

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA)
for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods:
A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



World Food Programme

Acknowledgements:

This current version 2.0 of the FFA Guidance Manual has been developed by the Asset Creation & Livelihoods Unit (OSZPR)¹ of the Policy and Programme Division (OSZ), made possible by the generous contribution and support from USAID's Food For Peace Programme, and other donors - BMZ, Denmark, DFID and Norway - to whom a heartfelt thank you is extended.

Consolidating practical and technical contributions from field staff in our WFP sub- and country offices, their Government Ministries and Extension Service counterparts, UN, organizations such as GIZ, the World Bank and NGO colleagues, and especially from the resourcefulness and hard work of countless community members and of local innovators, this guidance comes from the field, for the field.

It has also greatly benefited from precious inputs from our programme staff in the Regional Bureaus, key technical Units and Divisions in WFP HQ, and our global partners who have been instrumental in shaping this guidance. OSZPR is also grateful to our external evaluators who provided deep insights and recommendations as to what is required to ensure that FFA will have long-term lasting positive impacts on strengthening livelihoods and building resilience to the shocks and stressors faced by the most vulnerable and food insecure communities in the world, and to whom FFA can be an appropriate means to assist them in escaping a cycle of poverty – all of which have been incorporated into and reflected throughout this guidance.

Building on the previous FFA manual, this version has been updated to address the findings and recommendations of WFP's external Evaluations on the impact of FFA, includes good practices and lessons learned from Regional Bureaux and Country Offices' experiences, and new sections on crosscutting thematic areas such as protection, gender, nutrition, and accountability to affected populations (AAP), amongst others. The manual will be further updated based on WFP's new Integrated Road Map and 2017 – 2021 WFP Strategic Plan.

