



ACF-INTERNATIONAL
TECHNICAL GUIDE

ENHANCING CLIMATE RESILIENCE AND FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY

A Technical Guide for ACF Field Workers and Partners



Enhancing Climate Resilience and Food & Nutrition Security

A Technical Guide for ACF Field Workers and Partners

July 2014

Scientific and Technical Department

Action contre la Faim-France



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Authors: Scientific and Technical Department - ACF International

Design Graphic: Céline Beuvin

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ABOUT THIS GUIDE

WHY SUCH A GUIDE?

Climate-related shocks and stresses - the ‘manifestations’ of climate variability and change - represent significant obstacles to achieving food and nutrition security in many poor communities and countries. While building climate resilience is now recognized as an important strategic priority and the need for action in this regard has been clearly recognised, there is still much debate about how to do in practice.

WHAT IS THE OBJECTIVE OF THIS GUIDE?

This technical guide offers a set of concrete actions and practical orientations to enhance climate resilience and food and nutrition security. These actions should be conducted in priority in communities and countries highly exposed to climate-related shocks and seasonal trends. This guide is designed to complement others tools developed by ACF, including the Disaster Risk Management tools.

TO WHOM IS IT INTENDED?

This guide is primarily designed for ACF field staff and partners, but may prove useful to others food and nutrition security practitioners. This guide assumes a basic level of knowledge of livelihoods, food and nutrition security and project cycle management.

WHAT IS INCLUDED IN THE GUIDE?

This technical guide introduces important climate-related issues that exacerbate food and nutrition insecurity in ACF countries of operations. It recommends a set of 8 mutually-reinforcing actions that practitioners can implement in at-risk communities and countries. Last it provides practical guidance on how to implement these actions. For more detailed information, please refer to the table of contents on the next page!

WHAT THIS GUIDE WILL NOT DO:

Even though the 8 actions suggested in the section 3 represent essential pieces of the broader ‘resilience puzzle’, a comprehensive resilience and food & nutrition security approach is beyond the scope of this guide! On top of this, this guide will not:

- Provide guidance for building resilience in face of non-climatic shocks and stresses (e.g. food price rise, economic crises, conflict, etc.);
- Guide the entire process of developing comprehensive food and nutrition security strategic programming in specific contexts;
- Facilitate the design of a comprehensive Disaster Risk Management (DRM) programmes or projects: if this is what you’re after, refer to ACF DRM programming guidelines and toolkit;
- Provide an exhaustive list of tools and resources available for enhancing climate resilience: those cited in this guide were identified as particularly relevant and useful for food and nutrition security practitioners.

YOUR FEEDBACKS

We see the guide as a document that will be improved over time. We welcome feedbacks and suggestions to improve it further: please share your comments to Sandrine Roussy sroussy@actioncontrelafaim.org.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank ACF France scientific and technical direction and department and ACF International for the continuous support in the production of this guide!



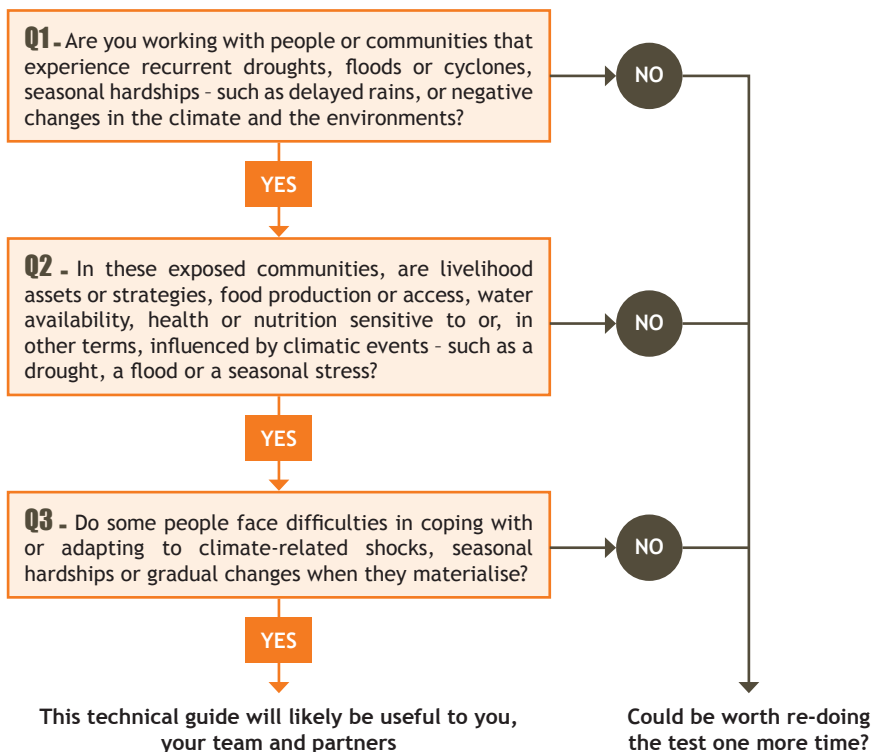
WHAT IS INCLUDED IN THIS GUIDE?

The section 1 of this technical guide introduces a set of climate-related food and nutrition insecurity issues. The section 2 highlights key strategic orientations and existing policies with climate resilience elements. The section 3 presents 8 essential actions to enhance climate resilience and food and nutrition security. The section 4 suggests a set of cross-cutting principles to carry out these essential actions.

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IS THIS TECHNICAL GUIDE PERTINENT FOR YOU/ YOUR TEAM?

We suggest that you conduct a simple test to determine if this technical guide might be useful for your work and the contexts in which you are involved! Just follow the itinerary of questions and find out!







SECTION 1

KEY ISSUES TO ADDRESS

- 1- HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION REMAIN WIDESPREAD**
- 2 - CLIMATE-RELATED DISASTERS ARE ON THE RISE**
- 3 - THE SEASONS OF HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION ARE CHANGING**
- 4 - CLIMATE CHANGE AMPLIFIES HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION**



1.1. HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION REMAIN WIDESPREAD

An estimated 870 million people experience hunger in 2010: they lack access to sufficient of the major macronutrients (carbohydrates, fats and protein)¹. Perhaps another billion are thought to suffer from ‘hidden hunger’, in which important micronutrients (such as vitamins and minerals) are missing from their diet, with consequent risks of physical and mental impairment².

Undernutrition remains one of the world’s most serious but least addressed socioeconomic and health problems³. The human and socioeconomic costs of undernutrition are enormous, falling hardest on the poorest, especially on women and children⁴. The millions of world’s people who have experienced undernutrition early in life face many challenges as they grow up. They encounter increased risks of illness and death when young, experience difficulties at school and are often not able to make a full contribution to the social and economic development of their households, communities and nations when they become adults⁵.

KEY FIGURES ON UNDERNUTRITION

- Maternal and child undernutrition is the underlying cause of 3.5 million deaths each year and 35% of the disease burden in children younger than 5 years;
- For all developing countries, nearly one-third or 178 million of children younger than 5 years are stunted (low ‘height-for-height’);
- There are 55 million acutely malnourished children globally (10%) and 19 million children severely acutely malnourished or ‘severely wasted’ (3.5%) (Black et al., 2008).

The recent food, financial and economic crises and economic downturn have magnified the challenge of hunger and undernutrition. These crises combine with others issues, such as the increasing impact and threats of natural disasters and climate change; the widespread poverty and economic marginalisation; the rapidly growing world population and the increasing urbanisation; land and environmental degradation, scarcer resources and the decline of biodiversity; violent conflicts; and emerging issues, such as the increasing financial speculation on agricultural commodities; the volatility of food prices and markets, and ‘land grabbing’ in developing countries. Even though all above issues deserve attention, the increasing impact of climate-related shocks and stresses and the threats of climate change represent significant factors in achieving food and nutrition security. This represents the focus of the technical guide.

A long-neglected and under-resourced problem, the issue of undernutrition has been enjoying a greatly increased profile over the last 4 years, following the 2008 food crisis and as a consequence of influential research, such as the Lancet Maternal and Child Undernutrition Series (2008). As a result, there is now a much greater focus on the problem, and increased recognition of the fact that it must be tackled at a grand scale. Global, regional, national and local food and nutrition security initiatives are progressively developed to measure up the issues. Among these initiatives,

the Scaling Up Nutrition or SUN framework and roadmap for action - endorsed by more than 100 influential stakeholders - deserve particular attention.

SCALING UP NUTRITION (SUN)

The SUN Framework calls for two complementary approaches to reducing undernutrition:

- Direct nutrition-specific interventions focusing on pregnant women and children aged less than two years with short-term direct interventions that are known to be effective such as the promotion of good nutritional practices, micronutrients, and complementary feeding to prevent and treat under-nutrition;
- A broader multi-sectoral nutrition-sensitive approach to development that acts to counter the determinants of under-nutrition - specifically by promoting agriculture and food security to improve the availability, access to and consumption of nutritious foods; by improving social protection and by ensuring access to health care (SUN, 2010).

1.2. CLIMATE-RELATED DISASTERS ARE ON THE RISE

Climate-related disasters - such as droughts, floods or cyclones - are by far the most frequent natural disasters - exacting a heavy toll on people, economies and countries. They work against the gains made in aid programs and threaten to undermine the resilience of poorer communities and households to absorb loss and recover from disaster impacts⁶.

The number of reported 'climate-related' disasters has more than doubled during the former decade compared to the nineties. Their frequency and their adverse effects have steadily increased over the past two decades - stretching the response capacities of communities, governments and humanitarian institutions. Since the 1980s, the average number of people reported as affected by climate-related disasters has doubled, from 121 million to 243 million a year. According to Oxfam (2009), this number could rise up to 375 million a year as soon as by 2015⁷.

Climate change is altering the severity and frequency of climate-related hazards, and these trends are likely

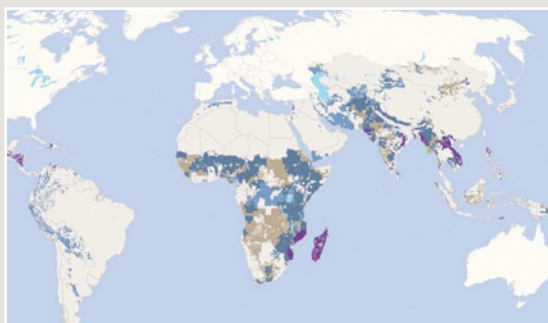
THE LONG-LASTING EFFECTS OF CLIMATE-RELATED CRISES

Climate-related crises have long-lasting effects on nutrition and children. Take the droughts in Africa:

- In Ethiopia children aged five or less in drought-prone areas are 36 per cent more likely to be malnourished and 41 per cent more likely to be stunted if they are born during a drought year;
- In Kenya, being born in a drought year increases the likelihood of children being malnourished by 50%;
- In Niger, children aged two or under who were born during, and affected by, a drought year are 72 per cent more likely to be stunted (in: 2007/8 UN Human Development Report; in: CDKN, 2011).

to be further amplified⁸. The recent floods in Pakistan and the food and nutrition crises in the Horn of Africa are likely an indication of what may come as such incidents become more commonplace, with extreme weather events having a higher probability of occurring as a result of climate change. However - even though climate change is an important drivers behind increased disaster risks - it is not the only one: growing urbanisation, economic marginalisation and lack of access to social protection, poor governance and limited capacities, land and environmental degradation incrementally increase the vulnerability of people to hazards.

GLOBAL MAP OF CLIMATE-RELATED DISASTER RISK HOTSPOTS IN POOR COUNTRIES



Source: CARE, OCHA & Mapplecroft, 2008. Humanitarian implication of climate change. Available at: www.careclimatechange.org/files/reports/CARE_Human_Implications.pdf. Risk hotspots are defined as areas where high human vulnerability coincides with the distribution of specific climate-related shocks - i.e. floods, cyclones and droughts.

Many poor communities already live now in a constant state of recovery, where temporary relief has become a permanent coping strategy. For example, in Afghanistan drought occurs with such frequency that people have little time to recover before another drought hits. Pastoralists in Kenya experienced a severe drought in 2004-05, which was immediately followed by another drought hazard that peaks in 2008-09, leaving almost no time for recovery.

CARE, OCHA and Mapplecroft (2008) identifies the most likely disaster risk hotspots in poor countries for the next 20-30 year period under changing climatic conditions⁹. These disaster risk hotspot tend to overlap with hunger and undernutrition hotspots. In others terms, at-risk regions and populations are also those that already suffer the most from hunger and undernutrition; refer to the map above.

1.3. THE SEASONS OF HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION ARE CHANGING

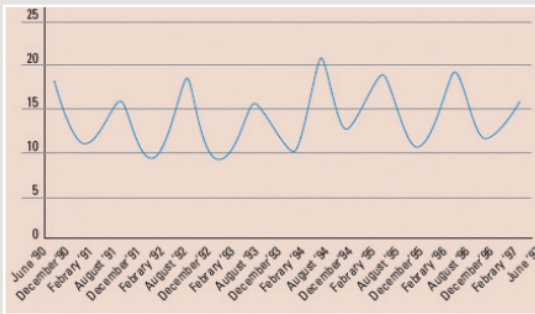
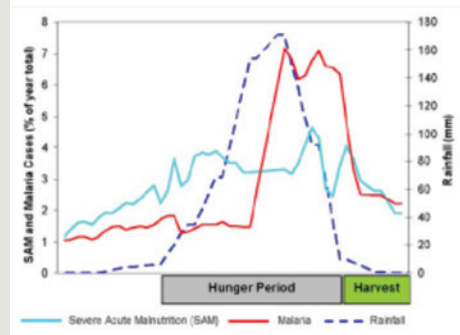
The majority of the world's poor are exposed to seasonal cycles of hunger, poverty and disease¹⁰. The prevalence of child undernutrition fluctuates throughout the year, and seasonal peaks of wasting can be observed in Africa, Asia and Latin America. ACF report 'Seasons of Hunger' emphasized that most of the world's acute hunger and undernutrition occurs not in conflicts and natural disasters but in the annual 'hunger season', the time of year when the previous year's harvest stocks have dwindled, food prices are high, and jobs are scarce¹¹.

SEASONALITY OF ACUTE MALNUTRITION

Seasonal fluctuations of wasting are induced by a converging deterioration of one or several undernutrition risk factor(s).

Undernutrition, malaria & rainfall in Niger (2007)

Source: ACF, 2008. *Seasons of Hunger*



Acute malnutrition for children 0-59 months in Bangladesh

Source: Based on HKI (1999) in: CDC and WFP, 2005. *A Manual: Measuring & Interpreting Malnutrition & Mortality*

The seasonal cycles of hunger and undernutrition are generally strongly correlated with climatic-related factors - especially in rural areas. In Sahel and the Horn of Africa, climate-related factors strongly influence crop and animal productions, income, diseases and undernutrition. In Bangladesh, floods and cyclones tend to follow seasonal patterns - with important food and nutrition security implications. Seasonal peaks of hunger and undernutrition are also shaped by human or socio-economic factors, such as high food prices or low income opportunities.

For the past years seasonality has changed. Rural communities across the world report that both the timing and the pattern of seasonal rains are changing dramatically¹². For example, rainfall is reported to be more erratic, shorter and more violent; seasons appear to have shrunk in number and variety; even within recognisable seasons, 'unseasonal' events such as heavier rains, drier spells, unusual storms, dense fogs, and temperature fluctuations are increasing¹³. Climate change is a key driver behind these changes in seasonality.

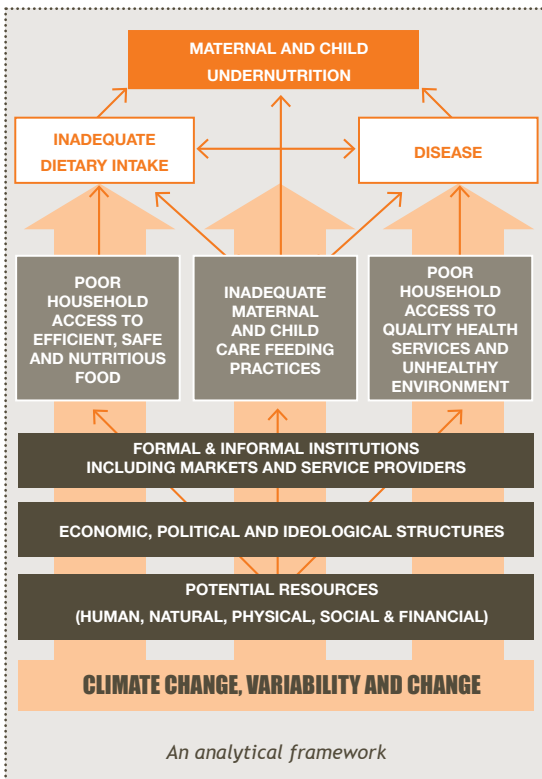
Changing seasonality exacerbate seasonal stresses and induced hunger and undernutrition peaks. In others terms, acute seasonal food and nutrition crises - such as the 2011 Horn of Africa crisis or the 2012 crisis in Sahel are likely to be more frequent and severe along with changes in climate.

1.4. CLIMATE CHANGE AMPLIFIES HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION

The adverse effects of climate change are already with us, and they will continuously increase in the coming years and decades - at a pace and scale much higher than formerly thought¹⁴. Climate change acts as a multiplier of existing threats to food & nutrition security through three main factors. First, it contributes to more frequent, severe and unpredictable climate-related shocks, and it exacerbates climate-related disaster risks (see section 1.2). Second it is progressively reshaping seasons and seasonality (see section 1.3). Third, it alters other local climatic and environmental conditions - such as temperatures, precipitation, sea level, glacial melt and natural resource availability.

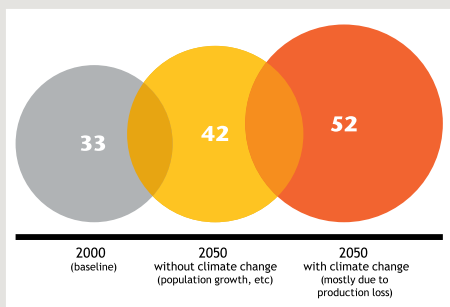
More severe and frequent climate-related shocks, changing seasons and gradual changes increase the overall risk of hunger and undernutrition through multiple causal pathways related to livelihoods & food security; maternal & child care and feeding practices; and water, sanitation and health.

According to the IPCC, undernutrition linked to extreme climatic events may be one of the most important consequences of climate change due to the very large numbers of people that may be affected¹⁵. IFPRI recently estimated that calorie availability in 2050 is likely to decline throughout the developing world resulting in an additional 24 million undernourished



TRENDS IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA (MILLIONS)

Number of malnourished children, in million



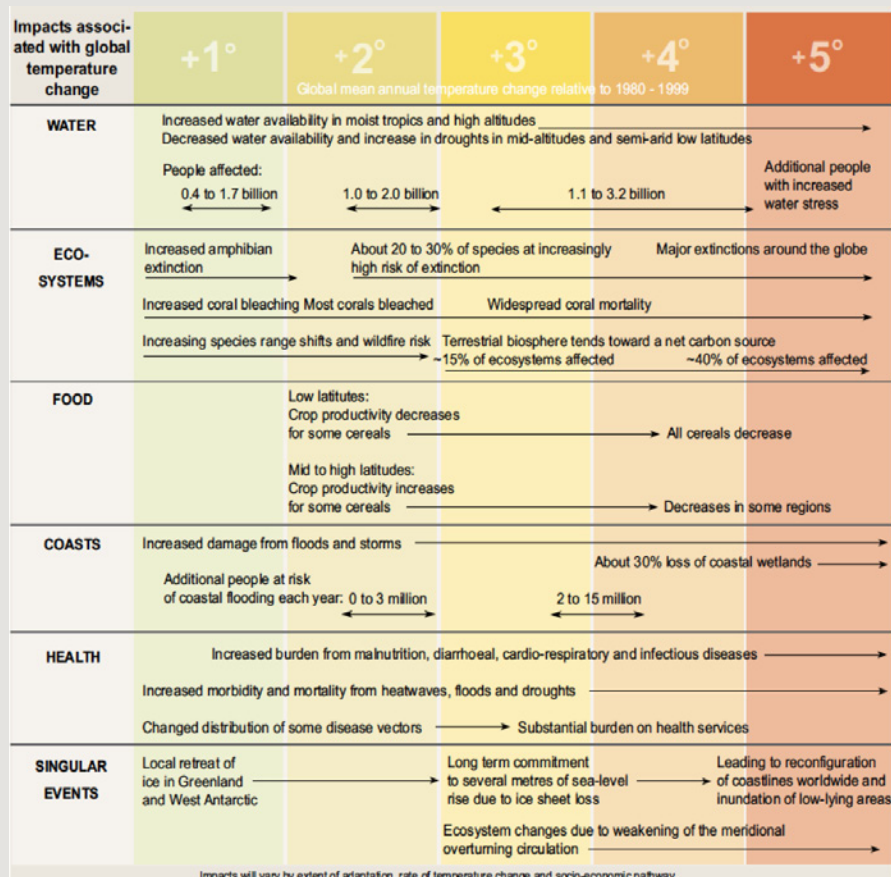
Source: Nelson et al, 2009; graphics by WFP

children, 21% more relative to a world with no climate change, almost half of which would be living in sub-Saharan Africa; climate change will eliminate much of the progress made in terms of tackling undernutrition¹⁶.

Climate change is a hunger risk multiplier¹⁷. Although there may be beneficial effects at higher latitudes, agricultural production is expected to drop significantly in regions where it is already low. Declining agricultural production reduces employment and income, diminishing poor people's purchasing power and limiting their ability to invest in assets that increase their resilience¹⁸. In

IMPACTS ASSOCIATED WITH GLOBAL TEMPERATURE CHANGE

The impacts of climate change on natural and human systems will grow along with the global temperatures.



Source : UNEP, 2009; adapted from IPCC, 2007.



combination with other factors, climate change is expected to increase food price volatility. Recent studies suggest that climate change could also significantly influence global food prices in the near future, and that price spikes will be a devastating blow on the most vulnerable households¹⁹.

At the same time, more extreme weather events will have serious impacts on livelihood assets in both rural and urban areas and threaten the stability of food supply. Competition over increasingly scarce resources will also increase the risk of conflicts and migration patterns, which in turn could again increase food insecurity.

Water resources are predicted to be strongly impacted by climate change, with wide-ranging consequences for human societies and ecosystems²⁰. Hundreds of millions of people risk being exposed to a growing scarcity of water²¹. Climate change-related alterations in rainfall, surface water availability and water quality will impact on the incidence of water-related diseases²². Closely interlinked with water scarcity is agricultural and food production, which will become riskier in many developing countries as the climate continues to change.

Climate change also negatively affects nutrition through its impacts on health. According to the Lancet²³, climate change is the biggest global health threat of the 21st century, and is already contributing to the global burden of disease and premature death. Important future trends for human health include an increase in the number of people suffering from death, disease and injury from heat waves, floods, storms, fires and droughts; changes in the range of infectious disease vectors; and an increase in the burden of diarrhoeal diseases²⁴. Climate change impacts on health eventually both increase nutritional needs and reduce the absorption of nutrients and their utilization by the body. Climate change also puts further strain on the already heavy workload of women with negative impacts on their ability to provide proper care to infants and young children, heightening the risk of undernutrition²⁵.

More information on climate change effects on food and nutrition security can be found in the document highlighted below. It is important to always keep in mind that climate change acts in conjunction with others factors, and thus is best viewed as a threat multiplier!

THE THREATS OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON UNDERNUTRITION



The United Nations Standing Committee on Nutrition (UNSCN) Newsletter #38 highlights how climate change further exacerbates the enormous existing burden of hunger and undernutrition. It proposes policy and practical orientations to tackle these issues. ACF produced the lead article of this newsletter entitled ‘The Threats of Climate Change on Undernutrition – A Neglected Issue That Requires Further Analysis And Urgent Actions’. It is available at: www.unscn.org/files/Publications/SCN_News/SCN_NEWS_38_03_06_10.pdf

The figure above reflects that the impacts of climate change on natural and human systems will grow along with the global temperatures. Thus climate change mitigation efforts would be critical

to limit future climate change impacts food and nutrition security in developing countries.

THE THREATS OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON UNDERNUTRITION

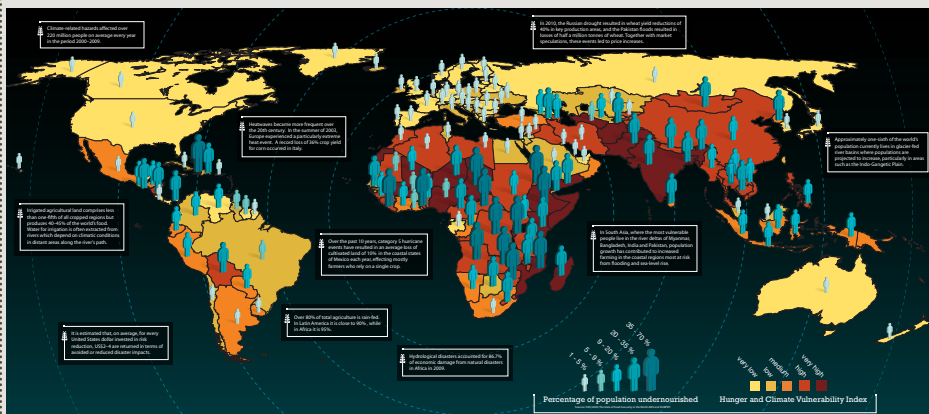
Climate change mitigation refers to actions, measures and processes taken to reduce the sources or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases - the main drivers of global climate change. As of today, there is widespread consensus on the need for climate change mitigation efforts, in order to avoid worst-case scenarios for this century - including abrupt or irreversible climatic shifts. Climate change mitigation requires major shifts in lifestyle, a veritable energy revolution, and a transformation in how we manage land and forests. And substantial adaptation would still be needed. For now, global emissions of greenhouse gases are continuously increasing, and climate change mitigation efforts are too slow to measure up with the issues.

The following regions are likely to be especially affected by climate change²⁶:

- Semi-arid and arid regions in Sub-Saharan Africa, Middle East, Central and South Asia - because of overall vulnerability to droughts and floods and low adaptive capacity
- Asian and African megadeltas, due to large populations and high exposure to sea level rise, storm surges and river flooding
- Coastal regions and small inlands, which are often vulnerable to sea level rise, increased coastal flooding and cyclones
- Glacial mountains in all continents - which are vulnerable to floods and/or droughts
- The Arctic, because of the impacts of high rates of projected warming.

The map below - produced by WFP and the UK MetOffice - provide a global overview of climate change-related food insecurity.

GLOBAL MAP OF FOOD INSECURITY AND CLIMATE CHANGE



Source: WFP and UK MetOffice (2010) Food Insecurity and Climate Change Global Map. Available for download at: www.wfp.org/stories/new-map-links-climate-change-food-insecurity



1.5. CLIMATE-RELATED VULNERABILITIES AND RESILIENCE

WIDESPREAD CLIMATE-RELATED VULNERABILITIES

Climate vulnerability is the degree to which people, communities and the systems on which they depend are susceptible to, and unable to cope and adapt when exposed to climate-related hazards (such as an extreme weather event or climate change impacts). Climate vulnerability is a function of 3 factors - namely exposure, sensitivity and adaptive and coping capacity.

High climate vulnerability results from the combination of a high exposure to climate-related shocks and stresses, a high sensitivity and a low adaptive and coping capacity. For instance, people who live in the agro-pastoral lowlands in the Horn of Africa are very vulnerable to droughts because (i) they are very exposed to recurrent droughts; (ii) pastoral assets and livelihoods are sensitive to low rainfall; and (iii) they face increasing difficulties to cope with droughts by themselves - due to smaller herds, restrictions in movements or insecurity, among others. On the opposite, people and livelihoods are little vulnerable to climate-related hazards and climate change when they are little exposed to climate-related shocks and stresses, they are little sensitive to these shocks and stresses or they have a high resilience.

Exposure is mainly a function of geography or location. For instance, communities in semi-arid areas may be most exposed to drought, while coastal communities will have higher exposure to sea level rise and cyclones. Rural communities in areas with well-differentiated seasons are more exposed to seasonal stresses than communities living in equatorial zones, with rainfall throughout the year. People living in the river flood plains or low-lying coastal areas are more exposed to a flood than people living on a hill.

Sensitivity is mainly a function of the exposed assets, practice or services. It varies according to the hazard under focus. For instance, an 'un-elevated' house or food stock in a flood-prone area is obviously sensitive to floods; a fragile, arid or semi-arid ecosystem will be more sensitive than a tropical one to a decrease in rainfall, due to the subsequent impact on water flows; a community depending on natural resource-based livelihoods - e.g. rainfed agriculture, pastoralism or fisheries - is more sensitive to climate fluctuations and changing rainfall patterns than one where mining is the dominant livelihood; floods can disrupt health care services or access to these services; fields of drought-resistant crops are less sensitive to low rainfall, but might remain sensitive to a storm.

Adaptive and coping capacity relates to the assets people access and control, including knowledge and skills; to their access to information and technology and their capacity to innovate and experiment; to people access to services and markets; and to the accountability and effectiveness of institutions and the existing policies. Adaptive and coping capacity varies according to the hazard under focus. For instance, people who cannot swim are less able to cope with a flood; children with a good food, health and nutritional status are better able to face a drought compared to undernourished

children; farmers with access to seasonal climate forecasts are more able to successfully manage their crops; households having access to a broad range of assets and implementing a diversified set of strategies can spread the risks of specific climate-related hazards; access to agricultural services that promote more resilient agricultural systems can reduce the sensitivity to specific climate-related hazards.

For many vulnerable population groups, low adaptive and coping capacity originates from long-term processes of social, economic and political marginalisation also referred to as ‘the underlying causes of vulnerability’ such as poverty; gender inequality; limited rights and limited access to assets and power; inequitable policies and absence of social protection; etc.

THE MOST VULNERABLE POPULATION GROUPS

Vulnerability to climate-related hazards and climate change varies within countries, communities and even households. Understanding who is vulnerable and why requires a context-specific and field-based analysis. That said the poor, hungry and undernourished people and marginalised groups in developing countries - particularly the women and young children - are typically amongst the most vulnerable social groups to climate-related hazards and climate change, mainly because:

- They are more likely to live in areas that have greater exposure to climate-related hazards, such as slums, flood plains or others marginal environments;
- They generally rely on climate-sensitive resources and natural resource-based livelihoods, such as small-scale rainfed farming systems, pastoralism and fisheries; forest-based activities; and agricultural labour;
- They lack access to assets and services that would enable them to cope and adjust with climate-related crises and climate change, and they have limited capacity to innovate and adjust in the long-term, struggling already on a daily basis to meet their basic needs;
- They often have to resort to negative adaptive and coping strategies that further exacerbate food and nutrition insecurity (e.g. reducing food intakes; selling productive assets; etc.).

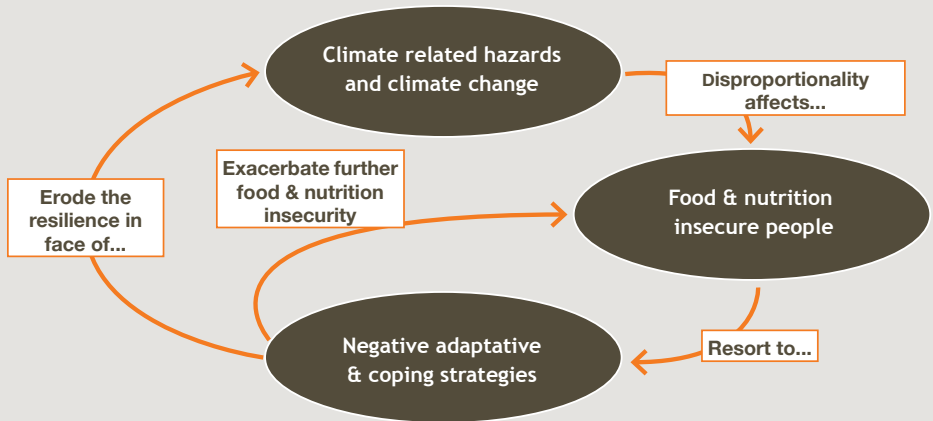
Hungry and undernourished people may become trapped in a vicious cycle: increasingly exposed to climate-related shocks, seasonal fluctuations and stresses, they have to resort to negative strategies that further exacerbate food and nutrition insecurity and erode their resilience in the short- and long-term.



A VICIOUS CIRCLE OF HUNGER & UNDERNUTRITION IN FACE OF CLIMATE-RELATED SHOCKS & STRESSES

Climate-related hazards and climate change exacerbate hunger and undernutrition. In turn, food and nutrition insecure people are more sensitive, less able to cope and adapt or less resilient to climate-related hazards and climate change. For instance, when your children's nutrition is poor before a hazard hits, their limited nutritional stores are soon depleted, increasing their risk of undernutrition, disease and death.

Already-food and nutrition insecure populations have fewer options to cope and adjust to climate-related shocks and stresses. They have to resort to negative adaptive and coping strategies that further exacerbate food and nutrition insecurity or lessen their resilience. These strategies include for instance the reduction of food intake; the consumption of poor-quality water; the reduction of time allocated to child care; the sale of key productive assets; the migration in flood-prone slums; the degradation of natural resources through charcoal-making and firewood marketing, etc.



Let's take an example from Southern Ethiopia, in the hilly agro-pastoral and pastoral regions of Borena where farmers and herders are often considered as being on the front line of climate change. A perception of changing rainfall patterns features prominently in this region. Over the past ten years, the rain has become increasingly unpredictable and erratic, and the seasonal rains have started later and finished earlier. This is detrimental to people's key assets, cattle and farmland, which are sensitive to climate fluctuations. People respond to these shocks and stresses through diverse adaptive or coping strategies, such as increased labour migration or change in food consumption. These response strategies, which differ according to people's wealth, can have positive or negative effects on their assets, food and nutrition security and resilience in the short- or long-term. The table below illustrates response strategies among wealth groups that lead to different outcomes.

ADAPTIVE AND COPING STRATEGIES OF AGRO-PASTORALISTS IN THE HORN OF AFRICA

TYPE	RESPONSE STRATEGY	GROUP	EFFECT
NEGATIVE STRATEGY	Increased labour migration	Poor middle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disruption in community dynamics • Reduction in household labour force, leading to a decline in ability to focus on household's own activities
	Increased sale of livestock	Poor Middle Better Off	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduction in household asset base from which to draw in the event of future shock • Less potential to exploit opportunities to sell livestock products such as milk, yoghurt, cheese. • Inability to optimise profit • Forced to accept lower prices
	Increase livestock migration (travel longer distance for longer periods of time)	Poor middle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disruption in community dynamics • Increased competition for limited grazing may result in heightened tension between clans/ethnic groups. Livestock become weak due to distances required to travel
	Increase sale of charcoal and firewood	Poor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental degradation • Increased erosion and run-off
	Change in food consumption - reduction in frequency & quality of food intake	Poor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase susceptibility to disease and potential malnutrition • Reduction in energy levels, resulting in lower productivity
POSITIVE STRATEGY	Increase in <i>kallo</i> formation (preservation of pasture)	All	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community cohesion strengthened through participation of all to form <i>kallo</i> • Enables regeneration of pasture • Pasture protected for future
	<i>Harro</i> (pond) creation/ water harvesting	All	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Households have access to water for specific activities (e.g. vegetable gardening)
	Planting short maturing crop varieties	All	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased potential to gain at least some harvest
	Increase in petty trade activities or in sales of gum Arabic and incense	Poor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased income generated
	Vegetable farming		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Counter-seasonal source of food and income

Source: ACF, IDS, Tearfund et al, 2010. *Changing climates, changing lives: Adaptation strategies of pastoral and agro-pastoral communities in Ethiopia & Mali.*
See: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=14381



Strategies that increase climate vulnerability through increased exposure or sensitivity or reduced adaptive and coping capacity - inadvertently or not - are referred to as maladaptive strategies. They often include strategies that deliver short-term benefits but lead to exacerbated vulnerability in the medium to long-term. For instance, some responses lock households into patterns of depleting assets and lead to greater pressure on natural resources - such as the intensive and uncontrolled marketing of firewood and charcoal - with knock-on effects for people's options to cope and adapt over the long-term²⁷.

BUILDING CLIMATE RESILIENCE

The increasing frequency and severity of crises, along with chronic aid failures and the prevailing perceptions that our world is increasingly risky and uncertain have strengthened the resilience agenda among humanitarian and development communities. Key features of this rapidly-expanding agenda include - among others - adopting a more anticipatory or 'forward looking' approach; managing risks rather than crises; replacing 'silo-approaches' by effective and efficient linkages between sectors and stakeholders; overcoming humanitarian and development divides; and better linking short-term and long-term responses.

Various approaches are already being used by humanitarian and development stakeholders to manage risks and enhance the resilience of people in face of shocks and stresses. The most common approaches include - but are not limited to - food and nutrition security; sustainable livelihoods; disaster risk reduction; climate change adaptation; and social protection approaches; more information is provided in the Tool 2.

