addressing the Roots of Conflict & Food Insecurity in Sierra Leone

Background

The twentieth century witnessed recurrent outbreaks of conflict in Sierra Leone. Often rooted in long-standing social, political or resource tensions, many of these conflicts began in rural areas. As recently as 1983, a rebellion in the south of the country was violently put down. The current insurgency began in the same area and found initial support by exploiting the unresolved tensions that gave rise to the 1983 conflict. Many of these same tensions prevail today even as new ones emerge. The present war is the latest turn in a cycle of recurrent conflict stretching back more than a century.

Between 1991-2001, the war in Sierra Leone has claimed an estimated 70,000 lives, resulted in countless thousands of physically and psychologically traumatized casualties, displaced up to 50 percent of the 4.5 million population, and destroyed much of the country's physical and social infrastructure. Sierra Leone remains at the bottom of UNDP's global Human Development Index. A large part of the civilian population continues to subsist on humanitarian aid in an environment characterized by extreme physical and political insecurity and ongoing human rights violations.

CARE's Response

CARE Sierra Leone decided to investigate whether its humanitarian assistance could address the *causes*, as well as the *consequences* of the war. Since April 2000, the country office (CO) has accommodated an action-research project (sponsored by the Social Science Research Council) examining whether a human rights framework could be used to positively link humanitarian assistance with the root causes of conflict and human rights violations[1]. A project confronting the roots of conflict and food insecurity through a rights-based approach (RBA) has emerged from the research.

Why Incorporate RBA?

The illicit diamond trade is popularly portrayed as the root cause of the war in Sierra Leone. It is a major contributory factor, but an analysis that presents it as ***the*** root cause of the war detracts attention from other causal factors. CARE proposed that deeper understanding of the factors maintaining the conflict would reveal the potential for programming to address its causes as well as its consequences.

Remote rural communities have borne the brunt of the war. Research consultations were conducted in recently resettled communities in remote areas of CARE's operational area, and began by simply asking, *"Why do you think the war happened?"* Findings revealed widespread, deep-rooted problems of social and economic exclusion of individuals and groups (particularly youth and women) by elite patronage and governance networks. With devastating results, the 'rebel' RUF skillfully manipulated generations of accumulated discontent. The movement identified and manipulated grievance and injustice within communities, setting individuals and groups against each other, and igniting cycles of violence and revenge.

After a decade of war and displacement many rural people now want to 'stop blaming diamonds and start talking about why we have these wars'. CARE had identified an emerging discourse about the causes of conflict. The next task was to examine whether our work had impacted positively or negatively on the situation, and whether a human rights framework could be used to link it to local discussions about the roots of the war.

In common with all agencies, CARE had been working with local authority structures to assist with identification of project participants and distribution of inputs. Research consultations revealed that local hierarchies have systematically misappropriated NGO inputs. Historical 'root cause' problems have become established within the decade-long relief effort. Unwittingly, donor and NGO inputs are

[1] The CARE / SSRC research project is a collaboration between Steve Archibald of CARE's *Conflict and Human Rights Project* (based in CARE UK) and Professor Paul Richards of Wageningen University, NL. Opportunities for sharing the research and the resultant approach with COs operating in similar circumstances are currently being pursued.

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News From Washington

by Ellen Levinson

Several important congressional actions took in the last half calendar year 2001. First, Congress approved higher funding for PL 480 title II for FY 2002, increasing the appropriations to $850 million from the $835 million provided in FY 2001. Second, Congress has been working on significant reforms of US food aid programs as part of the "Farm Bill," which will reauthorize food and agricultural programs for the next 5 to 10 years.

The new Farm Bill must be passed before the close of FY 2002, on September 30, 2002. However, Congress originally planned to finish the legislation in 2001, and there is concern that by waiting until 2002 there may be less money available to fund increases in various agricultural programs, including food aid.

This article briefly explains the status of the Farm Bill and some of the key elements important to food aid.

House Bill Passed

The House of Representatives passed H.R. 2646, The Agricultural Act of 2001, to revise farm and agricultural programs. Title III, the "Trade Title," increases PL 480 Title II minimum tonnage levels and section 202(e) support funds, provides a small expansion of the USDA Food for Progress program, clarifies that monetization may be for dollars or for foreign currencies and provides authority for an International Food for Education and Nutrition program, which would not be automatically funded but would be subject to annual approval of appropriations by Congress.

Senate Bill Stalled

The Senate is still debating a bill, S. 1731, presented by the Chairman of the Senate Agriculture, Nutrition and Forestry Committee, Senator Tom Harkin (D-IA). Title III, the Trade Title of the Harkin Farm Bill, along with several amendments that Harkin will present as part of the Bill, would make important changes in food aid programs. The fate of the Harkin Bill is unclear, because Senate Republicans are blocking action that Bill as they try to build support for a different version sponsored by Senators Pat Roberts (R-KS) and Thad Cochran (R-MS).

The Harkin Bill includes many provisions promoted by PVOs and agricultural groups. (The Administration did not take a formal position on the food aid provisions in the Farm Bill, House or Senate versions.) Some salient points are:

- Increases PL 480 tonnage from 2.025 MMT to 2.5 MMT over five years. The House bill increases the level to 2.25 MMT.
- Increases Section 202(e) support funds from a range of $10-28 million to 5-10 percent of Title II funds. For FY 2002 this would be equivalent to $43-85 million. The House bill has the same language.
- Urges approval of a diversity of programs to achieve the food security and development purposes of Title II.
- Calls for the establishment of streamlined procedures for food aid proposals and multi-country agreements with PVOs that can certify that they have good management and accountability procedures in place and have demonstrated that they can responsibly implement food aid programs. This "Institutional Partner" provision is included in Title II, Food for Progress and Section 416 programs.
- States that monetization under USDA and USAID programs should allow sales for dollars or foreign currencies, the sales price should be based on local market prices in the recipient country, and there should not be a disincentive to local production or marketing or regular patterns of commercial sales.
- Slightly expands Food for Progress funding for transportation and administration costs and calls for at least 400,000 MT to be shipped each year using CCC funds. In recent years, CCC-funded Food for Progress could only provide about 225,000 MT, while demand was closer to 3 MMT.
- Establishes an International Food for Education and Nutrition program to be funded by CCC at $150,000,000 each fiscal year through FY 2005. Funding would be available for procuring the commodity, shipping, internal transportation and distribution, and administrative costs, and monetization would also be permitted.
- For both USDA and USAID programs, calls for approvals within the first few months of a fiscal year. The House has similar language for USDA programs. The intent is to assure that there are early approvals so commodities may be ordered and delivered in an orderly fashion throughout the year.