Publication date: July 2016

¹ Volli Carucci, Scott Ronchini, Jean-Noel Gentile, Raffaella Policastro, Philippe Crahay, Monika Primozic, Damien Vaquier, Ricardo Gonzalez, Johanna Gardesten and Silvia Mariangeloni.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|-----------|
| CHAPTER 1 - USING FFA: THE BIGGER PICTURE | 8 |
| 1. INTRODUCTION TO FOOD ASSISTANCE FOR ASSETS (FFA) | 9 |
| 1.1. Background to FFA | 9 |
| 1.2. What is the purpose of FFA? | 13 |
| 1.3. What is different in FFA? | 15 |
| 1.4. FFA and Employment, the Decent Work Agenda, and Public and other Works | 18 |
| 1.5. Food Assistance for Assets: Five keys to success | 20 |
| 1.6. Three Principles Guiding FFA | 20 |
| 2. FFA'S CONTRIBUTION TO ELIMINATING WORLD HUNGER | 21 |
| 2.1. The Vision: Zero Hunger | 21 |
| 2.2. The Resilience Agenda..... | 26 |
| 2.3. FFA within WFP's Operations | 30 |
| CHAPTER 2 – UNDERSTANDING THE CONTEXT AND USING THE 3PA | 31 |
| 1. OPERATIONAL POSITIONING OF FFA WITHIN THE COUNTRY CONTEXT | 32 |
| 1.1. Key elements to consider for FFA Programmes | 32 |
| 1.2. Understanding Country Contexts | 33 |
| 2. TOOLS TO UNDERSTANDING THE CONTEXT FOR FFA | 36 |
| 2.1. The Programme Design Framework and FFA..... | 36 |
| 3. USING THE THREE-PRONGED APPROACH (3PA) TO OPERATIONALIZE FFA | 37 |
| 3.1. Using the Integrated Context Analysis (ICA) for FFA | 40 |
| 3.2. Using Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) for FFA | 49 |
| 3.3. Using Community-based Participatory Planning (CBPP) for FFA | 70 |
| CHAPTER 3 - PLANNING FFA..... | 76 |
| 1. PARTICIPATORY PLANNING FOR FFA | 77 |
| 1.1. Relevance of Participatory Planning for FFA | 77 |
| 1.2. Basic features of Participatory Planning | 78 |
| 1.3. Capacities for Participatory Planning and FFA..... | 81 |
| 1.4. What Participatory Planning tools to use? | 82 |
| 2. COMMUNITY-BASED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING (CBPP) | 85 |
| 2.1. Aims of the CBPP | 85 |
| 2.2. Core Principles of the CBPP..... | 86 |
| 2.3. Timing requirements to do CBPP | 87 |
| 2.4. Roles and responsibilities for CBPP..... | 88 |
| 2.5. What Steps should a CBPP include?..... | 91 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 2.6. Managing expectations | 92 |
| 2.7. CBPP and links to other approaches | 93 |
| 3.1. Landscapes and Watersheds | 95 |
| 3.2. Targeting and technical logic | 97 |
| 3.3. Coverage and technical coherence of CBPP and FFA..... | 101 |
| 3.4. Community vs Private land and assets | 104 |
| 3.5. Incentives, Self-Help, and Community Mobilization..... | 106 |
| 3.6. The Decent Work Agenda (DWA) | 108 |
| 4. CROSSCUTTING ASPECTS IN PLANNING AND FFA..... | 110 |
| 4.1. Gender..... | 110 |
| 4.2. Tenure | 112 |
| 4.3. Protection - reference to conflict and transition | 116 |
| 4.4. Environment..... | 118 |
| 5. STRENGTHENING THE NUTRITION FOCUS OF FFA..... | 122 |
| 5.1. Consider nutrition at the planning stage (CBPP) | 123 |
| 5.2. FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition..... | 123 |
| 5.3. Create/rehabilitate assets that contribute to nutrition | 125 |
| 5.4. Integrate FFA with nutrition-specific training | 126 |
| 5.5. Layer/integrate FFA with other nutrition programmes | 126 |
| 6. COMMUNITY-BASED PLANNING: PASTORALISTS AND URBAN..... | 128 |
| 6.1. Planning in Pastoral contexts..... | 128 |
| 6.2. Approaching Pastoral Community-Based Planning | 129 |
| 6.3. Steps to take in planning within pastoral contexts..... | 129 |
| 6.4. Summary of planning aspects to be considered | 135 |
| 6.5. Planning in Urban contexts | 135 |
| 7. PLANNING AND SELECTING FFA INTERVENTIONS | 136 |
| 7.1. Type of Interventions | 136 |
| 7.2. Selection of FFA interventions | 137 |
| 7.3. Planning FFA with engineering requirements..... | 139 |
| 7.4. Maintenance and Management of Assets | 141 |
| CHAPTER 4 - IMPLEMENTING FFA..... | 142 |
| PREAMBLE..... | 143 |
| 1. TECHNICAL DESIGN OF FFA IN ARID/SEMI-ARID AREAS | 151 |
| 1.1. Recognizing Key Biophysical and Climatic Features..... | 151 |
| 1.2. Technical strategies for FFA in arid and semi-arid areas..... | 152 |
| 1.3. Technical considerations of FFA in Pastoral Areas | 166 |
| 2. TECHNICAL DESIGN OF FFA IN TROPICAL, SUB-TROPICAL AND WET & MOIST HIGHLAND AREAS | 189 |
| 2.1. Introduction | 189 |
| 2.2. Recognizing Key Biophysical and Climatic Features | 189 |
| 2.3. Technical strategies for FFA in Tropical/Sub-Tropical Areas..... | 191 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 3. TECHNICAL DESIGN OF FFA IN FLOOD PRONE AREAS | 205 |
| 3.1. Introduction | 205 |
| 3.2. Recognizing Key Biophysical and Climatic Features..... | 205 |
| 3.3. Technical Strategies for Flood Control | 207 |
| 4. TECHNICAL DESIGN OF FFA FOR COMMUNITY INFRASTRUCTURE | 217 |
| 4.1. Introduction | 217 |
| 4.2. Key biophysical features and climatic conditions | 217 |
| 4.3. Technical strategies for community infrastructure | 217 |
| 5. OTHER FFA INTERVENTIONS (COMPLEMENTARY MEASURES) | 225 |
| 5.1. Forestry and Agroforestry..... | 225 |
| 5.2. Collection, conservation and sustainable use of local varieties of tree, fodder and food crops' seeds | 228 |
| 5.3. Gully Control Measures | 231 |
| 5.4. Cereal Banks | 233 |
| 5.5. Construction of Fuel Efficient Stoves..... | 233 |
| 5.6. Fish Farming and Aquaculture | 234 |
| 5.7. Stabilization of coastal sand dunes | 236 |
| 5.8. Removal of Silt, Mud and Debris | 237 |
| 5.9. Stone Collection and Stone Shaping | 240 |
| 5.10. FFA for Skills Enhancement | 241 |
| 6. FFA ACTIVITIES - A GENDER PERSPECTIVE | 243 |
| 7. A NOTE ON TYPE OF FFA INTERVENTIONS IN EMERGENCIES | 252 |
| 8. COMPLEMENTARY MEASURES (PARTNERS/COMMUNITIES) | 253 |
| CHAPTER 5 - FFA IN URBAN AND DISPLACEMENT SETTINGS | 259 |
| CONTEXTUALIZATION | 260 |
| 1. PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING FFA IN URBAN SETTINGS | 261 |
| 1.1. General considerations | 261 |
| 1.2. Understanding the urban context | 268 |
| 2. PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING FFA IN DISPLACEMENT SETTINGS | 276 |
| 2.1. Overall context..... | 276 |
| 2.2. WFP's work and the potential role for FFA | 278 |
| 2.3. Preconditions to implementing FFA | 281 |
| 2.4. Planning considerations of FFA for refugees/IDPs | 282 |
| 2.5. Typology of displacement settings for FFA purposes | 286 |
| CHAPTER 6 – TRANSFERS, WORK NORMS, BUDGET, AND SOPS | 288 |
| 1. TIMING OF FFA INTERVENTIONS..... | 289 |
| 1.1. Multi-year plans that consider typical and bad years | 289 |
| 1.2. Seasonality and phased interventions | 289 |
| 1.3. Other daily priorities of targeted households..... | 290 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 2. FFA TRANSFER MODALITY AND VALUE | 291 |
| 2.1. Pathway to selecting the transfer modality and value..... | 291 |
| 2.2. Defining and standardizing the food and nutrient gap | 292 |
| 2.3. Confirming the FFA transfer modality | 293 |
| 2.4. Determining the FFA transfer value..... | 294 |
| 2.5. Determining the number of working days for FFA..... | 295 |
| 2.6. Determining the number of FFA man-days | 296 |
| 3. PRODUCTIVITY WORK NORMS..... | 297 |
| 3.2. Inclusive and Integrated productivity work norms | 297 |
| 3.3. Planning the work: correct work norms are important | 298 |
| 3.4. How to establish work norms? | 298 |
| 3.5. Work norms in supervision and monitoring..... | 301 |
| 3.6. Work norms and the need for clarity and transparency | 302 |
| 4. FFA BUDGET PLANNING..... | 303 |
| 4.1. Cost components | 303 |
| 4.2. Context, objective and intervention-specific budget plan..... | 305 |
| 4.3. Tools, Construction Materials and Equipment..... | 308 |
| 4.4. Items for Technical Surveys, Planning, and M&E..... | 310 |
| 4.5. Other planning and implementation costs | 313 |
| 4.6. Capacity Development costs | 314 |
| 5. FFA STANDARD OPERATING PROCEDURES (SOP) OR COUNTRY OFFICE FFA OPERATIONAL GUIDELINES | 315 |
| CHAPTER 7 – MONITORING, EVALUATION, AND REVIEW | 316 |
| 1. FFA THEORY OF CHANGE (TOC) | 317 |
| 2. MONITORING OF FFA ACTIVITIES | 317 |
| 2.1. Corporate Monitoring Guidance | 318 |
| 2.2. 2014-2017 Strategic Results Framework | 318 |
| 2.3. Defining the Objectives, Outcomes and related Indicators and Targets of FFA Programmes including Data collection and Quality check methodologies | 319 |
| 2.4. Trend analysis to measure the contribution of SO3 FFA programmes to building long-term resilience..... | 333 |
| 3. EVALUATION AND REVIEW OF FFA ACTIVITIES | 335 |
| 3.1. Evaluation..... | 335 |
| 3.2. Review | 335 |
| 3.3. Decentralised Evaluations versus Reviews..... | 335 |
| 3.4. Lessons learned from past FFA Evaluations in WFP | 336 |
| CHAPTER 8 – CORPORATE REPORTING AND PROJECT DOCUMENT REVIEW | 339 |
| 1. STANDARD PROJECT REPORT (SPR) | 340 |
| 1.1. What is the SPR and why do we do it? | 340 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 1.2. Tips for SPR focal points and reviewers (for FFA) | 340 |
| 2. FFA PROJECT DOCUMENT REVIEW | 347 |
| 2.1. Project and Country Strategy review process | 347 |
| 2.2. e-PRP: OSZPR tips for reviewers | 347 |
| CHAPTER 9 – KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND ADVOCACY | 350 |
| 1. KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT..... | 351 |
| 1.1. What is knowledge management?..... | 351 |
| 1.2. Good practices | 352 |
| 1.3. Lessons learned..... | 356 |
| 1.4. Sharing good practices and lessons learned..... | 357 |
| 1.5. South-South and Triangular cooperation | 358 |
| 1.6. Linking Successful Projects to Research Institutes | 358 |
| 2. ADVOCACY | 361 |
| 2.1. What is Advocacy? | 361 |
| 2.2. Advocacy tools | 362 |
| 2.3. Communication products..... | 363 |
| CHAPTER 10 – CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT FOR FFA | 367 |
| 1. PRINCIPLES FOR CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT IN FFA | 368 |
| 2. MAIN AREAS FOR CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT FOR FFA | 369 |
| 2.1. Strengthening community level institutions and groups | 369 |
| 2.2. Strengthening programmatic and technical guidance | 378 |
| 2.3. Strengthening programmatic and technical skills | 381 |
| 2.4. Strengthening linkages with Academia and Research | 384 |
| 2.5. Strengthening capacity with South-South Co-operation | 386 |
| 2.6. Strengthening FFA integration in strategies and policies | 386 |
| GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS | 390 |
| ACRONYMS | 390 |
| LIST OF TABLES | 390 |
| LIST OF FIGURES | 390 |