Up to recently these approaches have generally evolved in parallel and have therefore missed substantial opportunities to build upon the potential synergy that can be created between them. While recognising that each of these approaches has its distinct focus, niche and strength, the integration of these approaches clearly makes sense to build people and communities' resilience - and more specifically climate resilience.

Enhancing the resilience of vulnerable populations exposed to increasing risks is recognized as an important strategic priority within ACF, as reflected by its recent strategic frameworks policies presented in section 2. Climate resilience can be considered as a core piece of the broader 'resilience puzzle'.

While the need for action to build climate resilience has been clearly recognised, there are still many questions about how to do in practice. The section 3 suggests 8 essential actions to enhance climate resilience and food and nutrition security. These actions are aligned with ACF policies related to resilience building.

The section 4 of this guide presents a set of cross-cutting principles to carry out these essential actions.



SECTION 2

ACF POLICY ANCHORS AND STRATEGIC ORIENTATIONS

- 1- ACF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGY 2010-15**
- 2- ACF POLICY ON DISASTER RISK MANAGEMENT FOR COMMUNITIES**
- 3- ACF, UNSCN AND PARTNERS POLICY BRIEF ON CLIMATE CHANGE AND NUTRITION**
- 4- ACF POLICY PAPER ON ENHANCING CLIMATE RESILIENCE AND FOOD AND NUTRITION**
- 5- ACF BRIEFING PAPER ON ENHANCING RESILIENCE TO SHOCKS AND STRESSES**
- 6- ENSURING INSTITUTIONAL BUY-IN AND PAVING THE WAY FOR ACTION**

2.1. ACF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGY 2010-15

ACF International strategy 2010-15 has 5 main aims:

AIM 1: Increase our impact on acute malnutrition, curatively and preventively, especially in young children.

AIM 2: Respond to, and prevent humanitarian crises, address vulnerability and reinforce longer term resilience to food, water and nutritional crises.

AIM 3: Develop partnerships with local, national & international stakeholders to increase the number of people we assist and promote sustainability.

AIM 4: Build our capacity to ensure effective and efficient responses to humanitarian crises.

AIM 5: Maximise our pre-eminence as an advocate and reference source on hunger and malnutrition.



There are many factors that cause, or contribute to, a humanitarian crisis. These can include: armed conflicts, climate change, discriminatory violence, natural disasters, epidemics, economic breakdowns and food shortages. In such situations, household coping mechanisms are disrupted, preventing families from having adequate access to food of sufficient quality and quantity, as well as safe water. With more people than ever before affected by natural disasters, and an increasingly proportionate number of civilian victims suffering from violent conflict, ACF remains committed to responding to humanitarian crises. We adopt a two pronged approach in responding to a humanitarian crisis. Firstly, we address the needs of those affected by disasters, and secondly, we ensure disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation strategies are built into our relevant programmes.

Specific objectives related to Aim 2

- Improve ACF's capability to respond rapidly to humanitarian crises.
- Increase ACF support to the most vulnerable and affected populations during acute crises and rehabilitation contexts.
- Build long-term resilience in populations most vulnerable to natural disasters.

Impact and success indicators related to Aim 2

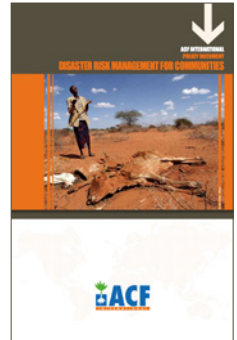
- A decision will be made within 24 hours on whether to intervene in a humanitarian crisis, with a team dispatched within 48 hours.
- The number of people benefiting from our WaSH programmes will annually reach 2.8 million.
- The number of people benefiting from our food security programmes will reach 2.2 million per year.

- The impact of recurring natural disasters on the most vulnerable communities will be prevented, and reduced, by our contribution to more effective surveillance systems and early warning mechanisms.
- A stronger mainstreaming of disaster risk reduction and climate change strategies will be implemented into relevant programmes.

→ Weblink: www.actionagainsthunger.org.uk/fileadmin/contribution/0_accueil/pdf/ACF%20International%20Strategy.pdf

2.2. ACF POLICY ON DISASTER RISK MANAGEMENT FOR COMMUNITIES

This policy, produced in 2011, outlines the current and likely future dynamics of disaster risk, the commitment of ACF for disaster risk management in communities and how to make this practice sustainable within ACF via an institutional strategy.



The impacts of disaster and undernutrition are increasing. Compounded by an increase in the number of disasters, the numbers of people affected and the amount of economic damage to livelihoods is increasing and more people are being displaced and are experiencing longer periods of vulnerability. Evolving regional and global drivers, including climate change, environmental degradation, market fragility, economic marginalisation and unplanned urbanisation, are exposing more people to more frequent hazards, whilst incrementally eroding the resilience of people to these hazards. Poor governance and insecurity threats magnify the components of disaster risk.

The causes of disaster and undernutrition are increasingly linked. Crisis and disaster may not directly cause undernutrition, but act to reinforce or accelerate underlying structural factors leading to undernutrition. The vulnerability of people to disaster is greatly affected by discrimination, lack of self-determination, lack of access to economic systems such as markets and institutions and policies that neglect people. Poor governance and aid-agency practice reinforce the impact of hazards and drive long-term trends, resulting in more disasters and further risks.

Disaster losses and risk are concentrated in developing countries where most the poorest live. In these countries, marginalised and discriminated groups are particularly vulnerable to disaster and undernutrition. Without disaster risk management, families can experience self-reinforcing spiral of poverty, undernutrition and further disaster risk. This has resulted in a backwards step in the gains made by the Millennium Development Goals and a continuous ballooning of those suffering from hunger and undernutrition.



In response to these challenges, ACF advocates for integrated DRM at community level that expands on the humanitarian mandate from saving lives to saving livelihoods and creating an enabling environment for successful development to help solve world hunger, poverty and vulnerability to disaster. Here, ACF action aims to do (i) the right thing, (ii) at the right time, (iii) in the right way, to manage the risk of disaster and undernutrition. This means aligning action towards (i) five key risk management outcomes (systematic ACF contingency planning, preparation of communities for hazards, mitigation and prevention of risk, capacity building of local institutions, minimisation of the impact of key drivers of risk), (ii) taking into account the timing of the action in the disaster cycle, and (iii) recognising that the role of communities should be adapted according to their context and wishes, whilst structuring action using programme and project cycle management.

ACF DRM programming should have an open vision of disaster risk that (i) considers future impacts of natural hazards, insecurity and other man-made shocks, and undernutrition, and, (ii) that more closely links the management of risk with emergency response. The tripartite partnership and the quality of relationships between communities, civil society and institutions are central to determine the most relevant DRM action.

Programming should both learn from lessons from the past and anticipate disaster risk in the immediate and long-term future, particularly for climate change. ACF recognises that the main risk management approaches of DRR, CCA, social protection, natural resource management and undernutrition prevention (defined in Section 2.2) are a means to achieve its risk management objectives. At each step, DRM action ensures that the vulnerability of different groups within communities is addressed and that their capacities are harnessed. Owing to the uncertain future that climate change and governance issues will bring, ACF aims to combine indigenous and external best practices and science to manage risk and to work with communities to design the most appropriate response.

Relying on reactive response and on increasingly insufficient emergency finance to meet the burgeoning needs of disaster, no longer represents an ethical or a feasible mode of operation. Especially as the cause and effect of disaster and undernutrition is increasingly understood. Integrated action between disaster operations and DRM will maximise the impact of ACF to address humanitarian and undernutrition needs, especially in difficult contexts which normally do not suit operations and tools of long-term actors.

A MINIMUM DISASTER RISK MANAGEMENT PACKAGE FOR MISSIONS: THE TOP 10

The SUN Framework calls for two complementary approaches to reducing undernutrition:

The policy also highlights a minimum disaster risk management package for missions, including 10 priority interventions presented below. It is important noting that the essential actions described in the section 3 of this guide converge with the minimum disaster risk management package.

1. Basic country risk analysis, feeding into a country strategy that outlines the main axes of DRM. This means having a general vision of how trends will impact on undernutrition and disaster in the future. It also means ensuring the dissemination and discussion of key ACF DRM guidance material.
2. Coordination with key national DRM or climate change platforms to enhance information collection, partnerships and common action for the most vulnerable, particularly those suffering from undernutrition.
3. Analysing the risks - more specifically shocks and seasonality - in ACF's areas of operations, and the local coping and adaptation strategies, with basic questions included as part of all assessments.
4. Development of, or coordination with, local or regional early warning systems (EWS for natural hazards, livelihoods, food and nutrition security and insecurity). Surveillance systems are connected with EWS.
5. Contingency plans in place, following the ACF Contingency Planning Guidelines, including better proactive management of caseloads of wasted children.
6. Contributions to reduce the seasonal peak of wasting.
7. Hazard-proofing key assets for food security, care and health.
8. Ensuring that new operations consider the potential impacts of hazards in the area of operation, and adapting its new operations accordingly to.
9. Ensuring that livelihood strategies are more resilient to potential hazards and diversifying livelihood options. In particular, promoting climate-resilient livelihood options.
10. Raise the awareness and capacities of current and future partners in all the initiatives listed above.

Source: ACF 2011 policy on disaster risk management for communities, page 19.

→ Weblink: www.actioncontrelafaim.org/fr/content/disaster-risk-management-communities-la-gestion-des-risques-aux-desastres-pour-les

2.3. ACF, UNSCN AND PARTNERS POLICY BRIEF ON CLIMATE CHANGE AND NUTRITION SECURITY

In 2010, UNSCN - with ACF as a key contributor - produced an important policy brief entitled “Climate Change and Nutrition Security: Message to the UNFCCC Negotiators”. This policy brief highlights how climate change further exacerbates hunger and undernutrition and proposes policy directions to address the nutrition impact of climate change.



Climate change directly affects food and nutrition security, undermining current efforts to address undernutrition, one of the world's most serious but least addressed socioeconomic and health problems. A revitalized twin-track approach has been proposed to address the impacts of climate change on food and nutrition security. Track one consists of direct and immediate nutrition interventions and safety nets. Track two consists of a broader multi-sectoral approach.

This broader multi-sectoral approach mainly involves sustainable and climate resilient agriculture and rural development, health and social protection schemes, risk reduction and management plans and community approaches addressing the most vulnerable among others. Two key strategic and policy aspects - i.e. climate-resilient and nutrition-sensitive agricultural development and nutrition safety nets and social protection schemes - are introduced below:

CLIMATE-RESILIENT AND NUTRITION-SENSITIVE AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Agriculture is fundamental to reducing global hunger and, along with the health and care-based approaches, is integral to improving nutrition outcomes worldwide. Climate change instills greater urgency to find more sustainable, resilient and efficient ways of producing, trading, distributing and consuming food. Producing more food does not necessarily lead to a better access to food or to an improved nutritional status of those who need it most. In Kenya and in the Philippines, for example, the adoption of cash crops expanded food supply and doubled the household incomes of small farmers, but 2006 studies showed that children's energy intake increased only from 4 to 7 percent, and that child undernutrition was little changed.

Climate-resilient agriculture should be nutrition-friendly and health-promoting, as part of a broader nutrition-sensitive agricultural development framework. Agriculture can sustainably contribute to improving dietary diversity and nutrition by supporting, among others:

- Agricultural extension services promoting better crop diversity and biodiversity for improved nutrition;
- Integrated agro-forestry systems that reduce deforestation and promote the sustainable exploitation of nutrient-rich non-wood forest products, in particular in areas with traditional agro-forestry knowledge;
- Integrated farming systems exploiting the synergies of horticulture, aquaculture and small livestock rearing to reduce waste and expenses on agricultural inputs and increase food production diversity;
- Improved household food production and livelihoods (i.e. diversification of household food production for self-consumption, to improve the nutritional quality of the family diet).

In addition, education, communication for development and social marketing strategies that strengthen local food systems and promote cultivation and consumption of local micronutrient-rich foods; research and development programmes for the breeding of selected crops and livestock with enhanced nutritional quality; and improved post-harvest management (food storage, transformation, handling and processing) to reduce losses in terms of quantity and nutrients content also contribute to nutrition security. Agricultural policies must go beyond staples and increase the availability and affordability of a diverse range of nutritious food (vegetables, fruits, animal and dairy products, small fish, under-utilized nutrient-rich indigenous foods, etc.). Agricultural policies should be pro-poor by enhancing and sustaining people's ability to procure and use the amount and variety of food required to be active and healthy. Policies must also be gender-sensitive: the majority of small-scale farmers are women, who are balancing their childcare responsibilities and farming every day. Particular attention should be given to strategies reducing workload of women taking into account the repercussions on the nutrition and care of children. Agricultural investment in sustainable, climate-resilient, gender-sensitive and nutrition-sensitive development can contribute to reducing undernutrition among children under five years of age.

SOCIAL PROTECTION SCHEMES THAT HAVE PROVEN EFFECTIVE IN ADDRESSING UNDERNUTRITION

Droughts or others climate-related shocks frequently force poor families to resort to negative coping strategies (for instance reduction of the quality, safety and quantity of their meals, reduction of the expenditures on health and education, sale of productive assets, etc.). These coping strategies generally increase the risk of undernutrition, in the short- or medium-term and women and children are the first to be affected. Social protection programmes are powerful instruments to link risk reduction and immediate protection measures with efforts to build long-term resilience amongst the most vulnerable groups, more specifically young children and their mothers. Given the critical role that women play in the nutrition of children, transfers should be delivered through gender-sensitive mechanisms.

Short-term emergency or seasonal safety nets can avoid irreversible losses in human capital, reduce the incidence of negative coping mechanisms and protect the family's access to sufficient, nutritious and safe food. Food and cash-for-work programs prevent poor farmers from selling off their few productive assets during crises, thereby protecting development gains. Social cash transfers, generally delivered by governments on a permanent basis, can help poor families to reduce their vulnerability and may also directly influence nutritional status. Conditional cash transfer programmes in Colombia, Mexico and Nicaragua decreased stunting rates by 7, 10 and 5.5 percentage points respectively. Labour-based productive safety nets and pro-poor insurance schemes can allow poor farmers to protect their productive assets and to gain access to investment opportunities that they would otherwise miss. School-based approaches (school feeding programmes, school gardens, nutrition education, etc.) can support child nutrition through improved diets, food and nutrition education and provide a platform for addressing child health. When children are reached during the critical period between conception and 2 years of age, the irreversible and intergenerational effects of undernutrition can be hindered. Later in life, school-based approaches may support child nutrition through improved diets, food and nutrition education and provide a platform for addressing child health.

→ Weblink: <http://reliefweb.int/report/world/unscn-policy-brief-climate-change-nutrition-security>

2.4. ACF POLICY PAPER ON ENHANCING CLIMATE RESILIENCE AND FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

This policy paper (2013) suggests a climate resilience and food and nutrition security approach in face of more frequent and severe climate-related hazards and climate change, which includes the following priorities:

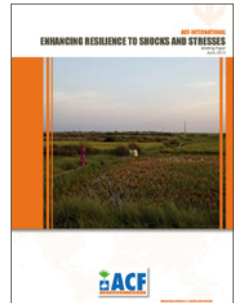
- **Better understanding climate-related challenges on hunger and undernutrition:** ACF will analyse and monitor climate-related risks and vulnerabilities and their interplay with food and nutrition security - in priority in communities and countries highly exposed to climate-related shocks and seasonal trends. These analyses will support ACF policy-making, country strategies and programming.
- **Strengthening food and nutrition security surveillance and early warning systems:** ACF will develop or consolidate integrated and effective food and nutrition surveillance and early warning systems at local, national or regional levels - in priority in areas where such warning is lacking. It will monitor early warning information provided by others authoritative stakeholders in its areas of operations.
- **Linking early warnings to early response mechanisms:** ACF will link early warning information with its internal contingency mechanisms. It will encourage or trigger early response mechanisms among local, national, regional or international stakeholders in face of (climate-related and others) shocks and seasonal hardships - particularly when early warning information is not considered as required.
- **Enhancing preparedness in face of climate-related shocks and seasonal hardships:** ACF will further strengthen the preparedness of its missions and operational headquarters. It will increase its understanding of local capacities and coping strategies. Based on this analysis, ACF will continue supporting community and institution preparedness in face of food and nutrition crises, climate-related and others shocks and stresses. In particular, ACF - along with partners - will further enhance the management of the caseloads of wasted children during shocks and seasonal hardships.
- **Managing climate-related risks and enhancing people and community resilience:** ACF will scale up its risk management and resilience building activities considering good practice and lessons learned, and this in priority in the most vulnerable, food and nutrition insecure communities. It will also implement new resilience building approaches and continuously innovate with partners.
- **Conducting advocacy and shaping policies:** ACF will further advocate for a better consideration of undernutrition challenges in key risk management, resilience and climate change-related policy agendas. On the opposite, it will advocate for a better consideration of climate-related risks and the need for resilience in key food security and nutrition-related within key agendas. Primary targets include United Nations agencies, national governments and donors.
- **Reducing carbon footprints:** ACF will progressively reduce its carbon footprint in priority countries.

→ Weblink: www.actionagainsthunger.org.uk/resource-centre/online-library/detail/media/enhancing-climate-resilience-and-food-nutrition-security



2.5. ACF BRIEFING PAPER ON ENHANCING RESILIENCE TO SHOCKS AND STRESSES

This briefing paper (2013) explains resilience in the context of disaster and climate change, providing a set of practical approaches on how to operationalize resilience to disasters and climate change, and illustrating these approaches with nine case studies from ACF resiliency projects around the world.



REDUCE DISASTER AND CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS: PREPARATION AND INFORMATION MANAGEMENT

Enhancing preparedness in face of shocks and stresses:

Responding and mitigating the effects of shocks or stresses require preparedness mechanisms involving multiple stakeholders and at multiple levels

- Strengthen capacities on preparedness at mission's level and at headquarters to better prepare the response in partnership with all stakeholders acting in WASH, FSL, CPMH and Nutrition (e.g. Preparedness and Emergency response planning).
- Establish multi-sectorial analysis of the impact and threats of disaster and climate change on nutrition security to increase our understanding of the context and coping strategies set up by communities. Joint assessment, regrouping WASH, FSL, Nutrition and CPMH should be conducted, or at least each sectorial assessment should be analysed at the same time (e.g. multi-sector seasonal calendar tool, or participatory risk assessment).
- Enhance institutions and community's preparedness capacities to deal with disasters and food, water and nutrition crisis (e.g. national contingency planning).

Strengthening food and nutrition security surveillance and early warning systems:

Food security and nutrition surveillance systems have been conceptualized internally and implemented amongst communities and countries at risk of shocks and stresses. These systems have been used to inform or warn key actors and authorities about food and nutrition situations.

- Link early warning information with internal preparedness and emergency response planning to ensure early response mechanisms (e.g. flood early warning system).
- Support food and nutrition surveillance and early warning systems at local, national or regional levels. Further ensure monitoring of early warning information by governments (e.g. food price surveillance, admission of malnourished children in nutrition centre, prevalence of diarrheal surveillance, water table monitoring, etc.).
- Increase skills of communities to better manage uncertainty and change through the management of indigenous and external knowledge.
- Converse skills and knowledge into learning, experimentation and innovation (e.g. training on climate prediction).



REDUCE STRUCTURAL VULNERABILITY TO DISASTER AND UNDER NUTRITION

Manage risks and enhance community resilience

Communities strengthen collective action, equity and trust whilst diversifying livelihoods in an ecologically responsible way in order to reduce the risk of disaster and vulnerability to under-nutrition.

- Set up multi-sectorial programming combining DRR, CCA, social protection and prevention of malnutrition to enhance resilience of livelihoods system (e.g. participatory capacity and vulnerability assessment).
- Ensure hazard-proofed livelihoods and infrastructure (e.g. use of resistant seeds, or bank rice).
- Promote healthy environment: adequate access to health services, improvement of food production, better access to income and balanced diets, access to safe water, and use of knowledge promoted in households and communities linking with behaviour change (e.g. awareness on hygiene and care practices after a disaster).
- Take account good practices and learning process to scaling up risk management and resilience building activities (e.g. exchange field visit).

ENHANCE SUPPORTS OF COMMUNITIES BY RESPONSIBLE AND CAPABLE GOVERNANCE

Empower capacities of communities and institutions

Focus on the improvement of developing positive link between authorities and the community, while empowering and reinforcing capacities of governance.

- Establish or strengthen policy, capacities and mechanisms of coordination prioritising under nutrition, disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation, supported by institutions (e.g. jointly platform on DRR and CCA).
- Engage community organizations with external actors to promote community-based initiatives on disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation (e.g. local development planning, and specific events).

Conduct advocacy and shaping policies

Nutrition security in a changing climate and disaster prone areas has to be part of policy briefs, key risk management strategies and advocacy documents. On the opposite, climate related risks and the need for resilience has to be better considered by food security and nutrition agendas.

- Support advocacy campaigns that highlight key issues and needs of the most vulnerable to disaster and undernutrition.

→ Weblink: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=34093

2.6. ENSURING INSTITUTIONAL BUY-IN AND PAVING THE WAY FOR ACTION

ENSURING BUY-IN AND BUILDING CAPACITIES AT INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

It is essential to make sure that a certain number of supporting institutional measures are in place or carried out alongside the actions described in the section 3. These strategic measures include strengthening ACF and partners staff awareness and ownership; enhancing long-term leadership and accountability at country office level; and building ACF and partners' capacities:

SUPPORTIVE MEASURES TO ENABLE ACTIONS AND LONG-TERM INSTITUTIONAL CHANGES

PREPARATORY STEPS	WHAT SHOULD BE ACHIEVED?	HOW?
1. STRENGTHENING AWARENESS AND OWNERSHIP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key staff are sensitised about climate-related risks and vulnerabilities, and the need for resilience. • They share a basic understanding vis-à-vis strategic programming and operational implications. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To conduct an internal workshop to analyse implications of climate-related risks vis-à-vis programming and operations; to highlight actions that already support resilience and to identify gaps. • In some cases, an extreme weather event (not necessarily a disaster) may act as a catalyst for increased awareness and action.
2. ENHANCING LONG-TERM LEADERSHIP & ACCOUNTABILITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The head(s) of country office and partner institutions, as well as line managers, demonstrate commitment and leadership. • One or several focal points or champions are appointed among country office staff and partners. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct consultations with leaders, which aim at ensuring that climate resilience gains attention and is progressively considered as a priority. • Focal points have sufficient technical expertise and recognition; they are in charge of facilitating processes, staying up-to-date with information, networking, etc.
3. BUILDING INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff capacities are enhanced. • Internal or external expertise required to fill capacity gaps is provided. • Additional resources (including time!) are allocated to resilience building. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure staff training through multiple channels. • Adjust priorities, planning and financial and human resources. Enhancing climate resilience in fact requires additional time, work and capacities!

Important note: Strengthening climate resilience and food & nutrition security is a complex task - especially considering specific issues related to climate change. It is important to identify gaps and look for the right expertise within or outside ACF. Selecting the right support is an essential pre-condition to successful initiatives!

SELECT THE RIGHT ENTRY POINTS

Contexts vary from one country to another and within countries. Entry points should be tailored accordingly. Selecting the right entry points or ‘windows of opportunity’ is an essential factor of success for any climate resilience initiative, which should be conducted in a participatory manner! The box below suggests a strategic pathway to identify suitable, promising entry points:

A DECISION MATRIX TO SELECT PRIORITY ENTRY POINTS FOR CLIMATE RESILIENCE

- Step 1 • Generate and weight criteria required for a multi-criteria analysis; examples include institutional capacities; direct and indirect impacts; feasibility; institutional compatibility; appropriateness; coherence; efficiency; sustainability; etc. Pre-fill your decision matrix with these criteria.
- Step 2 • Conduct a rapid mapping of on-going or planned initiatives for climate resilience and/ or food and nutrition security, internally and externally.
- Step 3 • Identify potential entry points, i.e. existing initiatives which could be easily adapted or progressively transformed for enhanced resilience and food and nutrition security. Do consider that building resilience is mainly about connecting actions and initiatives, and that building on what exist is often the most immediate and actionable entry point for climate resilience initiatives!
- Step 4 • Identify gaps and required actions to fill these gaps at several levels (e.g. internally and at national, institutional and donor levels). You can refer to the 8 essential actions identified above and identify what is lacking in your operations areas!
- Step 5 • Fill your decision matrix with the options identified in steps 3 and 4, and objectively assess with your team each option against each weighted criterion using the decision matrix! A simple illustration is provided below, where ‘preventive action to tackle seasonal wasting’ represents the priority entry point relatively to 2 others programming options!

PREPARATORY STEPS	CRITERION 1 Institutional capacities	CRITERION 2 Compatibility with strategy	CRITERION 3 Direct impact on wasting	CRITERION 4 Financing opportunity	TOTAL
	15%	25%	40%	20%	100%
Opportunity - Bringing nutrition expertise in a joint analysis on climate change and food security	3	1	1	2	1.5 (= 3*0.15 + 1*0.25 + 1* 0.40 + 2*0.20)
Opportunity - Climate-proofing a new food and nutrition security initiative of the country office	2	2	2	3	2.2
Gap - Preventive action to reduce the seasonal peak of wasting	1	3	3	1	2.3

Notes: Options are assessed against each other according to three different ‘scores’: 3: option with the highest score for a specific criteria; 2: intermediate option; 1: option with the lowest score for a specific criteria The ‘total’ is equivalent to the sum of the scores multiplied by the related criterion weight.

STRATEGIZING A SEQUENCE OF SHORT- AND LONG-TERM ACTIONS

Once a set of interesting entry points have been selected, it is important to define a strategic sequencing of actions in the short- and long-term, considering internal and external contexts. The questions below and the illustration in the box intend to guide you in defining your strategic planning!

- **Shall my team and country office start to enhance climate resilience?** If your programming is climate-sensitive, the response will very likely be, in short: *the soonest, the better*.
- **Is this really a good timing to enhance climate resilience considering the contexts where my team operate?** Climate resilience actions can be implemented in all so-called ‘phases’ of humanitarian and development contexts, i.e. relief and protracted crises, early recovery and rehabilitation and development. There is only one exception when such actions are considerably less essential: at early stages of an acute emergency, when lives are at stake and when life-saving operations mobilise all available resources.
- **Which action should come first and which one comes at a later stage?** Two key things are required in order to answer this question: a large, participatory consultation process with team members and partners on one hand, and a longer-term thinking on the other hand!
- **Are long-term actions by humanitarian stakeholders essential once climate resilience is to be built?** Yes! Enhancing climate resilience in vulnerable communities is a long-term process that requires longer-term thinking, plans and actions by both humanitarian and development stakeholders. Such longer-term plans should remain flexible, so that efforts can be shifted easily depending on people needs!
- **When is the best timing to activate a specific initiative?** The *momentum* of an action often determines its success or failure. A promising initiative can fail if it is launched at a bad timing. Selecting the right momentum for an initiative - internally and externally - calls for good strategic thinking and ‘sensitivity’. To be noted: a momentum is not determined only by external variables: it can be built using specific tools, e.g. awareness-raising, lobbying and communications, etc.

ILLUSTRATION OF A STRATEGIC PLANNING AT DIFFERENT COUNTRY LEVELS

LEVEL	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5
NATIONAL	Increasing country office's	Conducting a climate risk assessment in 2 priority districts		Capacity-building of key national stakeholders on climate resilience, food & nutrition security	
SECTORAL			Strengthening early warning systems and strengthening early action mechanisms with partners in pastoral districts stakeholders		
LOCAL	Conducting a climate risk assessment in 2 priority districts		Systematically climate-proof all new projects in agro-pastoral livelihood zones		
COMMUNITY & HOUSEHOLDS		Reducing the seasonal peak of wasting in 10 pilot communities		Sharing lessons, scaling up good practice in 50 communities and linking up vertically	

Note: Climate resilience can be implemented at multiple scales; recent research, policies and practices suggest a two-way process, articulated between community-based with more central measures, at local, national or international levels.



ADAPT YOUR COUNTRY STRATEGY

Enhancing climate resilience requires a firm cross-sectoral involvement and commitment by decision-makers, technical and operational staff. Such an involvement should be reflected in the country strategy and in other ad-hoc strategic frameworks and policy documents!



SECTION 3

ESSENTIAL ACTIONS TO ENHANCE CLIMATE RESILIENCE AND FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY

- 1- ANALYSING THE INTERPLAY OF CLIMATE-RELATED SHOCKS & STRESSES WITH FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY**
- 2- STRENGTHENING EARLY WARNING SYSTEMS AND LINKING ALERTS TO EARLY FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY RESPONSE MECHANISMS**
- 3- ENHANCING INSTITUTIONAL PREPAREDNESS FOR EARLY ACTION**
- 4- TACKLING SEASONAL PEAKS OF UNDERNUTRITION**
- 5- CLIMATE-PROOFING ALL FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY PROJECTS**
- 6- FACILITATING COMMUNITY-BASED RISK MANAGEMENT PLANS**
- 7- CONDUCTING ADVOCACY AND SUPPORTING POLICY DEVELOPMENT**
- 8- CONDUCTING APPLIED RESEARCH AND STRENGTHENING EVIDENCE**



ESSENTIAL COMMENTS

Inadvertently or, in others words, even without specifically considering climate-related risks, most food and nutrition initiatives build people and communities' resilience in face of climate-related hazards - but as well in face of others hazards, such as high food prices. Nutrition and health interventions or livelihood diversification programmes for instance help to buffer people and communities from nearly all shocks and stresses.

The 8 actions suggested here represent a set of 'specialised' climate risk management or resilience building actions. They build on effective, impact-focused measures inspired by food and nutrition security; sustainable livelihoods; disaster risk reduction; climate change adaptation; and/or social protection approaches.

It is important emphasizing that these 8 actions represent essential pieces of the broader 'resilience puzzle' - but a comprehensive resilience and food and nutrition security approach is beyond the scope of this document!

The suggested actions are particularly relevant where hunger, undernutrition and climate-related vulnerabilities intersect. In others terms, they apply primarily in the geographical areas (i) with already-high levels of hunger and undernutrition, (ii) whilst highly exposed and sensitive to climate-related shocks and stresses (climate extremes, climate variability and climate change); and (iii) having little capacities to address climate-related risks.

They can be undertaken at various levels - from the household, community or local level up to the sectoral and national levels. The Tool 3 suggests an integrated framework to guide action at multiple levels.

Each of these actions will be presented according to the following itinerary:

- A. Why is this action important?
- B. What are the objectives of this action?
- C. At which level does it apply?
- D. Overview or general approach
- E. Specific steps and 'building blocks' of this action
- F. Illustrations and good practice
- G. Useful publications

3.1. ANALYSING THE INTERPLAY OF CLIMATE-RELATED SHOCKS AND STRESSES WITH FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

Analysing climate-related risks and vulnerabilities and their interplay with food and nutrition security is the preliminary step required to identify and implement climate resilience actions. Assessments and studies on the interplay of climate-related shocks and stresses with food and nutrition security remain too rare, if not inexistent in many countries and regions!

B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

Four main objectives are generally attached to such analyses:

- To (further) understand how climate-related shocks and stresses influence food and nutrition security at the local level;
- To characterise local capacities in coping with and adapting to shocks and stresses;
- To identify the most vulnerable people and population groups; and
- To identify policy and programming options to enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security. Such analyses can support ACF and partners' policy-making, country strategies and programming.

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

The action presented here applies at the levels of the community and the livelihood zone. However the approach presented here could inspire the analyses conducted at others levels, such as the sub-national or the national levels.

D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

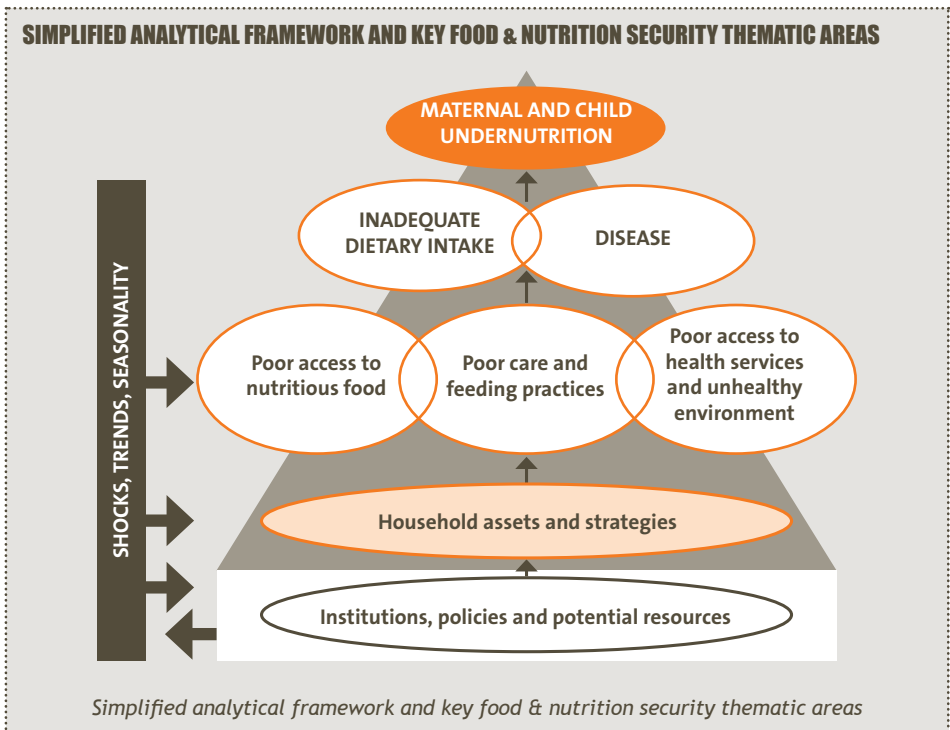
THE APPROACH SUGGESTED HERE

- Uses qualitative and participatory methods for collecting and analysing data; notwithstanding the positive aspects, qualitative methods also have shortcomings, e.g. replication and comparison of data is often difficult. In order to meet this challenge, the data gathered through the participatory tools will be complemented by an extensive review of secondary literature and data. The qualitative approach suggested here could represent a first step towards quantitative surveys.
- Acknowledges that climate change is already taking place now, and that many poor countries and communities are already observing and experiencing adverse effects of climate change on their food and nutrition insecurity.

- Focuses on human systems: ‘human systems’ refer here to people, communities and institutions.
- Focuses on the interplay between sustainable livelihoods, food and nutrition security and climate-related vulnerability, where climate-related vulnerability as a function of 3 variables: exposure, sensitivity and adaptive and coping capacity - refer to the section 1.5.
- Intends to get a general picture of existing climate-related risks and vulnerabilities: our approach doesn’t pretend to draw direct inferences between climate-related shocks and stresses and food and nutrition security; in fact the linkages between food and nutrition insecurity, climate-related hazards and other non-climate factors are very complex!
- Is mainly targeted towards rural communities. It should be adapted for uses in urban contexts.

FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK AND THEMATIC AREAS

The analytical framework of maternal and child undernutrition should be central to our analysis; refer to the figure below. A list of key food and nutrition security thematic areas is also suggested; this list should be kept as concise as possible, and tailored to assessments objectives, needs and resources!



CONTEXTS: shocks, seasonality and trends; markets and infrastructures; formal and informal institutions - including policies, services and projects

LIVELIHOODS: types of livelihood, adaptive and coping strategies; access to livelihood assets

FOOD SECURITY: food stocks, food production and wild food resources; labour market, sources and levels of income; food prices and terms of trade; dietary intake

CARE PRACTICES, HEALTH AND NUTRITION: status, workload and empowerment of women; access to quality health care; access to safe drinking water and sanitation; hygiene, care, feeding and nutrition knowledge, attitudes and practices; prevalence of wasting and stunting among children below age 5; under 5 mortality rate and retrospective morbidity pertaining to key water-borne, vector-borne disease or parasites

Refer as well to the Section 1.4 and the Tool 1

OVERALL GUIDING QUESTIONS

EXPOSURE

- What are the main shocks & stresses that prevail in the areas under focus? Which ones are climate-related?
- What are the likely projected impacts of climate change in areas under focus and prevailing uncertainties?

SENSITIVITY

- How do climate-related or others shocks affect food & nutrition security?
- How does seasonality influence food & nutrition security?
- How do/will gradual climate-related changes influence food & nutrition security?

ADAPTIVE AND COPING CAPACITY

- What adaptive and coping strategies do people implement in face of climate-related shocks and stresses?
- What are the short- and long-term effects of these strategies?
- What support from formal and informal institutions can people draw on in face of shocks and stresses?
- What are 'underlying causes of vulnerability' or the factors that limit local coping and adaptation?

VULNERABILITIES AND NEEDS

- What differences exist between different social groups (men and women, wealth groups, livelihood groups, etc.) with regard to their vulnerabilities and needs? Who are the most vulnerable groups?
- What measures could enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security among the most vulnerable?



SPECIFIC VERSUS INTEGRATED?