Food Forum

Editors and Staff Contributors:
Mara Russell
Steve Zodrow
Trisha Schmirler
Wanjiku Kiereini

PVO Guest Editor:
Carla Denizard, OICI

Food Forum is published quarterly by Food Aid Management (FAM), an association of 16 United States Private Voluntary Organizations and Cooperatives working together to make U.S. food aid more efficient and effective. With its members, FAM works towards improved food security outcomes by promoting information exchange and coordination, providing forums for discussion and collaboration, and developing food aid standards. The Food Forum provides food aid and food security professionals with a forum for the exchange of technical information, field experience, and recent events.

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Armenia Food Security Assessment

by Jindra Cekan and Juliet Dulles, American Red Cross, International Services, July 2001

Background

In the Summer of 2000, drought stretching across several Central Asian countries caused crop failure and increasing marginalization of the most vulnerable in the Republic of Armenia. This occurred during a time when UNDP estimated that 54% of the population were eating below 2100 kcals (which is the minimum survival ration) and the poorest were spending between 72-79% of their income on food[1].

The American Red Cross (ARC) and the Armenian Red Cross Society (ARCS) responded to a United Nations call for coordinated assistance to those affected and launched an assessment in the southern and central regions of Armenia. These areas were selected based on reports that the south was vulnerable and the World Food Program was providing assistance in the north.

After review of statistical and economic data on Armenia, assessment sites were selected based on drought impact, size, lack of presence of NGOs and proximity to Red Cross services. ARC identified one rural site each in Syunik marz (Shikahogh village) and Vyots Dzor marz (Yeregiz village) for assessment. For purposes of comparison and due to its high reported level of stunting[2], ARC also selected an urban site, Gavar town, in central Gegharkunik marz.

Methodology: RRA and Inventory of Potential Collaborators

Given the anticipated complexity of Armenian situation, ARC designed a multi-sectoral qualitative assessment that would produce a comprehensive matrix of agencies/NGOs able to provide complementary resources[3]. This meant that the final product of the assessment would not only be a proposal for an interested donor but also a strategy for applying available resources to existing needs. Ultimately, our multi-disciplinary team (health, food security, agriculture, sociology, economics and social work) discovered a depth and breadth of seasonal as well as annual food insecurity in these rural and urban communities that had become chronic.

ARC created a matrix of RRA tools that outlined the kinds of information and data that we needed to collect in order to understand the vulnerabilities and to design the assistance needed by the target communities.

TABLE 1 Assessment Objectives: RRA Tools Used to Collect Information

1. Who is the most vulnerable, why are they vulnerable and where do they live?
2. How deeply vulnerable are they, e.g. do they need food aid (USDA Title II), and if yes, in what quantities, of what types of foods and for what time period?
3. Do they need other inputs to complement the food aid needed for consumption, e.g. seeds for sustained food availability (food crops (staple grain and vegetable), amount and type) and/or health knowledge/practices for improved utilization (decreased malnutrition via complementary IMCI project – using food for child recuperation or mother's incentive).

		Community Map	Venn Diagram	Seasonal Calendar	Historical Timeline	Free List Ranking & Matrix	Sources and Drains on Food Security	Listing/ Ranking Foods Produced/ Eaten	Amounts Eaten/ Amounts Spent on Food	Semi-Structured Interviews[4]
Objectives	Information Gathered									
1	Community Knowledge (history, economy, geographic links)	X	X	X	X					
1, 2, 3	Food Security Sources	X	X	X			X	X	X	
2	Agricultural estimates, population, (food aid, seeds)					?		?	X	X
1, 2, 3	FS Drains: effects of drought, economy collapse, other	?[5]	?	X	X	X	X			X
1, 2	Prioritize most vulnerable	X	?			X				X
3	Optimal inputs for availability, access, utilization			X		X	X	X	X	X

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replicating many of the problems of exclusion and marginalization which rural people identify as key contributory factors to the background of societal discontent from which the war emerged.

How Has RBA Been Incorporated?

Communities were asked to suggest a forum for discussing the causes of conflict. **Community 'Peace and Rights Days'** were suggested. A pilot project was established which organized and facilitated a series of Peace and Rights forums (4 were conducted recently, before the local planting season, and 4 will be conducted soon, post-planting) for 1,500 people in 10 communities. Prominent amongst consistent themes emerging were:

1. Re-establishment of food security is a prerequisite for any transition from war to peace ("we cannot talk about peace when our children are hungry").

2. The return of traditional systems of governance destroyed during the war (often deliberately targeted by the RUF) is necessary. However, there are historical and current problems of governance and basic rights that contributed to the war. They will no longer be accepted. If they are not addressed, they will generate further conflict. The most common issues highlighted include:

   - Misappropriation of financial and material resources (often NGO-provided) by elites in chiefdom structures
   - Exclusion of social groups (predominantly women and youth) from decision-making processes and access to resources and opportunities (*lack of participation*)
   - Misadministration of justice, including victimization of youths via arbitrary imposition of disproportionately high fines for minor (often non-existent) indiscretions
   - Lack of clarity on the law, civilian rights and the roles and responsibilities of positions within governance structures
   - Right to representation.
   - Right of access to the justice system (*equal protection of the law and equality before the law*)
   - Right of access to humanitarian assistance.
   - Food security (*right to be free from hunger*)

Food security emerged as the obvious arena for practical CARE engagement. However, the right to realize adequate food is undermined by other rights-related issues (misappropriation of humanitarian assistance, exclusion, injustice, low awareness of rights and the law).