Chapter 1

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Using FFA: The Bigger Picture



World Food Programme

wfp.org

1. INTRODUCTION TO FOOD ASSISTANCE FOR ASSETS (FFA)

1.1. Background to FFA

1.1.1. Explaining Food Assistance for Assets (FFA)

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) using food or cash-based transfers is one of the key activities – or ways – in which WFP delivers food assistance. The shift to FFA away from the previous Food/Cash for Work (FFW/CFW) approach reflects WFP's drive towards food assistance rather than food aid, and a focus on assets and their impact on people and communities rather than on the conditionality (i.e. the labour) placed on beneficiaries so that food assistance is not provided as a free hand-out.

As such, FFA has two core functions:

- (i) To provide a direct food or cash-based transfers to meet the consumption gap of the most vulnerable (i.e. short-term access to food);

and simultaneously –

- (ii) Build household and community assets that reduce the risk of disaster, strengthen livelihoods and build resilience over time (outcome and impact levels).

FFA's key focus is thus on building or recovering assets that impact positively on food security, is targeted in the most food insecure geographical areas, and to those vulnerable households in need of WFP assistance. It is on this overarching framework that FFA rationales are based.

The shift from FFW/CFW to FFA is more than a change in name or terminology however – it is a new, technically different approach in terms of:

- **Planning:** by putting communities and their needs at the centre of planning processes, and ensuring that FFA is aligned and sequenced with livelihood activities and the programmes of other partners and stakeholders;
- **Applying crosscutting lenses:** such as gender equality and women empowerment, protection, nutrition etc. in the planning, design, and implementation of FFA for additional benefits and impacts;
- **Design:** ensuring high quality standards are applied to asset building to achieve the intended impacts on livelihoods, food security and nutrition.