The approach suggested below represents a ‘stand-alone’ assessment exercise. However the suggested assessment methods and tools can also be integrated in general food and nutrition security assessments or others assessments that do not specifically focus on climate-related risks and vulnerabilities. In others words, many elements presented in the next sections can be used to improve the more ‘traditional’ food and nutrition security assessments.

E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND ‘BUILDING BLOCKS’ OF THIS ACTION

E.1. PREPARATION

TERMS OF REFERENCES

Writing clear terms of references is an essential pre-condition to any assessment. These terms of references generally include the background (rationale and why such an assessment is required); the assessment design (objectives and questions); the suggested methodology (general approach; analytical framework; data collection, analysis and reporting); the visited areas and the communities you propose to work with; the assessment team and partnerships (key stakeholders and partnerships; roles and responsibilities; etc.); a timeline with deliverables; and an indicative budget.

SELECTING COMMUNITIES TO WORK WITH

Priority assessment areas include these areas where food and nutrition insecurity and climate-related vulnerabilities intersect; needs are little addressed or covered; and operational contexts allow at the same time the implementation of an assessment and potential response programs. The Tool 2 allows determining in a rapid manner ‘hotspots areas’ in a country. Once an assessment area has been identified, communities to work with can be selected according to their vulnerability or to reflect the heterogeneity of the considered area (e.g. the sample of communities represent different livelihoods, agro-ecological zones and/or socio-economic zones). Consultation with local government and NGO representatives is important in selecting these communities.

WHAT DO WE MEAN BY ‘COMMUNITY’?

By definition, a community is ‘a socially cohesive group of people living in a common location’. But in reality, communities are very different, in terms of their size, composition, and internal cohesion. In a community of more than 200 households, you may need to repeat elements of the assessment with several groups to make sure you get a good level of participation. In this case, you would need either a larger facilitation team or more time. Alternatively, you could divide the community into different groups, if there are clear divisions of interests, environment, and resources (e.g. differences based on gender, power, wealth, and productive resources like land ownership). Consult with the community and its leaders before you do this though, as it could have negative repercussions.

INVOLVING STAKEHOLDERS²⁸

The main stakeholders are the community members themselves. Remember that communities are not homogeneous; there are significant differences based on gender, age, socio-economic status, religious or political affiliations, as well as individual and collective interests. Securing buy-in from a wide range of stakeholders is the key not only to a successful assessment process, but an effective action plan to build climate resilience.

Other stakeholders in the local area are likely to include: international NGOs; United Nations bodies and the International Red Cross; local NGOs or community-based organisations; religious groups or institutions; government institutions; and the private sector. The presence of certain representatives or external interests might affect the community's willingness to share information - something that is critical for the success of the assessment. Be aware of these dynamics and check with leaders or other community members before you decide who to involve.

The best way to identify stakeholders is to visit the community, meet with its leaders, identify the other actors involved, and begin a working relationship with them. This will also help you to familiarise yourself with the community, in terms of what happens on a day-to-day basis, so that you can take people's work and family commitments into account when planning activities and logistical arrangements.

TRAINING OF THE ASSESSMENT TEAM

The assessment team should preferably be multi-disciplinary - ideally combining environment and climate; livelihoods and food security; WaSH; health and nutrition expertise. It should also have a good understanding of the visited communities. Furthermore, the team should have experience in conducting interviews and focus group discussions, as well as with different participatory rural appraisal tools, and should, whenever possible, be gender balanced and speak the local language.

GOOD SKILLS REQUIRED!

A qualitative approach is highly dependent on the skill of the field workers. With qualitative interviewing, there is lots of probing and follow-up to trace a theme or story line, and this can't be built into a pre-designed interview guide.

The team should receive an intensive training (at least 4-5 days long - including field testing) on the assessment approach, methods and tools. Particular attention should be given to the fact that the persons conducting the assessment must be cautious of being 'extractive'; rather they should act as 'facilitators' - of dialogue, perspectives, opinions, and thus, learning. The participatory assessment is an opportunity to gather valuable information, but it is also an opportunity to enable multi-stakeholder learning - around new, or unsurfaced, issues.



TIMING

The amount of time it takes to do the assessment really depends on the scope of analysis, the number of stakeholders involved (community groups, households, government institutions, etc.) and the amount of additional/secondary information available in the assessed areas. It will also depend on whether the analysis builds on an existing presence in the community. If not, more time will be needed to identify appropriate entry points and establish trust.

BE AWARE!

Remember that community members participating in the assessment are giving up time which they might otherwise have spent working or looking after children and other dependents. You can minimise the opportunity cost for participants by conducting the sessions at times of the day, week or month that are least disruptive to people’s work and family life. Consider providing additional support (e.g. through social networks) for participants who would otherwise be unable to afford to give time to the process.

E.2. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

OVERVIEW OF TOOLS

The suggested set of qualitative tools to collect information include a desk review; focus group discussions (FGDs) and participatory rural appraisal (PRA); oral testimonies and semi-structured interviews with community members and external stakeholders. The matrix below highlights how these methods and tools can be used to address the guiding questions in section 2.1.3. A specific tool can be used to respond to a series of guiding questions, and, on the opposite, a specific question can be addressed by different tools: this is particularly useful to triangulate information! This set of tools can be adjusted depending on the local contexts, the specific information needs, the resources and time available for such an assessment.

	FGDs and PRAs									
	Desk review	Rapid nutrition	Resource & hazard mapping	Shocks, trends & changes analysis	Seasonal calendar	Rapid institutional analysis	Rapid vulnerability analysis	Problem & solution ranking	Oral testimonies	Semi-structured interviews
1. What are the main shocks & stresses that prevail in the areas under focus? Among these, which ones are climate-related?	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X

2. What are the likely projected impacts of climate change in the areas under focus, and prevailing uncertainties?	X							X	X	X
3. How do climate-related and others shocks affect food & nutrition security?	X	X	X	X				X	X	X
4. How do seasonality and seasonal fluctuations influence food & nutrition security?	X	X	X		X			X	X	X
5. How do/will gradual climate-related changes influence food & nutrition security?	X	X	X	X				X	X	X
6. What adaptive and coping strategies do people implement in face of climate-related shocks & stresses? What are short- & long-term effects of these strategies?	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
7. What support - in terms of formal and informal institutions - can people draw on in face of shocks and stresses?	X		(x)	(x)	(x)	X	X	X	X	X
8. What are the 'underlying causes of vulnerability' - or in others terms, which others factors limit local coping and adaptation?	X	X	(x)	(x)	(x)	X	X	X	X	X
9. What differences exist between different social groups with regard to their vulnerabilities and needs? Who are most vulnerable groups?	X		(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	X	X	X	X
10. What measures could enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security among the most vulnerable?	X		(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	X	X	X

Legend: X = main focus of the assessment method or tool; (x) = optional

DESK REVIEW

A thorough study of secondary literature should be made before collecting primary data using interviews, FGD and PRA. This desk review should focus on shocks and stresses; institutions and policies; livelihoods and food and nutrition security in the areas under focus. This review should provide the persons in charge of the assessment with solid background information on the general context of the assessment sites, including information related to shocks and stresses; climate extremes, variability and change; the policy and institutional landscape; livelihoods, food and nutrition security. It should reveal what is already known and information gaps about climate-related risks and vulnerabilities. An indicative list of key contextual information, which can generally be obtained through secondary sources, is presented in the box below.



KEY CONTEXTUAL INFORMATION

In the visited sites:

- What is the climatic context - including climate extremes, variability and change?
- How have hazards changed - or how might they change - as a result of climate change?
- What are the likely projected impacts of climate change and prevailing uncertainties?
- What is the environmental context and what agro-ecological zones prevail?
- What is the demographic composition?
- Is there any population movements?
- What are the main factors of social differentiation (e.g. gender, wealth, ethnic group, cast, age, etc.)?
- What are the main livelihood strategies and groups?
- What are key livelihood assets and how are they managed?
- Which markets, infrastructures and services are important?
- Which formal and informal institutions do prevail?
- What is the general food and nutrition security situation?

Sources of information include census data; climate change data; assessments reports of NGO or governmental agencies; project baseline studies; evaluation reports; policies; maps; scientific articles, grey literature and others. Sources written in the local language should also be considered. Furthermore, it is important to consider not only information about the selected study sites, but also pertinent studies and literature from places outside the study area with similar features that can provide valuable information.

Desk review is particularly essential for all information related to climate change - in terms of past and current scientific observations, expected trends and changes and uncertainties. For now, local level information on climate change remains relatively rare in most poor communities and countries. It is useful to precise that when available, local climate and environmental predictions generally present high levels of uncertainty. The assistance of a climate change expert is recommended here, as the significance or the interpretation of climate change data is generally a complex exercise!

KEY CLIMATE CHANGE TRENDS

Trends that deserve particular attention include changes in extreme weather events and climate-related shocks; changes in temperature, precipitation patterns, seasonality and inter-annual fluctuations; sea level rise; change in melting of glaciers; changes in agro-ecological systems and ecosystems, natural resources and biodiversity; change in annual or seasonal water availability; changes in the distribution of the vectors of diseases and pests; etc. In poor countries, alterations in climates and environments tend to be negative, but there might be some positive trends and changes, which should be captured too.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS AND PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISALS

FGDs and PRAs are an interactive way of collecting in-depth information on experiences, perceptions and ideas from a group of approximately 6 to 12 persons guided by a facilitator. A set of important supporting FGDs tools incorporating PRA approaches are suggested to analyse the interplay between climate-related shocks and stresses with food and nutrition security. They are introduced in the box below, and presented in more detail in the guide toolbox. FGDs participants include community members (men and women) and representatives of local organisations. Women and men should be interviewed separately during focus group discussions - but this can depend on the topic or the socio-cultural context!

SUPPORTING FGDs TOOLS INCORPORATING PRAS

The above tools, which consider food & nutrition security as a central issue, are developed in the toolbox:

- **TOOL 5** - Rapid nutrition causal analysis
- **TOOL 6** - Resource and hazard mapping
- **TOOL 7** - Shocks, trends and change analysis
- **TOOL 8** - Seasonal calendar
- **TOOL 9** - Rapid institution analysis
- **TOOL 10** - Rapid vulnerability analysis
- **TOOL 11** - Problem and solution ranking

In the context of climate resilience, FGDs and PRAs are a way for communities to reflect on, and to sensitise themselves to, any changes that are taking place, while at the same time gaining knowledge on potential risks that are impacting on their livelihoods and food & nutrition security. Knowledge and awareness of risks and trends are thought to be key determinants of resilience: only informed individuals or groups are able to implement planned resilience, risk management or adaptation strategies. Furthermore, these processes require vulnerable communities to learn from previous experiences to cope with current shocks and stresses and to apply these lessons to cope with future climate-related risks, including surprises. The set of methods and tools described in the following could support them to do this²⁹.

ORAL TESTIMONIES

Oral testimonies - the result of free ranging open ended interviews around a series of subjects - can also be used to illustrate local realities and experiences through the eyes of various narrators - women, children and men from visited areas. They are described in more detail in Tool 12.



SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS WITH COMMUNITY MEMBERS AND EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS, INCLUDING IN LOCAL MARKETS

Semi-structured interviews can be used to obtain greater depth of information on a topic of interest. Because this type of interview is openly structured, it permits the interviewer to encourage a respondent to talk at length about the topic of interest. Respondents are generally chosen based on their ability to provide specialised knowledge or insight into the issue under study. They include community members, but as well external stakeholders, such as respondents working in local markets, staff from government agencies or NGOs involved in the area.

E.3. KEY QUESTIONS

When conducting the assessment, the key questions presented in the following checklist should be covered. However, these are not the actual questions that should be asked to the community members or the representatives of different institutions - rather they outline the main topics to guide FGDs and semi-structured interviews. This checklist details the overall guiding questions presented above and integrates key food and nutrition security thematic areas defined in the section 2.1.3. In others words, it was obtained by ‘crossing’ or ‘waiving’ the overall guiding questions with key food and nutrition security thematic areas: a similar approach can be used to tailor the checklist to specific contexts!

CONTEXTS

People and movements

- What is the demographic composition in the community?
- What are daily, seasonal, or yearly migration patterns people follow?
- What are the main factors of social differentiation (e.g. gender, wealth, ethnic group, cast, age, etc.)?
- What is the status of women? Do girls have access to education and women access to information?
- What is the division of work between women and men - considering domestic tasks, child care-taking, livelihood- or market-related activities, and community-based work?
- Who is making decisions regarding household activities, budget and expenses?

Livelihoods and resources

- What is the environmental context and what agro-ecological zones prevail in the community?
- What are the livelihood groups within and surrounding the community? What is their relative importance?
- How do people from distinct livelihood groups interact? Do they exchange goods and services?
- What are the main livelihood strategies and resources, during various seasons? For men? For women?
- Which strategies and resources are the most important in the community? For men? For women? Why?
- Who makes decisions about who can use land? Water? Pasture? Other important resources?

- How are key livelihood resources managed - in terms of ownership, access and control of resources?
- Which formal and informal institutions exist within and outside the community?
- Which markets, infrastructures and services are important for people in the community? Why?
- How did livelihoods resources and strategies evolve in the past 1-2 decades? Why?
- What is expected in the future regarding community's livelihoods? Why?

Hunger and undernutrition

- What is the food and nutrition security situation at present in the community?
- When is there hunger and undernutrition in the community?
- What are the main key causes of hunger & undernutrition, based on local and external perceptions?
- What are the coping strategies in face of hunger and undernutrition, and their effects?
- Who are the most vulnerable people or households to hunger undernutrition, and why?
- Which criteria can be used to distinguish food and nutrition (in)security groups in the community?
- What is the proportion of households from the community in the different categories defined?
- How did food and nutrition security evolve in the past 1-2 decades, and why?
- What is expected in the future regarding hunger and undernutrition, and why?
- Shocks, seasonality & trends and their interlinks with food and nutrition security

Overview

- What are the main hazards (shocks, seasonal hardships or negative trends) that prevail in the community? Among these hazards, which ones are climate-related?
- How have hazards changed - or how might they change - as a result of climate change?
- What are the likely projected impacts of climate change and prevailing uncertainties?
- Which are the top 3-5 most damaging hazards in the community? Why?
- What livelihoods strategies and assets are at greatest risk from these hazards? Why?
- What are the top 5 impacts of each specific hazard on food & nutrition security?

Shocks

- What are the main shocks experienced in the community? Among these, which ones are climate-related?
- What are the seasonality, frequency and duration of shocks? Is there any forewarning?
- What are the underlying factors that trigger specific shocks in the community?
- Are shocks different now than they were 10/20/30 years ago? Why?
- What are the effects of a specific shock on livelihoods and markets? On food & nutrition security?
- What changes in shocks are expected in the future? What could be the likely effects of such changes?

Seasonality

- What are the periods of hardships throughout the year? Do shocks occur at specific times of the year?

- What are normal seasonal patterns in the community - considering livelihoods, food and nutrition security?
- What are the key factors that determine if a year will be 'good', 'normal' or 'bad'?
- What are the differences between a normal year and a good year? A normal year and a bad year?
- Are seasonal patterns different now than they were 10/20/30 years ago? Why?
- What are the effects of seasonal hardships on livelihoods and markets? On food & nutrition security?
- What changes in seasonality are expected in the future? What could be the likely effects of such changes?

Changes and trends

- What changes and trends are observed in the community? Among these, which ones are climate-related?
- Since when are they observed, and what are the underlying factors that trigger them?
- Which trends or changes are very positive for the community? Very negative? Why?
- What are the underlying factors that trigger specific changes or trends in the community?
- What are the effects of a specific change or trend on livelihoods and markets? On food & nutrition security?
- What additional changes are expected in the future? What could be the likely effects of such changes?

IMPORTANT PRECISIONS ABOUT THE CHECKLIST

Recall and prospective periods: The suggested recall period is the past 10/20 years, and the 'prospective period' could be the next 10/20 years. The recall period can be adjusted depending on the age of the respondents, as well as how far back respondents can remember. From a practical food and nutrition security angle, predictions in the long-run (e.g. likely climate-induced changes in 2080 or 2100) are generally less useful than short- to medium-range predictions (e.g. likely changes in 2020 or 2030).

Risks of bias: As for any assessment, the risk of bias is important if questions are poorly formulated to community leaders and respondents. In particular, the notion of 'climate change' should not be mentioned during the interviews or FGDs as this might clearly bias the answers!

ADAPTIVE & COPING CAPACITY

Adaptive & coping strategies mobilised in anticipation of or in response to shocks and stresses

- Do people anticipate shocks and stresses? Does their perception of future events affect their plans?
- How do people in the community prevent the effects of a specific shock, seasonal hardship, change or trend on their livelihoods and food & nutrition security?
- What do people do in the community to respond to a specific shock, seasonal hardship,

change or trend and its effect on their livelihoods and food & nutrition security?

- What livelihood resources are particularly important for adaptation and coping in the community?
- Are these adaptive and coping strategies different now than they were 10/20/30 years ago? Why?

Effects of adaptive and coping strategies

- Are adaptive and coping strategies effective in face of shocks and stresses?
- What are the immediate and long-term effects on livelihoods and on food & nutrition security?

Adaptive & coping capacity

- Do people in the community have appropriate adaptive and coping strategies to deal with the identified shocks and stresses? Are they able to face key hazards by themselves, without external support? Why?
- Which community groups experiences difficulties in adapting to or coping with shocks and stresses?
- What are the ‘underlying causes of vulnerability’ or the factors that limit local coping and adaptation?
- Are there any barriers to resort to specific effective and sustainable adaptive and coping strategies?

INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT AND CAPACITY

Institutional support

- Which informal and formal institutions do interact with people in the community?
- What services do they generally offer? When?
- Are there any formal or informal safety nets or solidarity mechanisms in the community?
- What institutional support can people draw on to face a specific shock or stress and its effects?
- Have services and assistance offered by specific institutions changed recently? How?
- Does any institution hinder adaptation or coping among specific groups? How?


Institutional capacity

- What are the current capacities of formal and informal institutions to address hunger and undernutrition? To prepare for specific shocks and stresses? To support people’ adaptive and coping strategies?
- What are the most favoured institutions by people and groups in community? Why?
- What are the main gaps considering existing institutional capacities?

VULNERABILITIES AND PRIORITY MEASURES

Vulnerabilities

- What are the most severe problems experienced at present by people and groups in the community?
- Which groups in the community are the most food and nutrition insecure groups in the community? Why?

- 
- Which groups are the most vulnerable to specific climate-related and other shocks & stresses? Why?
 - What are the underlying factors that hinder adaptation and coping among the most vulnerable?

Review of options

- What successful adaptive and coping strategies are already implemented within or outside the community? Could they be further strengthened to enhance their effectiveness and sustainability?
- What immediate and long-term measures could enhance food & nutrition security and resilience - and more specifically, climate resilience - according to community' people and groups? Representatives of informal and formal institutions? The assessment team? Etc.
- What conditions are essential for the success of these measures?
- What are the barriers to implement them?

Priority measures

- What are the needs of people and groups in the community that should be addressed in priority?
- What climate-related risks should be addressed in priority?
- What are the priority immediate and long-term measures?
- How could informal and formal institutions further improve their support among the most vulnerable?

E.4. DATA ANALYSIS AND REPORT WRITING

DATA COMPILATION

The information gathered through the different tools should be documented, e.g. by copying or taking pictures of the outcomes of the different FGDs (e.g. seasonal calendar, hazard ranking, etc.). When compiling the data, answers to the guiding questions defined above should be, as much as possible, disaggregated by gender, different social groups and visited communities. The data gathered through interviews need to be copied, summarised or coded, and then analysed using qualitative data analysis. Oral testimonies need to be recorded and transcript.

DATA ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENT TEAM BRAINSTORMING

The assessment team should sit together to triangulate the information and analyse the information gathered in each visited community. First, it should review the collected information to identify any gaps or missing data; follow-up interviews or further research may be required to fill these gaps. Second, it should compare the results for different groups within the community - a process that could expose inequalities within the community which may not have been previously recognized; follow-up discussions or interviews with particularly vulnerable groups may be needed to fully understand these differential vulnerabilities. Third, the assessment team should brainstorm on how gathered information addresses the set of guiding questions. It could also identify trends, common issues and differences among visited

communities. Community-level information can be combined with the information gained using other tools in order to answer guiding questions! Last but not least, it is useful, at the end of each community visit, to evaluate the assessment process and come up with recommendations to improve it³⁰.

AVOIDING PITFALLS WHEN ANALYSING INFORMATION

Food and nutrition insecurity results from multiple causes.

Keep in mind that climate-related hazards exacerbate hunger and undernutrition in conjunction with others non-climatic shocks and stresses - such as high food prices, economic crisis, natural resource degradation or conflict. Care should be taken not to attribute every food and nutrition insecurity 'outcomes' to a specific climate-related shock or to climate change. It is crucial to get a broad understanding of food and nutrition security situations during data collection and analysis, and to consider also non-climatic drivers of hunger and undernutrition. It is generally not feasible to attribute food and nutrition insecurity to a single driver!

A specific strategy can result from one or several drivers.

Adaptive and coping strategies adopted by people and households are generally a response to a variety of triggers, or the conjunction of various factors. These triggers, strategies and outcomes shouldn't be considered in isolation!

Addressing uncertainties.

There are generally important uncertainties associated with climate change predictions, and this, particularly at local levels. To address this uncertainty, 'no-regret' strategies - or actions that work for a large range of future changes - should be promoted. It is also reasonable to assume that future climate-related vulnerability can be addressed by tackling today's vulnerabilities; in others words, addressing today's coping and adaptation deficits of vulnerable people and communities can contribute - to a certain extent - preparing them to future climate changes.

Tackling the 'tunnel' vision.

Many institutions have a localized view of food and nutrition security issues and solutions - isolated from the national development context and general regional trends. They may also have a narrow focus on their own area of expertise rather than on broader needs. It is important to enhance connections among issues and stakeholders when conducting such assessments, to get an analysis that is as close to people' realities and overall needs as possible.

VALIDATION OF THE ANALYSIS³¹

After preliminary analysis of the data has been completed, a presentation of the findings should be made to community representatives to confirm the validity of the conclusions. A three-step approach is suggested for the validation process. The first step would be to present the analysis to the community focus groups themselves to ensure that the conclusions drawn are correct. Second, it is recommended that the results are presented to a wider community group and local



organizations to facilitate dialogue on issues that have been raised by particular groups which may have implications for other groups. Third, findings are presented and discussed during a workshop involving external stakeholders. Feedbacks from local and external stakeholders should be incorporated into the final analysis.

OPPORTUNITY AND SENSITIVITY OF THE VALIDATION PROCESS

The validation with a wider community group and local organizations provides an opportunity to make other groups in the community aware of the views of particularly vulnerable groups. Note that there may be sensitivities around some of the issues raised by different groups, and facilitators must be prepared to resolve conflicts that may arise. It must also be ensured that the sharing of views does not yield negative consequences for any members of the community (CARE, 2009). Again, facilitators must be prepared for conflict around sensitive issues, and must work with local actors to facilitate constructive dialogue!

REPORTING, DIFFUSION AND COMMUNICATIONS OF FINDINGS

An indicative outline of an assessment report is suggested in the box below to facilitate the reporting process and to make sure that all important components of the assessment are covered.

INDICATIVE OUTLINE FOR THE REPORT

Executive summary

1. Introduction

- 1.1. *Rationale*
- 1.2. *Objectives of the assessment*
- 1.3. *Guiding questions*
- 1.4. *Limitations of the assessment*

2. Methods

- 2.1. *General approach*
- 2.2. *Data collection, analysis and validation*
- 2.3. *Visited areas*
- 2.4. *Team and organisation of the assessment*

3. Description of the study area

- 3.1. *Contexts, geography and climate context*
- 3.2. *Livelihoods zones and groups*
- 3.3. *Food and nutrition security 'baseline'*

4. Findings

- 4.1. *Shocks, trends and seasonality*
- 4.2. *Effects on livelihoods, food and nutrition security*
- 4.3. *Adaptive and coping strategies and their effects*
- 4.4. *Support from formal and informal institutions*
- 4.5. *Vulnerability analysis*

5. Conclusion and recommendations

- 5.1. *Immediate and long-term actions to enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security*
- 5.2. *Institutional and policy implications*

References

Appendices

- Interview guidelines*
- Lists of visited communities*
- List of institutions interviewed, etc.*

A written report or synthesis should be shared to other stakeholders working in the project area, including local government authorities, other NGOs, and the communities themselves; this could help them integrating climate resilience and food and nutrition security issues into their work. In addition, it can also be helpful to hold a workshop or meeting to present the community-validated results to local and national governmental and non-governmental organizations, particularly those who have not been involved in the analysis. Ideally the information will be presented by community representatives to demonstrate their ownership of the process and to facilitate dialogue between communities and other stakeholders.

E.5. USING THE RESULTS OF THE ASSESSMENT

A CORNERSTONE FOR ACTIONS

The assessment provides useful insights into people's realities, vulnerabilities and needs in visited communities. It can result into a tailored set of actions to address existing vulnerabilities. These actions can be implemented at the local level, with households, communities and local institutions, or at the sectoral and national levels. The Tool 3 proposes an integrated framework that summarises key enabling factors or 'conditions' that must be in place for climate resilience and food and nutrition security, at various levels. The required actions to facilitate the attainment of these conditions generally fall into one of the 5 following categories: adapting ACF and partners' strategic programming and practice; implementing community-based risk management and resilience projects; strengthening institutional capacities and services; conducting advocacy and supporting policy development; or strengthening evidence and conducting further research.

ADAPTING ACF AND PARTNERS' STRATEGIC PROGRAMMING AND PRACTICE

The findings of the assessment can trigger adjustments in ACF and partners' strategic programming, projects or activities. For instance, ACF or a partner may strengthen the monitoring of specific climate-related risks and their interplay with undernutrition (see section 2.3), tackle the seasonal peaks of acute malnutrition (see section 2.5) or 'climate-proof' existing or planned initiatives (see section 2.6).

STRENGTHENING INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITIES AND SERVICES

The analysis provided by the assessment can be used to strengthen some essential services or capacities with regards to climate resilience, such as early warning systems (see sections 2.3) or institutional preparedness (see section 2.4).

IMPLEMENTING SPECIFIC COMMUNITY-BASED RISK MANAGEMENT AND RESILIENCE PROJECTS

The assessment can also represent a cornerstone for a community-based risk management and resilience building processes. The section 2.7 is dedicated to these specific actions!



CONDUCTING ADVOCACY AND SUPPORTING POLICY DEVELOPMENT

The right policies and the right institutional environment should be in place at local, national and international levels to enable climate resilience and food & nutrition security among the most vulnerable households and communities. Through smart advocacy and policy development support, ACF and partners can play a substantial role in shaping this enabling environment for the most vulnerable. Community level assessments - in conjunction with more in-depth policy and institutional analyses - can help shaping advocacy strategies and plans; refer to the sections 2.8.

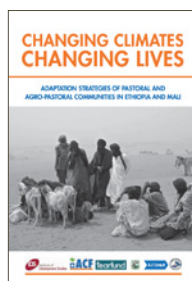
STRENGTHENING EVIDENCE AND CONDUCTING FURTHER RESEARCH

In order to broaden our understanding of different situations, and to strengthen our ability to influence policies and programs more widely, participatory assessments at community level can form the basis for design of large-scale, survey-based studies. Information gathered through the use of guiding questions and tools outlined above can help identifying more specific questions for quantitative surveys³². Applied research projects can also be carried out to address specific overlooked issues, which are essential for field operations or policy-making; refer to the section 2.9.

F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

The ‘Changing climates, Changing lives’ applied research project of ACF, Institute of Development Studies, Tearfund & partners (2009-10)

This applied research project named ‘Changing climates, changing lives’ revealed that pastoral households in Ethiopia and Mali are finding it increasingly difficult to tackle current climate risks and meet their food and nutrition needs. The report made a number of recommendations for NGOs, governments, donors and academia, such as to ensure policy coherence and balancing development goals that can help increase pastoralists and agro-pastoralists’ resilience. It is available at: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=14381



A study on climate resilience & food security by IISD, ACF and partners (2012-14)

The International Institute for Sustainable Development, ACF and partners, with support from the Climate & Development Knowledge Network (CDKN) conduct a regional study on ‘Climate Resilience and Food Security’ in Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua. This study aims at developing tailored frameworks and practical indicators for a better understanding of food system climate resilience among vulnerable communities. Forthcoming at: <http://cdkn.org/project/climate-resilience-and-food-security-in-central-america>

An exploratory study conducted in Bangladesh by ACF, BCAS and Eminence (2011)

ACF, the Bangladesh Centre for Advanced Studies (BCAS) and Eminence conducted an exploratory study in Bangladesh to develop and test new assessment methods and tools, analyse the consequences of climate-related hazards on food and nutrition security and to identify potential responses to support vulnerable populations in coping with and adapting to climate variability and change (internal report).

The Africa Climate Change Resilience Alliance (ACCRA) (2009 onwards)

ACCRA is a consortium supported by DFID, made of Oxfam, the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), Save the Children, CARE and World Vision. It aims to increase governments' and development actors' use of evidence in designing and implementing both humanitarian and development interventions that increase poor and vulnerable communities' adaptive capacity. See: <http://community.eldis.org/.59d66929>



A climate-related vulnerability and capacity analysis in Ethiopia by CARE, Save The Children, IISD and IUCN (2010)

CARE and Save The Children, with technical support from IISD and the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), conducted an interesting climate-related vulnerability and adaptive capacity analysis in Ethiopia's Borana and Somali communities'; see: www.careclimatechange.org/files/reports/Ethiopia_Pastoralists_Report2009.pdf



G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

- ACF (2011) Food security and livelihoods assessments: A practical guide for field workers. Available at: www.actionagainsthunger.org/publication/2010/09/food-security-and-livelihoods-assessments-practical-guide-field-workers
- ACF (2013) Participatory risk, capacity and vulnerability analysis: a practitioner manual for field workers. Available at: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=34092
- CARE (2009) Climate Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis. Available at: www.careclimatechange.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=25&Itemid=30
- ICIMOD (2011) Framework for community-based climate vulnerability and capacity assessment in mountain areas. Available at: www.icimod.org/publications/index.php/search/publication/741
- Oxfam (2012) Participatory Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis: A practitioner's guide. Available at: <http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/participatory-capacity-and-vulnerability-analysis-a-practitioners-guide-232411>



3.2. STRENGTHENING EARLY WARNING SYSTEMS AND LINKING ALERTS TO EARLY FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY RESPONSE MECHANISMS

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

Emergencies triggered by climatic events in conjunction with others stresses are becoming more frequent, as presented in the section 1.2. They inevitably place children and vulnerable communities at even greater risk of hunger and undernutrition, particularly acute malnutrition. Surveillance and early warning systems are essential tools to anticipate threats, prevent losses of lives and livelihoods and mitigate food and nutrition crises. Lack of early warning among communities prior to the landfall of Cyclone Nargis in May 2008 exacerbated the devastation and loss of life in the Delta of Myanmar and continues to have economic consequences³³.

An early warning has no effect without early action. In other terms, early warning information is wasted if it doesn't trigger appropriate responses. By responding early, the less the lives, the livelihoods and the food and nutrition security of exposed children and populations will be affected or deteriorated; the more families are in a stronger position to cope and recover; and the less vulnerability to future crises increases. An early response, particularly to slow-onset disasters such as droughts, is not only cheaper but more effective, as presented in the box on the left.

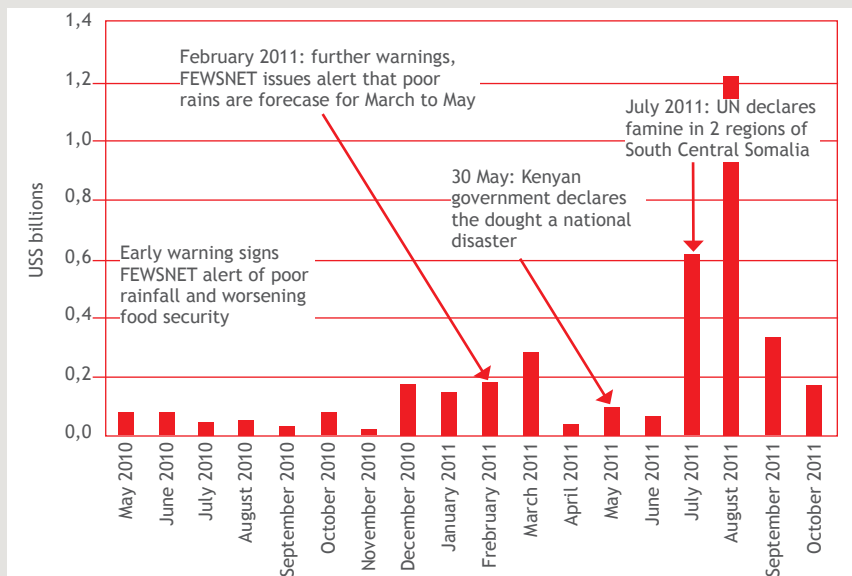
INVESTING IN EARLY RESPONSES FOR NUTRITION

In Niger in 2005, it would have cost \$1 a day per child to prevent acute malnutrition among children if early warning information had been followed up. By July 2006, the cost of saving a malnourished child's life in an emergency response operation was \$80. Vulnerability analysis systems exist in some form in many countries but often they are not as effective as they should be at communicating the right types of information, at the right time, and in the right way to achieve action (source: Save The Children, 2009. Hungry for Change).

Failures to respond early have been observed again and again, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa and during slow-onset crises. Take the Horn of Africa, where droughts are no surprise at all - there were droughts and crises in 1999-2000, 2002-3, 2005-6, 2008-9 and 2011-12: each time the response has been the same - late and inadequate³⁴.

The latest crisis has captured attention only in July 2011 - more than 9 months after the first warnings, and when over than 10 million people where in alarming situations. Common challenges to respond early include situations in which: decision-makers may be provided with conflicting analysis of situations and recommendations for response by different agencies; decision-makers may lack resources and motivation to respond despite the evidence; and the type of resources available restricts the range of responses that can be implemented³⁵.

A TIMELINE FOR THE 2011 HORN OF AFRICA CRISIS



Source: OCHA Financial Tracking Service

B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

The objectives of this action are **to monitor climate-related risks and food and nutrition security; to strengthen early warning systems; and to link early warning to early food and nutrition security response mechanisms**, with the overall aim to prevent or mitigate food and nutrition crises. This action is particularly important in communities and countries vulnerable to recurrent climate-related shocks or seasonal stresses.

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

The action presented here applies at a range of levels, from the community up to the country or even region. The approach, steps and building blocks presented in this section can inspire initiatives at community, livelihood zone, sub-national or national levels.



D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

WHAT ARE THE FOUR KEY ELEMENTS OF AN EFFECTIVE EARLY WARNING SYSTEM?

A food and nutrition security monitoring and early warning system refer to the set of capacities needed to generate and disseminate timely and meaningful warning information to enable individuals, communities and institutions threatened by shocks and stresses to prepare and to act in sufficient time and in an appropriate manner to prevent or mitigate livelihoods, food and nutrition crises. A complete and effective early warning system comprises four inter-related elements, spanning knowledge of risks and vulnerabilities through to preparedness and capacity to respond early. Best practice early warning systems also have strong inter-linkages and effective communication channels between all of the following elements³⁶:

1. RISK KNOWLEDGE

Systematically collect data and undertake risk assessment

- Are the risks & vulnerabilities well known?
- On top of shocks, are seasonal stresses and trends well-understood?
- Are food and nutrition security-related risks analysed in a comprehensive manner?

2. MONITORING SERVICES

Develop or strengthen food & nutrition security monitoring services

- Are the right indicators being monitored?
- Is there a sound scientific basis for making forecasts?
- Can timely, reliable and widely-accepted warnings be generated?

3. DISSEMINATION & COMMUNICATION

Disseminate and communicate risk information and early warnings

- Do warnings reach all actors - including people at risk?
- Are the risks and warning understood and widely-accepted?
- Is the warning information clear and useable?

4. EARLY RESPONSE CAPACITY

Build community, institutional and national early response capacities

- Are existing systems effective in alerting and triggering early responses?
- Are people at-risk prepared & ready to react early to warnings?
- Are institutions prepared and ready to carry out early response mechanisms for people at-risk?

CONTEXTUAL BASELINE

The section 2.1 entitled “Analysing the interplay of climate-related shocks & stresses with food & nutrition security” can be used to enhance risk knowledge and form a contextual baseline. Since such knowledge should be as comprehensive as feasible, it is recommended to complement this climate-focused analysis with other risks and vulnerabilities - such as high food prices or conflict.

RISK ASSESSMENTS SHOULD GENERATE KNOWLEDGE ON THE ... IN THE TARGET AREA

- Prevailing shocks, seasonal stresses and other triggers of hardships.
- Observed and projected impacts of climate change and prevailing uncertainties.
- Effects of shocks, seasonality and trends on livelihoods, food & nutrition security.
- Adaptive and coping strategies mobilised in face of shocks and stresses, and their effects.
- Existing formal and informal institutions, along with their policies, projects and capacities.
- Social differentiations vis-à-vis vulnerabilities, priority issues and needs.
- Policy and programming options to enhance resilience and food & nutrition security.