The project seeks to address denial of these rights by focussing on the principle that **human rights are universal**, that each individual has the right to participate in the political process, to representation, to justice, to access humanitarian assistance and to realize their own food security. The principle of universality was enthusiastically welcomed, but the practical problem for the participants and the project is to make it 'real' in everyday terms.

Rights need to be both relevant and enforceable. Communities were asked whether they could evolve their own locally relevant expressions of human rights, and the mechanisms for enforcing them. The response was positive and, as a first step, communities agreed on the importance of developing functioning committees of women, youth and elders to act as their "mechanisms for representation, regulation and enforcement". These committees will work with elders and village development committees (VDCs) to discuss and resolve past and present grievances related to elder and VDC governance with the ultimate aim of fostering more just, transparent, and accountable local governance. Committees provide the opportunity for "collective voice" through which villagers will negotiate problem issues with elders and VDCs. Such a facility has never previously functioned and, without it (CARE was told), "resentment has built-up and people eventually resorted to violence."

The peace and rights forums are one component of ongoing support to communities and committees wherein CARE agricultural staff (trained in rights-awareness raising), in collaboration with a local conflict resolution agency, will work with communities to devise strategies that address rights and conflict-related issues. In addition to providing committee formation, management, leadership and liaison training, CARE will explore the possibility of providing basic legal training to elected community representatives in local governance and human rights law. Ultimately, the project will seek to connect this emergent local-level rights and governance capacity with district and national governance departments and human rights organizations.

How Has RBA Resulted in a Change in Programming Practice?

CARE SL is altering its food security **targeting** and **delivery** modalities by emphasizing the development of the above-mentioned committees. Identification of project participants will be conducted with broad-based community participation, assisted by CARE. Identification and selection processes will be openly discussed at the Peace and Rights Days where, given the **key principle** of **universality**, individuals or groups who feel they have been unjustly excluded will have the opportunity to air and resolve their grievances.

The peace and right days represent an important starting point for ensuring that all people have just and transparent access to agricultural inputs. Input supply via local authorities will be replaced by **universal registration and individual targeting** of every person with the desire and capacity to realize their own food security. Bulk inputs are being subdivided into individual packages and collected at the Peace and Rights Days by registered individuals. Public distribution counteracts misappropriation by making the distribution process transparent and accountable.

Some Impacts Attributable to RBA in the Project

At present the following impact measures are indicative only:

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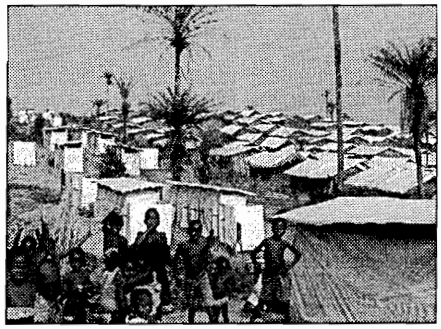
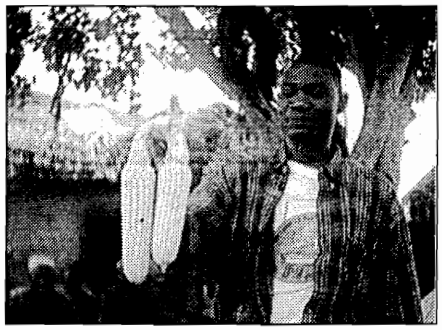
SNAPSHOTS From the Field



CARE Sierra Leone

OIC Tamale, Ghana



OIC Tamale, Ghana

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- 80% of project communities establish, or participate in, community-supported 'peace day' forums
- 80% of project participants report increased popular participation in community decision making against baseline data
- 80% of project participants report realization of rights-based access to community-produced or NGO-provided inputs.

Some Changes in CARE's Relationship with the Community

- The community has been put in the lead in matters concerning their development (they came up with the peace and rights day forum, formed representative committees, and grounded human rights in their local situation).
- Community members' capacity to protect and claim their rights is being enhanced by training to raise community members' human rights awareness and leadership and management capabilities, with the possibility of basic legal and human rights training for elected community representatives at a later date.
- Seldom, if ever, in the last decade in Sierra Leone has an INGO sought to understand and interact with social and political contexts to the extent proposed by CARE. There are many vested interests in maintaining the status quo, and opposition at many levels can be expected. However, CARE's interests lie with the millions whose lives are blighted by war, and who are determined to play a pro-active role in realizing their individual and collective rights to life, liberty and security. Popular participation and creative programming, backed by the relevant supporting legal and human rights frameworks, provide a solid foundation for the goals of the people and the project.
- The project will facilitate a process whereby people at village-level are empowered to identify, and negotiate the realization of, their fundamental rights as enshrined by the law. This will demand a level of accountability and transparency that will not always be in the interests of those who govern. There are concerns about the project's potential to generate conflict. However, the conflicts already exist, and are often 'resolved' through violence. The project seeks to channel grievance and facilitate a forum for resolution within the recognized law of the land. This is a process that needs to happen. The major risk for future peace and stability is that such a process does not happen and that violence remains the only recourse.

Lessons Learned and Dissemination

Universality has proven to be the key central concept, enhancing project focus on the social relations that have denied universal realization of rights to food security, participation, representation and justice. The approach has made it necessary to give greater attention to those who are excluded from relief projects, to consider why they might be excluded, and what the consequences of that exclusion might be.

Applying RBA has also enabled CARE SL staff to view their current activities (dealing with the consequences of the war) as having a positive impact on issues their compatriots say have driven and maintained the war. Rights-Based humanitarian assistance *can* address the causes, as well as the consequences, of conflict and human rights violations.

CARE SL is considering applying the approach to other programme sectors, and a plan to share the approach with, and disseminate the findings to, government, donors and other NGOs is being devised.