FFA is now the programme related to the building of tangible natural and physical assets of food insecure and vulnerable households and communities, using their own labour, to promote their self-reliance, strengthen their livelihoods, and build their resilience to shocks and stressors.

To be considered FFA, previous programmes whose focus was on conditionality of labour rather than the asset to be created will require this shift in approach. This relates to those programmes previously defined as Food/Cash for Work (FFW/CFW), FFW/CFW light/soft, Food for Recovery etc. where they did not relate to the building and rehabilitating of tangible natural and physical assets.

Once programmes have made the shift to the FFA approach, **Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) is the correct terminology to be used, superseding all previous or other terms**, and should be used in all operations to avoid confusion and wrong perceptions about the activity.

Exceptions to using labour-based activities outside of the FFA approach will be country-specific, and related to a governments' own programme, policy, and strategy frameworks - for example when using labour as a conditionality for Public Works in Productive Safety Nets and Social Protection.

Where WFP is part of such programmes, it should aim to influence the approach towards one where there is a focus on the asset (and access to the asset) by the targeted beneficiaries to promote self-reliance, strengthen livelihoods, and build resilience to shocks and stressors as intended by FFA, and not a focus on labour as a means to provide a transfer, as an employment scheme, or to work on assets that may have no direct use or benefit to the beneficiaries involved. **Note** that whilst within WFP such a programme is classified as FFA for budgeting and reporting purposes, project document narratives should indicate this is FFA for Public Works.

1.1.2. What is meant by 'assets' for FFA

The [WFP Mission Statement](#)² (1994) states that the core policies and strategies that govern WFP activities are to provide food aid:

- **to save lives** in refugee and other emergency situations;
- **to improve the nutrition and quality of life** of the most vulnerable people at critical times in their lives; and
- **to help build assets and promote the self-reliance of poor people and communities**, particularly through labour-intensive works programmes.

The main focus of WFP's FFA programmes is on the third case – assisting the most vulnerable and food insecure households and communities to use their labour **to build the assets and infrastructure necessary** for sustained self-reliance and resilience in the face of increased shocks, risks and stressors – and wherever possible and depending on context, also contribute to the first two cases through the food and/or cash-based transfer provided and the assets built. Yet before embarking on FFA, it is necessary to understand what is meant by 'assets' in FFA.

Definition: Assets are a component of what makes up people's livelihoods. WFP's [Policy on Food Aid and Livelihoods in Emergencies](#)³ considers the DFID working definition of livelihoods:

"A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets, and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base."

The policy also considers the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) as an analysis tool that views livelihoods as systems based on: (i) the assets people draw upon; (ii) the strategies they develop to make a living; (iii) the context within which a livelihood is developed; and (iv) those factors that make a livelihood more or less vulnerable to shocks and stresses.

The SLF considers livelihood assets to be **(i) tangible**, such as food stores and cash savings, as well as trees, land, livestock, tools, and other resources; or **(ii) intangible**, such as claims one can make for food, work, and assistance as well as access to materials, information, education, health services and employment opportunities.

² WFP. 1994. Mission statement. Available at: <http://www.wfp.org/about/mission-statement>

³ WFP. 2003. Policy on Food Aid and Livelihoods in Emergencies: Strategies for WFP. Available at: <http://www.wfp.org/content/food-aid-and-livelihoods-emergencies-strategies-wfp>

Assets that people draw upon to make a living are categorized into the following five capitals:

1. **Human capital:** Skills, knowledge, health and ability to work
2. **Social capital:** Social resources, including informal networks, membership of formalized groups and relationships of trust that facilitate cooperation and economic opportunities
3. **Natural capital:** Natural resources such as land, soil, water, forests and fisheries
4. **Physical capital:** Basic infrastructure, such as roads, water & sanitation, schools, ICT; and producer goods, including tools, livestock and equipment
5. **Financial capital:** Financial resources including savings, credit, and income from employment, trade and remittances

1.1.3. What 'assets' are included in FFA?

Whilst all five capitals are livelihood assets, in line with the Mission Statement:

'FFA as a programme will focus on building 'tangible' (natural and physical) assets, that can be measured and built or rehabilitated using people's own labour; and includes ...

... any 'intangible' assets (i.e. any training on the building, management, maintenance, and use of these assets to increase food production where relevant) directly associated to the assets that have been built.'

Tangible assets in FFA:

- are defined as and include all natural assets related to landscapes (water, trees, soils, irrigation canals, fuel efficient stoves etc.) for Soil and Water Conservation (SWC), land and Natural Resource Management (NRM); physical assets that improve access to food or markets and essential basic services to support lives and livelihoods (such as community access roads, trails, bridges etc.) and community infrastructure such as latrines, schools, grain stores etc.

Intangible assets for FFA:

- include trainings related to the creation, management, and maintenance of assets, including the development of the committees and associations required to manage these assets – **these trainings will also be considered as FFA and not Food for Training (FFT), as they are implemented simultaneously** (i.e. training is provided during the creation of the assets).