DYNAMIC INDICATORS

The following set of dynamic indicators is particularly useful for any food and nutrition security monitoring and early warning system:

Generic food & nutrition security monitoring indicators

- Under 5 Mortality Rate and prevalence of acute malnutrition among children under 5.
- Nutrition status of pregnant & lactating women.
- Incidence & retrospective mortality pertaining to key water- & vector-borne disease/parasites.
- Infant and young child care practices.
- Intra-household food access and dietary diversity.
- Levels of household income, food prices and terms of trade.

Shock or stress-related monitoring indicators

- Occurrence and severity of climate extremes, seasonal hardships or other risks.
- Selected effects of a shock or stress on livelihoods, food & nutrition security.
- Type of adaptive and coping strategies mobilised in face of shocks and stresses.

Important notes: *There must be a sound scientific basis for predicting and forecasting climate-related hazards. Some hazards (e.g. floods or hurricanes during specific seasons) require a continuous monitoring (24 hours a day) to generate accurate warnings in a timely fashion.*



E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND 'BUILDING BLOCKS' OF THIS ACTION

This section introduces how to develop or strengthen food & nutrition security monitoring services; how to disseminate and communicate risk information; and how to enable early action. Enhancing institutional and community preparedness will be the focus of the complementary sections 2.3 and 2.6.


E.1. DESIGNING A NEW FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY MONITORING SYSTEM

This section focuses on 12 essential issues to consider when designing a food and nutrition security monitoring system; for an in-depth guidance, please refer to ACF food security and livelihoods surveillance guidelines (2011) and other publications mentioned in the section 2.2.8:

- (i) **Objective(s), questions and outputs:** What are the objective(s), questions and expected outputs of the planned monitoring system? A food and nutrition security monitoring system generally aims at generating information to anticipate and prevent food and nutrition crises, measure trends and help improving projects and policies.
- (ii) **Social and spatial levels:** At which level should the system operate (e.g. individual/household, community/livelihood zones, national or regional)? Most monitoring systems combine the community level with larger spatial level, such as the livelihood zone.
- (iii) **Existing initiatives and redundancy check:** Is there a clear gap to address the objective above, at the determined levels? Is there any other monitoring system(s) on which to build? In many countries and regions where we work, there are already multiple monitoring systems. These systems tend to focus on specific sectors (e.g. agriculture) at a determined spatial level (e.g. sub-national, national or regional levels). It is essential to identify and learn from pre-existing systems. As a general orientation, it is often more efficient and sustainable to improve, complement or link existing systems rather than to develop a totally new system! Refer to the point E.3.
- (iv) **Human resources and training:** What human resources are needed, and what training is/are required to fully capacitate the team? Note: A monitoring team should preferably be multi-disciplinary and have a good understanding of visited areas; team members should also have experience in conducting interviews and focus group discussions, as well as with different participatory rural appraisal tools; the team should receive an intensive training and be able to follow the systematic, standardized process to collect, store, analyse, report and validate the analysis.
- (v) **Coordination and partnerships:** Which stakeholders should be involved, and what partnerships should be developed? Sensitising and involving communities, decision-makers and key institutions early is likely to increase acceptance of the system and its outputs

and facilitate early action! Never go solo: it is essential to build synergies with key actors to design and implement a food and nutrition security monitoring system. Established institutional arrangements and mechanisms should be formalised into a clear Memorandum of Understanding or any similar document.

- (vi) **Indicators:** What indicators should be monitored, and why? The identification of dynamic indicators is one of the most crucial steps in the development of a monitoring system. It requires an in-depth understanding of existing risk environments, as well as intense consultations with communities, institutions and experts! As a general rule, less is more; in other terms, the less indicators, the better! Refer to the list of indicators presented in the section above.
- (vii) **Monitoring calendar:** When should indicators be monitored and why? The in-depth understanding of contexts and the risk environment, livelihoods and seasonality allow identifying an appropriate monitoring calendar. The monitoring cycle and the indicators should consider seasonality - an essential parameter in most areas where ACF works: refer to the section 2.5.
- (viii) **Thresholds and triggers:** Beyond which thresholds should early action be triggered? The definition of unambiguous triggers is a highly strategic issue, which should involve all relevant stakeholders. Unambiguous triggers agreed between different actors allow preventing, preparing and planning for crises better. While some national or international standards will exist for selected indicators (e.g. the international emergency threshold of GAM, defined as of 15%), thresholds for some other indicator should be context-specific (e.g. for distinct livelihood systems, including pastoralism).
- (ix) **Methods, tools and sources of information:** What are methods, tools and source of information used for the monitoring system? The methods and tools used should allow triangulation and combine quantitative and qualitative approaches; they can include desk review, focus group discussions and participatory rural appraisal at community level, semi-structured interviews with key informants, and survey at household or individual level. Existing monitoring systems represent an unavoidable source of information: this applies with force to climate monitoring services, which requires a sound scientific basis for making forecasts and for which ACF and partners have limited expertise!
- (x) **Timeliness, reliability and acceptance of warning:** How to ensure timeliness, reliability and acceptance of warning? The success of any monitoring systems can ultimately be measured according to whether it can generate timely, reliable and widely-accepted warnings. This last issue of deserve particular attention. Too often, key decision-makers or institutions do not accept nor recognize monitoring or early warnings.
- (xi) **Dissemination & communication system:** What is the target audience, how will it be shared and when? These questions deserve much attention, and should be addressed before



implementing data collection and analysis! A smart communication strategy is a key enabler for early action. In the context of food and nutrition security monitoring services, timely diffusion is a must: a good enough, timely report is always better than a perfect, late monitoring report!

- (xii) **Exit strategy and sustainability:** How to ensure that the monitoring system works as long as it is needed? This question is often overlooked, while it should be central to the design of the system. Involving communities and local & national institutions since the design phase generally represent an essential pathway to sustainability.

E.2. STRENGTHENING AN EXISTING MONITORING AND EARLY WARNING SYSTEMS

In many areas where ACF and partners operate or plan to operate, one or several monitoring and early warning systems already exist. Some of them constitute best practice; see for instance illustrations in the section 2.7. Some other systems are interesting and functional, but they lack a ‘little something’ to be able to monitor, in a comprehensive manner, food & nutrition security and climate-related issues. As a general rule, it is better to try building on these systems by complementing, enriching or linking them in collaboration with lead institutions and partners. Three common cases are described here.

In the first case, all the information required to monitor effectively food & nutrition security and climate-related risks is available in a given area, but in fragmented or patchy monitoring systems; in this case, it is recommended to try linking existing systems to get a comprehensive view of food & nutrition security risks and trends.

In the second case, there is a high-quality food and nutrition monitoring system in place in a given area, but it overlooks key climate-related issues; in this case, it would be essential to integrate relevant climate-related shocks & stresses and their effects into the food and nutrition security system.

In the third case, there is a high-quality climate monitoring system at various time scales (seasonal, inter-annual, longer-term) in a given area, but it overlooks undernutrition; in this case, it is an excellent idea to consider how to ‘nutrition-focus’ this climate monitoring systems, for example by integrating nutrition indicators in it.

E.3. DISSEMINATING AND COMMUNICATING RISK INFORMATION AND EARLY WARNING

An effective early warning system needs an effective communication system. Early warnings are irrelevant if they are not received, understood and trusted by those who need to act. The following 3 essential issues deserve attention when disseminating and communicating risk information and early warning:

- (i) **Do warnings reach all actors, including people at risk?** Too often monitoring and early warning systems fail to alert those who are the most exposed to risks. Warnings must reach those at risk! The use of multiple communication channels is often necessary to ensure as many people as possible are warned, to avoid failure of any one channel and to reinforce the warning message. Quality climate risk and information should be accessible to communities, decision-makers and humanitarian/ development stakeholders at local, national and regional levels.
- (ii) **Are the risks and warning understood and widely-accepted?** A poor understanding of risks experienced by vulnerable people and a lack of acceptance of warnings are common limitations to monitoring and early warning systems. In such cases, it is essential to better understand the level of knowledge and the perceptions among various stakeholders on the warning systems. Whenever required, the system should be adjusted, appropriate authoritative voices should be established and key actors should be sensitised about existing risks and systems used to produce and share warnings.
- (iii) **Is the warning information clear and useable?** Clear messages containing simple, useful information are critical to enable proper responses that will help safeguard lives and livelihoods.

E.4. HOW TO ENHANCE EARLY RESPONSE CAPACITIES?

Early warning should trigger early action. People, communities and institutions should be prepared and ready to react early to warnings. Failures to link early warning information to early response mechanism have been observed again and again. Common challenges to respond early include situations in which: decision-makers may be provided with conflicting analysis of situations and recommendations for response by different agencies; decision-makers may lack resources and motivation to respond despite the evidence; and the type of resources available restricts the range of responses that can be implemented³⁷.

ANALYSING FAILURES IN THE HORN OF AFRICA

Beginning with the failures that allowed the Somalia famine to take place and drawing on the recent history of other early warnings, the Chatham House Report entitled ‘Managing Famine Risk: Linking Early Warning to Early Action’ considers in detail the various political, institutional and organizational barriers to translating early warning of famine into early action to avert it, and makes recommendations for how these can be overcome, including improving official early warning capacity and effectiveness; enabling vulnerable communities to take early action themselves; operational, funding and institutional reforms; and testing new approaches in ‘resilience labs’.

The Humanitarian Practice Network #71 entitled ‘System failure? Revisiting the problems of timely response to crises in the Horn of Africa’ sets out three ideas for moving forward, i.e. a new framework for thinking about (and doing) livelihoods programming and contingency planning; a new way of thinking about (and improving) preparedness; and a new conceptual framework for thinking about the response system as a whole. For more details on these 2 publications, refer to the section G.



Recently there has been promising initiatives to address ‘early action failures’, e.g. the use of triggers - promoted, among others, by USAID. More of such innovative mechanisms should be developed, supported and encouraged!

AGREEING TRIGGERS FOR EARLIER RESPONSE

While many people on the ground, particularly communities themselves, were aware of the impending crisis in January/February 2011, they were not able to get traction further up the chain from the people with the power to make decisions about funding and other resources. What should the process be?

Once the EWS has flagged a potential problem, this should immediately activate a process of further investigation - detailed monitoring which can be used to design interventions - and the operationalization of emergency plans. These plans need to be clear on who should do what, and when, but currently there is no shared understanding of this. USAID promotes the use of triggers, but leaves their development to individual implementing agencies. [...] A common approach to using triggers is needed, so that decision makers know exactly what they ought to be doing as the situation deteriorates, and the consequences if they fail to act on those triggers. All actors need to work together to develop a system of triggers that:

- Recognises the national government (where possible) as primary duty bearer for meeting citizens’ food needs;
- Reflects the high levels of chronic malnutrition in some areas;
- Reflects the exponential rather than linear development of malnutrition;
- Does not lead to interventions that undermine communities’ capacity to cope;
- Is context-specific for different livelihoods zones;
- Is agreed between different actors, just as the Integrated Phase Classification (IPC) has developed a standardized approach (see section 2.2.7).

Agreeing triggers for response is not likely to create an automatic warning-response system - this is not a panacea - but it will be one important tool to press for early response. It is expected that there will be a range of triggers for different sorts of response. So, for example, at an early stage the trigger might be for advocacy, but as the situation deteriorates, it might be for a livelihood response, and subsequently for a food/nutrition response.

In: Save The Children & Oxfam (2012) A Dangerous Delay.

Understanding failures and shortfalls are key pre-requisites to make early warning systems more effective and to institutionalize early warning mechanisms. Enhancing preparedness is also essential for early action. Section 2.3 provides more detailed guidance on how to enhance community and institutional preparedness for early action.

F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

Community-based sentinel sites in Central America by ACF

(2010 onwards)

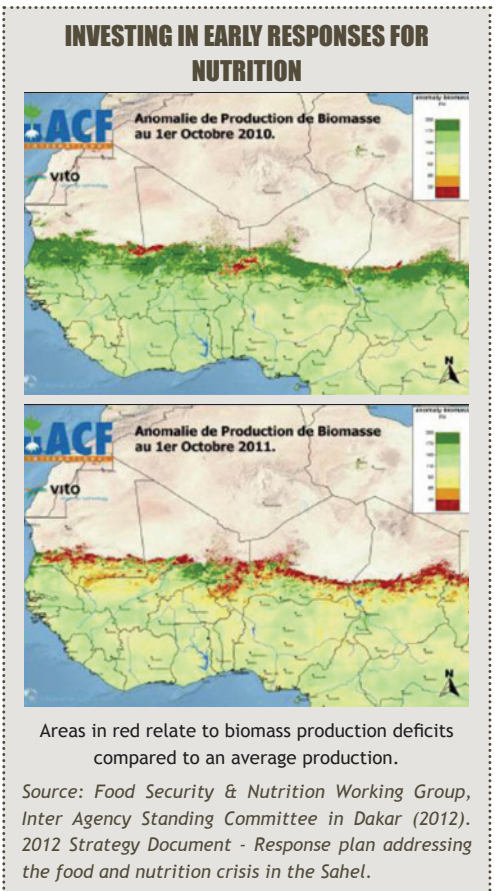
In Guatemala and Nicaragua, ACF and partners developed an innovative network of community-based sentinel sites, in complement to the national surveillance system. These ‘sentinel sites’ - located in high vulnerability areas - act as remote sensors to alert local and national decision makers and to trigger adequate and timely measures to prevent food and nutrition crises. Such community-based monitoring and early warning systems also serve to empower vulnerable population and to strengthen institutions and advocacy groups.

An innovative early warning system in pastoral areas of Sahel by ACF

(2004 onwards)

In West Africa, existing food security surveillance and early warning systems mainly focus on sedentary populations, and Sahelian pastoral areas and remain relatively inadequate. ACF and its partners have progressively developed an innovative pastoral surveillance and early warning system firstly in Mali and Niger and second in Mauritania, Burkina Faso and Chad. This system monitors the relative abundance or scarcity of biomass (a proxy-indicator of pasture availability) and of surface-water bodies at national and regional level, using remote sensing data and geographic information systems technologies. ACF and partners’ surveillance system provides timely and reliable information and early warning, which can be used to prevent or mitigate food and nutrition crises in Sahelian pastoral areas. This system was used to inform local, national and international stakeholders before and during the 2004-2005, 2009-2010 and 2011-12 crises affecting Sahelian pastoral communities and regions³⁸.

In 2012 ACF initiated work with the Famine





Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS-NET) which provides timely information on emerging and evolving food security issues, helping decision makers to act to mitigate food and nutrition crises. ACF provides FEWS NET with key nutritional data in high-risk countries in West and East Africa³⁹.

IPC in the Horn of Africa

The Integrated Phase Classification (IPC) monitoring and early warning system is established in the Horn Africa and others parts of the African continent⁴⁰. It includes many of the key humanitarian actors involved in food security analysis and implementation. IPC is an innovative tool for improving food security analysis and decision-making. It is a standardised scale that integrates food security, nutrition and livelihood information into a clear statement about the nature and severity of a crisis and implications for strategic response. Factors that trigger crises can be related to climatic or other factors.

The strengths of the IPC lie in its standardized, shared analysis and decision-making and its recognition by multiple stakeholders. These strengths are key ingredients of success for any early warning systems.

Save the Children's work with crisis modifiers in Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, Save the Children leads a consortium of agencies implementing USAID's Pastoralist Livelihoods Initiative II programme, which uses a crisis modifier, funded by OFDA. Once triggered, this releases funding for humanitarian work to respond to the crisis, thus making the programmes flexible. This enables the application of approaches such as Drought Cycle Management (DCM), which includes four distinct phases: 'normal development and preparedness', 'alert', 'emergency response' and 'recovery'. Save the Children has found that, rather than having distinct interventions in each phase, it is important to continue with normal development interventions throughout all of the phases, with projects such as health, education and protection providing complementary impacts and improving resilience. Many funding mechanisms only fund a specific phase of this cycle, for example, only response or only rehabilitation. While it is possible for agencies to combine different donor sources to cover all four phases, it is better to receive flexible funding that includes crisis modifiers, making it possible to cover different phases where necessary⁴¹.

Early ACF response to prevent multiple food and nutrition crises Sahel

Throughout the first half of 2012, ACF played key roles in alerting and mobilising stakeholders regarding the risks of severe food and nutrition crisis in Sahel. ACF also contributed to the 2012 Sahel response strategy document, in partnership with FAO, OCHA, WFP and UNICEF; this framework document intends to outline a strategy to address unfolding food and nutrition crises in Sahel. ACF implements a series of early responses throughout Sahel, with the aim to prevent further deterioration of local and regional food and nutrition insecurity. This multi-sectoral programming embraces disaster risk management, livelihoods, and food & nutrition components.

More illustrations

See as well, in the section 2.4 on seasonality:

- A seasonal nutrition surveillance system in Bangladesh by HKI (2011 onwards)
- FEWS NET (2008), WFP's seasonal calendar (2011) and FAO's GIEWS (1975 onwards)
- LEAP project by WFP in partnership with the Government of Ethiopia (2011 onwards)

G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

- ACF (2011) Food security and livelihoods surveillance: A practical guide for field workers. Available at: www.actioncontrelafaim.org/sites/default/files/publications/fichiers/acf_2011_food_security_livelihoods_surveillance_guidelines.pdf
- Chatham House (2013) Managing famine risk - Linking early warning to early action. Available at: www.chathamhouse.org/publications/papers/view/190589
- Humanitarian Practice Network (2011) System failure - Revisiting the problems of timely response to crises in the HoA. Available at: www.odihpn.org/hpn-resources/network-papers/system-failure-revisiting-the-problems-of-timely-response-to-crisis-in-the-horn-of-africa
- IFRC (2013) Community early warning systems - Guiding principles. Available at: www.ifrc.org/PageFiles/103323/1227800-IFRC-CEWS-Guiding-Principles-EN.pdf
- Practical Action (2010) Establishing a community-based early warning system: Practitioner's handbook. Available at: <http://practicalaction.org/early-warning-systems-a-handbook>
- Save The Children & Oxfam (2012) A Dangerous Delay. Available at: www.savethechildren.org.uk/resources/online-library/dangerous-delay
- UNISDR (2006) Developing early warning systems - a checklist. Available at: www.unisdr.org/files/608_10340.pdf

VISIT AS WELL THE FOLLOWING USEFUL WEBSITES:

Visit as well the following useful websites:

- Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS NET): www.fews.net
- Global Information and Early Warning System on Food and Agriculture: www.fao.org/giews/countrybrief
- Hewsweb: www.hewsweb.org
- Household Economy Approach (HEA): www.heawebsite.org
- Integrated Phase Classification: www.ipcinfo.org



3.3. ENHANCING INSTITUTIONAL PREPAREDNESS FOR EARLY ACTION

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

Enhancing institutional preparedness enables fast and effective humanitarian responses, which are critical in saving lives, preventing food and nutrition crises and reducing the impact of shocks and seasonal stresses on vulnerable people. Institutional preparedness also allows coping with increased demand for support - in particular a surge in the number of malnourished children. Preparedness makes perfect sense in most communities and countries where ACF and its partners are involved, because they have been repeatedly affected by disasters and since future hardships are anticipated in many of these areas, as a consequence of localized climate change impact and of other triggers.

B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

This action aims at **enhancing ACF and partners' capacities to prepare for and respond early, effectively and at scale to rapid-onset and slow-onset climate-related crises, but also to other natural and man-made crises.** In view of its mandate and expertise, ACF's preparedness focuses primarily on food, water and nutrition and health response capacities.

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

Enhancing institutional preparedness is relevant at multiple levels - from the local up to the national and global levels. It can be carried out within a specific agency, or among a group of agencies. The approach presented in this guide focus on ACF's preparedness at the country office level. The approach below can be adapted to other geographical levels and/or to a multi-stakeholder platform.

D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

PREPAREDNESS VERSUS CONTINGENCY PLANNING⁴²

There are two main approaches to planning for an emergency: (general) preparedness and contingency planning. (General) *preparedness aims* to establish a standing capacity to respond to a range of *different situations* that may affect a country or region by putting in place a broad set of preparedness measures. General preparedness is a continuing activity which an agency or a group of agencies are expected to undertake and maintain. These plans and systems should be assessed and reviewed regularly.

Contingency planning is undertaken *specifically for an emerging or anticipated crisis*. This may be a new situation or a potential deterioration in an existing situation to which the international humanitarian community must respond. Early warning is an important tool to help determine when to engage in a more detailed contingency planning process. Humanitarian agencies/ organizations are encouraged to establish or create linkages between existing early warning systems and their contingency planning processes.

While these two approaches share many of the same planning elements, the primary difference between them is *in the level of specificity* - with the former outlining preparedness actions to respond to a range of risks and the latter focusing on the preparedness and response capacities required for a specific situation or risk. ACF focuses on preparedness, rather than contingency planning.

THE EMERGENCY PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE PLANNING, AS ACF'S CORE APPROACH

For the past decade ACF has continuously strengthened its country offices, regional and global preparedness. At the core of ACF approach is the “Emergency Preparedness and Response Plan” (EPRP). EPRP is a participatory planning process resulting in a highly operational document. In ACF, EPRP refers to both the process and the outcome document. The process is more important than the plan itself: without a high appropriation by ACF country office, EPRP would remain a dead piece on an isolated shelf!

This section is largely based on the EPRP Framework Note and related tools. We choose to synthesize core elements of the approach, but we encourage the reader to refer to the original toolbox, which is regularly updated: refer to the box in the section E3.

The operational advantages of the EPRP include:

- Potential humanitarian risks are clearly identified for ACF missions;
- ACF staff (national and expat) are trained and ready to respond;
- All tools for assessing and responding to emergencies are available;
- Partnerships with other operational actors are identified and formalized;
- Contacts and pre-positioning with donors are formalized (pre-contracts signed);
- Genuine deployment capacity is in place even with remote management;
- Pre-positioning of emergency stocks (if necessary) or formalised access to emergency stocks belonging to partner agencies (ex. UNICEF, WFP, Red Cross...).



E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND ‘BUILDING BLOCKS’ OF THIS ACTION

E.1. THE EPRP PROCESS

The EPRP is a participatory process driven by an ACF country office, which makes use of consultations, focus group discussions and workshops. It should involve all levels, sectors and partners - particularly those who will be involved in the event an emergency. Designed to remain a simple and adjustable process, it includes five main steps, which are largely reflected in the outcome planning document and related tools:

- Introduction of and sensitization on EPRP in the ACF country office;
- Risk analysis and selection of the 3 top risks to be addressed - taking into account a large diversity of shocks (ex. floods, earthquakes and tsunamis, insect infestations, epidemics, droughts, conflicts, etc.).
- Scenario building and ex-ante need assessment considering the 3 top risks;
- Response design considering scenarios, anticipated needs, measures, resources and triggers;
- Follow-up action points to strengthen preparedness at country office level.

While it is up to ACF country office to develop and implement an EPRP, a short-term external support is strongly advisable to train staff and support the formalisation and kick-start of the EPRP. The designation of an EPRP focal point at ACF country office level - ideally within the coordination team - is also recommended. This focal point would be in charge of facilitating ACF country office’s appropriation and of following up on the EPRP process. Last but not least, ACF headquarters emergency pools are in charge of providing guidance and methodological support and of sharing tools, information and experiences.

E.2. EPRP, A DYNAMIC PLANNING DOCUMENT

The EPRP must be a useful, concise and operational document made of 6 main sections, which are presented in the box below. The EPRP document structure largely reflects the different steps of the EPRP process. It covers all ACF sectors of interventions - i.e. nutrition, mental health and care practices, WaSH and food security and livelihoods. The EPRP document is accompanied by a set of useful annexes and tools, which complement the core planning document. It should regularly be updated - e.g. before the country strategy review or at a higher frequency in rapidly-evolving contexts. Last but not least, it is essential to ensure that all actors are aware of their roles, responsibilities and procedures for emergency response. Organized simulation and informal checks can be particularly useful to test all actors regularly and to develop a culture of preparedness.

EPRP DOCUMENT STRUCTURE

- 1. Introduction - Getting Started:** general and specific objectives of the EPRP, reasons for drawing up the EPRP, process used in the country and contact list;
- 2. Analysing Risks:** analysis of past disasters and their impacts, analysis of current potential threats, likelihood, mapping of prone areas, seasonal timetable for natural disasters, vulnerabilities, general response capacity (population coping mechanisms, local and/or national authorities, other local and/or international NGOs, IGOs), ACF priorities in terms of aid response;
- 3. Assessing Needs:** for the 3 selected disasters, 2 scenarios will be developed according to likelihood, impact, population vulnerability, problem tree;
- 4. Designing Response:** planning of the response (operational decision made by ACF country office director and headquarters) - aims and strategies: criteria of ACF intervention, strategies of intervention (solution tree, LFA), emergency needs assessment, logistics, administration (HR, Budget, Cash), Security, Donors, Reporting monitoring, coordination, external communication, operational partnership;
- 5. Activating Response Plan:** triggers, internal coordination, roles and responsibilities in emergency;
- 6. Conclusion - Activating Preparedness Plan:** identification of gaps (HR, equipment, financing, procedures), capacity building of the partners, preparation of a budget and a preparedness plan, updating and monitoring of the EPRP.

E3. SUPPORTING TOOLS

ACF France Emergency Pool developed an EPRP web-platform, which includes detailed guidance on the EPRP approach, useful tools or formats for ACF country offices and headquarters, and finally some illustrations; refer to the box on the right!

ACF country offices also have the possibility to develop their own toolbox, tailored to the contexts and needs. This tailored toolbox can also be uploaded on ACF EPRP web-platform.

ACF'S EPRP PLATFORM

Page d'accueil
Manuel Utilisateur

Kit de Préparation et de Planification des Réponses aux Urgences

Planification des urgences
Qui? Quoi? Quand? Comment?

Votre Plan de Préparation et de Réponse aux Urgences

Plan de Préparation et de Réponse aux Urgences Indonésie

Bulle à Outils de Votre Mission

Bulle à Outils ACF-Paris

Available at: www.missions-acf.org/kitemergency

E4. OTHER KEY CONSIDERATIONS

SYNERGIES WITH OTHER STAKEHOLDERS AND CAPACITY-BUILDING

Whereas the EPRP is primarily intended to strengthen ACF's preparedness, it should ensure coordination and explore synergies with other humanitarian, food security, WaSH and nutrition stakeholders - such as the clusters, other NGOs, national authorities, other preparedness platforms and coordination fora, etc. The EPRP is an excellent opportunity to strengthen partnerships and contribute to building capacities of other agencies to deal with disasters and food and nutrition crises.

EARLY WARNING AND TRIGGERS

The EPRP should be well-connected to ACF and other early warning systems - the focus of the section 2.2 Triggers included in the EPRP should be clearly defined and ideally, the same triggers should be shared to and agree with a large community of stakeholders. It is useful to invest in sensitizing these stakeholders on such triggers, with the aim to generate consensus about these triggers.

INVESTING IN NUTRITION PREPAREDNESS

The core comparative advantage of ACF in the field of preparedness relates to nutrition, considering its intense experience in nutrition in emergencies but as well its institutional linkages at the national level - e.g. the health ministry. In fact few stakeholders have such a capacity to address shock-induced nutrition emergencies and seasonal peaks in wasting. In the past few years, ACF has further strengthened its capacities to anticipate and be prepared to surges in the number of wasted children. Further details of ACF's approach in the field of nutrition preparedness can be found in the guide highlighted below.

EMERGENCY NUTRITION IN EMERGENCIES: AN ACF HANDBOOK FOR PRACTITIONERS

This handbook guides practitioners to develop emergency nutrition intervention strategies. It is intended to ACF and partners' staff - whatever their degree of experience. The second section of this guide focuses on nutrition crisis management and response, successively on nutrition preparedness, emergency management and recovery. Nutrition preparedness is described in detail, and a tool to analyse health system capacities in addressing a nutrition emergency is provided. It is available at:

<http://blog.actioncontrelafaim.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/ACF-Emergency-Nutrition-Handbook-EN-FV.pdf>



F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

ACF preparedness at global level

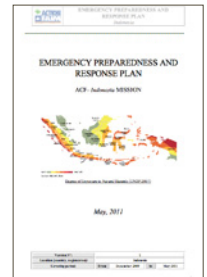
Refer to the following website:

www.missions-acf.org/kitemergency/HTML_STATIC/homepageEN.html

ACF Indonesia (2011) Emergency Preparedness and Response Plan

ACF responded to multiple emergencies in Indonesia, a country particularly prone to natural crises and whose population remain vulnerable to shocks. ACF Indonesia was among the first country offices to develop a comprehensive EPRP. According to this plan, ACF focuses on 3 major risks - i.e. floods, earthquakes and tsunamis - with a geographical priority in the remote areas. ACF Indonesia's EPRP describes a set of measures and processes to be better prepared to a next large-scale emergencies. A range of action points to further enhance preparedness are also highlighted in this EPRP, available at:

www.missions-acf.org/kitemergency



WFP Emergency Preparedness and Response Package

The World Food Programme (WFP) is among the top agencies in the field of preparedness in the fields of food assistance, logistics, and information and communications. WFP has developed a strong culture of preparedness at the national, regional and international levels. It has recently developed a comprehensive package named the "Emergency Preparedness and Response Package". This package builds upon the skills and experience gathered by WFP and partners. It is aimed at providing guidance on preparedness to WFP country offices and regional bureaux. A useful set of methodological checklists, tools and templates to support preparedness is also provided. It is available at:

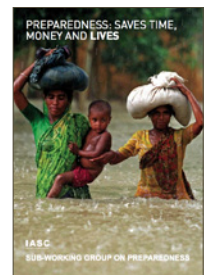
<http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/resources/wfp251892pdf>



IASC sub-working group: preparedness saves time, money and lives

The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) provides an interesting set of illustrations and good practice related to preparedness in its brochure Preparedness saves time, money and lives, including the following case studies: "Listening to the warnings and planning for all eventualities", "Getting agreements in place: stand by partners", "Practice makes perfect: the importance of simulation exercises", "Early warning: use technology to keep on top of the information" and "Putting supplies in place: preparedness for repeated natural disasters". It is available at:

www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=19790





G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

- IASC (2007) Inter-agency contingency planning guidelines for humanitarian assistance. Available at: www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/pageloader.aspx?page=content-products-products&productcatid=13
- IFRC (2008) Disaster response and contingency planning guide. Available at: www.ifrc.org/Global/Publications/disasters/disaster-response-en.pdf
- UN (2008) Disaster Preparedness for Effective Response - Hyogo framework. Available at: www.unisdr.org/we/inform/publications/2909
- WFP (2012) Emergency preparedness and response package. Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/resources/wfp251892>

3.4. TACKLING SEASONAL PEAKS OF UNDERNUTRITION

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

The prevalence of child undernutrition fluctuates throughout the year, and relatively predictable seasonal peaks of wasting can be observed in Africa, Asia and Latin America. They result from the converging seasonal deterioration of one or several undernutrition risk factors, e.g. related to food access, dietary intake, care and feeding practices, diseases, access to health services and/or unhealthy environment. Changes in seasons are also observed in many regions of the world - likely as a consequence of global climate change. For example, rainfall is reported to be more erratic, shorter and more violent⁴³. These climate change-induced perturbations have the potential to exacerbate the seasonal problem of undernutrition: refer to the section 1.3. As of now, these seasonal fluctuations, peaks and changes are poorly understood and addressed, or often, simply ignored.

B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

The objective of this action is threefold:

- To better understand seasonal stresses and changes, and their effects on livelihoods, food & nutrition security and undernutrition, in a multi-sectoral manner;
- To enhance 'seasonal thinking' during food & nutrition security strategic programming and planning;
- To better prevent and address seasonal child undernutrition, considering also seasonality changes that might be taking place.

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

The action presented here applies at a range of levels - from the community, the livelihood zone, the sub-national or the national levels. However it is important to ensure that seasonal patterns are rather homogenous for the area considered - if not it should be further disaggregated.

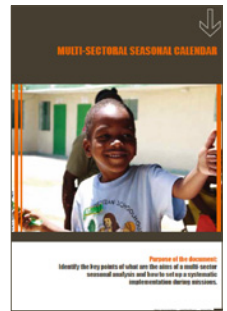
D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

PREPAREDNESS VERSUS CONTINGENCY PLANNING

The suggested approach considers how to better analyse seasonal stresses and changes and their effects, and how to enhance strategic programming and planning. These two processes are expected to enable the identification of effective measures to tackle seasonal undernutrition. The approach is based on ACF's nutrition multi-sectoral seasonal calendar, presented in detail in the two following documents:

ACF (2012) Nutrition multi-sectoral seasonal calendar. Available at: www.actionagainsthunger.org/sites/default/files/publications/ACF_2012_Nutrition_multi-sectoral_seasonal_calendar_Technical_sheet_V_0_2.pdf

ACF (2013) The essential | Nutrition & Health. The key to understand Nutrition & Health and ACF position - page 199. Available at: www.actioncontrelafaim.org/fr/strasbourg/content/l-essentiel-en-nutrition-sante-essentiel-nutrition-and-health



E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND 'BUILDING BLOCKS' OF THIS ACTION

E.1. ENHANCING THE ANALYSIS OF SEASONAL STRESSES AND CHANGES AND THEIR EFFECTS

The Tool 8 can be used to enhance the analysis of seasonal stresses and changes and their effects. This tool, originally developed for focus group discussions taking place in target communities, can also be adapted to facilitate a multi-sectoral expert workshop taking place outside communities. In this case, each specific nutrition-related sector (e.g. nutrition and health, care practices and psycho-social, WaSH, food security and livelihoods staff, etc.) first produce a 'sector-specific' seasonal calendar on the basis of their knowledge and experiences in the communities of interest; in a second stage, all sectoral teams brainstorm on seasonal undernutrition and prepare a joint seasonal calendar⁴⁴.



IMPORTANT PRECISIONS ABOUT THE ANALYSIS OF SEASONAL HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION

- **Triggers of seasonality.** Seasonal fluctuations can be driven by climatic and environmental factors (e.g. seasonal floods) or by human or socio-economic factors (e.g. high food prices in markets).
- **The good, the bad and the normal year.** It is essential to get a good understanding of key factors that determine if a year will be ‘good’, ‘normal’ or ‘bad’, and of the differences between a normal year, a good year and a bad year; refer to the Tool 8.
- **Changing seasons.** Climate change brings changes in seasonality: it is useful to analyse how observed or expected changes relate to the seasonal calendar (e.g. shorter rainy seasons, ‘disappearance’ of a specific season, etc.).
- **Seasonality of climate-related hazards.** Climate-related hazards and disasters tend to occur on a seasonal basis; however, it is important keeping in mind that global climate change is changing seasonal patterns and is bringing surprises.
- **Seasonal surprises.** The occurrence of ‘seasonal surprises’ or unexpected events at a given time of the year, for which there is no historic precedent, should also be recorded here; caution should be taken when interpreting such unusual event: not all surprises are related to global climate change!
- **A comprehensive picture.** All food and nutrition security determinants should be considered to get a comprehensive seasonal analysis of undernutrition.
- **Adaptive and coping strategies.** It is crucial to understand local adaptive and coping strategies carried out to face a bad year, a seasonal hardship or changing seasons; refer to the Tool 8. The strengthening of these strategies is the cornerstone of smart seasonal programming.

E.2. ENHANCING ‘SEASONAL THINKING’ DURING STRATEGIC PROGRAMMING AND PLANNING

There are multiple ways to enhance seasonal thinking during a strategic programming and planning exercise. All these approaches should consider multi-sectoral analyses, existing adaptive and coping strategies, locally-expressed solutions, and lessons learned. An approach tailored to ACF and partners is presented below⁴⁵.

A 7-STEP BRAINSTORMING FOR SMART SEASONAL PROGRAMMING AND PLANNING

1. Gathering a multi-sectoral group of ACF and partners staff (maximum 20 persons).
2. Brief introduction, including a presentation of the maternal and child framework of undernutrition and of workshop objectives and agenda (30 minutes).
3. Development of a multi-sectoral seasonal calendar, as described above (1 hour).
4. Analysis of the linkages between seasonal stresses, fluctuations, food & nutrition security and undernutrition, and identification of seasonal factors explaining peaks of wasting (at least 1.5 hour).
5. Ranking of priority measures to better address seasonal peaks of undernutrition and nutrition insecurity throughout the year; the timing of each priority community-based measures should be carefully defined, in order to avoid competition with periods of intense activity among child caretakers, women and other community groups (at least 1.5 hour).
6. Brainstorming on the operational implications of such a seasonal programming, considering coordination, partnerships, financial, human resources, and supply-related issues (at least 1 hour).
7. Wrap-up; the group agrees on a common objectives, synergies and a joint seasonal programming and planning, for specific areas of operations (at least 30 minutes).