Steve Archibald
CARE Conflict and Human Rights Project
Archibald@ciuk.org

For further information on CARE Sierra Leone's ***Food Security – A rights Based Approach Project****, please contact the Project Manager, Larry Dixon (ldixon@sierratel.sl). For more information on the CARE* ***Conflict and Human Rights Project****, please contact Steve Archibald.*

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Food availability[6] and food access[7] are different in rural and urban areas. Rural availability was characterized by scarce arable land, few agricultural inputs, poor agricultural practices and poor crop yields. Lack of urban availability was characterized by distance to arable land, prohibitive taxes on land and more potato cultivation as opposed to wheat cultivation. Rural access was characterized by the prohibitive cost of transporting produce to market and a lack of cash with which to purchase food. Urban access was characterized by limited available credit, lack of assets to sell with the result of many households resorting to borrowing food.

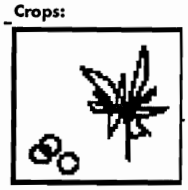
The two relevant tools used in the fieldwork that helped identify food insecurity were: the 'Sources and Drains' and the Diet Diversity household interviews. The Sources and Drains tool was conducted with a group of 8-15 key informants selected for diversity in age and gender. After a brief explanation of food security, the respondents were asked to describe the forces or circumstances in their lives that added to or took away from their families' food security. Pictures were drawn to provide a visual focus for the conversation—and allow for dissenting opinion or conversation. Household interviews arranged after consulting with local Ministry of Social Work representatives, Red Cross officials and key informants. The team selected households with a range of wealth and vulnerability characteristics (orphans, large families, disability) in order to provide a full view of food security at the site.

In the rural "Sources and Drains" of food security tool the focus is food and livestock production, as well as market access.

Rural Case

SHIKAGOGH Sources (+) and Drains (-) for Food Security Diagram

Crops:



+ wheat production
- but not enough production
+ grow vegetables (onion, tomatoes, cucumbers, cabbage), potatoes, beans
- bad soil and weather
- but insufficient (drought makes it hard to produce, hard to get seeds)
- crops get diseases, e.g. potato bugs
- it is costly to mill wheat because of cost of electricity
- dependent on irrigation, lack of fertilizer/spraying

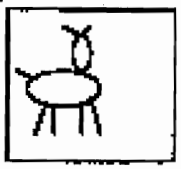
Water:

- drinking water insufficient (and they don't boil water)
+ use both iodized salt and non-iodized (same prices)
- lack of drinking water in summer because the crops are being watered

Roads over mountains:

- cannot get production to market
- don't grow enough surplus
- if someone brings something for surplus, they could exchange, but no one brings anything (no one comes to buy cheese, milk, or eggs) and nearby villages' produce is so similar that there's no profit to make
- not everyone barters
- even what can be bartered, the rate of exchange is too low (1 sack of potatoes for 10 liters of vodka not enough)

Livestock:



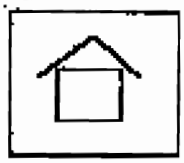
+ Cheese and egg production
+ Meat production (sheep, pigs, cows, hens)
+ barter cheese, rice and potatoes
- prices are not high
- it takes a lot of work and money to maintain livestock
- gathering fodder for animals takes fuel (because fields far)
- wolf can eat some of the livestock (on fields next to nature reserve)

In the urban "Sources and Drains" of food security, the emphasis is on market access, barter access, and debt associated with cultivation of distant plots of land. The team discovered through household interviews that families became indebted because while they had access to distant land (frequently more than an hour and a half away), investments in seeds and labor were lost when the crops failed.

Urban Case:

GAVAR Landless Sources (+) and Drains (-) for Food Security Diagram

Assets:



- forced to sell household assets

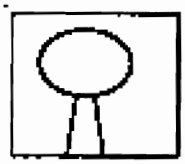
Income:

+ PAROS pension
- electricity payments
- can't afford to see doctor
- unemployment
- no access to clothing
- don't go to schools (cost)

Crops:

+ Gather village veg greens
+ Receive food/gifts from relatives
- not everyone has relatives
- relatives cannot help every day

Firewood:

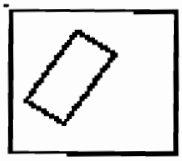


- Firewood is expensive

Marketing:

- shops don't lend enough food

Land:



+ some people allow temporary use of land which others can borrow
+ Marzpatan (regional administrator) helped get seeds
- but were given only to those with privatized lands
- had to share part of harvest with landowner from whom borrowed land
- had to also return seeds loan to the land owner/seed lender
- some government-distributed 'free' land had to be returned (so as not to pay taxes)
- have no kitchen garden

Urban households face greater food insecurity due to a lack of both paying jobs and land for production. Rural areas face difficulties of physically accessing markets and cash. We noted the dismal diet diversity among the most vulnerable groups–they consumed only 1/4 of the kinds of foods of the well-off. Their diet was composed mainly of starch and little protein or fat.

The team also discovered in its investigation of food *utilization*[8], through interviews with health clinics and mothers of young children, a need for improved health care and weaning practices for the very young. Based on these findings, the team recommended that The American Red Cross pursue programming targeting the following two groups:

1) **Urban Food Insecure**: In Gavar town (Gegarkunik *Marz*) and possibly Kapan town (Syunik *Marz*) through the following interventions:

- Safety net food distributions to the most vulnerable groups including, elderly, handicapped, orphans or other vulnerable, such as malnourished children. The Red Cross should also target the mothers of malnourished children with IMCI (Integrated Management of Childhood Illnesses) programming.

2) **Rural Food Insecure**: In Vayots Dzor *Marz* communities including the assessment site of Yeregiz through the following interventions:

- "For Work" projects to rehabilitate village agricultural systems, including irrigation pipes by able-bodied workers. Whether food for work, cash for work or seeds for work is determined through community meetings in which team findings are presented and community members are asked to rank the desirability of potential interventions.

The team's agricultural consultant, Dr. Oskar Honisch, recommended an array of other interventions including distribution of animal feed, fertilizers and agricultural equipment. These activities may be included in the future after the immediate and pressing food availability and access needs are met for the target populations. We will, however, encourage other Red Cross National Societies, International Organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in all three *marzes* to review our assessment findings for us and to collaborate on complementary interventions.