What FFA does NOT include is training for value chain development and financial capital (including marketing, income generation, handicraft making, savings, etc.) that can arise from the assets created through FFA, or any other training/income generation activity not related to a (natural and physical) asset created through FFA. Such trainings are regarded as FFT, and are likely to require specific and specialized partnerships.

Note that any training related to agriculture (e.g. dry season cultivation) and animal husbandry are strongly related to FAO activities and mandate, and WFP involvement in such efforts will not be clear (unless through an agreed-upon partnership with FAO). **Chapter 4: Section 5.10 on 'FFA for Skills Enhancement'** contains further information in this regard on FFT.

Capacity Development for FFA, provided to government, local communities, and partners where needed and relevant, is another aspect of FFA. This entails transferring the skills and building the capacity of local and national governments, and implementing partners on the FFA approach to planning, design, implementation, and all other aspects related to the activity, including the development of local and context-specific guidance on work norms, good practices, and integration of FFA in specific country strategies.

Depending on the WFP country strategy and programme portfolio, capacity development for FFA can either be (i) included within and as part of an FFA programme, or (ii) as a separate and distinct FFA activity that specifically targets government and partners.

1.1.4. Note on FFT

At times, distinguishing between what constitutes FFA and FFT can be a challenge, especially when it relates to developing and strengthening the other three livelihood assets - Human, Social, and Financial capitals – through training and skills development.

What is regarded as FFA, including associated trainings, has been defined earlier. Yet there are other activities that build both tangible and intangible assets - for example those related to building cash reserves and savings (tangible assets) or the skills to generate income (intangible) - that in specific contexts such as urban settings and/or with specific partners implementing vocational skills development can be undertaken by WFP. These will not fall under the scope of and be regarded as part of WFP's FFA programming however, but as specific FFT activities done by other WFP technical divisions or units, or as FFT programmes done directly with other partners.

Some of these activities are clearly positioned in other WFP programmatic sectors, for example (i) HIV/AIDS and food processing/utilization trainings under the guidance of Nutrition to build Human capital; (ii) the establishment of farmer's cooperatives for improved linkages to markets through Purchase for Progress (P4P) to build Social capital; and (iii) the establishment and management of savings and credit through the R4 initiative to build Financial capital. Such activities are regarded as FFT and will be technically guided by the relevant WFP divisions/units - and are not FFA.

Activities, including training and skills development for income generation to build Human, Social, and Financial capitals that are not directly related to natural and physical assets built through FFA, are also regarded as FFT. This is particularly relevant in urban settings, where income-based livelihoods are far more diverse than in rural areas, and vocational trainings and skills development for income generating activities (IGAs) are more likely to prevail (see [Chapter 5](#)).

In cases where these activities fall outside the scope of WFP's technical programmes and are based on specific partnerships, they should be seen as one-off FFT (e.g. handicraft making, other artisan activities, etc.). Any of these activities that may also include providing a tangible/physical asset as part of the training/IGA would still be regarded as FFT – for example, providing sewing machines (a physical asset) in a FFT tailoring and sewing programme, etc. It is recommended however that before embarking on such activities, a clear analysis of supply and demand is undertaken to determine the feasibility and scale that such FFT activities can reach.

1.1.5. Note on FFA and Engineering

Certain assets created through FFA, particularly those related to construction of infrastructure, may require specific engineering standards and technologies ([Directive on Engineering services and construction activities in WFP](#))⁴. This directive indicates the roles and responsibilities between FFA and WFP's Engineering Division.

[Chapters 3 and 4](#) provide information on the types of FFA activities that could require support from the Engineering Division, and the procedures to access engineering support.

⁴ WFP. 2015. Resource Management Directive RM2015/004: Engineering Services and Construction Activities in WFP. Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/cd/wfp278801.pdf>

1.2. What is the purpose of FFA?

WFP's 'Food Assistance for Assets' programmes help meet the immediate food needs of food insecure people whilst building assets helping them strengthen their livelihoods, reduce the risks from natural disasters, and make them and their communities more resilient to shocks.

FFA is one of WFP's key programmes for providing food assistance to food insecure and vulnerable people. Using food and cash-based transfers, FFA can produce immediate advantages to food security and nutrition by filling a food gap whilst at the same time support households and communities to build assets - such as repairing irrigation systems, building bridges, soil and water conservation, establishing community granaries, etc. - that reduce exposure to and impact of shocks and stressors, strengthen resilience to natural disasters, and contribute to long-term livelihood and environmental benefits.

The intended impact of FFA is to contribute directly to achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2: End Hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture, whilst simultaneously contributing to a number of other SDGs. Reaching this intended impact is described through the [FFA Theory of Change \(TOC\)](#)⁵; refer to [Chapter 7: Section 1](#).

The TOC outlines four different inter-connected pathways: (i) physical and natural asset creation; (ii) community training and capacity development; (iii) transfer provision; and (iv) government and partner capacity development in FFA approaches - **and their related inputs and activities to reach specific FFA outputs** and immediate, intermediate, and final outcomes (or the short, medium, and long-term changes) that contribute to achieving SDG 2, and others.

In summary, **the FFA TOC is a strategic picture of the multiple interventions required** to produce short and intermediate outcomes that are preconditions to reach the ultimate goal – i.e. FFA's contribution, together with partners, to SDG 2 (and to SDGs 1, 5, 6, 12, 13, 15).