F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

INTRODUCTION

There is a diverse range of measures that can be implemented to better prevent and address child undernutrition throughout the year. Varying from one context to another, these measures can relate to surveillance, early warning and early action (see section 2.2); institutional preparedness (see section 2.3); seasonal safety nets and community-based plans (see section 2.6); institutional capacity development, policy support and advocacy (see section 2.7 and 2.8); and/or further assessment and research (see section 2.9 and 2.10). Five inspiring initiatives that can contribute to tackling child undernutrition are presented below. It is useful to emphasize here that isolated measures are likely to be ineffective in tackling seasonal child undernutrition; a multi-sectoral seasonal approach is required!

FEWS NET (2008), WFP's seasonal calendar (2011) and FAO's GIEWS (1975 onwards)

The Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS-NET) developed a comprehensive seasonal calendar to improve food security and assistance planning. WFP developed a useful seasonal and hazard calendar for over 75 countries to support seasonal programming. FAO Global Information and Early Warning System (GIEWS) provides comprehensive country briefs on food and agriculture.



FAMINE EARLY WARNING SYSTEMS NETWORK (FEWS-NET) AND WFP'S SEASONAL CALENDARS



FEWS NET's seasonal calendar is available at:

www.fews.net/docs/publications/Food%20Sec%20%20Assist%20Calendar%2011-17-08.pdf



WFP's seasonal & hazards calendar is available at:

www.hewsub.org/hazcal



FAO's GIEWS country briefs are available at:

www.fao.org/giews/countrybrief

A seasonal nutrition surveillance system in Bangladesh by HKI

(2011 onwards)

Helen Keller International (HKI) developed a tailored nutrition surveillance system in Bangladesh, which capture seasonal fluctuations of undernutrition throughout the year. This surveillance system can be useful to design food and nutrition security programming in the country.

CHILD WASTING (WHZ) IN BANGLADESH AT DIFFERENT PERIODS OF THE YEAR, FOR VARIOUS REGIONS

Timing

Round 1: January to April 2010

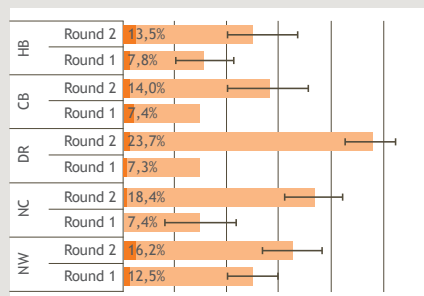
Round 2: June to August 2010

Location

HB = Haor Basin; CB = Coastal Belt; DR = Drought prone; NC = Northern Chars; NW = Northwest

Seasonality of acute malnutrition

Global acute malnutrition was higher during the second round of surveillance than for all zones. In all zones except the Northwest, this difference was statistically significant. The greatest change in wasting prevalence occurred in the Drought Prone zone.



In: HKI, 2010. *The Food Security and Nutrition surveillance project (FSNSP) - Round 2*

A pilot hunger safety net project in Niger by Save The Children in Niger

(2009)

In Niger, Save The Children has implemented a pilot hunger safety net project, with a cash transfer to 1,500 very poor households during the hunger gap, contingent upon recipient's participation in training sessions on nutrition and health⁴⁶. The monitoring and evaluation showed no measurable impact on the malnutrition levels, but a positive impact on the coverage of the basic food needs

of the recipients, as well as on the quality of their diet. In addition, it helped beneficiaries avoid erosive coping mechanisms, and enabled part of the targeted population to resume income-generating activities. Finally, the program had an impact on the local trade (despite a supply problem in local markets), and an unexpected positive impact on the local daily wage which increased: less labour offer from very poor households, and more labourers demand, including from the program beneficiaries.

The PSNP by the Government of Ethiopia

(2005 onwards)

The Productive Safety Nets Program (PSNP) in Ethiopia provides six months of employment during the hunger season for those who can work, as well as direct assistance for those who cannot. PSNP is a good example of a seasonal approach to safety nets; it recognises that even extremely poor households do not necessarily need assistance throughout the year, and even a few months of supplementary income through employment can protect family nutrition, health and assets during the hunger season⁴⁷.

LEAP project by WFP in partnership with the Government of Ethiopia

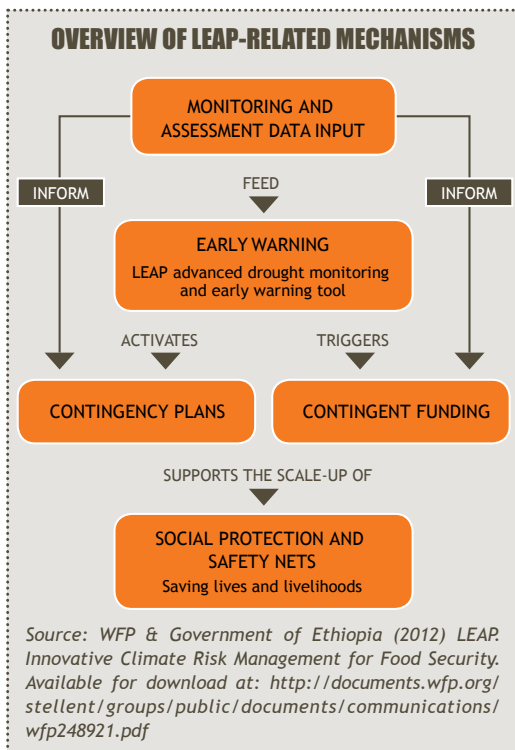
(2011 onwards)

The World Food Programme (WFP) in partnership with the Government of Ethiopia are developing an innovative climate risk management for food security named the ‘Livelihoods, Early Assessment and Protection’ (LEAP) project.

LEAP is an innovative early warning - early action tool that supports the national Productive Safety Nets Program and prompts its timely and effective scale up when a serious drought or flood is detected.

It converts agro-meteorological data into crop or rangeland production estimates and quantifies the financial resources needed to scale up the Productive Safety Net Programme in case of a major drought.

It provides a transparent and verifiable way to trigger contingent funds to enable an early response before the most severe consequences of drought affect people’s lives and livelihoods.





G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

- ACF (2008) *Seasons of Hunger. Fighting Cycles of Quiet Starvation Among the World's Rural Poor*. Available at: www.actionagainsthunger.org/blog/seasons-hunger-new-publication-offers-solutions-cyclical-hunger
- ACF (2009) *Hunger safety nets: Their role in preventing food insecurity and malnutrition*. Available at: <http://workforcehumanity.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/Hunger-Safety-Nets.pdf>
- ACF (2011) *Maximising the Nutritional Impact of Food Security and Livelihoods Interventions*. A manual for field workers. Available at: www.actionagainsthunger.org/sites/default/files/publications/maximising_the_nutritional_impact_of_fsl_interventions_0.pdf
- ACF (2012) *Nutrition multi-sectoral seasonal calendar - Technical sheet*. Available at: www.actionagainsthunger.org/sites/default/files/publications/ACF_2012_Nutrition_multi-sectoral_seasonal_calendar_Technical_sheet_V_0_2.pdf
- Devereux, S., Sabates-Wheeler, R. and Longhurst, R. (editors) (2012) *Seasonality, Rural Livelihoods and Development*. See: www.ids.ac.uk/publication/seasonality-rural-livelihoods-and-development

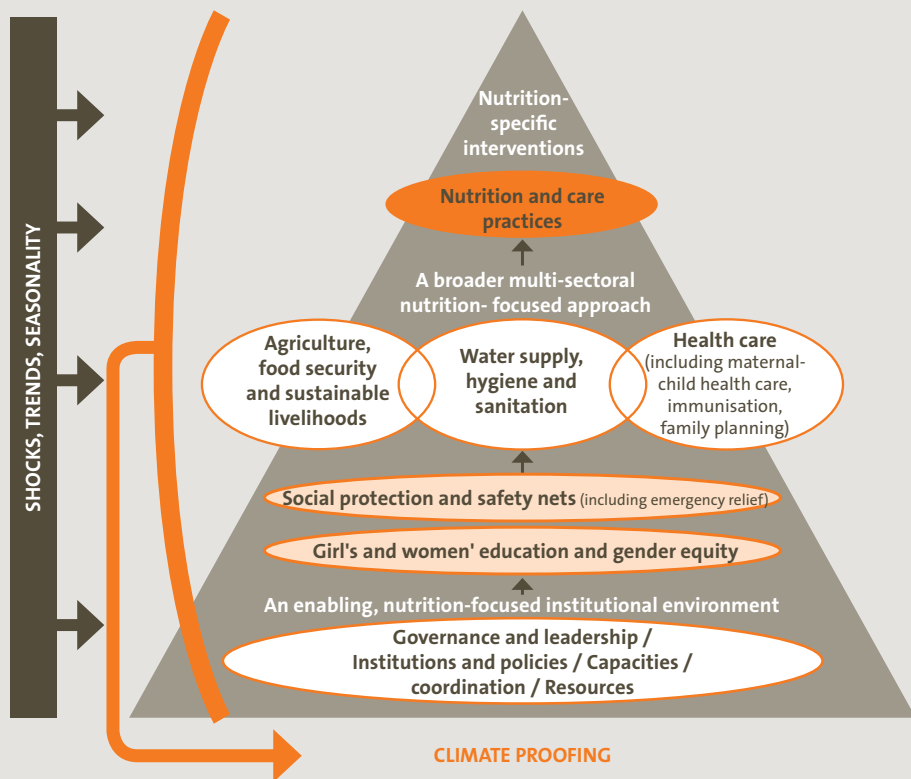
3.5. CLIMATE-PROOFING ALL FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY PROJECTS

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

If a drought, flood or another climate-related event occurs, would it undermine the project planned by my team or country office? If yes, how? For instance, what could be the impact of a drought on a vegetable farming project, or the effect of a flood on newly developed WaSH infrastructures? What measures can be integrated into the project to reduce the impact of the event (e.g. ensuring that water points are protected or pumps are built above predicted flood heights; providing alternative sources of water at times of poor rainfall)? Does my project unintentionally increase the vulnerabilities of beneficiaries to climate-related shocks and stresses, such as re-settling people in risky locations? These questions are too little addressed when designing or reviewing a project. A better consideration of these questions could help reducing failures and enhancing the effectiveness, impact and sustainability of our projects - particularly those implemented in areas exposed to recurrent climate-related crises.

CLIMATE-PROOFING FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY PROGRAMMING: A VISUAL REPRESENTATION

Climate-proofing is particularly important for food and nutrition security initiatives, which include activities related to nutrition and care practices; agriculture, food security and livelihoods; water, sanitation and hygiene; health. In fact all these activities tend to be 'climate-sensitive'. This is particularly true in rural contexts, but it applies too in urban contexts exposed to climate-related shocks (e.g. floods) or to adverse effects of climate change (e.g. sea level rise).



The figure above is based on the ones included respectively in section 3.1 and in Tool 1. It considers the vulnerability context (shocks, trends and seasonality) in which food and nutrition security programming and operations are conducted. Climate-proofing can be represented as a shield between shocks and stresses and a given food and nutrition security programming.



B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

'Climate-proofing' encompasses a large set of objectives and approaches. In the frame of this technical guide, we will focus on a specific climate-proofing perspective carried out during the project design or review phase, whose objective is to **adjust planned projects considering climate-related risks in order to enhance their effectiveness, impact and sustainability.**

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

This action is carried out during the design of a project. This project can take place at various levels - from the community up to sub-national and national levels.

D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

PREPAREDNESS VERSUS CONTINGENCY PLANNING

The suggested approach makes use of scenario building. It is equivalent to a simple crash test or stress test. Before the implementation of a project (or 'ex-ante'), the tool addresses the following issues:

- What are the likely impact of climate-related shocks and stresses on project activities and results?
- What adjustments or measures can help reducing such impact - in others terms, what adjustments can make our project less sensitive/ more 'robust' to these shocks and stresses?

It is important noting that no project will ever be truly 'climate-proof'. The best we can do is to understand the range of risks that people, projects activities and results (in terms of assets or services) may be exposed to and make our best efforts to monitor and reduce those risks. The approach presented below can be adjusted to consider also risks that are not climate-related. A similar approach can also be used to 'climate-proof' food and nutrition security policies, strategies or plans (not only projects).

E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND 'BUILDING BLOCKS' OF THIS ACTION

The suggested *crash test* or stress test includes 5 main steps, which all make intensive use of focus group discussions and consultations with community members, experts, partners and other key stakeholders.

STEP 1: IS CLIMATE-PROOFING NEEDED FOR THE PROJECT THAT MY TEAM IS PLANNING?

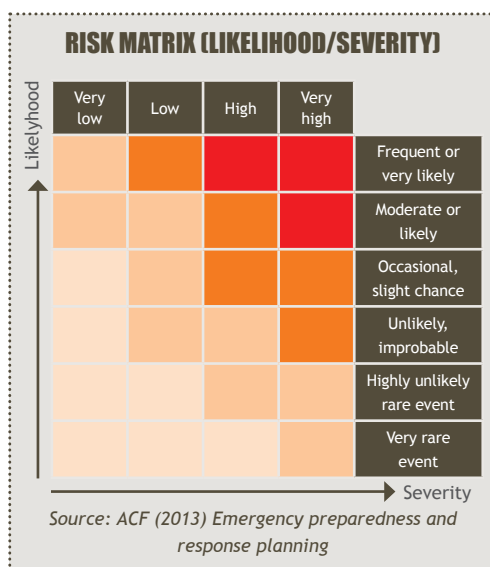
Addressing this question is rather similar to answering the introductory test *Is this technical guide pertinent for you/ your team?* Climate-proofing is required for all projects planned in areas where:

- People or communities experience recurrent droughts, floods or cyclones, seasonal hardships - such as delayed rains, or negative changes in the climate and the environments;
- Livelihood assets or strategies, food production or access, water availability, health or nutrition sensitive to or, in other terms, influenced by climatic events - such as a drought, a flood or a seasonal stress;
- Some people face difficulties in coping with or adapting to climate-related shocks, seasonal hardships or gradual changes when they materialise.

STEP 2: RAPID RISK ANALYSIS: WHAT ARE THE MAIN RISKS IN THE AREAS OF OPERATIONS?

The second step consists in identifying 2 to 4 *main risks* through desk review, consultations with community members, experts and key stakeholders in the areas of operations. By main risk, we refer to a shock, a seasonal stress or a negative trend that is (very) likely to occur during or after the project period and that has (very) high potential impact on project activities or results. A main risk can be climate-related or not. The table on the right can be used to identify these main risks, located in red and orange cells.

Note: Section 2.1, ACF DRM guidelines (2011) or ACF emergency preparedness and response planning - section 2a (2013) provides more information on how to carry out a rapid risk analysis.



STEP 3: SCENARIO BUILDING: WHAT IS THE LIKELY IMPACT IF RISK(S) MATERIALIZE(S)?

During the third step, your team will analyse the likely impact of 2 to 4 main risks on project activities, results and objectives. The matrix presented below facilitates the mapping of likely project impact for a specific risk. It might also be useful to identify negative effects to address in priority at this stage; this will allow focusing the identification of measures in step 3.



SCENARIO BUILDING: LIKELY IMPACTS ON A PROJECT IF A RISK MATERIALIZES

Identified risk: _____ Likelihood: _____ Severity: _____

Project description	Likely impact if the risk materializes
Overall objective: _____	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact a • Impact b • Etc.
Purpose: _____	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact c • Impact d • Etc.
Results: _____	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact e • Impact f • Etc.
Activities: _____	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact g • Impact h • Etc.

Note: The first column of this matrix is similar to the well-known logical framework.
Legend: Impacts in bold orange should be addressed in priority.

STEP 4: SCENARIO BUILDING: WHAT MEASURES CAN REDUCE PROJECT SENSITIVITY?

This fourth step consists in identifying measures to address the likely impacts of a shock or stress on project activities and results; refer to the matrix below.

SCENARIO BUILDING: LIKELY IMPACTS ON A PROJECT IF A RISK MATERIALIZES

Identified risk: _____ Likelihood: _____ Severity: _____

Impact on project	Measure
Impact b	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measure b.1 • Measure b.2 • Etc.
Impact c	
Impact e	
Impact f	
Impact h	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measure h.1 • Measure h.2 • Etc.

Note: A similar measure can sometimes be used to address multiple impacts!

STEP 5: PRIORITIZATION OF MEASURES AND ADJUSTMENT OF THE PLANNED PROJECT

During the fifth step, your team will identify priority measures to make the project less sensitive or in others terms, more robust to future climate-related (and other) shocks and stresses; refer to the matrix below. The planned project should be adjusted to integrate these priority measures!

SCENARIO BUILDING: LIKELY IMPACTS ON A PROJECT IF A RISK MATERIALIZES

Measure	Criteria 1	Criteria 2	...	Criteria n	To implement?	Partnerships?
Measure 1						
Measure 2						
...						
Measure n						

Note: Criteria can include, for instance: effectiveness, cost, feasibility, capacities, sustainability, etc.

F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

The suggested approach is relatively new, so there are little illustrations or good practice to share as of now.

G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

The approach suggested above is rather new: it has been developed in the frame of this technical guide. The following publications provide other perspectives on climate-proofing, particularly in the context of climate change. These perspectives reflect a broader understanding of what climate-proofing is.

- CARE (2010) Mainstreaming climate change adaptation - a practitioner's handbook. Available at: www.careclimatechange.org/files/adaptation/CARE_VN_Mainstreaming_Handbook.pdf
- GTZ (2010) Climate Proofing for Development: Adapting to Climate Change, Reducing Risk. Available at: <http://www2.gtz.de/dokumente/bib-2010/gtz2010-0714en-climate-proofing.pdf>
- OECD (2009) Integrating climate change adaptation into development co-operation. Available at: www.oecd.org/dac/environment-development/oecdpolicyguidanceonintegratingclimatechangeadaptationintodevelopmentco-operation.htm
- Oxfam (2011) Disaster Risk Reduction in Livelihoods and Food Security Programming: A Learning Companion. Oxfam Disaster Risk Reduction and Climate Change Adaptation Resources. Available at: <http://community.eldis.org/?233@@.59cdc973/7!enclosure=.59cf3b6a>
- Welt Hunger Hilfe (2011) Climate Proofing: An instrument for taking into consideration climate change and its impacts in the projects and programmes of Welthungerhilfe. Available at: www.dkkv.org/DE/publications/ressource.asp?ID=333

3.6. FACILITATING COMMUNITY-BASED RISK MANAGEMENT PLANS

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

Despite the general ‘rhetoric’, humanitarian stakeholders often fail to involve beneficiaries in selecting, planning and implementing projects and activities. Interventions are often planned for people, not with them. This threatens the success and the sustainability of the interventions. Dialogues between aid workers and the population can help people decide which changes, innovations or interventions are appropriate to enhance their resilience and their food and nutrition security. Facilitating community-based risk management plans is a good entry point to initiate climate resilience and food and nutrition security efforts at the local level.

GOOD PRACTICE IN COMMUNITY-BASED DISASTER RISK MANAGEMENT (CBDRM)

Over the past two decades, developmental and humanitarian organizations have learned that the most effective CBDRM programs and projects have many of the following features:

- They recognize that local people and their organizations are the main actors in reducing risk and responding to disasters and seek to involve them in defining problems, deciding solutions, implementing activities, and evaluating the results.
- They build linkages between communities and the local and national authorities to promote greater complementarity between their respective roles in disaster risk management.
- They understand the important roles played by women in disaster management and fully include them in decision-making, implementation, and evaluation.
- They are based on a thorough analysis of the particular hazard and risk environment, including the vulnerabilities and capacities of the people affected.
- They incorporate attention to the needs and views of particularly vulnerable people who may be marginalized from participation on the basis of their gender, age, disability, ethnicity, socio-economic status, or other factors.
- They recognize that livelihoods are central to poor and vulnerable people’s coping strategies and they incorporate a focus on livelihoods security whenever possible.
- They analyse the close link between environmental degradation and increased risk from natural hazards and incorporate appropriate environmental activities to the extent possible.
- They treat information, education, and communication as a two-way process between communities and other disaster management stakeholders, combining local knowledge and practice with scientific and technological information to ensure that the disaster early warning, preparedness, and mitigation measures are appropriate to the local context.
- They design locally appropriate and sustainable technological interventions for risk reduction.
- They adequately design and resource baseline data collection and monitoring and evaluation systems.
- They have good community accountability systems and put them into practice.
- They promote knowledge-sharing, networking, and collaboration between different actors at local, national, and/or international levels to improve good practice.

Source: The World Bank (2009) Building Resilient Communities. Risk Management and Response to Natural Disasters through Social Funds and Community-Driven Development Operations (page 26).

B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

The objective of this action is to enable communities to identify and plan for risk management interventions to reduce their vulnerabilities to climate-related (and other) shocks and stresses.

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

This action applies at the community level.

D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

A five-step approach, which makes intensive use of community-based and participatory approaches, is presented hereafter. It can be adjusted to encompass a larger range of shocks and stresses, e.g. related to climatic factors, other natural and man-made factors. It should integrate activities beyond single sector perspectives!

- Step 1: Engage the community and all key stakeholders;
- Step 2: Analyse and prioritise risks in the community;
- Step 3: Identify and prioritise risk management measures;
- Step 4: Develop a risk management plan and have it endorsed;
- Step 5: Put the plan into practice.

The suggested approach borrows intensively to Participatory Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis (PVCA) guides developed by ACF and Oxfam: refer to the section G - Useful publications for references.

E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND 'BUILDING BLOCKS' OF THIS ACTION

STEP 1: ENGAGE THE COMMUNITY AND ALL KEY STAKEHOLDERS

The first step consists in engaging the community as a whole - including women, children, marginal groups and other particularly vulnerable groups. Community leaders, formal and informal institutions, partners and other humanitarian and development stakeholders should also be involved. Securing buy-in from a wide range of stakeholders is the key not only to a successful process, but an effective action plan to build resilience and enhance food and nutrition security.

STEP 2: ANALYSE AND PRIORITISE RISKS IN THE COMMUNITY

During the second step, the facilitation team will analyse prevailing risks and vulnerabilities with community representatives. Special attention should be given to the most vulnerable populations, including women, children and marginalised groups. The following questions should be addressed:

- What are the main climate-related and other shocks and stresses in the community?
- How do they influence lives, livelihoods and food & nutrition security in the community?



- What are local capacities in coping with and adapting to shocks and stresses?
- Who are the most vulnerable people and population groups?
- What risks should be addressed in priority?

The Tools 6, 7, 8, 10 and 11 the ‘Ready-To-Use Tools’ section are useful to address the above questions. Also refer to Oxfam (2012) and ACF (2013) PVCA guides. Priority risks can be defined using (matrix) ranking.

STEP 3: IDENTIFY AND PRIORITISE RISK MANAGEMENT MEASURES

During the third step, the team will facilitate the identification of priority risk management measures. The Toll 11 in the ‘Ready-To-Use Tools’ section can be used. The team should promote traditional knowledge and local positive adaptive and coping strategies during this intensification process.

STEP 4: DEVELOP A RISK MANAGEMENT PLAN AND HAVE IT ENDORSED

Following the identification of priority risk management measures, the fourth step consists in development a risk management plan that address the following questions:

- What is planned (objectives, strategy, activities, expected outcomes)?
- Why is it planned?
- When is it planned?
- Where is it planned?
- Who is involved (vulnerability group, informal institutions, etc.)?
- How will it be implemented?
- What are key barriers to implementing the plan or specific interventions and how to overcome these?
- Can the community implement the action directly, or does it need assistance?
- What resources are needed and who could contribute?
- How will progress and success be monitored and evaluated?

The plan should also include measures to support communities in enhancing their preparedness and their capacities to deal with disasters and food and nutrition crises.

A SUCCESSFUL COMMUNITY-BASED RISK MANAGEMENT PLAN INTEGRATES:

- A clear objectives and strategies;
- A clear link to reducing the risk of a priority hazard;
- Wide- ranging community benefits;
- Substantial and broad community participation;
- Precise input of local knowledge and resources;
- Clear community project leadership and management;
- A commitment to account, monitor and evaluate, and report on the project;
- Outcomes that will be sustained after the end of the project;
- Indicators for success;
- A clear implementation plan;
- A realistic budget and resource list that includes the community’s input.

Source: ACF (2013) Participatory risk, capacity and vulnerability analysis: a practitioner manual

Once a draft risk management is produced, the team should invite leaders to call a community meeting to present the risk management plan. During this meeting, leaders could begin a process to amend the plan, if necessary, and then adopt it. In order to mobilize and consolidate local engagement for planning and implementing activities, the community must jointly endorse the action plan.

EXAMPLE #1 OF A RISK MANAGEMENT PLAN

EXAMPLE #1 OF A RISK MANAGEMENT PLAN

Measure	Location	Target group	Timing	Resources	Stakeholder	Expected change/ result

EXAMPLE #2 OF A RISK MANAGEMENT PLAN

General

- Community / District: _____
- Date: _____
- Community representative: _____
- Title of the representative: _____
- Contact information of the representative: _____
- Name of the project: _____

Project summary

- What is the problem?
- What is the sustained positive change, the aspired situation or vision expected?
- Why is the project important?
- What is the project objective?
- What are the strategies or measures?
- What is the expected sustained positive change?

Project details

- Community profile (location, access, geography, infrastructures, facilities, resources, main players)
- What are the main disaster risks and vulnerabilities?
- What are the main measures proposed and how are they prioritized?
- What is their feasibility?
- What resources are needed and what can be found locally?
- Who will benefit from the measures?
- To what extent does the community contribute to the implementation of these measures?
- Who will be involved in the implementation?
- Who will monitor and evaluate the activities and how?
- Who will report on the activities and how?
- How will the activities' outcomes be sustained?
- What are the indicators for success? (Will there be a change in knowledge, behaviour, infrastructure or systems? What will that be?)
- Where specifically will the project be implemented (river bank, etc.)?

Activity calendar

Source: ACF (2013) *Participatory risk, capacity and vulnerability analysis: a practitioner manual*.



Once the community has finalised and adopted its risk management plan, the facilitation stage is complete. But the process of change in the community is just beginning! ACF and partners should help transitioning from the planning to implementation stages by:

- Establishing an ‘accompaniment team’ to support the community in taking its plans forward, the membership of which should be discussed with the community;
- Arranging the next meeting between the accompaniment team and the community;
- Producing a report on the planning process and its outputs, and give it to the community;
- Seeking commitment to take forward some areas of the risk reduction action plan.
- Facilitating meetings between the community and other stakeholders to gain support for the action plan.
- Connecting the plan vertically - at the level of municipality, district, etc.
- Linking the community-based plan to local, sectoral & national decision-making and planning processes.

F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

Enhancing community and institution preparedness in Ethiopia

(2010 onwards)

ACF implemented a community-based disaster risk management project in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas of Borena (Southern Ethiopia), which are increasingly exposed to drought events. Specific activities of this project focused on community and institution preparedness. For instance, activities included strengthening and building the capacities of disaster risk management committees at woreda and kebele levels with relevant institutions; defining or strengthening contingency plans in collaboration with partners; and linking these plans vertically with existing response mechanisms in place.

Supporting livelihood recovery in flood-affected villages while strengthening community and institution capacity to face the next climate shocks in Burkina Faso (2010-13)



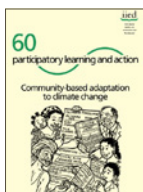
In 2010 several municipalities of the Gnagna province in eastern Burkina Faso were affected by floods. These localities are also regularly exposed to droughts. Supported by the European Union, ACF and partners developed a programme aiming at restoring flood-affected livelihoods and enhancing climate resilience of affected communities. Activities related to resilience building included livelihoods diversification and natural resource management activities on one hand, and capacity building and local institution strengthening activities on the other hand, with a specific focus on preparedness and local risk management.

Enhancing risk management capacities of women and landless in coastal villages on the frontline of climate change, Bangladesh (2011-13)

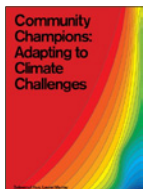


ACF and Sangram (a local NGO) implement an innovative disaster risk reduction project in 10 coastal villages of Barguna, Bangladesh. These villages are exposed to sea level rise, coastal flooding, erosion and frequent cyclones. As such, they can be considered as being on the 'frontline' of climate change. ACF and Sangram' pilot project aims at enhancing risk management capacities among poor women and landless households. Various tools are mobilized, including small-scale disaster mitigation activities, training, best practice sharing among coastal communities and experience-sharing with the broader practitioners community.

Community-based adaptation to climate change



Community-based adaptation (CBA) describes an approach to increasing the resilience of some of the world's poorest communities to the impacts of climate change. It should be a community-led process, based on local priorities, needs, knowledge and capacities, which can then empower people to cope with and plan for the impacts of climate change. Community-based adaptation draws on approaches and methods developed in both disaster risk reduction and community development work.



The two following publications include a set of case studies, good practice and lessons on CBA: IIED (2009) Community-based adaptation to climate change, available at: www.iied.org/pubs/display.php?o=14573IIED and IIED (2010) Community Champions: Adapting to climate challenges. Available at: <http://pubs.iied.org/10028IIED.html>

G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

- ACF (2013) **Participatory risk, capacity and vulnerability analysis: a practitioner manual for field workers**. Available at: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=34092
- ADPC (2004) **Community-based disaster risk management: Field practitioners' handbook**. Available at: www.adpc.net/pdr-sea/publications/12handbk.pdf
- International Institute for Rural Reconstruction (2013) **Building Resilient Communities: A training manual on Community Managed Disaster Risk Reduction (Module 2)**. Available at: www.iirr.org/index.php/publications/books/building_resilient_communities_a_training_manual_on_community_managed_disas
- Oxfam (2012) **Participatory Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis: A practitioner's guide**. Available at: www.scribd.com/doc/99334979/Participatory-Capacity-and-Vulnerability-Analysis-A-practitioner-s-guide
- Practical Action (2011) **Consensus Building with Participatory Action Plan Development: a facilitator's guide**. Available at: <http://practicalaction.org/docs/ia1/participatory-action-plan-development.pdf>



3.7. CONDUCTING ADVOCACY AND SUPPORTING POLICY DEVELOPMENT

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

Policies and institutions have huge influences on the lives and livelihoods of vulnerable people. Despite this fact these people have limited voice in decision-making and policy-making processes. As the agents most directly linked to grassroots realities, NGOs and civil society organisations can represent the community interests and priorities in such processes, and contribute in better connecting people's realities and experiences to policy-makers' agendas.

Up to recently, nutrition was rather disconnected or peripheral to emerging policy agendas, such as disaster risk reduction or climate change responses. NGOs and civil society organisations have the possibility and the responsibility to raise awareness on these issues and promote more commitment and action!

B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

The objective of this action is to contribute putting in place the right policy and institutional environment to enable climate resilience and food and nutrition security among the most vulnerable people and communities.

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

This action applies at multiple levels - from the sub-national, national or the global levels.

D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

Enhancing climate resilience and food and nutrition security is a broad objective, which requires multiple changes at the policy and institutional levels. In view of our limited resources, it is necessary to set up priorities - considering the prevailing contexts and our capacities. Five broad thematic advocacy priorities on climate resilience and food & nutrition security are suggested in the box below; they should be further contextualised and specified, in collaboration with the relevant staff and partners.

5 BROAD THEMATIC PRIORITIES FOR ADVOCACY

- To make sure that key nutrition [policies - programmes - plans - stakeholders] **better consider and address climate-related risks and the impact of climate change.**
- To make sure that key resilience, risk management and climate change adaptation [policies - programmes - plans - stakeholders] **better address undernutrition** and promote good nutrition.
- To advocate for **climate-resilient and nutrition-focused agricultural development** (particularly considering that, as of now, climate-resilient agriculture agenda/ initiatives and the nutrition-sensitive agriculture agenda/ initiatives remain rather disconnected).
- To advocate at the national level for the **scaling up of (seasonal) nutrition safety nets**, since they can help address the risks to nutrition from climate-related shocks, seasonal stresses and climate change.
- To ensure that **adequate and long-term financial resources are dedicated** to nutrition and resilience building efforts.

E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND 'BUILDING BLOCKS' OF THIS ACTION

This section largely borrows to ACF (2013) ACF International advocacy toolkit. The advocacy cycle, described in ACF toolkit and in the box below, is the overarching framework for advocacy actions:

THE ADVOCACY CYCLE

The advocacy cycle is similar to other project management cycles. The main differences lie in the objectives of the project, which focus on policy change, and the activities, which are very specific. Otherwise, the broad advocacy cycle can be summarised in different stages: identification of the problem, elaboration of the strategy, development of a plan of action, implementation phase and monitoring and evaluation. The following chart outlines the specific tasks and steps in each of these stages.



Source:
 ACF (2013) ACF
 International
 advocacy toolkit

STEP 1 - CONSULTATION OF ACF ADVOCACY STAFF AND COUNTRY DIRECTOR

Even though anyone can undertake advocacy work, you should consult advocacy staff and your country director before initiating any advocacy-related efforts. Close collaboration with ACF advocacy staffs is essential at all stages of any advocacy efforts.

STEP 2 - ELABORATION OF AN ADVOCACY STRATEGY AND ACTION PLAN

Taking a strategic approach to advocacy helps to pinpoint the problem and identify the change needed to reach an objective. It also helps to identify the individuals and organisations that are able to make that change happen and provides guidance on how to influence them. Once written, an advocacy strategy is essentially an outline of what we are trying to achieve and how we intend to get there. It ensures that our plans are thorough, commonly understood and adequately resourced before we begin advocacy work on a specific issue.

ELABORATION OF AN ADVOCACY STRATEGY

WHAT change do we want to bring about?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Context and problem analysis• Change goals and objectives	This includes consideration of what is going wrong and what needs to change. It is important to provide strong evidence and to be clear about what must stop, as compared to what must change, and what alternative solutions might be adopted.
WHO can make changes happen?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Stakeholder and power analysis• Targets and allies	This includes asking who has the power to make the desired change happen and who may be potential allies and opponents. It is important to be very clear that those identified as having power can actually make the change and to understand how they get involved in the decision making process.
HOW can you make them bring about the desired change?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Messages, time and place• Tactics	This includes considerations of potential strategies and tactics for influencing people with power, but also to define the messages you will deliver to the different targets and to identify key moments and places where you will concretely advocate for change

Source: ACF (2013) ACF International advocacy toolkit.

Important notes:

- It is important to remember that if you are participating in technical forums, many of you are likely to already be engaged in advocacy without realising it; by developing a strategy and improving your tactics you may be able to carry out much more effective advocacy.
- Many different actions can be taken to influence your targets; you need to decide which would be the best tactic or combination of tactics to employ at any one time to achieve maximum influence, bearing in mind that links to programmes are your source of evidence and legitimacy.
- For advocacy to be effective, it is essential to build strategic partnerships and alliances with a large and diverse set of stakeholders.

- Whenever possible, climate resilience and food and nutrition security advocacy priorities should be carried out at multiple levels; in fact even though disasters and climate change manifest at the local level, these challenges calls in fact for a multi-layered response: refer to the section 3.4.
- More information on advocacy strategy elaboration is available in ACF International advocacy toolkit.

Once the advocacy strategy has been defined, an action plan - including detailed activities, timetable, resources, etc. should be developed ion the basis of the advocacy strategy.

STEP 3 - ADVOCACY IN ACTION

After the elaboration of the advocacy strategy and the definition of the action plan, the next step is to put planned activities into action. New ideas can emerge during the implementation of planned actions: there should be sufficient room for additional brilliant ideas!

Advocacy uses different modes of action or “tactics” presented in the box below. These modes of action are not all specific to advocacy. Communication and media tools can be used for advocacy purposes and can prove to be very effective tools, however they are not used solely for advocacy. Similarly, research activities can target scientific and operational work while also serving to elaborate and support the messages and positioning of advocacy work.

ADVOCACY: MODES OF ACTION

<p style="text-align: center;">Expertise</p> <p>Procure evidence and scientific justification</p> <p>Bring technical support</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Lobbying</p> <p>Undertake strategic lobbying</p> <p>Convince your targets</p> <p>Negotiate common positions</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Medias</p> <p>Influence opinion leaders</p> <p>Give visibility to your messages & actions</p> <p>Raise public awareness</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Mobilisation</p> <p>Create public support</p> <p>Use the collective power of the voters / consumers</p> <p>Influence the public perception & attitude</p>

Advocacy involves different modes of action:

- **Expertise and research:** case studies and evidence from programmes, technical support, major reports, etc.; refer to the section 2.2.
- **Lobbying:** face-to-face contact with a range of targets, lobby letters, informal information sharing, etc.
- **Media:** field trips, articles and interviews (radio, TV, newspapers), use of celebrities, etc.
- **Sensitisation and mobilisation:** email/ postcard actions, plays, demonstrations, etc.

Source: ACF (2013) ACF International advocacy toolkit.

STEP 4 - MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Your advocacy efforts should be closely monitored and regularly evaluated to assess progress, track accountability and help improving future advocacy initiatives. Monitoring activities can also contribute in keeping constituents involved and in sustaining their participation. The evaluation of advocacy strategy and actions should address the following questions:

- What worked well? What did not work?
- What lessons can be drawn for next time?
- Which action turned out better than hoped for? What could be improved?
- Which messages resonated?