This assessment also confirmed that improving mothers' health knowledge and practices regarding breastfeeding and weaning, as well as children's diarrhea and disease management is critical. Food aid is needed for stunted children (31% in Gegarkunik *Marz* according to DHS). This is indisputable. The full IMCI intervention may, however, take more time to develop at the community level. Nonetheless, malnourished children under age 5 should be selected for supplementary feeding to the degree possible in at minimum Gavar, and at maximum Kapan branches through the well-established Armenian Red Cross Social Centers.

> IMCI is an integrated approach to child health that focuses on the well-being of the whole child. IMCI aims to reduce death, illness and disability, and to promote improved growth and development among children under 5 years of age. IMCI includes both preventive and curative elements that are implemented by families and communities as well as by health facilities. *World Health Organization*

The final interventions and other sectoral interventions will depend on the community's prioritization of their needs, as determined in community meetings. With the collaboration of the Armenian Red Cross network of branch offices, continued feedback from communities is straightforward.

Finally, on the summary charts below, there are opportunities for collaborations with a variety of partners. They outline needs and areas for inter-PVO collaboration, and summarize key food security interventions.

Potential ArmRC/AmerRC Food Security Interventions — based on 4/01 fieldwork in rural Vayots Dzor, Syunik, and urban Gagarkunik

Partners*:

Safety nets:
Ministry of Social Welfare *- PAROS (VD, S, G)*
MissionEast *- safety net food distributions (s)*
WFP *- Food For Work (FFW) mainly irrigation (S)*
GTZ *- food distribution + FFW credit (w/WFP) (S)*
OXFAM - FFW (mainly irrigation) (Y)
NRC - FFW (Y)
UMCOR *- Community Associations (VD)*

Agriculture:
GTZ *- seeds and fertilizer + Community Assoc. (S)*
ATG *- seeds multiplication (Y)*
USDA *- food aid and seed distribution, fodder supply and fruit tree imports (Y)*
FAO - seed multiplication (VD)
EU - seed distribution (Y)
Ministry of Agriculture *- seed distribution (VD, S, G)*
UMCOR *- seeds distribution and livestock (S,G), credit to women (Noah's ark) (S, VD)*
World Vision *- ag credit (G)*

Health:
Mission East *- health training (government Min Health version of Integrated Management of Childhood Illnesses (IMCI)) (S)*
GTZ *- health training, breastfeeding for mothers (S)*
UNICEF *- IMCI in Gavar - imminent pilot (Y)*
World Bank funded ambulatory rehab/ staffing (S)
CARITAS/CRS - nutritioneducation in schools (G)
SCF - health, public works (Y)
OXFAM - health, seeds (VD)

***Potential collaborations** given interests of ARC/ARC, meetings in Yerevan (Y), Vayots Dzor (VD), Syunik (S), Gegarkunik (G)

Needs:

Availability + Access

- Low food production
- High transport costs to markets, thus low access
- Few jobs; high reliance on PAROS (welfare) and government pensions/allowances
- Low quality land, low yields of land, fruit trees, animals
- Insufficient fodder in places, insufficient animals
- High borrowing among households
- Marked complex bartering in urban site
- Particular vulnerability of female-headed households

Utilization

- The lower the income, the lower the diet diversity
- Low protein consumption in general
- Relatively low interest in households to consume vegetables except during winter (eat but devalue, especially in rural areas)
- Some marked lack of adequate knowledge of child feeding/weaning practices or diarrheal management
- Relatively uniform lack of access to potable water seasonally
- Critical illness and other medical costs decimates most household food security

Potential Activities *(italics)*:

- In-kind imports, local purchase, or monetization
- Safety net food distributions – urban – using fortified food aid

Public works to improve water access:
- Seed for Work? -or-
- Food for Work? -or-
- Cash for Work?

Other inputs (either local purchase or imports):
- Seeds, e.g. wheat, potatoes (do not need vegetable)
- *Fertilizer*
- *Mechanization*
- *Insecticide, herbicide spraying*
- *Credit to rural and urban areas, especially urban*

Food-assisted IMCI for stunted/ underweight (malnourished) children, including:
- changing knowledge/ practices,
- food inputs for diet diversity for mothers and their 6 month - 5 year old children
- training in improved hygiene practices
- Micronutrient supplementation - fortified foods, capsules or seeds, including advocacy for iodine use
- *Livestock, particularly goats (good for protein, meat)*
- *Water sanitation for both water and access*
- *Improved access to medicines by vulnerable*

Italicized are unlikely to be done by ARC but needed.

[1] UNDP 2000

[2] Demographic Health Survey, February 2001

[3] Organizations interested in receiving a copy of the final report, or in collaborating on interventions can contact Juliet Dulles at dullesj@usa.redcross.org or at 202-639-3429. In Armenia please contact Stephen Willis at 011-3741-560523.

[4] Semi-Structured Interviews on Diet Diversity/Food Frequency

[5] Question marks denote tools that may or may not yield useful information on the particular objective

[6] Where *availability* is when sufficient quantities of appropriate, necessary types of food from domestic production, commercial imports, or donors are consistently available to the individuals or are in reasonable proximity to them or are within their reach.

[7] Where *access* is defined as individuals having adequate incomes or other resources to purchase or barter to obtain levels of appropriate foods needed to maintain consumption of an adequate diet and nutritional level

[8] Where *utilization* is defined as when food is properly used; proper food processing and storage techniques are employed; adequate knowledge of nutrition and child care techniques exists and is applied; and adequate health and sanitation services exist.