Depending on the programme objective, context, and capacities required (more information is provided in [Annex 1c](#)), FFA intervenes through the following four main domains:

- 1. Livelihood Assets Protection:** i.e. creating those assets that assist in protecting livelihood (assets) during or after emergencies
- 2. Assets Restoration:** i.e. closely linked to the above, often as post-emergency repairs
- 3. Assets Rehabilitation and/or Building:** i.e. in areas of recurring shocks, where assets may need to be rebuilt and strengthened, or new assets that need to be built
- 4. Asset Reclamation:** i.e. a complex assets required to restore lands to a productive status

FFA also provides entry points to scale up resilience building through complementary efforts with partners. WFP enhances engagement with partners through the **Three-pronged approach (3PA)** to strengthen the design, planning and implementation of longer-term programmes. By placing people at the centre of planning with innovative tools such as the 3PA, WFP identifies needs and programmes tailored to the local context that ensures ownership by communities, particularly women and other marginalized groups.

Linking people to their landscapes, 3PA helps to prioritize integrated FFA and complementary activities to be conducted at scale to reach meaningful impacts.

⁵ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282732.pdf

In a nutshell, FFA programmes ...

- Improve access to food for the most vulnerable and food-insecure people in times of need
- Boost access to livelihood assets that reduce disaster risks, ensure early recovery, and build long-term resilience to shocks
- Empower local communities to find their own way out of hunger
- Contribute to long-term environmental and livelihood benefits
- Ensure long-term sustainability and scale working with communities, governments and partners
- Promote gender equality
- Help achieve Zero Hunger

... through FFA activities that include:

- Natural resources development and management
- Support to the restoration of the agricultural, pastoral, and fisheries potential
- Community access to markets and social services
- Community infrastructure
- Skills development trainings related to natural resources management, asset management, and income generating activities; and
- Promoting access to risk transfer schemes.

Whilst specific FFA activities are presented in **Chapter 3**, the following should be taken into account when considering whether to do an FFA programme:

Table 1.1 -Outline of FFA asset classification

| | |
|--|--|
| The main purpose of the asset | Increase food production Increase protection against shocks Increase mobility/access to food, markets, Infrastructure and services |
| The purpose of the works | To build (new) assets To reconstruct (lost) assets To repair (damaged) assets To maintain (existing) assets |
| The timeline of benefits from the asset | Immediate The next/following season Once (the asset has) matured |
| The technical sector <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • primary • secondary | Soil and Water Conservation (SWC) Water Agriculture / Livestock Forestry and Agroforestry Market access Infrastructure |
| The scope, or coverage level | Household Group (i.e. farmers/women's' groups etc.) Community |
| Access and ownership of the asset | Own land Private open access Private restricted access Public Common |
| Scalability | Unitary Scalable |

1.3. What is different in FFA?

1.3.1. Evidence-based evaluations of FFA

External evaluations of the short, medium, and long-term impact of WFP’s asset creation activities on food security and livelihoods were conducted in five countries (with an additional 6th voluntary country) between 2013 and 2014⁶. These evaluations assessed programmes during 2002 to 2011, which were designed and implemented under the former FFW approach (and prior to the release of the FFA approach through the new FFA guidance in 2011), and WFP’s previous Strategic Plans (the latest being 2008-2013). These evaluations addressed the following key questions, and analysed critical factors affecting outcomes and impact:

1. What positive or negative impacts have FFA activities had on individuals within participating households and communities and on the natural resource base?
2. How could FFA activities be improved to increase or sustain impact?

These evaluations provided an evidence-based opportunity to understand what could be achieved if the former FFW approach to asset creation was retained, and what would need to be done differently to have greater impacts.

Broadly, the evaluation synthesis found that asset creation had an empowering effect by enhancing women’s social network support, freedom of movement and influence on household budget decisions - although trade-offs between their participation in the programme and their other responsibilities, attention to women’s protection particularly in remote areas away from their homes, and the nutritional effects of physically demanding labour on already food-insecure women especially during pregnancy and breastfeeding, must all be taken into account.

On food security, livelihoods and resilience, it was found that asset creation activities provided excellent short-term benefits by filling a household’s immediate food gaps through the food and/or cash-based transfer provided in all of the programmes evaluated. Medium-term impacts were also positive and substantial, with more than 50 percent of assets still functional several years after their construction, with some assets delivering multiple benefits to livelihoods or resilience. In terms of long-term impact, plausible evidence was found of the contribution of asset creation to improve livelihoods, social cohesion, disaster preparedness, and increase access to land and markets - all of which are important dimensions of resilience.

Whilst these findings show that asset creation can have significant contributions to livelihoods and resilience, longer-term changes in food security were less evident. There were three key factors affecting and limiting the impact, namely:

- (i) **funding constraints** (regular, predictable, and multi-year) and limited technical capacities to implement the programmes;
- (ii) **implementation** was often fragmented and carried out in isolation from other activities both within WFP and with those of partners; and
- (iii) **targeting** – and in particular in early recovery situations where broad geographic targeting is commonly applied to assist as many people as possible through short-term interventions over very large geographic areas.

Thus, whilst the former approach may have suited short-term food security objectives, it limited the impact on livelihoods and resilience, which requires a longer-term and concentrated approach.