F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

ACF Acute Malnutrition Advocacy Initiative (AMAI)



ACF International Network conducts intensive advocacy efforts for better nutrition - in particular through its Acute Malnutrition Advocacy Initiative (AMAI). Specific nutrition advocacy efforts also integrate resilience, risk management and climate change-related issues - such as ACF publication entitled 'Malnutrition - Just stop it' (2012). This publication, which narrates and illustrates the complexities of the problems, issues and policies linked to malnutrition is available at:

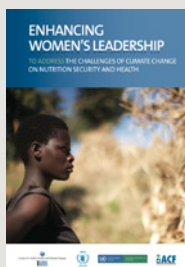
www.actionagainsthunger.org.uk/resource-centre/online-library/detail/media/malnutrition-just-stop-it

media/malnutrition-just-stop-it

ACF and partners advocacy in the frame of the UNFCCC

ACF also conducted some more specialized advocacy processes. For the past years, ACF has led or contributed into various policy briefs and advocacy documents focused on nutrition security in a changing climate. It has also conducted nutrition-focused advocacy with partners targeting key climate change-related stakeholders and policy fora - particularly the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).

KEY POLICY BRIEFS AND ADVOCACY IN THE FRAME OF THE UNFCCC



Another multi-agency policy brief entitled 'Enhancing women's leadership to address the challenges of climate change on nutrition security and health' also considers similar policy responses - with a high focus on the roles and potential of women. It is available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/communications/wfp245370.pdf>



This UNSCN policy brief proposes directions to address the nutrition impact of climate change for consideration by the Parties to the UNFCCC. According to this policy brief, building resilience and tackling food and nutrition insecurity in a changing climate requires a well-coordinated, multi-sectoral, ‘nutrition-sensitive’ approach that involves: direct nutrition-specific interventions, food assistance and safety nets; climate-resilient agriculture and livelihoods interventions; social protection schemes; maternal and child health care, water supply, hygiene and sanitation; education for women and girls and empowerment and disaster risk management, within in the broader of context of sustainable development. It is available at: www.unscn.org/files/Statements/Bdef_NutCC_2311_final.pdf

The Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) Movement

SUN is a global advocacy movement for scaling malnutrition nutrition. By its structure, its leadership and related principles and processes, it is a model advocacy movement, which has generated consistent results at the political level since 2010. More information is available at: <http://scalingupnutrition.org/?lang=en>.

ACF and partners advocacy for the elaboration of CMAM guidelines in Bangladesh

Until recently, the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) refused to adopt the Community Management of Acute Malnutrition (CMAM) approach, and rejected the use of Ready-to-use therapeutic food (RUTF). In terms of protocols, only an in-patient treatment guideline was available for severely acutely malnourished children. Spurred by ACF and other actors (Concern, ICDDR-B, MSF, Save, TDH, UNICEF and WFP), a CMAM working group was created in 2010, with the aim of lobbying for the elaboration and adoption of CMAM national guidelines, despite the lack of political will from the GoB. The group decided not to go into confrontation with the GoB and began to work on a technical guidance document in October 2010. In March 2011, the efforts of the group paid off when the national health authorities took ownership of the process and used the materials to develop a national guideline. Finally, in August 2011, the final version was drafted and the “National Guidelines for Community Based Management of Acute Malnutrition in Bangladesh” were adopted in early 2012.⁴⁸

The GROW campaign by Oxfam

GROW is Oxfam’s new campaign for better ways to grow, share and live together, to help build a future here everyone on the planet always has enough to eat. Climate change is at the centre of this campaign. Refer to: www.oxfam.org/en/grow/issues/climate-change and www.oxfam.org/sites/www.oxfam.org/files/ib-growing-disruption-climate-change-230913-en.pdf.



Climate change campaigning and policy development by CARE

CARE is a very active and influential stakeholder in climate change policy circles. Its overarching objectives are to empower poor and marginalised people to take action on climate change at all levels, and to build knowledge for action on tackling global climate change. Gender equality and women's empowerment is at the centre of our response. CARE climate change strategy 2013-15 includes four main themes, i.e. (i) climate change adaptation, loss and damage and the links to disaster risk reduction and emergencies; (ii) climate change, agriculture and food nutrition security; (iii) climate finance; and (iv) mitigation and low-carbon development. More information available at: www.careclimatechange.org/the-big-picture/global-overview.

G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

- ACF (2013) Participatory risk, capacity and vulnerability analysis: a practitioner manual for field workers. Available at: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=34092
- ACF (2013) ACF International advocacy toolkit. Available at: www.actioncontrelaifaim.org/sites/default/files/publications/fichiers/acf-advocacy-toolkit_june_2013.pdf
- CARE (sa) Advocacy Tools and Guidelines - Promoting Policy Change. Available at: www.care.org/getinvolved/advocacy/tools.asp
- ECB (2013) Toward resilience - A guide to disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation (especially section 6 page 119). Available at: www.ecbproject.org/new-practitioners-guide-to-disaster-risk-reduction-drr/practitioners-guide-to-drr-cca
- IFRC (2009) A practical guide to advocacy for disaster risk reduction. Available at: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=16348
- UNSCN (2010) Climate Change and Nutrition Security: Message to the UNFCCC Negotiators | UNSCN policy brief. Available at: www.unscn.org/files/Statements/Bdef_NutCC_2311_final.pdf.

3.8. CONDUCTING APPLIED RESEARCH AND STRENGTHENING EVIDENCE

A. WHY IS THIS ACTION IMPORTANT?

Applied research is important for humanitarian interventions and, by extension, for climate resilience interventions for a set of reasons, which are summarized in ACF research policy (2008) and in the box below:

RELEVANCE OF RESEARCH FOR HUMANITARIAN ACTION

- **Research stimulates innovation:** Research stimulates emulation in a defined sector that can lead to an innovation. For ACF, innovation covers a wide range of activities, from the development of new ideas to the dissemination to users of a new product, a new method, and a new technology.
- **Research makes it possible to target a greater number of beneficiaries:** In contrast to a routine technical programme, a research programme serves not only the interests of the programme-targeted beneficiaries, but also the beneficiaries of any future technical programmes, even those that might fall within another context. Because they are the consequence of a scientifically based method, research results can be reproduced, in a specific context and/or in other contexts. Research also makes it possible to standardize ACF interventions.
- **Research guarantees the reliability of an intervention:** A successful research activity creates new knowledge in a specific area that is universally valid, because it is the outcome of a rigorous and reliable method. Research guarantees the reliability and thus the quality of research-produced tools and methods that it engenders.
- **Research makes it possible to anticipate field needs:** ACF monitors activities in its field of intervention from the scientific, technical and operational standpoints in order to anticipate and to define what is needed in the field.
- **Research permits expansion of scientific and humanitarian knowledge and skills:** Research plays an important role in broadening the extent of knowledge of the field both for scientists and humanitarian actors, in specific areas.
- **Research enhances visibility in its fields of intervention:** Research offers internal and external actors a better visibility and knowledge of ACF activities.

Source: ACF (2008) ACF research policy.

B. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS ACTION?

The objective of this action is to enhance knowledge and capacities to support climate resilience and food and nutrition security work related to policy development, advocacy and operations - including analyses, strategic programming, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

C. AT WHICH LEVEL DOES IT APPLY?

This action applies at multiple levels - from the local, sub-national or national level up the global level.



D. OVERVIEW OR GENERAL APPROACH

Four broad thematic priorities for applied research are suggested in the box below:

4 BROAD THEMATIC PRIORITIES FOR APPLIED RESEARCH

- **Research stimulates innovation:** 4 broad thematic priorities for applied research
- **How to enhance the effectiveness and impact** of essential climate resilience and food and nutrition security actions, in particular those presented in the sections 2.2 to 2.9?
- **What works and why?** Generating evidence on the effectiveness and demonstrating impact of specific programmes is essential to convince key stakeholders, including governments and donors, and support the scaling up of success stories.
- **What are the threats of climate change on nutrition security** in a given livelihood zone or country, using a multi-sectoral approach and considering also overlooked climate change impact - i.e. impact on wasting and stunting; on dietary diversity; and on maternal and child care and feeding practices?
- **Which indigenous and traditional strategies are particularly** successful to prevent or address climate-related shocks and stresses, and how to best support successful adaptive and coping strategies? There is in fact an important reservoir of indigenous and traditional knowledge on which to build in hazard-prone communities!

E. SPECIFIC STEPS AND 'BUILDING BLOCKS' OF THIS ACTION

The applied research cycle can be summarised into different steps described below and in more detail in ACF research policy (2008):

CONSULTATION WITH ACF RESEARCH STAFF

First, you should consult ACF research staff before initiating any applied research project: you will benefit from essential guidance and tailored support!

IDENTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEMS AND THE NEEDS

The first step clarifies the problems to be addressed or the needs of ACF practitioners, advocacy staff or partners, as well as the objectives and expected outputs of the applied research project. It also defines what expertise and fields of competence (scientific, institutional and technical) will be required for the project.

DESK REVIEW AND SYNTHESIS

An analysis of existing literature will produce a report on what scientific, technical and operational knowledge is currently available.

DRAWING UP THE RESEARCH PROTOCOL

A research protocol is then drafted which is subsequently peer reviewed. This protocol includes information on the preliminary hypothesis; partnerships with key actors; description of the methodology; and a risk analysis of the project. Refer as well to the section 2.2.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

The project is implemented according to the defined research protocol. In the event of change, the protocol should be revised and appropriately adapted.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS AND FINAL REPORT WRITING

A final report, which summarizes the results of the research, is produced. This report should have been reviewed by a multi-disciplinary team of experts, combining geographical, thematic and scientific expertise.

DISSEMINATION OF FINDINGS AND KNOWLEDGE

Research findings and knowledge are shared internally and diffused externally. It is important to target the right audience and adjust research outputs accordingly. Audience can include various stakeholders, including other practitioners, policy-makers, donors, the scientific community, etc.

USING THE RESULTS

The results of an applied research project can be used in different manner, which includes improving strategic programming and operations; scaling up of success stories; conducting advocacy work and supporting policy development; training staff on new tools or approaches; and strengthening institutional capacities and services.

F. ILLUSTRATIONS AND GOOD PRACTICE

Understanding the multiple threats of climate change on nutrition security

(2009-10)

ACF played a key role in understanding the multiple threats of climate change on food and nutrition security. It provided one of the first multi-sectoral mapping of the impact and threats of climate change on undernutrition and nutrition security. This analysis served as a knowledge base for



diverse policy briefs. For instance, refer to ACF article entitled “The threats of climate change on undernutrition: A neglected issue that requires further analysis and urgent actions”, published in UNSCN Newsletter #38 - Climate Change: Food and Nutrition Security Implications, available at:

www.unscn.org/files/Publications/SCN_News/SCN_NEWS_38_03_06_10.pdf

Sustainable Nutrition Research for Africa in the Years to come (SUNRAY)

(2010 onwards)

The EU-funded SUNRAY project aimed at developing a nutrition research agenda for Africa, with specific emphasis on the 34 sub-Saharan countries. Piloted by a group of international academic institutions and an NGO, SUNRAY covered various thematic areas related to nutrition, including the relationship between nutrition and climate change; the influence of rising food prices; the future availability of water; social dynamics in households, and the effect of rapid urbanization, among other themes. ACF contributed into the “Climate change and nutrition in Africa” component. SUNRAY also produced a roadmap document summarising research priorities, strengths and gaps, resource requirements, opportunities for linkage and support between African and Northern institutions, or synergies between existing initiatives and research in other sectors. More information is available at: <http://sunrayafrica.co.za>

ACF, IDS, Tearfund et al “Changing climates, Changing lives” research project

(2009-10)

This applied research project revealed that pastoral households in Ethiopia and Mali are finding it increasingly difficult to tackle current climate risks and meet their food and nutrition needs. The report made a number of recommendations for NGOs, governments, donors and academia, such as to ensure policy coherence and balancing development goals that can help increase pastoralists and agro-pastoralists’ resilience. It is available at: www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/publications/v.php?id=14381.

The Africa Climate Change Resilience Alliance (ACCRA)

(2009 onwards)

ACCRA is a consortium supported by DFID, made of Oxfam, the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), Save the Children, CARE and World Vision. It aims to increase governments’ and development actors’ use of evidence in designing and implementing both humanitarian and development interventions that increase poor and vulnerable communities’ adaptive capacity. See: <http://community.eldis.org/.59d66929>

Tearfund and partners' cost-benefit analysis of resilience programme in Malawi (2010)

Tearfund and partners conducted a community-based cost benefit analysis of a disaster risk reduction and food security programme in a Malawian agricultural community. The programme, which is funded by DFID, has run for four years and spans 53 remote villages in Mzimba District, Malawi. This study found that the programme had a highly positive impact on target communities in terms of household income and assets, education, health and reduced mortality rates. Remarkably, for every US\$1 invested, the project activities delivered US\$24 of net benefits for the communities to help them overcome food insecurity while building their resilience to drought and erratic weather. This is a conservative estimate and the true figure could be as much as US\$36. This positive financial return on investment provides a powerful argument for investing in preventative activities in vulnerable small-scale agricultural communities. More information on this interesting research entitled "Investing in Communities - The benefits and costs of building resilience for food security in Malawi" is available at: http://tilz.tearfund.org/en/themes/disasters/disaster_risk_reduction_drr/cost_benefit_analysis_of_drr/

G. USEFUL PUBLICATIONS

- **ACF (2008)** ACF research policy. Available at: www.actioncontrelafaim.org/sites/default/files/publications/fichiers/research-policy-acf.pdf
- **DFID (2012)** Promoting innovation & evidence-based approaches to building resilience & responding to humanitarian crises. Available at: www.gov.uk/government/news/dfid-research-promoting-innovation-and-evidence-based-approaches-to-humanitarian-crises
- **Foresight (2011)** The future of Food and Farming. Available at: www.scp-knowledge.eu/sites/default/files/knowledge/attachments/11-546-future-of-food-and-farming-report.pdf
- **USAID (2012)** Building resilience to recurrent crisis: USAID Policy & Program Guidance. Available at: www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1870/USAIDResiliencePolicyGuidanceDocument.pdf





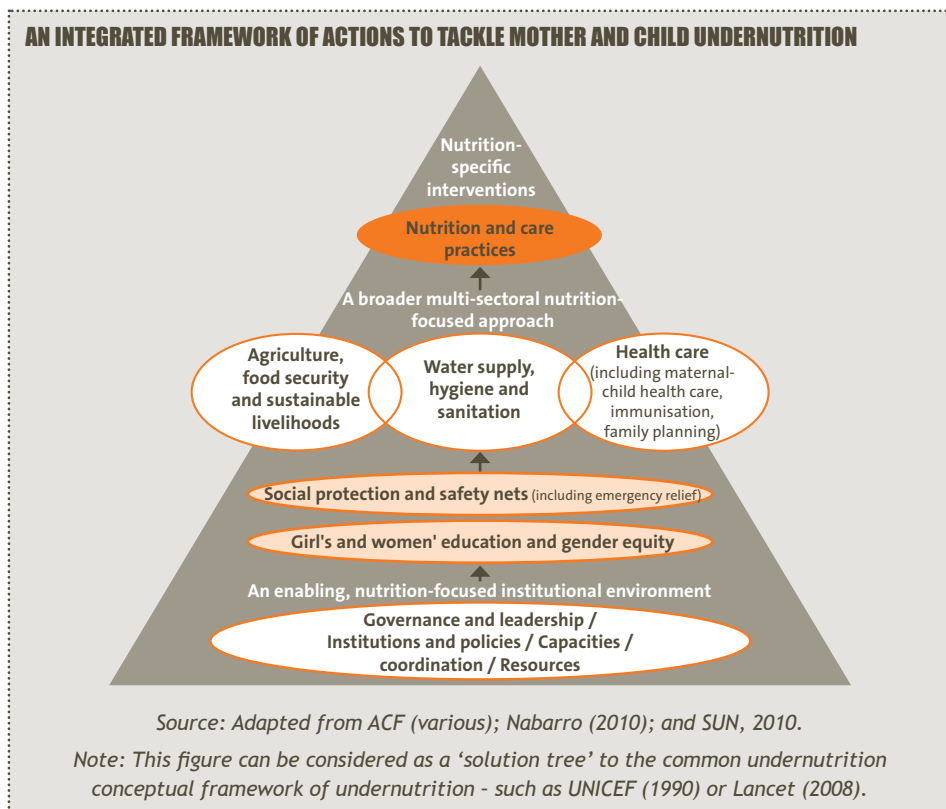
SECTION 4

CROSS-CUTTING PRINCIPLES

- 1- FOCUS ON MATERNAL AND CHILD UNDERNUTRITION**
- 2- DEVELOP AN INTEGRATED APPROACH IN PARTNERSHIP**
- 3- ADDRESS DIFFERENT TIME SCALES**
- 4- FOSTER SYNERGIES BETWEEN MULTIPLE LEVELS**
- 5- ENSURE THE PARTICIPATION OF THE MOST VULNERABLE**
- 6- STRENGTHEN THE CAPACITIES OF LOCAL AND NATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**
- 7- MANAGE KNOWLEDGE AND SHARE LESSONS AND EXPERIENCES**

4.1. FOCUS ON MATERNAL AND CHILD UNDERNUTRITION

The fight against maternal and child undernutrition is at the heart of ACF mandate. ACF promotes an integrated approach to tackle undernutrition and nutrition insecurity, such as reflected in the figure below. It incorporates (i) *nutrition-specific interventions*; (ii) a broader multi-sectoral *nutrition-focused approach*; and (iii) an enabling institutional environment in tackling undernutrition. Such an approach is in line with key emerging initiatives such as the Scaling Up Nutrition movement (SUN; refer to section 1.1).



Up to recently nutrition policies and programming remained largely disconnected and peripheral to initiatives developed to manage risks and enhance the resilience of people in face of climate-related shocks and stresses, such as disaster risk reduction, climate-resilient agriculture, climate change adaptation or social protection. The situation is now evolving, likely as a consequence of and 'positive side-effects' generated by influential research and advocacy movements (in particular, the Scaling Up Nutrition Movement), which brought nutrition under the spotlight and at the heart of various agendas and sectors.

Efforts need to be scaled up! Undernutrition should be central to climate resilience building agendas and initiatives. It is essential to strengthen the synergies between nutrition-specific interventions, the broader nutrition-focused approach and climate resilience analyses, policies, programming, targeting and resourcing.

4.2. DEVELOP AN INTEGRATED APPROACH IN PARTNERSHIP

Addressing maternal and child undernutrition requires an integrated approach involving multiple sectors and stakeholders, as presented in the section above. In a similar way, strengthening resilience calls for replacing 'silo-approaches' by effective and efficient linkages between sectors and stakeholders. Thus the process of enhancing climate resilience and food & nutrition security is inherently interdisciplinary and cross-cutting. It calls for two essential integration processes:

- To develop an encompassing, multi-sectoral approach that combines elements from nutrition and care; agriculture, livelihoods and food security; WaSH; health; education and gender; social protection; disaster risk reduction; and/or climate adaptation;
- To overcome humanitarian and development divides and to better link short-term and long-term responses.

CONNECTING INITIATIVES AND BUILDING PARTNERSHIPS!

Connecting initiatives and building partnerships are central processes to enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security. In others terms, an approach that engenders collaboration and partnerships with other agencies is much more likely to achieve impact compared to single-handed operations. In relation to this, it is important noting:

- No single agency has sufficient in-house expertise or cross-sectoral capacity to build climate resilience and food & nutrition security by itself, in isolation from others agencies. The diversity of approaches and disciplines required are likely to point to various institutional entities - e.g. related to agriculture; health; nutrition; disaster management; and climate change.
- Coordination, collaboration and partnerships should take place at multiple levels and across levels; ideally enhancing climate resilience and food & nutrition security should be a two-way process, articulated between household, community-based initiatives and more central measures at local, sectoral and national levels.
- Diverse types of institutions should be considered when building partnerships, such as: community-based organisations and traditional leaders; NGOs; research centres and universities; local authorities, public agencies and national government; UN agencies; donors; and the private sector.
- A collaboration or partnership can have a diverse range of purposes or functions: information-sharing; joint analysis, research and learning; joint planning and implementation; joint monitoring or evaluation; joint advocacy and policy-making; capacity-building, etc.



4.3. ADDRESS DIFFERENT TIME SCALES

Better linking short-term and long-term responses and overcoming humanitarian and development divides are central to the resilience agenda. This principle also applies with force to food and nutrition security. Addressing maternal and child undernutrition and climate-related vulnerabilities thus calls for addressing different time scales and combining immediate responses with longer terms actions, which tackle underlying climate-related vulnerabilities.

4.4. FOSTER SYNERGIES BETWEEN MULTIPLE LEVELS

Actions to enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security can be undertaken at various levels - from the household or community level up to the sectoral and national levels, or even the regional or global level. Effective linkages between all these levels - an approach referred to as 'vertical integration' - are required to leverage efforts and bring positive impact where it is most needed.

A two-way process, consisting of bottom-up approaches and articulated with more central measures, is likely the most effective way to enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security. For instance, an enabling political environment is critical to actions taken at the household, community and local levels. Similarly, the impact of a policy or law depends on its implementation by different levels of government and its relevance to the population at risk. Decisions and actions taken at each level should be mutually informative and facilitate the development of a coherent and coordinated approach. The Tool 3 suggests an integrated framework to guide action at multiple levels. This tool can be further adapted according to the context and the needs!

4.5. ENSURE THE PARTICIPATION OF THE MOST VULNERABLE

Ensuring the participation of the most vulnerable people - in particular children, women and marginalised groups - into decision-making, analysis, planning, implementing and learning processes is not a new principle or approach: it has been out for the past three decades! It applies with force to climate resilience and food & nutrition security initiatives. Efforts needs to be developed to make sure that this principle is carried out effectively and more systematically - either in the frame of projects or policies. It is important reminding that the sustainability of resilience-building initiatives also depends on the inclusion of vulnerable groups and populations.

4.6. STRENGTHEN THE CAPACITIES OF LOCAL AND NATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Capacity strengthening is another core principle to enhance ownership and leadership on resilience initiatives, generate lasting impact and promote replication and scaling up of resilience building initiatives. Human, financial and technical capacities of local and/or national institutions should be strengthened in the frame of all actions presented in the section 2. The box below suggests a set of priorities for capacity strengthening in the frame of climate resilience and food & nutrition security. These two sets can be adjusted according to the context and needs.

ESSENTIAL CAPACITIES OF LOCAL AND NATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

National authorities and institutions are capacitated to:

- Analyse and monitor the impacts and threats of climate-related hazards and climate change on national food and nutrition security;
- Define a set of policy and programmatic measures to reduce vulnerabilities in short- and long-term;
- Strengthen national early warning systems and link them to early response mechanisms;
- Ensure policy coherence and coordinate efforts for resilience and food & nutrition security;
- Allocate sufficient resources to implement priority measures, while channelling them locally.

Local authorities and institutions are capacitated to:

- Analyse and monitor the interplay of climate-related shocks and stresses with food & nutrition security at the local level;
- Adjust nutrition, agriculture, food supply, health, social protection and education strategies, plans, projects and services through climate proofing;
- Define strategies, plans, projects and services at local and community levels;
- Strengthen local early warning systems and link them to early response mechanisms;
- Link community-based knowledge, experiences and needs to relevant local, sectoral and national planning, decision-making processes and initiatives.

Refer also to the Tool 3: A guiding framework for climate resilience and food & nutrition security.

4.7. MANAGE KNOWLEDGE AND SHARE LESSONS AND EXPERIENCES

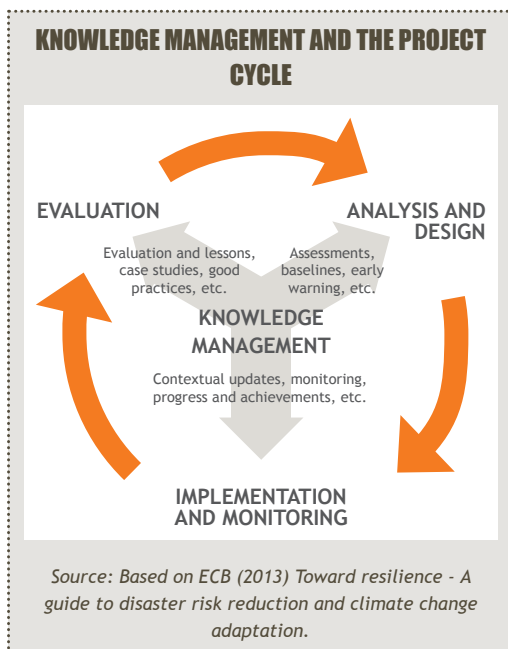
Knowledge management, which can be defined as ‘the process of capturing, sharing and effectively using knowledge’ is another core principle for climate resilience and food and nutrition security programming, because support learning and the improvement of future strategies or projects. Too



often it has been peripheral to the agendas and priorities of humanitarian staff and agencies, resulting in loss of knowledge and, in some cases, to repeated shortfalls or failures.

From a programming perspective, knowledge management encompasses all stages of the project cycle, as illustrated in the figure on the right. It facilitates the transition between each of these stages.

Sharing knowledge across one specific agency, communities of practice, countries and regions is an essential component of knowledge management. Particular attention should be paid to sharing documented success stories, case studies and challenges, as well as evaluations and innovations, as they represent key learning tools!



Last it is also essential to ensure that the generated knowledge is being used effectively across the agency that produced it and among its partners.



ACRONYMS

ACF	Action Contre la Faim International Network
BCAS	Bangladesh Centre for Advanced Studies
CBA	Community-Based Adaptation
CCA	Climate Change Adaptation
CCM	Climate Change Mitigation
CDKN	Climate Knowledge and Development Network
CMAM	Community-based Management of Acute Malnutrition
COP	Conference of the Parties (in the frame of the UNFCCC)
CRED	Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DRM	Disaster Risk Management
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
ECHO	European Commission on Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection
EM-DAT	Emergency Events Database
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organizations of the United Nations
FEWS-NET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FNS	Food and Nutrition Security
FSL	Food Security and Livelihood
GAM	Global Acute Malnutrition
GIS	Geographic Information System
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies



IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MHCP	Mental Health and Care Practices
NAPA	National Adaptation Programmes of Action
NWP	Nairobi Work Program
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
SAM	Severe Acute Malnutrition
SL	Sustainable Livelihoods
SP	Social Protection
SUN	Scaling Up Nutrition
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNISDR	United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
UNSCN	United Nations Standing Committee on Nutrition
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WaSH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Program
WHO	World Health Organization
WMO	World Meteorological Organization



GLOSSARY

KEY TERMS RELATED TO HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION

Malnutrition is a broad term that refers to all forms of poor nutrition. Malnutrition is caused by a complex array of factors including dietary inadequacy (deficiencies, excesses or imbalances in macronutrients -carbohydrates, protein, fats- and micronutrients), infections and socio-cultural factors. Malnutrition includes undernutrition as well as overweight and obesity⁴⁹.

Hunger is a term which literally describes a feeling of discomfort from not eating, and which has also been used to describe undernutrition, especially in reference to food insecurity⁵⁰.

Undernutrition is caused by inadequate dietary intake and disease which in turn stem from food insecurity, poor maternal and child care practices and inadequate access to clean drinking water and safe food, sanitation and quality health services. Undernutrition can result in the following: underweight for age, short for age (stunted), thin for height (wasted), and functionally deficient in vitamins and/or minerals (micronutrient malnutrition or ‘hidden hunger’)⁵¹.

Stunting (or ‘chronic malnutrition’) reflects shortness-for-age; an indicator of growth retardation and calculated by comparing the height-for-age of a child with a reference population of well-nourished and healthy children⁵².

Wasting (or ‘acute malnutrition’) reflects a recent and severe process that has led to substantial weight loss, usually associated with food shortages, disease, inappropriate child-caring or feeding practices or a combination of such factors. Wasting is calculated by comparing weight-for-height of a child with a reference population of well-nourished and healthy children. Wasted children are very susceptible to infections and death. It is often used to assess the severity of emergencies because it is strongly related to mortality.

Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life; household food security is the application of this concept to the family level, with individuals within households as the focus of concern⁵³.



Nutrition security exists when food security is coupled with a sanitary environment, adequate health services, and proper care and feeding practices to ensure a healthy life for all household members⁵⁴.

KEY TERMS RELATED TO LIVELIHOODS

A **livelihood** comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base⁵⁵. A ‘livelihood group’ is a group of people who share the same basic means of livelihood and life style.

Livelihood strategies are the behavioural strategies and choices adopted by people to make a living; in others terms, they refer to the ways in which households utilize and combine their assets to obtain food, income and other goods and services.

Livelihood assets are resources of different types, defined within five distinct categories: human, social, natural, physical and financial, as in the livelihoods literature. Assets distribution and control varies in community and within households, based on wealth, gender, age, etc. The table below presents some illustrations of assets.

Examples of livelihood assets

ASSET	SHOCKS
HUMAN ASSET	Skills, knowledge, ability to labour, education, good health and nutrition, etc.
SOCIAL ASSET	Social networks, cooperatives, solidarity group, etc.
NATURAL ASSET	Water, land, pasture, animals, trees, aquatic/ wild resources, biodiversity, etc.
PHYSICAL ASSET	Material, equipment, shelter, infrastructure (schools, clinics), road, market place, etc.
FINANCIAL ASSET	Income, remittances, sources of credit, pensions, savings, cattle, stores of food, etc.

In the livelihoods literature, **stresses** have been defined as ‘pressures which are cumulative and continuous, such as seasonal shortages and climate variability, soil degradation, population pressure, and **shocks** as sudden events such as floods, epidemics, droughts, but also wars, persecution and civil violence’⁵⁶. Shocks and stresses affect livelihoods. The table provides some examples of shocks, trends and seasonality.

Examples of shocks and stresses

TRENDS	SHOCKS	SEASONALITY
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Population trends• Climate-related trends• Environmental trends• Economic trends• Trends in governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Human health shocks• Natural shocks• Economic shocks• Conflict• Crop/livestock health shocks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Of climatic variables• Of prices• Of production• Of health• Of employment opportunities

KEY TERMS RELATED TO DISASTERS AND CLIMATE CHANGE

The following definitions represent coherent definitions that we believe are well suited to the present guide. Definitions generally vary by discipline or ‘tribes’, and there is no accepted definition across the different disciplines. For more clarifications on how the different ‘tribes’ relate to these terms and concepts, refer to Jones et al. (2010). Responding to a changing climate: *Exploring how disasters risk reduction, social protection and livelihoods approaches promote features of adaptive capacity* available at: www.odi.org.uk/resources/docs/5860.pdf

Climate variability denotes deviations of climate statistics (mean state, standard deviations, occurrence of extremes, etc.) over a given period of time, such as a specific month, season or year, compared to the long-term climate statistics relating to the corresponding calendar period. Examples of climate variability include the fluctuations that occur from year to year, the statistics of extreme conditions such as severe storms or unusually hot seasons, and conditions that result from periodic El Niño and La Niña events. As a result of climate change, climate variability is expected to increase in most locations.

Climate change refers to any change in climate over time (decades or longer), whether due to natural processes or as a result of human activity.

Note: this definition is in line with the IPCC (the UNFCCC only considers the changes in climate only as a result of human activity).

Hazard is a term that is broadly defined as an event or condition that may cause harm to people, communities and the systems on which they depend. When we discuss hazards in the context of this guide, we are referring both to shocks (sudden events or conditions that are potentially damaging), seasonality (seasonal events or conditions that are potentially damaging) and trends or ‘changes’ (gradual and/or cumulative events or conditions that are potentially damaging).

Note: hazards can be single, sequential or combined in origin and effects; each hazard is characterized by its location, intensity, frequency and probability.



Climate-related hazards are manifestations of climate variability and change. They can be broadly defined as events or conditions that may cause harm to people, communities and the systems on which they depend. They include shocks or extreme weather events; inter-annual and seasonal fluctuations and hardships - such as unusually hot seasons, shorter or delayed rainy seasons; and gradual changes, such as changing rainfall patterns, deterioration of the natural resources and sea level rise.

Environmental degradation refers to the reduction of the capacity of the environment to meet social and ecological objectives and needs.

Note: degradation of the environment can alter the frequency and intensity of natural hazards and increase the vulnerability of communities; the types of human-induced degradation are varied and include land misuse, soil erosion and loss, desertification, wild fires, loss of biodiversity, deforestation, mangrove destruction, land, water and air pollution, climate change, sea level rise and ozone depletion.

Risk reflects the combination of the probability of an event and its negative consequences⁵⁷.

Note: in the disaster risk management literature, a risk results from the interactions between a hazard (i.e. traditionally a shock) and inherent social, economic, political and institutional vulnerable conditions.

Disaster risk refer to the potential disaster losses, in lives, health status, livelihoods, assets and services, which could occur to a particular community or a society over some specified future time period⁵⁸.

Disasters are 'serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses and impacts, which exceeds the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources' (UNISDR, 2009⁵⁹).

Note: they are often described as the result of the exposure of vulnerable people, communities and the systems on which they depend to a hazard and of a 'lack of capacity to cope' using available resources.

Vulnerability is the degree to which people, communities and the systems on which they depend are susceptible to, and unable to cope and adapt when exposed to a hazard (such as an extreme weather event) or a set of hazards (such as climate change impacts). In the frame of this technical guide, vulnerability is a function of 3 factors, respectively the exposure (mainly a function of geography or location); the sensitivity ('the degree of susceptibility'); and the adaptive and coping capacity.

Note: vulnerability only gives meaning when a specified system is described in relation to something, e.g. vulnerability of a rural community to an extreme weather event or to the impacts of climate change.

Climate vulnerability is the degree to which people, communities and the systems on which they depend are susceptible to, and unable to cope and adapt when exposed to climate-related hazards.

Adaptive and coping capacity refers to the capacity of people and communities to cope and adapt when exposed to a hazard or a set of hazards. This includes the capacity to anticipate and prepare for the hazard(s); to prevent or moderate the adverse effects of the hazard(s); to respond to and quickly recover from any adverse effect of the hazard(s); to adapt to stress and change and to take advantage of eventual opportunities.

Note: whereas adaptive strategies imply longer-term adjustments to changing conditions or continuous processes of change, coping strategies often imply short-term remedial actions in face of a shock or rapid-onset event, which might increase vulnerability in the medium- or long-term. However attempts to distinguish between ‘coping’ or ‘adaptive’ strategies can sometimes prove fruitless and misleading; they may rather be seen as part of a continuum of responses, rather than as separate concepts⁶⁰.

Resilience is the degree to which people, communities and the systems on which they depend are persistent to, and able to cope and adapt when exposed to a hazard or a set of hazards, while maintaining or improving their characteristics and ways of functioning as compared to before the hazard(s) occurred.

Note: as for vulnerability, resilience only gives meaning when a specified system is described in relation to something, e.g. resilience of livelihoods to a drought or resilience of a rural community to the impacts of climate change.

Disaster risk reduction is the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events⁶¹.

Risk management refers to actions, measures and processes taken by people, communities and institutions to anticipate and prepare for (‘preparedness’), avoid (‘prevention’), lessen or transfer (‘mitigation’) the potential adverse effects of a hazard or a set of hazards, within the broad context of sustainable development. Climate risk management refers to these actions, measures and processes taken in face of climate-related risks.

Adaptation or climate change adaptation refers, in short, to actions, measures and processes taken by people, communities and institutions which might ultimately reduce vulnerabilities, build resilience and enhance adaptive capacities to actual or expected changes in climate and their effects, within the broad context of sustainable development.



Maladaptation refers to an action, measure or process that (inadvertently or not) increases vulnerability to extreme weather events, climate variability and climate change. Maladaptive actions, measures and processes often include development policies and practices that deliver short-term gains or economic benefits but lead to exacerbated vulnerability in the medium to long-term⁶². Maladaptation could also include ‘adaptation’ actions that fail in reducing vulnerability and increase it instead.

Climate change mitigation refers to actions, measures and processes taken to reduce the sources of or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases.

Note: in the context of disaster risk management, the term ‘mitigation’ refers to the lessening or limitation of the adverse impacts of hazards and related disasters.