FSRC Resources On Sustainable Agriculture

This quarter we present a bibliography of FSRC resources relating to sustainable agriculture, especially as applied to food production. The following resources refer directly to sustainable agricultural issues in relation to initiatives, approaches and to the broader issue of innovations. If you would like to order copies of any of the following materials or if you would like a targeted search performed for a specific topic, please contact:

Food Aid Management
1625 K St. NW, 5th Floor
Washington, DC 20006 USA
Fam@foodaid.org
Ph. (202) 223-4860

Wanjiku Kiereini
Intern

New Partnerships For Sustainable Agriculture *Overview by Lori Ann Thrupp, WRI. With case study contributors: CARE Bangladesh; ANGOC, Philippines; IFDP, Cuba; SIMAS/CATIE, Nicaragua; CIP, Peru; ICIPE, Kenya; RODALE, Senegal; BIOS, California, USA; PFI, Iowa, USA. 1996. 136p. #7524*
In *New Partnerships for Sustainable Agriculture*, Lori Ann Thrupp and her colleagues from many countries explore vital but overlooked elements of innovative sustainable farming techniques - collaboration, farmer participation, and policy support. The nine partnerships described in this report all revolve around the implementation of practical alternatives to conventional, chemical-intensive agriculture. Each case study highlights the roles of farmers and the many other collaborators needed to make alternative agriculture work, and all take into account the complex web of values and interactions that shapes any approach to farming.

Participatory Monitoring and Impact Assessment of Sustainable Agriculture Initiatives *SARL Discussion Paper No. 1. Irene Guijt. 1998. #7129*
This document is a practical, methodological introduction to setting up a participatory monitoring process for sustainable agriculture initiatives. The document introduces several central concepts and identifies key steps in developing a monitoring system. This is followed by a discussion on the complexity of indicator selection and choosing methods, showing a range of possible methods with examples from the agricultural sector. The paper ends by reflecting on common pitfalls and specific difficulties faced in Brazil in starting up a participatory monitoring system for assessing sustainable agriculture.

Co-operative Approaches to Sustainable Agriculture. *OECD. 1998. 107p. #6770*
The purpose of this paper is first to better understand the current nature, scope and activities of the numerous voluntary, farmer-led groups that have formed in several OECD countries to promote sustainable agriculture and to take on greater responsibility for their local environment. Secondly to examine the relationships between these groups and different levels of government, particularly as regards measures taken to encourage the formation and continual survival of these groups Last but not least the document considers the potential roles that these groups might play in implementing and perhaps even defining the sustainable agriculture agenda.

Sustainable Agriculture Through Plant Nutrition. *Journal of the Federation of American Scientists. Vol. 48, No. 4. 1995. 18p. #6758*
This newsletter provides background on two new FAS projects arising from truly innovative approaches to food-security. In one project Howarth Bouis and his associates at the International Food Policy Research Institute has gathered evidence showing that breeding plants can provide micronutrients needed through building the nutrient deficiencies right into the agricultural system itself. In the other project Noel Vietmeyer has reported on the fascinating promise that existing biodiversity provides, he seeks to advance public understanding and worldwide use, of under-utilized plants.

Folk Crops in Sustainable Agriculture. *David Cleveland, Daniela Soleri and Steven Smith. BioScience Vol. 44 No. 11. 1994. 11p. #6662*
The purpose of this article is to examine the available data on the current and potential role of folk varieties in the development of sustainable food production, especially for small-scale, indigenously based agriculture. Folk varieties, also known as landraces, traditional varieties, or primitive varieties, have been defined as "geographically or ecologically distinctive populations which are conspicuously diverse in their genetic composition both between populations and within them.

Trade Policy Implications of Sustainable Agriculture. Utpal Vasavada. Can. J. Agric. Econ. 39. 1991. 12p. #6586
Recognizing the absence of an ideal definition of sustainable agriculture and the futility of proposing another, this article identifies two key features of sustainability and develops some implications for trade policy. Other features of sustainability can be identified and their implications developed in a similar fashion.

Low-Input/Sustainable Agriculture Research and Education Projects for 1998. *Patrick Madden, Dixon Hubbard, Paul O'Connell and Vivan Jennings. 41p. #6565*
This document contains a brief summary of projects selected for funding for a program of research and education on low-input farming systems for FY 1988. The projects selected for funding cover a wide range of subject matter related to low-input sustainable agriculture.

A Model of Sustainable Agriculture. *Johannes Kotschi, Jochen Pfeiffer and Eberhard Grosser. 18p. #6514*
This paper describes the model of sustainable agriculture as the Earth being an integrated system due to the worldwide exploitation of raw materials and destruction of the environment. The paper further explains how the overall system of our ecosphere consists of hierarchically organized subsystems with varying degrees of interchanges and interrelationships. Finally the paper shows how the human race is obliged to fit itself into that system and place its actions within that general context.

Planetary Patriotism: Sustainable agriculture for the future. *Howard Schneiderman, Will Carpenter. Environ. Sci. Technol., Vol 24, No.4. 1990. 7p. #6453*

This article explains why sustainable agriculture and the continuos innovations that it demands must become a fact of daily life. The authors claim that sustainable agriculture is possible only with biotechnology and imaginative chemistry. They argue that unless the whole world goes back to farming, biotechnology is our best hope for sustainable agriculture. They are convinced that with supportive innovations in public policy, technological innovations can go a long way toward preserving this planet as a living place for their grandchildren and great-grandchildren.

Agroecology: The Science of Sustainable Agriculture. *Miguel A. Altieri. 433p. 1995. #6218*
Based on new research results and practical findings, the author attempts to re-emphasize the importance of agroecology as the discipline that provides the basic ecological principles for how to study, design and manage agroecosystems that are both productive and natural resource conserving, and are also culturally sensitive, socially just and economically viable.

Low Input Sustainable Agriculture Farm Decision Support System. *Developed by the LISA-FDSS Task Force with special funding through ES-USDA. 9p. #6190*
The Low Input Sustainable Agriculture Farm Decision Support System (LISA-FDSS) project was approved in 1988 to help farmers develop sustainable farming operations, giving specific consideration to competitive, low-input farming systems. The approach used in this project was to develop and implement a universal, framework for synthesis of data and knowledge to facilitate farmers' use of existing and future research data and extension information in the area of low-input sustainable agricultural systems.

Indigenous Knowledge for Sustainable Agriculture and Rural Development. *D. Michael Warren and Kristin Cashman. GATEKEEPER SERIES No SA10. 15p. #6158*
This series contains scenarios that outline some problems encountered by international development specialists, illustrating in particular how development strategies incorporating indigenous skills and wisdom are more likely to lead to appropriate processes for effecting technical change.