⁶ WFP. 2014. Synthesis of the Evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets 2002-2011 and Lessons for Building Livelihoods Resilience. Available at: <https://www.wfp.org/content/synthesis-evaluation-impact-food-assets-2002-2011-and-lessons-building-livelihoods-resilienc>

Moving forward, the evaluation made the following five recommendations for asset creation – and hence FFA – to improve its impacts on long-term food security, livelihoods, and resilience. These recommendations were agreed to by WFP at the Executive Board in June 2014:

- **Recommendation 1:** WFP CO's, supported by RB's and HQ, should commit to bringing FFA programmes into line with current policy and guidance, to maximize the opportunities for FFA to contribute to protecting and strengthening livelihoods and resilience. Dedicated funding will be needed to ensure adequate support to country offices. Specific areas for action and funding are discussed in the following recommendations.
- **Recommendation 2:** More attention should be paid to the strategic positioning of FFA in country offices where FFA can appropriately be used as an approach to improve livelihoods and resilience; building on WFP comparative advantages complemented by those of partners; ensuring sustainability of efforts; and building partners' commitments for financial and other resources.
- **Recommendation 3:** WFP should strengthen its efforts to support and provide guidance to RB's and CO's by ensuring that the FFA guidance manual is updated to address issues raised in the evaluations and then rolling it out more completely. This should include providing training and technical assistance to country offices.
- **Recommendation 4:** WFP should carry out two special studies to further explore issues raised by the evaluation: impacts of FFA activities on women, particularly their nutrition and health and on opportunities for additional linkages with nutrition generated by a focus on gender issues; and in-depth analyses of the food security of FFA participants to increase understanding of how FFA activities could make a greater contribution.
- **Recommendation 5:** WFP should review the lessons that arose from the evaluations related to FFA baselines and monitoring; update corporate monitoring and reporting systems as needed; and ensure funding and staffing are available to meet M&E requirements.

To conclude, and in support of CO and RB efforts to improve the impacts of FFA (Recommendation 2):

- This FFA guidance includes the updates required and reflects the corporate guidance for FFA, against which FFA programmes should be brought into line (**Recommendation 1 & 3**).
- Tools for strategic positioning and aligning of FFA for complementarities partner programmes is the three-pronged approach (3PA) and reflected in this guidance (**Recommendation 3**).
- This FFA guidance should be regarded as a living document, meaning that as lessons learnt and best practices are identified they will be included through updates (**Recommendations 4 & 5**).

1.3.2. Integrating Nutrition, Gender, and Protection sensitive lenses

There are substantial opportunities to plan, design and implement FFA in ways that deliberately contribute directly or indirectly to good nutrition, gender equality, and women's empowerment.

NUTRITION:

Ending undernutrition by 2030 is at the heart of Zero Hunger and SDG2. Only implementing nutrition-specific interventions is not enough to achieve this, and accelerating progress in nutrition requires an integrated response and effective, large-scale nutrition-sensitive programmes.

In the context of FFA, nutrition-sensitive programming refers to deliberate efforts in (i) planning, designing and implementing FFA in ways that directly and indirectly contribute to good nutrition; and (ii) using FFA as delivery platforms for nutrition-specific interventions. For instance, FFA interventions can enhance the availability and diversity of food produced and consumed locally, strengthen and diversify livelihoods and incomes which in turn can have positive effects on nutrition, and the transfers provided through FFA can be made nutrition-sensitive.

In addition, all FFA interventions should incorporate essential 'do no harm' nutrition considerations, such as defining lighter work norms for Pregnant and Lactating Women (PLW) engaged in FFA, or avoiding that FFA activities compete with the care practices for young infants and children.

Gender:

Women and girls are often more affected than men and boys by poverty, discrimination, violence and reduced/lack of access to food assistance. In alignment with WFP's Gender Policy (2015-2020) stating that: "*A world with zero hunger can be achieved only when everyone has equal opportunities, equal access to resources, and equal voice in the decisions that shape their households, communities and societies*", gender lenses that take into account constraints to women's socio-economic empowerment should be applied to all WFP programmes to contribute to SDG5 'Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls'.

Through the planning, design, implementation, and transfers provided by FFA, the assets build and the complementary activities with which they are integrated, FFA can and should **support the transformation of unequal gender relations** to promote shared power, control of resources and decision-making between women and men, and ultimately serve as an effective tool to improve nutrition and reduce hardships.

Protection:

Programmes often depend on local community and household dynamics, such as existing economic structures, common labour practices and norms, and traditional livelihood options. WFP can influence these dynamics, either positively (e.g. changing attitudes towards marginalized individuals or groups, or challenging hierarchies of authority and influence) or negatively (e.g. magnifying conflicting interests, or exacerbating discrimination through exclusion).

FFA should consider the complexity of local dynamics to ensure it does not exacerbate existing inequalities or create new protection risks, for example when women's engagement in labour-based activities is excessively burdensome, when project sites jeopardise the safety of workers, or socio-cultural practices such as using children for labour or excluding the elderly.

FFA has **considerable potential to positively impact on people's protection**, for example by promoting participatory planning and intra and inter-community dialogue – with a strong emphasis on empowering the most vulnerable during planning and implementation phases; implementing asset creation activities to reduce hardships and generate tangible benefits for the most vulnerable; or by improving the safety of specific groups potentially subject to violence and to other risks.

Chapter 3 contains more information on integrating nutrition, gender, and protection in FFA.