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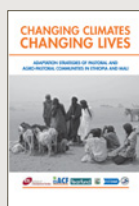
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READY-TO-USE RESOURCES AND TOOLS

TOOL 1 - UNDERNUTRITION FRAMEWORK AND RELATED INDICATORS

TOOL 2 - TECHNICAL BRIEFS ON SL, DRR, CCA AND SP APPROACHES

**TOOL 3 - A GUIDING FRAMEWORK FOR CLIMATE RESILIENCE AND
FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY**

TOOL 4 - A RAPID MAPPING OF 'HOTSPOTS' IN A GIVEN COUNTRY

TOOL 5 - A RAPID CAUSAL ANALYSIS OF UNDERNUTRITION

TOOL 6 - A RESOURCE AND HAZARD MAPPING

TOOL 7 - A SHOCKS, TRENDS AND CHANGES ANALYSIS

TOOL 8 - A SEASONAL CALENDAR ON FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

TOOL 9 - A RAPID INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

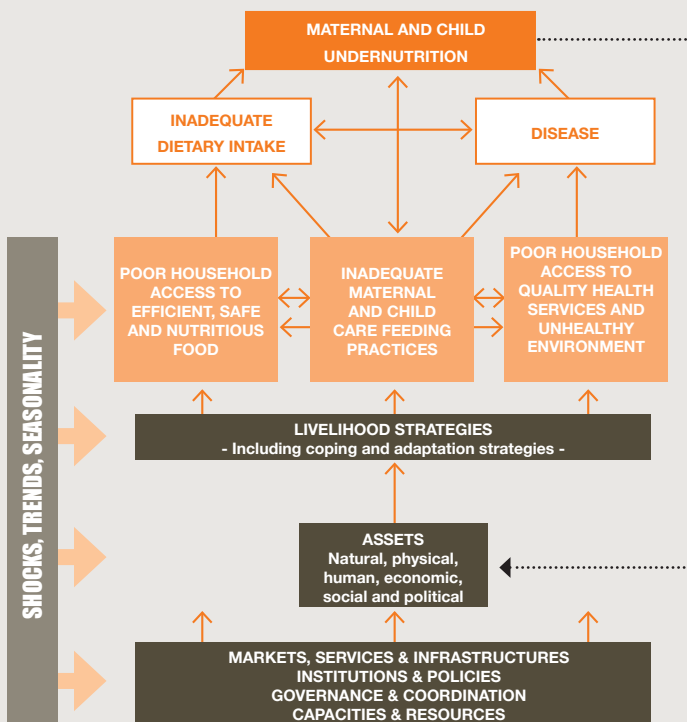
TOOL 10 - A RAPID VULNERABILITY ANALYSIS

TOOL 11 - A PROBLEM AND SOLUTION RANKING

TOOL 12 - ORAL TESTIMONIES

TOOL 1

UNDERNUTRITION FRAMEWORK AND RELATED INDICATORS



KEY NUTRITION INDICATORS	
Incidence and prevalence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prevalence of acute malnutrition (GAM, SAM) among children below age 5 (< 2yrs & 2-5yrs) • Prevalence of stunting among children below age 5 • Incidence of low birth weight • Micronutrients deficiencies (vitamin A, iodine, zinc, iron) among children below 5 and women • Nutrition status of the pregnant and lactating women • Body Mass Index (BMI) of women
Knowledge, values, beliefs & traditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge on nutrition related topics • Values, beliefs and traditions that could affect nutritional status
Home nutrition practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home-based maternal & child practices for undernutrition (prevention, diagnosing, home treatment) • Maternal and child nutrition seeking behaviour (utilisation of health services, timely seeking)
INDICATORS FOR THE FOOD-RELATED PATHWAY	
Dietary intake	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intra-household dietary quantity (e.g. meal frequency), with a focus on children and women • Intra-household dietary diversity (e.g. IDDS), with a focus on children and women • Intra-household food -sharing practices (based on age, gender, health or working status)
Knowledge, values, beliefs & traditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge on dietary related topics • Values, beliefs and traditions that could affect dietary intake
Household access to food	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diversity of household food sources (household stocks, food production, wild food resources, market, in-kind transfers of food, food aid) • Availability of and access to food storage capacities and processing (mills, dryers, stoves) • Diversity of income sources, income levels, labour market (in- and out-community), extent of migration and remittances • Availability/ scarcity of and access to land, livestock, natural resources and other productive assets • Availability of saving/ reserves, indebtedness and access to credit • Presence of irreversible coping strategies (e.g. Coping Strategy Index) • Food and non-food expenditure among household budget • Food prices and terms of trade • Physical access to markets and others food sources
Food availability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local, regional and national food stocks • Local, regional and national food production (crop, livestock, fish, wild resources, etc.) • Food availability/ supplies and diversity in local, regional and national markets • Commercial food imports • In-kind transfers of food (food aid, safety nets, etc.)



INDICATORS FOR THE CARE-RELATED PATHWAY	
Infant and young child feeding practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Breastfeeding practices (colostrum, initiation duration of exclusive breastfeeding) • Complementary feeding practices (initiation, types of complementary foods, micronutrient intake among children, vitamin A supplementation) • Weaning practices
Maternal care, caretaker and care-giving	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description of caregivers, workload and their availability for child care • Quantity and diversity of food supplied to pregnant and lactating women • Workload of pregnant and lactating women
Hygiene practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of the caretakers on health and nutrition related topics (specifically child feeding practices and hygiene) • Food hygiene practices (food storage, preparation, cooking and processing) • Personal and household hygiene practices (hand washing, bathing and cleaning the child, house cleaning, use of sanitary facilities, etc.)
Home health practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home-based maternal and child treatment and feeding practices when illness occurs (prevention, diagnosing, home treatment) • Maternal and child and maternal health seeking behaviour (utilisation of health services, timely seeking of curative health services) • Home-based protection practices (control of pests, avoidance of accidents)
Knowledge, values, beliefs and traditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pregnant and lactating women and caretaker knowledge on food, health and nutrition related topics (specifically child feeding practices, child health and hygiene) • Values, beliefs and traditions that could influence or affect maternal and child care
Psycho-social and care environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Incidence of gender-based and child abuse and violence • Incidence of trauma or stress among pregnant and lactating women and children
Women empowerment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision-making power of women • Access by women to assets and credit • Control by women over budget and expenses • Education of girls and women (access to school for girls, women's access to information)
INDICATORS FOR THE HEALTH-RELATED PATHWAY	
Disease	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Under 5 Mortality Rate • Maternal mortality rate (including perinatal mortality) • Incidence of and retrospective mortality pertaining to key water-borne, vector-borne disease or parasites (diarrhoea, acute respiratory infections, malaria, dengue, fever, worms), particularly among women and lactating women and children below 2 • HIV prevalence
Knowledge, values, beliefs and traditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge on health- and hygiene-related topics • Values, beliefs and traditions that could affect health care and delivery • Customary sources of health care and harmful traditional practices

Home health practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home-based maternal and child treatment when illness occurs (prevention, diagnosing, treatment) • Maternal and child and maternal health seeking behaviour (utilisation of health services, timely seeking of curative health services)
Availability of quality health services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Availability of and access to health care (including maternal and new-born health care: reproductive health, antenatal care, delivery care, postnatal care, new-born care; child health care) • Quality of health care (availability of essential drugs and essential vaccination, availability of qualified health personnel, satisfaction with healthcare system, gender mix of health personnel) • Immunisation coverage (specifically the immunisation rate of children under 1 year)
Household access to health services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financing and resource allocation of the household for payment for health care • Physical access to health services
Household access to safe drinking water and sanitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Availability/ proximity/ reliability of and access to safe drinking water (including distance to water source and time taken for round trip to collect water) • Cost of the water • Access to adequate sanitation facilities • Risks of faecal contamination of the water
Hygiene practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food hygiene practices (food storage, preparation, cooking and processing) • Personal and household hygiene practices (hand washing, bathing and cleaning the child, house cleaning, use of sanitary facilities, etc.)

Source: Adapted from multiple ACF documents and from InWent, 2005. *Achieving Food and Nutrition Security. Actions to Meet the Global Challenge. A Training Course Reader.*



TOOL 2

TECHNICAL BRIEFS ON SL, DRR, CCA AND SP

THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS APPROACHES

Sustainable livelihoods (LH) approaches have been central to development and poverty reduction policy and practice since the late 1990s, when it was recognised that effective poverty alleviation required action at community level in addition to government-level policy and services (Ashley and Carney, 1999). Emergency LH approaches originated in the 1980s following the drought-induced famines of that decade, emerging from a recognition of the need to protect livelihoods as part of humanitarian response in order to prevent future vulnerability⁶³.

Sustainable LH approaches can help in enabling agencies to develop flexible and locally appropriate responses to risk, vulnerability and poverty. More generally, livelihoods interventions can be divided into those that support the assets people need to carry out their livelihood strategies and interventions that support policies, institutions and processes⁶⁴. In reality, most livelihood support programmes tend to focus on the provision, protection or recovery of assets. Successful livelihood-oriented programming still needs to move beyond the local level and take into consideration policies and institutions at regional, national and even international levels. For example, the support of alternative income generation activities will not result in the desired outcome of improved livelihood stability if wider markets are insufficiently developed⁶⁵.

LIVELIHOODS INTERVENTIONS

Livelihoods provisioning: Interventions that meet immediate needs, e.g. cash transfers, food aid

Livelihood protection: Interventions that protect or recover assets:

- Agricultural support (crops, livestock, fisheries, agro-forestry), improvements (inputs, assets, services)
- Income generation, vocational training
- Microfinance/microcredit/savings and loans and insurance

Livelihood promotion: Interventions that create new skills, influence policies and strengthen institutions:

- CBO/local institution capacity building (e.g. farming cooperatives, women's groups, village development committees, self-help groups, etc.)
- Natural resource management (e.g. soil and water conservation, afforestation, etc.)
- Access to markets (information, infrastructure, vouchers, producers' cooperatives)
- Influencing policy: land rights, border controls, remittances, trade, environmental policies, etc.

Source: Jaspars and Maxwell (2009)

DISASTER RISK REDUCTION

Disaster risk reduction (DRR) is the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events⁶⁶. From an operational point of view, historically, the majority of DRR interventions have focused on mitigation and preparedness. Mitigation refers to actions taken to minimise the extent of a disaster or potential disaster and is used mostly to refer to measures against potential disasters. Mitigation measures can be both structural (e.g. flood defences) and non-structural (regulating land use and public education). Preparedness refers to specific measures taken before disasters strike, usually to forecast or warn against them, when there is a disaster threat and to arrange for appropriate responses. Preparedness falls within the broader field of mitigation⁶⁷.

THE HYOGO FRAMEWORK OF ACTION (HFA) 2005-2015

The 2005-2015 Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) lays out the foundation and sets out a comprehensive guideline for the implementation of DRR for a wide range of key stakeholders. The HFA is articulated around five areas, with relevant DRR activities outlined as follows (UNISDR, 2009):

1. **Governance**: Ensure that disaster risk reduction is a national and local priority with a strong institutional basis for implementation, including dedication of adequate resources and the establishment of coordination mechanisms such as a national platform for disaster risk reduction.
2. **Risk identification and early warning**: Identify, assess and monitor disaster risks and enhance early warning, including hazard and vulnerability analysis and early warning systems with outreach to communities.
3. **Knowledge**: Use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels, through awareness-raising, school education, scientific research and information exchange.
4. **Reducing risk factors**: Reduce the underlying risk factors in such areas as natural resource management, socio-economic development, physical planning and construction.
5. **Strengthen disaster preparedness for effective response**: Strengthen disaster preparedness for effective response at all levels, including preparedness planning and strengthening of disaster response capacities.



Examples of DRR interventions include:

- *Disaster preparedness and early warning: early warning systems, contingency planning, community disaster risk analysis and action planning, capacity building of community DRM committees;*
- *Infrastructural interventions: Relocation from flood-prone areas to higher grounds, building physical defences, improving housing, construction of earthquake- and hurricane-resistant wells and other infrastructure;*
- *Food security and livelihoods: natural resource management for protection (planting trees, grasses); cash or social transfer/safety net programmes, food or cash for work programmes, supporting animal health/extension services, distributions of seeds and tools, promoting resilient livelihood strategies (diversification, drought-/saline-resistant/short-cycle crops), de-stocking or re-stocking livestock⁶⁸.*

CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION

In the coming few decades, climate change is bound to continue regardless of how well climate change mitigation efforts succeed, simply due to the greenhouse gases we have already emitted, which stay in the atmosphere for a very long time. There is now widespread consensus on the need for adaptation efforts to contend with current and anticipated harm associated with climate impacts on people and ecosystems.

Adaptation or climate change adaptation refers, in short, to actions, measures and processes taken by people, communities and institutions which might ultimately reduce vulnerabilities, build resilience and enhance adaptive capacities to actual or expected changes in climate and their effects. The concept is usefully disaggregated in various ways: mainly by timing and by the degree of planning involved. Adaptation practices by communities and institutions can be either anticipatory or reactive and, depending on the degree of spontaneity, can be autonomous or planned⁶⁹.

Adaptation manifests itself in a number of forms, is undertaken by various agents and occurs at multiple scales. Efforts to facilitate adaptation can be conceptualised broadly along a continuum, varying from interventions designed exclusively to confront the impacts associated with a changing climate, to initiatives seeking to address the wider underlying drivers of vulnerability and adaptive and coping capacity - often with little direct association with climate-related hazards⁷⁰.



ADDRESSING THE UNDERLYING CAUSES OF VULNERABILITY	REDUCING AND MANAGING CLIMATE-RELATED RISKS	ADJUSTING OR TRANSFORMING TO GRADUAL CHANGES	ADDRESSING THE ADVERSE IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE
Although these activities have little direct association with climate change, they can buffer households and communities from its adverse effects, because they help to buffer them from nearly all stresses	Reducing and managing the risks associated with climate-related shocks and with more frequent, severe and unpredictable extreme weather events, including those for which there may be no historic precedent	Adjusting or transforming in response to current or expected climate variability and gradual climate-related changes and their effects; this can serve to moderate harm and exploit beneficial opportunities	Activities with the objective of confronting climate change, and thus focuses almost exclusively on developing explicit responses climate change impacts
<i>Examples:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reducing poverty • Enhancing the effectiveness of institutions • Addressing social, economic and political marginalisation and others drivers of vulnerability 	<i>Examples:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early warning system for climate-related shocks and seasonal hardships • Enhancing institution preparedness and building response capacity • Participatory reforestation to combat flood-induced landslides 	<i>Examples:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adjusting livelihoods strategies, e.g. shifting to more drought-tolerant breeds and crops • Teaching farmers to collect climate data and integrate into their planting decisions • Enriching natural resources • Monitoring of salinization of drinking water 	<i>Examples:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Erection of sea wall defences to combat rising sea levels • Reducing risk of glacial lake outburst floods • Malaria prevention activities in newly-affected regions • Addressing the increased caseload of undernutrition

Source: Adapted from McGray et al., 2007; Jones et al, 2010; and FAO, 2011

Climate change adaptation cannot be characterised as a single intervention, and instead needs to be seen as an overarching approach, incorporating a number of different actions. On top of this, adaptation actions are rarely made in response to climatic stimuli alone. In many cases, a direct climatic event is less likely to trigger adaptive action than the economic and socio-political consequences of the climatic condition⁷¹.



ADDITIONAL ILLUSTRATIONS OF ADAPTATION ACTIONS

- weADAPT developed by the Stockholm Environmental Institute maps interesting adaptation projects. See: <http://www.weadapt.org>
- The UNDP Adaptation Learning Mechanism (ALM) supports learning on climate change adaptation through good practice and experience-sharing. See: www.adaptationlearning.net
- The World Resources Institute analysed 135 examples of adaptation projects, policies, and other initiatives from developing countries. See: <http://projects.wri.org/adaptation-database>
- The National Adaptation Programmes of Action developed by the Least Developed Countries in the frame of the UNFCCC provide illustrations of adaptation actions proposed by national governments. See: http://unfccc.int/cooperation_support/least_developed_countries_portal/napa_project_database/items/4583.php
- The UNFCCC proposes a database of local coping strategies on the following website: <http://maindb.unfccc.int/public/adaptation>

THE NAIROBI WORK PROGRAM

The Nairobi Work Program (NWP) is the international reference to guide climate change adaptation efforts. Undertaken under the UNFCCC, its objective is to assist all Parties, in particular developing countries, to (i) improve their understanding and assessment of impacts, vulnerability and adaptation to climate change; and (ii) make informed decisions on practical adaptation actions and measures to respond to climate change on a sound scientific, technical and socio-economic basis. More information at:

http://unfccc.int/adaptation/nairobi_work_programme/items/3633.php/

SOCIAL PROTECTION

Social protection (SP) programmes aim to protect poor and vulnerable households from the shocks and stresses that have negative impacts on their wellbeing. It is concerned with the ways to strengthen households' or individuals' resilience to adverse events. SP is still contested, in terms of what can and cannot be considered a part of the concept⁷². SP is usually provided by government institutions. In areas or countries where governance is weak, informal institutions become more important, such as traditional social networks and other systems for assisting the poorest or most vulnerable. Humanitarian assistance is sometimes viewed as a subset of SP, in particular a protective measure or safety net⁷³.

A common social protection framework: protective, preventive, promotive and transformative measures

SP CATEGORY	OVERVIEW	SP INSTRUMENTS	ADAPTATION & DRR BENEFITS
Provision/ protection (coping strategies)	Protective measures provide relief from deprivation. Protective measures are narrowly targeted safety net measures in the conventional sense - they aim to provide relief from poverty and deprivation where promotional and preventive measures have failed.	Social service provision; basic social transfers/ safety nets (food/ cash); pensions; fee waivers; public works	Protection of those most vulnerable to climate risks, with low levels of adaptive capacity
Preventive (coping strategies)	Preventive measures seek to avert deprivation. Preventive measures deal directly with poverty alleviation. They include social insurance for economically vulnerable groups - people who have fallen or might fall into poverty and may need support to help them manage livelihood shocks. This is similar to social safety nets.	Social transfers; livelihood diversification; weather-indexed insurance	Prevents damaging coping strategies as a result of risks to weather-dependent livelihoods
Promotive (building adaptive capacity)	Promotive measures aim to enhance real incomes and capabilities of the poorest and most vulnerable populations while remaining grounded in SP objectives. They are achieved through a range of livelihood-enhancing programmes targeted at households and individuals, such as microfinance and school feeding.	Social transfers; access to credit/ microfinance; asset transfers/ protection; starter packs (drought/ flood resistant); access to common property resources; public works	Promotes resilience through livelihood diversification and security to withstand climate-related shocks; promotes opportunities arising from climate change
Transformative (building adaptive capacity)	Transformative measures seek to address vulnerabilities arising from social inequity and exclusion of the poorest and most marginalised groups. Interventions under this category might include collective action for workers' rights, protecting minority ethnic groups against discrimination or HIV and AIDS sensitisation campaigns. Transformative approaches to SP are therefore broadly similar to rights-based approaches.	Promotion of minority rights; anti-discrimination campaigns; social funds	Transforms social relations to combat discrimination underlying social and political vulnerability

Source: Adapted from Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004) and Davies et al. (2009) in Jones et al, 2010



TOOL 3

A GUIDING FRAMEWORK FOR CLIMATE RESILIENCE AND FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY

Actions and initiatives to enhance climate resilience can be undertaken at various levels - from the household, community or local level up to the sectoral and national levels. The table below suggests an integrated framework to guide action at multiple levels. Effective coordination mechanisms are required at each level between multiple institutions, stakeholders and initiatives - an approach referred to as 'horizontal integration'. Effective linkages are required between all these levels - an approach referred to as 'vertical integration'. A two-way process, consisting of bottom-up approaches and articulated with more central measures, is likely the most effective way to enhance climate resilience and food & nutrition security. This tool can be further adapted according to the context and the needs! Note: By 'institutions' or 'stakeholders', we refer here to a large set of entities - including informal institutions, governmental authorities, public agencies, donors, civil society organizations, research centres and the private sector.

AT NATIONAL LEVEL

FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY LENS	CLIMATE RESILIENCE LENS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieving food & nutrition security and scaling up nutrition are national priorities with a strong leadership, political will and institutional basis for implementation • National multi-sectoral analyses are regularly conducted to monitor food & nutrition insecurity, undernutrition and to track progress and results • Good nutrition and food & nutrition security is largely integrated in poverty reduction strategies and multi-year development plans • Adequate and sustainable financial resources are dedicated to tackle food & nutrition insecurity and undernutrition • A multi-stakeholder coordination platform for joint action on food & nutrition security is established and effective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National authorities and institutions are aware of the impacts and threats of climate-related hazards and climate change on national food & nutrition security - particularly among young children, women and marginalised groups - and act to reducing these vulnerabilities • Climate and disaster risk information for food and nutrition security and resilience is available and disseminated at all levels • Climate-related risks and vulnerabilities and their interplay with food & nutrition security are analysed and monitored in a multi-sectoral manner at national level; findings and recommendations are disseminated at all levels • Effective and integrated early warning systems linked to early response mechanisms are developed at national level • Multi-sectoral resilience building policy options for national food and nutrition security are identified through bottom-up approaches and multi-stakeholders consultations

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These options are integrated into relevant food & nutrition security, resilience, risk management, adaptation and social protection or development plans - with a sufficient budget • Policy coherence, synergy and coordination among food & nutrition security, resilience, risk management, adaptation, social protection or development initiatives are ensured • National authorities raise food & nutrition security issues in international negotiations on resilience, risk reduction, climate change, and suggest tailored responses
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AT SECTORAL LEVEL

FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY LENS	CLIMATE RESILIENCE LENS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The capacities and effectiveness of nutrition, agriculture, food, water, health, social protection and education-related institutions are enhanced at all levels • Adequate nutrition is promoted as the goal of national development policies, strategies, plans and programmes • Nutrition policies, strategies, plans and programmes are developed to tackle in-country undernutrition • Multi-sectoral and nutrition-sensitive strategies, plans and programmes (e.g. in the fields of agriculture, food supply, health, social protection and education) are developed to tackle in-country food & nutrition insecurity • Gender equity is promoted throughout sectors • Coherence, synergies and coordination among food & nutrition security institutions are enhanced at all levels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The sectoral implications of increased climate-related risks and climate change are understood, analysed and monitored at all levels • The human, financial and technical capacities of nutrition, agriculture and food, water, health, social protection and education institutions vis-à-vis resilience, risk management and climate change are enhanced at all levels • The preparedness of these institutions is enhanced, their linkages to national early warning systems are effective, and they have the capacity to respond rapidly and effectively to climate-related shocks and stresses • Nutrition, agriculture, food supply, health, social protection and education policies, strategies, plans and programmes are progressively adjusted through climate proofing, so that to integrate resilience, risk management and adaptation measures - paying attention to the needs of young children, women and marginalised groups • Coherence, synergies and coordination among food & nutrition security, risk management, adaptation, social protection or development initiatives are ensured



AT LOCAL LEVEL

FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY LENS	CLIMATE RESILIENCE LENS
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Achieving food & nutrition security and scaling up nutrition are local priorities, with a strong political will and institutional basis for implementation, including the dedication of adequate resources and the establishment of an effective multi-stakeholder coordination platform• Multi-sectoral analyses are regularly conducted locally to monitor food & nutrition insecurity, undernutrition and to track progress and results• Nutrition-specific; agriculture, food security and livelihoods; WaSH; health; and social protection strategies, plans, projects and services are integrated and scaled up to tackle food & nutrition insecurity at local and community levels - considering particularly young children, women, marginalised groups• Local and informal institutions ensure equitable access and entitlements to key assets and services by all groups - considering particularly young children, women and marginalised groups• Community-based knowledge, experiences and needs are linked to local, sectoral and national decision-making and planning processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The human, financial and technical capacities of local authorities and institutions vis-à-vis resilience building are enhanced• Local vulnerabilities to climate-related risks and their interplay with food & nutrition security are analysed and monitored in a multi-sectoral manner at local level• Effective and integrated early warning systems linked to early food & nutrition security response mechanisms are developed at local level, and the preparedness and response capacity of relevant institutions are enhanced• Nutrition, agriculture, food supply, health, social protection and education strategies, plans, projects and services are progressively adjusted through climate proofing• Local authorities and institutions act to reducing climate-related risks and vulnerabilities through integrated strategies, plans, projects and services at local and community levels, learning from the positive coping & adaptation strategies used in communities and considering particularly needs of young children, women and marginalised groups• Coherence, synergies and coordination with resilience, risk management and adaptation initiatives are ensured• Community-based knowledge, experiences and needs are linked to relevant local, sectoral and national planning, decision-making processes and initiatives

AT COMMUNITY AND HOUSEHOLD LEVEL

FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY LENS	CLIMATE RESILIENCE LENS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good information and knowledge on nutrition and adequate care and feeding practices exists in communities, and good nutrition of young children, pregnant and lactating women are considered as essential in all households • All people - particularly women and marginalised groups - have a sufficient and equitable access to and control over the assets and practices required to ensure their food & nutrition security • All people - particularly young children, women and marginalised groups - have access to effective and integrated nutrition; agriculture, food- and livelihoods-related; health; WaSH; social protection and education institutions and services • All people - particularly young children, women and marginalised groups - can cope with and adapt to shocks, seasonality, trends and changes, without deteriorating their food & nutrition security in the short- and long-term • Women, children, marginalised groups, informal institutions and communities are empowered and participate in decision-making, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of food & nutrition security initiatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The exposure of people, communities and assets upon which they depend for their food & nutrition security to climate-related hazards is reduced, whenever feasible • Assets, strategies, practices and/or services upon which people and communities depend for their food & nutrition security - i.e. related to nutrition; agriculture, food and livelihoods; maternal and child care and feeding practices; water supply, hygiene, sanitation and health - are less sensitive to climate-related hazards/ are (more) climate-resilient • People - particularly young children, women and marginalised groups -, informal institutions and communities can cope with and adapt to shocks, seasonality, trends and changes, without deteriorating their food & nutrition security in the short- and long-term; this can be achieved when: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They have a sufficient and diversified access to knowledge and skills; climate, disaster risk and early warning information; and technology; - They have the capacity to innovate, experiment, explore niche solutions and take advantage of opportunities; - They have a sufficient and equitable access to and control over a diversified range of assets required to cope with and adapt to shocks, seasonality and changes; - They have access to effective and integrated food & nutrition security, social protection, resilience, risk management and adaptation-related institutions and services; - They are empowered and participate in decision-making, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of resilience, risk management and adaptation initiatives.



TOOL 4

A RAPID MAPPING OF 'HOTSPOTS' IN A GIVEN COUNTRY

PURPOSE

To produce a national map that highlights areas where hunger, undernutrition and climate-related vulnerabilities intersect.

APPROACH

Methods consist mainly in desk review; semi-structured interviews with experts; ranking exercises; and, ideally, Geographic Information Systems (GIS). Experts can include staff from the national disaster risk management and/or climate change agencies; the national meteorological and hydrological services; and others specialized institutions or coordination platform on resilience, risk management or climate change.

PROCESS

1. Produce a map that highlights main livelihoods zones along with food and nutrition insecurity hotspots in the country. To be noted: such maps already exist in many countries; if not, food and nutrition security staff is already familiar on how to achieve this.
2. Analyse exposure to climate-related shocks and stresses at national level - using desk review and experts' opinions. Climate-related shocks and stresses can include droughts; floods; storm surge; short or delayed rainy seasons; salinization of coastal freshwater reserves; melting of mountain glaciers, etc. To be noted: it is essential to look both in the past (20-30 years recall period) and in the future (the coming 20-30 years; beyond this range, climate-related predictions have less practical value for food and nutrition security stakeholders). Much information is available on past climate-related shocks and stresses and increasingly, on risks and climatic changes; key sources of information are presented below. Key difficulties here relates to (i) navigating into climate change information - also considering that all information is not useful for practitioners; and (ii) uncertainties inherently linked to climate change predictions. Climate change experts are essential for this specific step; they can also help in 'filtering' the information and addressing uncertainties.

USEFUL WEB-LINKS ON CLIMATE EXTREMES, VARIABILITY AND CHANGE

Baseline climatic information

- National meteorological services: www.wmo.int/pages/members/members_en.html

Climate-related and others shocks

- EM-DAT Emergency Events Database: <http://www.emdat.be/country-profile>
- PreventionWeb/ country risk profile: www.preventionweb.net/english/countries and www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/maps
- PREVIEW Global Risk Data Platform: www.preventionweb.net/english/maps

Seasonal stresses and hardships

- WFP's Seasonal and Hazard Calendar (2011): www.hewsweb.org

Climate-related trends and changes

- Climate Change Data Portal by the World Bank: www.worldbank.org/climateportal
- UNDP Climate Change Country Profiles: <http://country-profiles.geog.ox.ac.uk>
- UNFCCC National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs) and National Communications: http://unfccc.int/national_reports/items/1408.php

3. Select 3-5 climate-related hazards that have significant influence on in-country livelihoods, food and nutrition security, using desk review, experts' advises and ranking exercises. The main limitation here relates to the fact that the relative subjectivity of the ranking - considering that it is difficult and complex to compare the effects of different types of climate-related hazards (i.e. shocks, seasonal stresses or gradual changes) against each other.
4. Produce a national map that represents country's exposure to 3-5 climate-related hazards - using desk review, experts' advises and GIS tools. Once again, experts' involvement is essential here - particularly for questions that relate to climate change! The main difficulty here could be related to lack of spatial data - particularly in the least developed countries.
5. Identifying 'hotspots areas' at national level, by overlapping the climate-related hotspot map with the livelihoods, food and nutrition insecurity map - ideally using GIS tools. This would allow the identification of 'hotspots' areas where hunger, undernutrition and climate-related vulnerabilities intersect. As suggested above, these intersection areas and others criteria (coverage, operational contexts) can be used to determine geographic areas under focus and priority assessment areas within a country.

Note: When producing such maps, always keep in mind that food and nutrition insecurity generally results from a complex set of climate-related and others factors (e.g. high food prices or conflict)!



TOOL 5

A RAPID CAUSAL ANALYSIS OF UNDERNUTRITION

PURPOSE

To analyse the causal pathways and the leading causes of undernutrition, and how they relate to livelihoods, shocks and stresses.

APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

A problem tree analysis workshop. The success of the tool ultimately depends on the selection of participants. It is important to involve professionals from a wide range of sectors and organizations, with strong involvement in decision-making and programme management. Participants should also have strong field experience and a good understanding of local realities, such as monitoring staff, extension workers, and community mobilizers. They should include representatives of local government working in agriculture, rural development, water management, public health and nutrition, education, women's affairs, youth affairs and other relevant fields, as well as representatives of national and international NGOs and UN agencies active in the area. It could also be appropriate and beneficial to invite community members - such as community leaders, teachers or health workers. The gender balance among participants should be respected, as far as local circumstances permit.

PROCESS

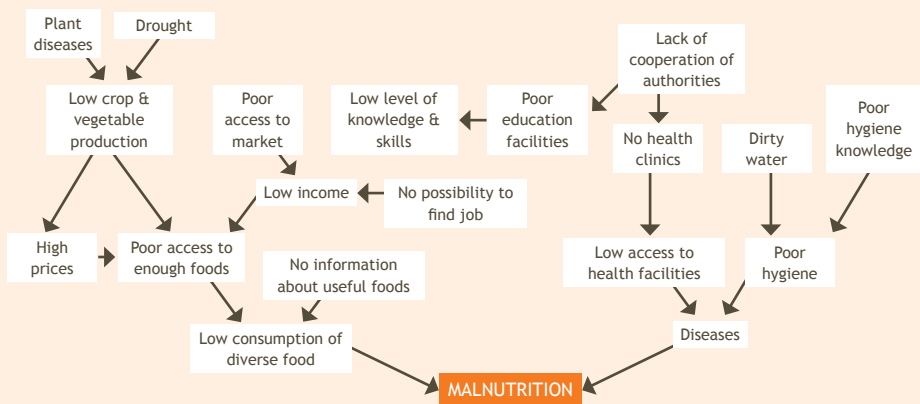
This activity should take ideally a day. The workshop facilitator should have experience of nutrition and food security issues; on top of this, he/ she should be familiar with the problem tree methodology and have good facilitation skills. The facilitator starts a discussion on the food and nutrition security situation by asking participants: 'Is there hunger and undernutrition in the livelihood zone under focus? What are the consequences? How does it manifest itself? When does it manifest itself? Who is most affected?' The session then concentrates on building a causality model for undernutrition by using the following steps:

1. Prepare two sheets of paper large enough to host one 'tree' each (e.g. using 5 to 6 flipchart papers) and place one card with 'undernutrition' at the bottom of a large sheet, or at the top, depending on participants' preferences.
2. Distribute about 5 Bristol cards (of one colour) and a marker to each participant; ask the participants to write down on the cards what they think the main causes of undernutrition are for the specific livelihood zone. They should write: one cause per card; in capital letters; and using a maximum of 3 to 4 words, in a negative form. If more than one language is used, participants should be encouraged to write the cards in the two main languages; it is important that the

lead facilitator can read the cards. Note: The facilitator should make sure participants do not formulate causes of undernutrition as ‘absent solutions’ (e.g. ‘lack of...’), because the absence of a corrective intervention is not the cause of the problem.

- When the participants have completed their cards, ask them to gather all the cards and get rid of any duplicates. Sometimes two cards use different words to say practically the same thing. In this case, one card should be removed, or the two reworded as one card. Cluster the cards by theme, e.g. health issues, agricultural issues, employment issues, education issues.
- Using participants’ suggestions, start placing the cards into a problem tree. The role of the facilitator is to stimulate discussion and debate and not build the tree by him/herself! Make sure everyone is participating. Ensuring there is a good logical sequence between causes and effects is essential! Place the cards in the tree starting from the bottom-up (or top-down if the malnutrition card is on top). Causes are placed just above the problem they cause. Make sure the opposite is not done, as it is common for participants to confuse causes and effects. Make sure there are no missing links in a causal chain. In such cases, you may need to add a card.
- Once all the cards are placed in the tree, review the tree as a whole to make sure there are no illogical sequences and missing links or cards. You can then draw arrows between the cards to clarify the causal links. Note: There is no one correct tree. The position of cards is thus subject to debate and different participants may have different perceptions. The facilitator’s role is to help participants come to an agreement, while ensuring the logic of the tree is respected.
- Once this ‘first version’ of the problem tree is produced, highlight important themes that may not have been sufficiently described, and which might require more inputs from participants. Complete the first version of the problem tree accordingly.

AN INTEGRATED FRAMEWORK OF ACTIONS TO TACKLE MOTHER AND CHILD UNDERNUTRITION



In: FAO (2011) Joint Planning for Nutrition, Food Security & Livelihoods: Agreeing on causes of malnutrition for joint action.



7. Presentations on relevant assessments, such as food security and livelihoods assessments and vulnerability analyses can be inserted at this stage. They will contribute to validate, complement and expand the thinking process that has been initiated. Note: These presentations should by no means be made before the group work in order to avoid bias in the participatory analysis and in group dynamics.
8. Highlight which leading causes of undernutrition and causal pathways may be linked to or influenced by climate-related shocks and stresses. Discussions with participants could bring more precisions in the problem tree. Note: the facilitator should have a cautious approach to avoid introducing bias!
9. Last the facilitator help to determine what further information is required considering all the above.

Note: All assessment team members should attend this exercise, which is particularly useful when available information on causal pathways leading to undernutrition is limited for selected assessment sites!

KEY LEARNING AND DISCUSSION

- How is the food and nutrition security situation at present? When is there hunger and undernutrition in visited communities? Why?
- What are the leading causes or the main causal pathways leading to hunger and undernutrition?
- What are the adaptive and coping strategies in face of hunger and undernutrition, and their effects?
- Who are the most vulnerable households to hunger undernutrition? Why?
- How did livelihoods resources and strategies evolve in the past 1-2 decades, and why? What is expected in the future regarding local livelihoods, and why?
- How did food and nutrition security evolve in the past 1-2 decades, and why? What is expected in the future in terms of hunger and undernutrition, and why?

Note: Do keep in mind key food and nutrition security variables defined in the section 2.1 or in Tool 1!

KEY REFERENCES FOR MORE INFORMATION

- ACF (forthcoming) Nutrition Causal Analysis: A guide for field workers.
- FAO (2011) Joint Planning for Nutrition, Food Security & Livelihoods: Agreeing on causes of malnutrition for joint action. Available at: www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/wa_workshop/docs/Joint_Planning_for_Nutrition_FAO_May2011.pdf

TOOL 6

A RESOURCE AND HAZARD MAPPING

PURPOSES

- To become familiar with the community, and to identify important livelihoods resources and who has access and control over them; and
- To identify areas and resources at risk from hazards, and to analyse changes in hazards.


APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

Focus group discussions with a mapping exercise. The mapping exercise could be conducted with separate groups of men and women in the community; in fact men and women may use different resources or have different perceptions about their community.

PROCESS

This activity should take approximately 2 hours including discussions⁷⁴:

1. Explain to the participants that you would like to build a map of their community.
2. Choose a suitable place (ground, floor, paper) and medium (sticks, stones, seeds, pencils, chalk) for the map. If the map is made on the ground or floor, the note taker will then have to copy the map on a flipchart or in his/her notebook. A photo can also be helpful.
3. First, build the community map. Ask the community members to identify a landmark in the community.
4. Put a mark or a stone to stand for the landmark. Note: The facilitator should help the participants get started but let them draw the map by themselves.
5. Ask the community members to draw the boundaries of the community.
6. Ask community members to draw the location of settled areas, critical facilities and resources in the community. This should include houses (the map doesn't need to show every house, but the general area where houses are located), facilities such as churches/mosques, health clinics, schools, and resources such as forested areas and water bodies. Ask questions about anything that is unclear.
7. When the community members have agreed that the map is representative of their community, begin the second step: identifying the hazards.
8. Ask the community members to identify the areas at risk from different types of hazards. These should include climate- and non-climate hazards: natural disasters; health crises such as



acute malnutrition, HIV/AIDS or malaria; pests; or socio-political issues such as conflict or land redistribution, etc.