Erosion, Productivity, and Sustainable Agriculture. *Report of a workshop held at Texas Tech University on July 25 and 26, 1988. 11p. #6144*
This report is a first attempt to propose techniques for assessing the severity of erosion and its impact on potential soil productivity and the sustainability of agriculture, using Africa as an example. The objectives of the workshop were to assess the effect of erosion on soil productivity, identify research needs, and evaluate the impact of soil erosion on sustainable agriculture.

An Agenda for Research on the Impacts of Sustainable Agriculture. *Neill Schaller. Occasional Paper Series, No. 2. 1991. #5812*
This paper contains an examination done by a panel of social scientists, on the impacts of sustainable agriculture and recommended ways to overcome its current limitations. This is because people need to know what the impacts would be if sustainable farming practices were to be widely adopted by farmers.

Agroecology: Creating the Synergism for a Sustainable Agriculture. *UNDP Guidebook Series. 1995. 87p. #5641*
The approach described in this companion Guidebook attempts to re-engage us in the fundamental discussion on where conversion to a more sustainable agriculture should take place. Agroecology and the economics of sustainable farming must become central to any agriculture development and not just an add-on, if we are to realize Sustainable Agriculture and Rural Development (SARD).

Sustainable Agriculture and Rural Development. *The 3rd. International Symposium for Sustainable Agriculture and Rural Development. Roros-Norway, 1995. 153p. #5508*
This complete symposium report with all its background content is an input to the United Nation's Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) April 1995 and also to the 1992 reform of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) of the European Union.

Technical Issues In Rural Poverty Alleviation: Policies for Sustainable Agriculture. *David Norse. Staff Working Paper No. 3. 1992. 16p. #3838*
This paper focuses on two particular aspects. First, strategy formulation and particularly the balance to be reached concerning efforts to improve the use of marginal land as opposed to high potential land, and low external input production systems as opposed to high input systems. Secondly, estimation of the costs and benefits of sustainable production systems not simply in the context of project evaluation, but more importantly to obtain high level political support for concerted national action.

Appropriate Technology: Touching all the Bases. A paper presented by *Thomas Frickle and David Tresemer at the Sixth International Scientific Conference International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements August 18-21, 1986. 17p. #2647*
This paper synthesizes findings from the separate but complementary research, documentation, and diffusion activities of the authors. The authors present an overview and guidelines for an effective process for the design, selection, and diffusion of appropriate small-scale tools and equipment. The one key and frequently neglected element in the promotion of sustainable agriculture.

Sustainable Agriculture and the Environment in the Humid Tropics. *Committee on Sustainable Agriculture and the Environment in the Humid Tropics. 1993. 702p. #2610*
This report contributes to the elusive "solution" to tropical deforestation through its outline of a variety of approaches to tropical land use and conservation. Each land use option will take advantage of the opportunities inherent in physical resource patterns, labor, market availability, and social setting, and each would contribute to the common goal of sustainability in the humid tropics.

Crop-Livestock Interactions for Sustainable Agriculture. *GATEKEEPER SERIES No. SA13. Wolfgang Bayer and Ann Waters-Bayer. 16p. #1707*
This article discusses the essential of crop-livestock interactions for intensive use of local resources and for the social, economic and ecological sustainability of smallholder farming systems. The article explains the importance of their functions being appreciated in the planning and implementation of agricultural development.

Call Forward: OIC Tamale's Inventory Credit and Inventory Storage Services Programs - Tools for Improving Marketing and Income

By Dr. John Azu, OICI Tamale, Ghana

The Poverty Trap

A simple statement by Joseph Karbo provides the reason why poor people are poor. He states that "Most people are too busy earning a living to make any money." The average person, whether rural or urban, never seems to find the time to work on really important things - the creative projects that produce big payoffs. It is creativity, more so than hard work that lies at the heart of success in any endeavor. OIC Tamale (OICT) client communities have been working very hard each year to earn a living under excruciating conditions, sometimes beset by serious handicaps imposed by the environment. Sadly, the situation persists.

Can we show the rural farmers we serve how to make money through their own efforts to provide some needed, creative services? We are conscious of the fact that we cannot carry our farmers along the highway of prosperity, but we may point the way and sometimes walk part of the way with them, by helping them to help themselves.

Growth and profits that underpin prosperity at the farmer-level are by-products of service - of making a contribution beyond the ordinary through collective effort. In this vein OICT has made the simple discovery that the mastery of post-harvest loss reduction could play a major role in the building of surplus grains and legumes of subsistence farm households. It is only by storing what has been produced and waiting for the peak price season, normally four to six months after the harvest, that one will guarantee the receipt of a larger share of the available grain trading business.

Obstacles to Efficient Marketing

Among the key causes of high post-harvest loses in surplus grain and legume producing areas of the Northern Regions of Ghana are inadequate marketing opportunities, infrastructure and arrangements. The roads in these areas are generally poor and the farmsteads are scattered over long distances, making the evacuation of produce by itinerant grain traders a difficult task. These traders in turn use the various problems they face in mobilizing and transporting grain as reasons for the low prices they pay to the farmers, even during the lean season when prices are relatively high. The farmers, under such circumstances, are left with few choices to negotiate prices in their interest.

Marketing, therefore, assumes a primary role in the accumulation of wealth of farmers once interventions aimed at reducing storage losses to a minimum succeed. The farmer, through the introduction of a credit mechanism, is relieved of the pressure to sell at harvest time, when there is generally a glut in the market and prices are low, or to sell to itinerant traders who provide every conceivable excuse to buy at rock-bottom prices.

Unfortunately, farmers' need for cash is usually at its peak during the harvesting period since they are cash-strapped during the long dry season and the cropping season. Cash is required to pay debts that have accrued during the season. For example, credit for land preparation and inputs are due, the observation of funerals also occurs in this period, and farmers know that they can make money, however little, by selling their produce even when the prices at their lowest.

The need for cash during and shortly after harvesting is real and terribly important to farm households in the Northern Regions. A mechanism that provides funds to tide them over during this period of peak need and low prices is a way of increasing the farmers' net worth.