9. Optional: the facilitator may want to ask participants to indicate some things they would like to see in their community that are not currently on the map - in other words to draw a picture of what they would like the future to look like. This allows for some preliminary planning ideas and encourages people to begin contributing their thoughts at an early stage in the participatory process.

Notes: (i) The primary concern is not with cartographic precision, but with getting useful information about local perceptions of resources. (ii) Hazards that are mentioned that are not location-specific should be noted on the report. (iii) All team members should observe the mapping exercise because it provides an overall orientation to the features of the community and its resources. (iv) The mapping exercise can be completed by two transect walks - successively with a group of men and a group of women - in order to further understand the location and distribution of resources, features, landscape, and major land uses along a given transect. During these transect walks, the assessment team walks with selected community members along a previously defined route, observing and listening to their explanations and asking questions about their daily activities, mobility, use of resources, land, and so forth. It is important to acknowledge that this tool only gives a snapshot of a situation in a community, which changes over the course of the seasons and years.

KEY LEARNING AND DISCUSSION

Livelihoods and resources

- What are the main livelihood groups in the community?
- What are the main livelihood strategies and resources in the community, during various seasons? What are the differences between seasons?
- Which strategies and resources are the most important? For men? For women? Why?
- Where do people go to collect water, firewood, grazing, etc.? Who performs these tasks? How long does it take? How long did it take 5 years ago?
- What resources are abundant, which ones are in shortage? Which ones are degrading or improving?
- Who has access to the resources shown on the map? Who has the least resources in the community?
- Who makes decisions about who can use land? Water? Other important resources?
- Which resources do you have the most problem with? Why?
- What are the daily, seasonal, or yearly migration patterns you follow in pursuing your daily & seasonal activities?
- What kind of activities do you carry out as a whole community? Where?

Hazards

- What are the main hazards in the community?
- What are the impacts of the hazards identified? On livelihoods resources and strategies? On food and nutrition security?
- Which hazards present the highest risk to the community? Which livelihood resources and strategies are at greatest risk? Why?
- Are hazards different now than they were 10/20/30 years ago (depending on age of participants)? How?
- Are there places in the community that are safe from the hazards? Are these safe places used to protect from hazards (e.g. to store food and inputs, or to shelter livestock)?
- How do people in the community currently cope with the identified hazards and their effects? Are the current strategies working? What are immediate and long-term effects of these strategies?
- What are existing barriers and opportunities to resort to specific strategies?
- What support - in terms of formal and informal institutions - can people draw on in face of climate-related shocks and stresses?
- Who are the members of the community who are most at risk from the different hazards? Why?
- What actions could reduce the risks generated by these different hazards?

KEY REFERENCE FOR MORE INFORMATION

- CARE (2009) Climate Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis Handbook.
Available at: www.careclimatechange.org/cvca/CARE_CVCAHandbook.pdf

TOOL 7

A SHOCKS, TRENDS AND CHANGES ANALYSIS

PURPOSES

- To gain a better insight into past events, trends and changes in the community;
- To identify how specific shocks, trends or changes influence livelihoods and food & nutrition security; and
- To identify adaptive and coping strategies in the face of specific shocks, trends or changes.

APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

Focus group discussions with a historical timeline exercise. FGDs could be conducted with separate groups of men and women; they may in fact have different perceptions about their community. You should try to include elders in this activity.

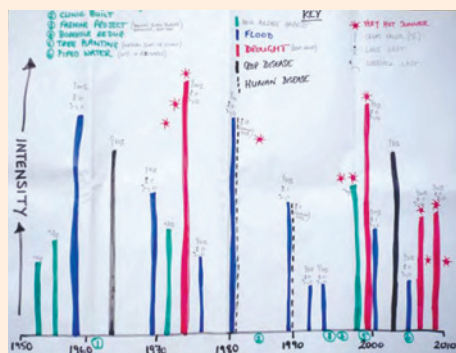
PROCESS

This activity should take approximately 4 hours including discussions - split into 2 sessions of 2 hours each:

FIRST PART⁷⁵

1. Form groups of 4-6 participants, at least one of which is comprised solely of women. Ask each group to draw a timeline going back as far as they can remember (including information they have been told by their parents and grandparents, if appropriate). On it, they should mark major events and the impacts of shocks, trends and changes (good and bad), how frequently they occurred, and how severe or intense they were. These should include:
 - Major hazards or disasters such as a drought, flood, typhoon, earthquake, crop disease outbreak, water shortage, or periods of hunger and undernutrition. Participants should mark the intensity (based on crop losses, lives lost, or other indicators they choose), and frequency of the event.
 - Major events for the community - political or social events, festivals/celebrations, bumper harvests (these are good markers for people to check their recollections against, but should

ILLUSTRATION OF A HISTORICAL TIMELINE



An historical timeline is a diagram that shows noted events in a community's history.

In: Oxfam (2012) *Participatory Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis: A Practitioners' Guide*.

not be the main focus of the discussion/exercise).

- Major trends and changes that occur in the community - such as change in land use or land tenure; demography; migration patterns; environments; administration and organization; agriculture and livelihoods; labour opportunities; food security and nutrition; other changes important to them?
 - Unusual events such as: early rains; bumper harvests; and extreme temperatures, etc.
2. In plenary, ask the groups to present their timelines and discuss similarities and differences. Encourage participants to identify any patterns or trends emerging from the timelines, and possible reasons for any differences in the frequency and intensity of similar events. For example, if flooding is occurring every five years, but the intensity is decreasing, is this a result of something they or others are doing? If the flooding is becoming worse every year, is it because of activities that are increasing the flood risk, or heavier and longer rains, etc.?
 3. Identify recent trends regarding hunger and undernutrition in the community; ask the community if the potential hunger and undernutrition problems are smaller or bigger now in the community compared to 1-2-3 decades ago? Ask them to explain potential changes!
 4. Using the various sets of information, ask participants (in plenary) to develop a full timeline of trends and changes. They should create a very visual timeline such as in the figure above; this can really help to visualise trends by showing the frequency of events (the number of occurrences from left to right) and their intensity (height of marking). However, as this limits the amount of detailed information that can be collected, it is also useful to record more detailed information alongside the chart in a table.
 5. Using the secondary data you collected relating to local disasters and weather patterns, ask probing questions about any events or trends you were expecting to be mentioned but that have not been brought up. Take care not to 'introduce' events yourself - only information that comes from the community should be recorded in these exercises! But if you were expecting to hear about typhoons starting to affect the area recently, and this is not mentioned, just keep checking with the group that they are satisfied that they have included everything significant relating to weather, hazards, and changes/challenges they face. Give them more time to reflect on what has been recorded if necessary.

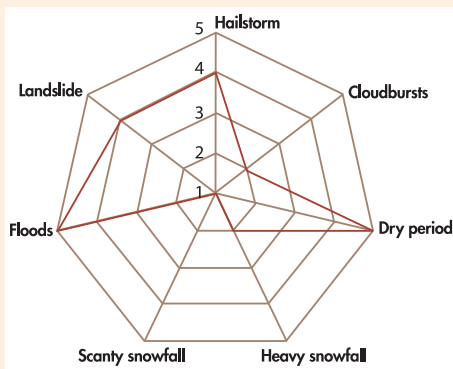
Notes: (i) People tend to measure and memorise the occurrence of extreme hazards by their outcomes, e.g. along the lines of 'in 2007 we were hungry, thus it must have been a dry year'. Therefore, triangulation, along with a good understanding of how community members 'recall' hazards, is required. (ii) Remember that there may be a bias in the timeline, as events in recent history are more likely to be noted than events that happened 20 or 30 years ago, and sometimes people perceive things as being 'better' a generation ago. Check this bias by challenging participants in plenary, asking questions like 'was it like this before?', 'how was this different to the flood 30 years ago?', etc. (iii) People's perceptions can be useful to get a picture of localised climate-related trends, but they should, whenever possible, be compared to scientific information!



SECOND PART

6. The facilitator asks community members to identify shocks, trends or changes that have the greatest impact on their lives, livelihoods and food and nutrition security. This can be done through a simple proportional piling exercise where the respondents are asked to pile stones/ beans in proportion to the importance of the problem, or a radar chart exercise; see example on the right. In this radar chart example, 1 stands for 'has a negligible impact' and 5 stands for 'has a severe impact' on the lives and livelihoods of the community; the participants receive a stone for each identified hazard or phenomenon and have to agree on where to place them on the radar chart.

ILLUSTRATION OF A RADAR CHART EXERCISE



In: ICIMOD (2011) Framework for community-based climate vulnerability and capacity assessment in mountain areas

7. Discuss with community members how specific hazards (selected among those that have the greatest impacts) affect their lives, livelihoods and food & nutrition security; the matrix below can be used to guide discussions and store information:

HAZARD	ORIGINS - CAUSES?	SEASONALITY, FREQUENCY & DURATION?	FORE-WARNING?	CHANGES IN HAZARD OCCURRENCE, TIMING, FREQUENCY OR INTENSITY?	SEVERITY?	IMPACTS ON LIVELIHOODS, FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY?
Hazard 1						

8. Discuss with community members what adaptive and coping strategies are carried out to face specific hazards; what are the effects of these strategies, and the existing barriers and opportunities; and how to enhance resilience and food & nutrition security in face of specific hazards.

KEY LEARNING AND DISCUSSION

Existing shocks, trends and changes

- What are the main shocks, trends and changes experienced in the community? Among these hazards, which ones are climate-related?
- When did shocks occurred and how long did they last? What are the seasonality, frequency and duration of shocks? Is there any forewarning for shocks? Since when are trends and changes observed?

- What are the underlying factors that trigger specific shocks, trends or changes in the community?
- Are shocks or events different now than they were 10/20/30 years ago (e.g. in terms of occurrence, timing, frequency, intensity)? Compare this information with scientific evidence, whenever available!
- What shocks or additional changes do you expect will occur in the future? Why?
- How did livelihoods, food and nutrition security evolve in the past 1-2 decades, and why? What is expected in the future, and why?

Effects of specific hazards

- Which are the top 3-5 most damaging hazards in the community? Which specific hazards have the greatest impact on food & nutrition security? Why?
- Do these specific hazards impact men and women/ community groups differently, and why?
- What are the effects of specific shocks, trends or changes on livelihood resources and assets? On the supplies and the prices of key products? On food and nutrition security?
- What livelihood strategies and resources are at greatest risk from specific hazards, and why?
- What are the top 5 impacts of each specific hazard on food & nutrition security?
- Which trends or changes are very positive for the community, and why?

Adaptive and coping strategies

- What adaptive and coping strategies are carried out to face specific hazards? What support from formal and informal institutions can people in the community draw on?
- Are the current strategies working? What are their immediate and long-term effects? On livelihoods resources and strategies? On food and nutrition security?
- What are existing barriers and opportunities to resort to specific strategies?
- Have these strategies changed recently, and why?
- Do they expect to change their response strategies in the future, and why?
- Does their perception of future events affect their plans for the future?
- How could people enhance their resilience and food & nutrition security in face of a set of specific hazards?

KEY REFERENCE FOR MORE INFORMATION

- Oxfam (2012) Participatory Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis: A practitioner's guide. Available at: <http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/participatory-capacity-and-vulnerability-analysis-a-practitioners-guide-232411>

TOOL 8

A SEASONAL CALENDAR ON FOOD AND NUTRITION INSECURITY

PURPOSES

- To gain a better understanding on seasonal patterns within the community and its interplay with livelihoods and food & nutrition security;
- To identify periods of stress and seasonal differences between years (i.e. a good, normal and bad year);
- To identify seasonal adaptive and coping strategies.

APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

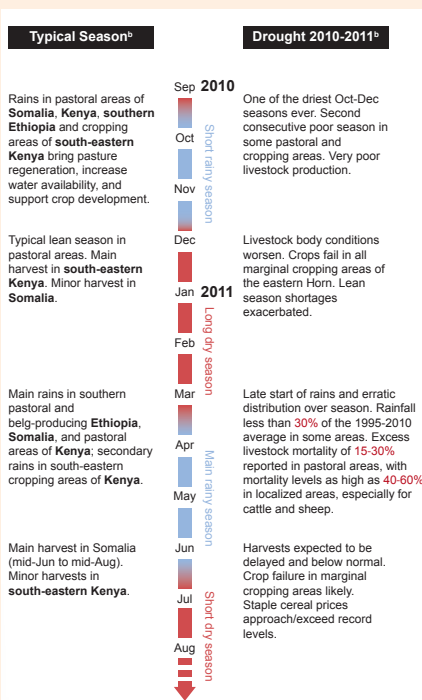
Focus group discussions with a seasonal calendar exercise. FGDs should be conducted with separate groups of men and women.

PROCESS⁷⁶

This activity should take approximately 2 hours including discussions:

1. Use the ground or large sheets of paper. Mark off the months of the year on the horizontal axis.
2. Explain to the participants that you would like to develop a calendar to show key events and activities that occur during the year.
3. Ask people to list seasons, events, conditions, etc., and arrange these along the vertical axis. The list should include information on hunger and undernutrition; agriculture and others livelihood strategies; climate-related & other hazards; etc.
4. When the key events have been listed, plot the timing of them in the table based on agreement among the participants; a tailored template is suggested on the next page.

FLUCTUATING SEASONALITY: ILLUSTRATION WITH THE HORN OF AFRICA 2011



“As of 29 July 2011, food insecurity remains at emergency levels across parts of the Horn of Africa, famine has been declared in two regions of Southern Somalia. Humanitarian organizations are struggling to cope with the influx of Somali refugees in Ethiopia and Kenya. Malnutrition and mortality rates are alarmingly high in many parts of the region.”

In: Reliefweb and UNOCHA (2011) Eastern Africa: Drought - Humanitarian Snapshot (as of 29 Jul 2011); available at: <http://reliefweb.int/node/438043>

5. Discuss with the participants what is a good year, a normal year or a bad year considering key differences and using the seasonal calendar.
6. Discuss with the participants what they do in the event of a good year? A normal year? A bad year?
7. The note taker should note any events for which the group has difficulty deciding on timing.

Notes: (i) WFP has released in 2011 a useful seasonal and hazard calendar, which is available for download at: www.hewsworld.org/hazcal. (ii) Climate change brings changes in seasonality: it is useful to analyse how observed or expected changes relate to the seasonal calendar (e.g. shorter rainy seasons, 'disappearance' of a season, etc.). (iii) The occurrence of 'seasonal surprises' or unusual events at a given time of the year, for which there is no historic precedent, should also be recorded here; caution should be taken when interpreting such unusual event: not all surprises are related to global climate change!

A TAILORED TEMPLATE FOR THE SEASONAL CALENDAR ON FOOD AND NUTRITION INSECURITY

Description of seasonal variations	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Seasonal variations of hunger and undernutrition in the community, considering:												
Hunger												
Acute malnutrition prevalence												
General characteristics of each season:												
Rainy season												
Other relevant climatic factors (wind, temperature,....)												
Types of water sources/water availability												
Road states/ travel issues												
Harvest time (main staple foods)												
Harvest time (fruits and vegetables)												
Milk production/availability												
Staple food market prices												
Terms of trade												
Casual labour opportunities												
Seasonal movements of population												
Seasonal occurrence of climate-related hazards:												
Droughts												
Floods												
Cyclones												
Others hazards (landslides, heavy snow, etc.)												
Seasonal occurrence of others hazards:												
Diarrhoea												
Fever, malaria												
Acute Respiratory Infections												
Crop diseases												
Animal diseases												
Pest (insects) invasions												
Measles/ other epidemic												
Caretakers:												
Busy times/high workload for women												
Busy times/high workload for others caretakers												
Seasonal livelihood activities, considering gender differentiations:												
Agriculture (planting, harvesting) – Men, women												
Livestock – Men, women												
Fishing – Men, women												
Collection of wild products – Men, women												
Casual labour in community or district – Men, women												
Handicraft-making – Men, women												
Waged labour outside community – Men, women												
Waged labour in-communities & around – Men, women												
Miscellaneous:												
Holidays and festivals, weddings, schooling periods...												

In: ACF, 2012. Nutrition multi-sectoral seasonal calendar - Technical sheet



KEY LEARNING AND DISCUSSION

Seasonal patterns and differences between years

- What are normal seasonal patterns, considering hazards, livelihoods, markets, food & nutrition security?
- How does food commodities' availability, prices or terms of trade fluctuate throughout the year?
- What are the key factors that determine if a year will be 'good', 'normal' or 'bad'?
- What are the differences between a normal year and a good year? A normal year and a bad year?
- What are the periods of hardships throughout the year?
- At which specific period(s) of the year are hunger and undernutrition problems the most severe? Why?
- Are seasonal patterns different now than they were 10/20/30 years ago? Explain! For climate-related variables, compare perceived changes in seasons with scientific evidence if available!
- What changes in seasonality do you expect will occur in the future? Explain!

Effects of a bad year or a specific seasonal hardship, including changing seasons

- What is the most damaging seasonal hardship or change in the community?
- What are people' realities and experiences during a bad year? Are men and women or community groups affected differently, and why?
- What are the effects of a bad year or a specific seasonal hardship on livelihood resources and assets? On the supplies and the prices of key products? On food and nutrition security?
- Which livelihood strategies and resources are at greatest risk during a bad year or a seasonal hardship?
- What are the top 5 impacts of a bad year or a seasonal hardship on food & nutrition security?
- What are the effects of a good year on livelihood resources and assets? On specific marketing channels and the supplies of key products? On food and nutrition security?

Adaptive and coping strategies during a 'bad year' or seasonal hardship

- What adaptive and coping strategies are carried out to prevent or address a bad year? A seasonal hardship? Changing seasons?
- What support from formal and informal institutions can people in the community draw on?
- Are the current strategies working? What are their immediate and long-term effects? On livelihoods resources and strategies? On food and nutrition security?
- What are existing barriers and opportunities to resort to specific strategies?
- Have these strategies changed recently and why? Have the changes in seasons induced new strategies?

- Do they expect to change their response strategies in the future, and why?
- How could people enhance their resilience and food & nutrition security to prevent or address a bad year? A seasonal hardship? Changing seasons?

KEY REFERENCES FOR MORE INFORMATION

- **ACF (2012) Nutrition multi-sectoral seasonal calendar - Technical sheet.** Available at: www.actionagainsthunger.org/sites/default/files/publications/ACF_2012_Nutrition_multi-sectoral_seasonal_calendar_Technical_sheet_V_0_2.pdf
- **CARE (2009) Climate Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis Handbook.** Available at: www.careclimatechange.org/cvca/CARE_CVCAHandbook.pdf



TOOL 9

A RAPID INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

PURPOSES

- To understand which community-based and external institutions are most important to communities;
- To evaluate people's access to services - paying particular attention to services related to livelihoods, food and nutrition security, and resilience building (e.g. agriculture and livelihoods support; extension services; WaSH-related services; health and nutrition services; social protection; disaster risk management; climate adaptation, etc.); and
- To analyse the engagement of community members with specific institutions or local planning processes.

APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

Focus group discussions with a Venn diagram exercise on institutions. The Venn diagram exercise could be conducted with separate groups of men and women, or with other separate social groups (e.g. ages, casts, wealth, etc.) to reflect the diversity of perceptions or the differential access to institutions in the community.

PROCESS

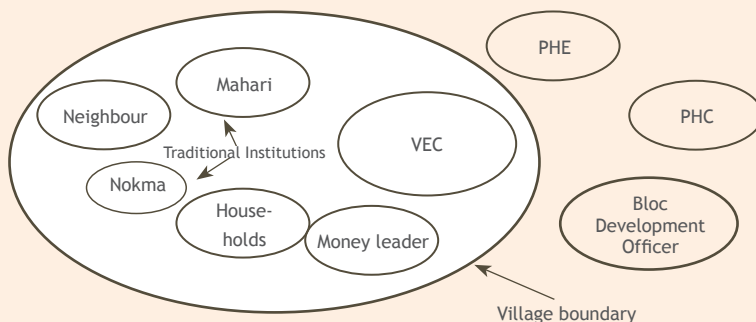
This activity should take approximately 2 hours including discussions. There are a number of different ways to do the Venn Diagram. It can be traced on the ground, but it is especially clear if coloured sticky paper circles are used on a large sheet of flip chart paper. It is helpful to cut out circles in different sizes & colours ahead of time. If people find it difficult to understand this tool, it may be helpful to draw a simple example for them⁷⁷:

1. Start by asking the participants to list the institutions that are found in the community, as well as external institutions, that are most important to them; write down all the institutions that are mentioned and give each institution a symbol which everybody can understand; encourage them to also think about traditional and informal structures and community-based organizations.
2. Ask the participants to discuss in which way they benefit from the different institutions, and how important each institution is for them, and why; the most important ones are then drawn as a big circle, and the less important ones as smaller circles; ask the participants to compare the sizes of the circles and to adjust them so that the sizes of the circles represent the relative importance of the institutions; the name (or symbol) of each organisation should be indicated on each circle.
3. Draw a big circle in the centre of the paper or on the ground that represents the community;

ask community members to show the degree of contact or co-operation between themselves and those institutions by distance between the circles; institutions which they do not have much contact with should be far away from their own big circle; institutions that are in close contact with the participants and with whom they co-operate most, should be inside their own circle.

4. You can repeat the 2 former steps but, this time, considering which institutions are the most important if a specific hazard occurs, and why? Ask the community members what is the level of contact or co-operation between the community and these institutions at the time or after a specific hazard? Consider here the 2-3 most important or damaging hazards (see Tool 7).
5. If several groups of participants were organised, discuss and compare the Venn Diagrams produced by the different groups.

ILLUSTRATION OF A VENN DIAGRAM



Location: Venn diagram conducted in Tura, West Garo Hills of Meghalaya, India

In: ICIMOD (2011) Framework for community-based climate vulnerability and capacity assessment in mountain areas

KEY LEARNING AND DISCUSSION

Community-based and external institutions

- What are the main local institutions existing in the community? What are the main external institutions? What are their roles? What is their leadership, rules and access modalities?
- Which community-based institutions have links with external institutions? At which levels? For what purposes?
- Among all institutions, which ones are particularly important or 'favoured' in the community? Explain!



- Are there institutions from which women or specific social groups are excluded? Which ones? Why? What do they lose due to their lack of participation? –Are there institutions exclusively for women or specific social groups? If so, what is the focus of these groups? What do they gain from them?
- Have services and assistance offered by specific institutions changed recently? Explain!

Access to services

- To which services do community members have access - paying particular attention to services related to livelihoods, food and nutrition security and resilience building? Consider as well social protection - including informal safety nets and solidarity mechanisms!
- Does any institutions offer support in times of severe food or nutrition crises?
- Does any institution hindering the capacities of specific vulnerable groups to enhance their resilience and food & nutrition security? Explain!
- What are community-based and external institutions' capacities in addressing hunger and undernutrition? In preparing for and facing specific hazards? In enhancing resilience?
- What are the main gaps and opportunities to enhancing resilience and food & nutrition security?

Engagement with specific institutions and local planning processes

- How do the community or its members cooperate with the most important institutions? What about information-sharing? Planning? Joint implementation?
- How could some institutions better contribute to resilience building and food & nutrition security in the community? Focus here on the most important institutions or the most damaging hazards!

KEY REFERENCES FOR MORE INFORMATION

- FAO (2001) Field Level Handbook, Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) Programme. Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/012/ak214e/ak214e00.pdf
- CARE (2009) Climate Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis Handbook. Available at: www.careclimatechange.org/cvca/CARE_CVCAHandbook.pdf

TOOL 10 – A RAPID VULNERABILITY ANALYSIS

PURPOSES

- To understand how the community perceives food and nutrition security and vulnerability;
- To understand which groups of households suffer the most from hunger and undernutrition, and why; and
- To understand which population groups in the community are the most vulnerable to specific hazards and why; ‘population groups’ can vary according to sex, age, livelihood group, wealth, cast, etc.

APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

Focus group discussions with a rapid vulnerability analysis exercise. The exercise should be conducted with key informants who know the area and the people very well. The exercise may be done in separate groups of men and women.

PROCESS

This activity should take approximately 2 hours including discussions:

1. Start by asking the participants to explain why some households in the community are suffering from hunger and undernutrition why others don't; ask the participants to define 3 or 4 groups of households based on their food and nutrition (in)security status; ask them to identify some criteria to characterise each defined food and nutrition security group.
2. Using a proportional piling exercise, ask the participants to estimate the proportion of households from the community in each food and nutrition security category.
3. Ask participants to identify the most important hazards in the community - i.e. those that have the greatest impact on their lives, livelihoods and food and nutrition security, using an ad-hoc ranking technique; refer to the Tool 7
4. Ask which groups of people or households are suffering the most in face of the first most important hazards, and why; ask why these groups are little resilient in face of a specific hazard.
5. Ask the participants what are the effects of this specific hazard on the food and nutrition security groups defined above; ask them to explain the adaptive and coping strategies carried out by each food and nutrition security group.
6. The two former steps can be repeated considering a second, third damaging hazard; etc. A food & nutrition security and vulnerability matrix can be progressively developed considering all the information shared by participants; see an illustration on the next page!

FOOD & NUTRITION SECURITY AND VULNERABILITY MATRIX

Description	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Food & nutrition security groups in the community				
Estimated proportion of HH in the community (in %)				
General criteria				
Type of housing				
Demographic composition, etc.				
Criteria related to livelihood resources and strategies (defined by community members)				
Main livelihood strategies				
Access to land				
Type and number of livestock				
Casual labour and migration				
Access to credit, etc.				
Criteria related to food and nutrition security (defined by community members)				
Children in the HH regularly suffering from acute malnutrition				
Months of hunger in the household				
Access to safe drinking water				
Access to health services				
Access to social protection schemes				
Adaptive and coping strategies in face of hunger and undernutrition, etc.				
Vulnerability to the hazard 1: ...				
Overall vulnerability in face of this hazard				
Exposure and sensitivity to this specific hazard				
Adaptive and coping strategies in face of this hazard				
Vulnerability to the hazard n: ...				
Overall vulnerability in face of this hazard				
Exposure and sensitivity to this specific hazard				
Adaptive and coping strategies in face of this hazard				

KEY LEARNING AND DISCUSSION

Food and nutrition security groups

- Who are the most vulnerable households to hunger undernutrition, and why?
- Which criteria can be used to distinguish food and nutrition (in)security groups in the community?
- What is the proportion of households from the community in the different categories defined?

Vulnerability to specific hazards

- What are the hazards that have the greatest impact in the community?
- Which population groups are the most vulnerable to specific hazards and why?
- What are the underlying factors that hinder the resilience of the most vulnerable groups?

Food and nutrition security groups and vulnerability to specific hazards

- What are the effects of specific hazards on different food and nutrition security groups?
- Which adaptive and coping strategies carried out by each food and nutrition security group?
- What are short- & long-term effects of these strategies?
- What measures could enhance resilience and food & nutrition security for different food and nutrition security groups?



TOOL 11

A PROBLEM AND SOLUTION RANKING

PURPOSES

- To learn about people's understanding of the causes of their problems as well as the effects resulting from their problems, and to identify priority problems according to various population groups;
- To identify potential priority solutions according to various population groups.

APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

Focus group discussions with a flow diagram and a ranking exercise. The flow diagram deepens the analysis of the main problems in the community by revealing how problems, cause, effect and solutions are linked. The exercise could be conducted with separate population groups (e.g. based on sex, age, food and nutrition security status; see Tool 10) to highlight differential perceptions and priorities.

PROCESS⁷⁸

This activity should take approximately 3-4 hours; it could be split it into 2 sessions:

1. Form groups of 4-6 participants, at least one of which is comprised solely of women; ask each group to list the main problems they face at present; write down all the problems that are mentioned and give each problem a symbol which everybody can understand; encourage them to think throughout the year.
2. Ask the participants to rank these problems. This can be done using a simple proportional piling exercise using beans or stones, a radar exercise (see Tool 7) or a pairwise ranking matrix (see below).
3. Take only one priority problem at a time; put the name (or symbol) of the problem in the centre of the flip chart paper and draw a circle around it; first, ask about the causes of the problem; as each cause is named write it on a separate card; discuss and probe until there are no more causes identified; ask the participants which causes are related to one another; ask assistance from participants in placing the causes cards on the flip chart in correct relationship to the problem; when everyone agrees on their placement draw arrows from the causes to the problem. Caution: it is important to make sure that everyone understands the difference between causes, effects and solutions.

EXAMPLE OF A PAIR WISE RANKING EXERCISE, KENYA

Problems	Climate	Pests	Weeds	Costs of Inputs	Lack of Land	Lack of Irrigation	Lack of Tech. K.
Climate		Climate	Climate	Costs of Inputs	Climate	Climate	Climate
Pests			Pests	Cost of Inputs	Lack of Land	Lack of Irrigation	Pests
Weeds				Cost of Inputs	Lack of Land	Lack of Irrigation	Weeds
Costs of Inputs					Cost of Inputs	Cost of Inputs	Cost of Inputs
Lack of Land						Lack of Land	Lack of Land
Lack of Irrigation							Lack of Irrigation
Lack of Tech. K.							

Write a set of important problems onto separate cards. Present a pair of cards (showing 2 different problems) to the group. Ask them to choose the more important one. Record their choice on a prepared matrix (see below). Ask them also to explain the reasons for their choice. Repeat until all combinations of cards have been presented and decided upon. Looking at the completed matrix, count up the number of times each problem was selected and rank them. In: FAO (2001) Field Level Handbook, Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) Programme.

Problems	Number of Times Preferred	Rank
Climate	5.....	2
Pests	2.....	5
Weeds	1.....	6
Costs of Inputs	6.....	1
Lack of Land	4.....	3
Lack of Irrigation	3.....	4
Lack of Technical Knowledge	0.....	7

In: National Environmental Secretariat, Government of Kenya, in: FAO, 2001

- Second, ask about the effects that result from the problem; as each effect is named write it on a separate card; discuss and probe until there are no more effects identified; ask assistance from participants in placing the effects cards on the flip chart in the correct places; when everyone agrees on their placement draw arrows to and from the effects and problem.
- Third, ask about solutions; as each solution is named, write it on a separate card; discuss and probe until there are no more solutions identified; ask assistance from participants in placing the solutions cards on the flip chart in the correct places; when everyone agrees on their placement draw double lines between the solutions and the problem; encourage them to be creative and to think about adaptive and coping strategies that are already successfully implemented in the community or in neighbouring communities.
- Ask the participants to rank these solutions. This can be done using a simple proportional piling exercise, a radar exercise or a pairwise ranking matrix.
- Repeat for the other 2 priority problems of each group.

Note: The notion of 'climate-related hazards' or 'climate change' should not be mentioned during the problem ranking exercise, as this might clearly bias the answers!



KEY LEARNING AND DISCUSSION

Problems ranking

- What are the priority problems, according to men, women and other groups in the community?
- Do these problems differ from the ones they were facing 10/20 years ago, or from the ones that their parents were facing? In what way? What do you think the reasons are for these changes?
- -Are these priority problems related to one another?
- How do these problems differ from one group to another, and why? Which problems are shared by all groups? Which problems are shared by both men and women?
- What are the main causes of these problems? How do they relate to climate-related hazards?
- What are the main effects of each specific problem on food & nutrition security?

Solutions ranking

- What are the solutions proposed by various population groups? Are there problems for which no solutions were identified?
- How could existing coping and adaptive strategies be strengthened to overcome these difficulties?
- Is there any successful solutions or innovations already implemented in the community? Are there other successful strategies implemented elsewhere that could be replicated?
- What are the priority solutions, according to specific population groups? Which ones are related to climate resilience, food and nutrition security?
- What conditions are essential for these priority solutions to be successful? What are the barriers to implement these solutions?
- How do these solutions differ from one group to another, and why? Which solutions are shared by all groups? Which problems are shared by both men and women?
- Can these priority solutions be implemented by the community or do they require external assistance?
- What do they think about the external assistance that has already happened in their community (if any)? Which ones worked and which ones did not? Why?

KEY REFERENCE FOR MORE INFORMATION

- FAO (2001) Field Level Handbook, Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) Programme. Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/012/ak214e/ak214e00.pdf

TOOL 12

ORAL TESTIMONIES

The purpose is here to illustrate local realities through testimonies from diverse narrators - women, children, men from a range of ages, social backgrounds and representing the diversity of visited areas. Oral testimonies are the result of free ranging open ended interviews around a series of subjects, drawing on direct personal memory and experience; people interviewed are encouraged to reflect upon events they describe and to give their views and opinions. They offer clues as to how people interpret events and what their priorities and values are, and enable us to gain a greater understanding of what people believe to be important and true, and why. Anecdotal evidence is at the heart of oral testimonies. They are subjective and may feature unverifiable facts, but recognising what people believe to be true is crucial to understanding their values and priorities. Perceptions are as important as facts, and oral testimony collection provides a way of understanding these perceptions and their influence on people's thinking.⁷⁹

KEY SUBJECTS FOR ORAL TESTIMONIES

- Who is the respondent (e.g. name, age and situation)?
- What are his/her experiences and those of his/her family regarding hunger and undernutrition?
- What are his/ her experiences and those of his/her family regarding shocks, stresses and their effects?
- How did he/she and his/her family adapt to and cope with specific shocks and stresses?
- What support did he/she and his/her family draw on in face of climate-related shocks and stresses?
- What are his/her ideas for solutions for greater resilience and food and nutrition security in his/her family? In the community?

It is important noting that open questions do not assume answers or direct the narrator in any way at all. In others terms, the oral testimony is about what the respondent is willing to share, about his/her personal history and experiences; the interviewer should minimize any of its 'influence' in the exchanges. Prompts may also be used to probe for more information, e.g. can you explain more about this? Can you describe how this affected your household? Last, it is essential to transcript exactly what the respondent expressed: the use of a recorder is recommended!



AN ORAL TESTIMONY FROM A YOUNG BOY IN THE CHARs, BANGLADESH

Respondent: Young boy of 10 years old; he lives with his mother, one sister and three brothers, and he's the eldest of the brothers • Location: Gobordhon Char, Mohishkucha, Bangladesh • Date: 3rd March 2011 • Situation: During the time of the interview, he was on his way to Dhaka, in order to find work.

“What other choice do I have? There's no food here. My dad has gone off to Comilla for work. We're very poor. My parents have borrowed money and they need to repay the loans. I even used to work while I was at school. My cousin will be taking me to Dhaka with him. He works in the garments sector. I'll be working alongside him. I'll receive training in sharki sewing. I don't know the name of the place where I'll be staying in Dhaka.

I really liked going to school. But I will not be going to school in Dhaka. Or else there will be no rice. I want to study but who will take care of it for me? You need so many things to study such as books, clothes, etc. How can one just get educated? If I study, I can't work. My mother doesn't work.

I've never been to Dhaka. I've never even been outside Lalmonirhat. Of course I feel scared. Hopefully I'll get to return four months later. I will miss my mother the most. I totally understand why I'm being sent. My bus leaves at night. I have a long way to go.”

It is important noting that open questions do not assume answers or direct the narrator in any way at all. In others terms, the oral testimony is about what the respondent is willing to share, about his/her personal history and experiences; the interviewer should minimize any of its 'influence' in the exchanges. Prompts may also be used to probe for more information, e.g. can you explain more about this? Can you describe how this affected your household? Last, it is essential to transcript exactly what the respondent expressed: the use of a recorder is recommended!



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ACF-INTERNATIONAL

CANADA

1150, boulevard St-Joseph est
Bureau 306, Montréal, QC, H2J 1L5, Canada
E-mail: info@actioncontrelafaim.ca
Tel: +514 279-4876
Fax: +514 279-5136
Web: www.actioncontrelafaim.ca

FRANCE

14/16 Boulevard Douaumont - CS 80060
75854 Paris Cedex 17
E-mail: info@actioncontrelafaim.org
Tel: +33 (0) 1 70 84 70 70
Fax: +3 (0) 1 70 84 70 71
Web: www.actioncontrelafaim.org

SPAIN

C/ Duque de Sevilla, 3
28002 Madrid, España
E-mail: ach@achesp.org
Tel: +34 91 391 53 00
Fax: +34 91 391 53 01
Web: www.accioncontraelhambre.org

UNITED KINGDOM

First Floor, rear premises,
161-163 Greenwich High Road
London, SE10 8JA, UK
E-mail: info@aahuk.org
Tel: +44 208 293 6190
Fax: +44 208 858 8372
Web: www.aahuk.org

UNITED STATES of AMERICA

247 West 37th Street, 10th Floor
New York, NY 10018, USA
E-mail: info@actionagainsthunger.org
Tel: +1 212 967 7800
Toll free: +1 877 777 1420
Fax: +1 212 967 5480
Web: www.actionagainsthunger.org