Program Evolution

OICT has embarked on this program through the provision of jointly operated grain warehouses. OICT, in collaboration with the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA), is rehabilitating abandoned MOFA grain storage structures in some of the OICT communities The lessons learned from developing the mechanisms for implementing the Inventory Credit Program (ICP) and associated Inventory Storage Services Program (ISSP) could be applied to other programs elsewhere in the developing world, where conditions are similar.

Inventory Credit, as applied by OIC Tamale, is credit received through the use of secured stored produce as collateral for commercial loans. Its main objective is to increase farmers' income to enable them to sell produce at a higher price later in the lean season. Inventory Credit caters to farmers who have storage needs, but who also need some funds to defray costs of production and other debts. These farmers would like to maximize returns on their labor by storing produce for over four to six months to meet peak produce prices.

The second component, the Inventory Storage Services Program would address farmers who do not want to sell their produce outright and do not want any advance payment, but who are constrained by large volumes of produce they want to store for over four months. This component of the Integrated Inventory Marketing program will provide large-volume centralized storage services for such farmers.

Key Considerations Underlying the Design

- Ensuring transparency in the operations and decision-making
- Providing clear definition of roles
- Ensuring farmer involvement in all operations and issues
- Ensuring mutual trust and respect
- Keeping the model simple and flexible
- Making sustainability a key element
- Maintaining a business and risk-sharing focus through training
- Keeping profitability of operations in mind and avoiding the hiding of overheads

In order to develop a comprehensive strategic Inventory Credit Program to address the storage and marketing constraints of its target populations, OICT tapped into the experiences of farmers, farmer's groups and other NGOs and PVOs operating in the Northern Region. Together in a kick-off workshop, participants deliberated extensively on the various modalities, success and failure factors, problems and challenges of past programs, and put in place improvements required to run a successful and sustainable farmer-led and PVO-assisted storage and marketing program.

Program Benefits

1. Credit opportunities for small-scale rural farmers
   - Provides increased access to credit
   - Farmers take advantage of seasonal price swings
   - Farmers accumulate savings from less speculative investments (secured stocks)
2. Enhanced food security
   - Food is retained in the community and locally available
   - Increased income is achieved
3. Reduced risk for bank/rural micro-finance loss
4. Improved post-harvest management
5. Stimulated agricultural production
6. Investments in small-scale value-added technologies
7. Creation and strengthening of market and service linkages
8. Promotion of group development
9. Improved marketing of farm products
10. Improved incomes of farmers

Program Challenges

1. Government/commercial grain imports dampen the increases in produce price during the lean season and may result in price drops leading to losses in ICP profits. Monitoring of grain market trends will help to avoid disaster
2. High harvest-time prices may also reduce after-storage profit margins
3. Price stability effects of expanding ICP may result in price saturation leading to price troughs over a long period of time
4. Rural grain storage facilities are inadequate to handle a never-increasing demand for ICP services
5. High local cost per unit output limits possibility to tap into industrial market (unless the competitive power of the ICP is developed and enhanced)
6. High inflationary pressures will also serve to erode the value of the currency even though higher prices may be obtained.

The Summary of Agreements Reached and Guiding Principles from the kick-off workshop

OICI Tamale would call this marketing improvement program the Integrated Inventory Marketing Program (IIMP)

1. The program will consist of two main components: the Inventory Credit Program (ICP) and the Inventory Storage Services Program (ISSP).

2. The Inventory Credit program will be operated within the following framework:
   - OIC Tamale will provide the funds required for operating the ICP.
   - OIC Tamale will provide storage facilities (within and outside of the participating communities) by fostering a partnership with MOFA to use its existing structures.
   - Keys to the warehouses will be kept separately and jointly in the custody of OICT and Farmer's Representatives such that neither party can have complete access to the stores without the knowledge and presence of the other party.
   - Farmers reserve the right to know where their produce is stored if the warehouse is outside their community.
   - The ICP will have a strong bias towards profit-making using OICT funds.
   - Farmers will pay agreed rates for services and interest on capital invested at prevailing commercial Interest Rates.
   - Full interest (calculated for 6 months) on the capital invested in the ICP will be paid irrespective of time of sale or number of months in storage because certain fixed overhead costs that must be paid for by the program.
   - There would be joint ownership, control and access to stored produce.
   - Joint monitoring of market prices would be done by OICT and participating farmers.
   - Both partners will perform joint periodic quality checks of produce.

3. The framework for operating the Inventory Storage Services Program (ISSP) will be:
   - The ISSP will target high grain production and surplus areas.
   - Farmers will release their grain to OICT to treat and store and OICT will be the sole marketing agency.
   - OICT will monitor quality of in-coming stock with the warehouse management and ensure that only high quality grain is taken in.
   - Mechanisms for cost of storage to be paid by participants will be determined jointly before the season commences and costs will be monitored throughout the season.
   - OICT will manage and monitor the stores, time of sale and prices.
   - Farmers will agree to the sale price before the produce is sold
   - Farmers can choose to sell earlier than the 6 months of storage provided, but they will be required to pay for the full cost of 6 months of storage.
   - After the end of the storage season, OICT will sell the produce and pay the farmers.

The Cycle Can Be Broken

In order to overcome the cycle of poverty, one needs only to raise one's level of vision and to change one's thinking. Our clients must be helped to begin to perceive poverty as a common vice rather than a spiritual virtue. OIC Tamale has initiated the "Inventory Credit and Inventory Storage Services Program" following training in the principles and practices of post-harvest loss reduction, and the provision of household storage structures. This new OICT initiative goes a step further in the marketing of farm produce of rural households to ensure that they will attract maximum incomes from the surplus grains and legumes they produce.

By taking farmers through the tasks associated with these programs and requiring them to be an integral part of the process, OICT is seeking to transfer valuable principles such as responsibility, organized planning, specialized knowledge and self help that will allow rural households to have the priceless opportunity of building better lives with their own self-taught wisdom. This strategy will be a part of the process of building the capacities of the communities in creative management of grain warehousing and marketing within the local and national context.

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