1.4. FFA and Employment, the Decent Work Agenda, and Public and other Works

Employment:

- **FFA is not an employment programme** to provide vulnerable people with a job. It does not offer the benefits that formal employment provides such as medical insurance, pensions, or other benefits, and the FFA transfer provided is not a salary but a transfer dedicated to cover the assessed food gap of a household.

FFA does not fall within ILO employment categories and standards, and for these and other reasons, FFA cannot be treated or seen as an employment scheme.

- **FFA's food or cash-based transfer is not a salary** but is meant to cover all or part of the assessed food consumption gap faced by the household. It is not meant to cover other basic or essential needs of food insecure households - e.g. tools, livestock, medicines, education, rents, etc. that fall outside of WFP's mandate and are within the scope of other UN Agencies/partners.
- **Whilst FFA neither provides employment or a salary/transfer** for other needs, the assets created through FFA may in turn create or enhance self-employment and local jobs (e.g. farming), and the savings from reduced food expenditure resulting from FFA transfers can contribute to a household's capacity to cover other priority expenditure

The Decent Work Agenda:

- **FFA aims to adhere to the criteria of the Decent Work Agenda (DWA)**. The International community has endorsed ILO's definition of Decent Work as being productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity (**Annex 1a**), and WFP is taking steps through different policy and strategic instruments to mainstream decent work – or the Decent Work Agenda (DWA) – in its approach to providing assistance.

The DWA involves providing opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income; provides security in the workplace and social protection for workers and their families; offers better prospects for personal development and encourages social integration; gives people the freedom to express their concerns, to organize and to participate in decisions that affect their lives; and guarantees equal opportunities and equal treatment for all.⁷ The role of the DWA in FFA programmes is found in **Annex 1a**, and further aspects of FFA and DWA are included in planning (**Chapter 3**), implementation (**Chapter 4**), and evaluation (**Chapter 7**).

Public Works:

- **FFA within Public Works (PW):** a number of employment-based Public Works (PW) are in place in certain countries as a mechanism to support pro-poor labour employment and economic growth. WFP's food assistance is not provided for such works.

Many of these PW schemes are typically government or partner (e.g. World Bank, UNDP, ILO, etc.) pre-selected projects which offer time-bound employment to vulnerable households and who may or may not benefit from the assets created through the work. For FFA, it is critical that the beneficiaries participating in the programme derive direct benefits and have a sense of

⁷ International Labour Organization. 2008. Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work, Page vi. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---exrel/documents/publication/wcms_172612.pdf

ownership over the assets they have created through their labour. Thus, careful consideration of the PW project objectives is required before linking FFA as part of a PW scheme.

Additionally, if participation in PW implies providing employment status to the workers, from an objective and legal perspective WFP will not be able to do this as it cannot guarantee the benefits (e.g. health insurance, medical coverage, pensions, unemployment grants, etc.) that formal employment requires - unless specific agreements for other partner(s) to take on these responsibilities are stipulated, with WFP only providing the food assistance component.

The instances when FFA may be considered within PW schemes would be:

(i) In PW designed to achieve food security and development objectives for food insecure populations reached through seasonal/temporary work - for example, in productive safety net programmes that include a PW component focussing on community and/or household assets, FFA can be used to support that component specifically aimed at meeting the food needs of food insecure populations – but not as a provision of a salary and formal employment in large scale schemes.

(ii) When PW are qualified as community-based asset creation schemes - some governments may use PW to create community assets, although this is generally the exception rather than the rule. For these PW to qualify as community-based asset creation schemes, the communities themselves need to be an integral part of the identification, selection, planning, construction, use, management, maintenance, and ownership of the assets created.

Other labour-based programmes:

- **FFA and other partner labour-based/asset creation activities.** WFP is not the only agency using labour-based programmes to build assets. This can bring confusion with partners doing similar activities, and tensions over perceived overlaps or mandates.

In this regard, it is important to understand both WFP's and the partner's objective, modality, and target groups when implementing FFA. For instance, WFP FFA is targeted to the most vulnerable and food insecure segment of the community to cover an identified food gap - often those people that are landless, or with small plots that are unlikely to result in self-sufficiency through own production, or with poor land tenure rights. Other partners, whilst also working with poor and vulnerable people, may have different target groups – FAO for example targets small-holder farmers (a different FFA target group) to improve production and food security, and likely even in different geographical locations, etc. To overcome these tensions of perceived overlap, the target groups, objectives, modalities, and location of the interventions between the different agencies should be clearly established.

1.5. Food Assistance for Assets: Five keys to success

The success of FFA depends on the following five crucial factors – irrespective of livelihood types, geographical contexts, and countries. Overlooking any one of these will compromise the transformative ability of FFA on livelihoods and food security that the programme aims to reach:

- 1. Putting communities and people at the centre of planning:** participatory planning empowers and provides a voice to the most vulnerable people, and in particular to women and marginalized groups in decision-making, implementation and management of assets created;
- 2. An understanding of the local context, landscape and livelihoods:** to make the right choice of assets for agriculturalists, pastoralists, or urban poor, their natural, social and economic environment, and reduce the risks and the major hardships they face, including those caused by extreme climate events and conflicts;
- 3. Making sure quality standards for assets created are met:** a key element in degraded and fragile contexts where the most vulnerable live, ensuring that assets are sustainable and can withstand the exposure to climate and other shocks;
- 4. Strengthening of local and government institutions' capacities:** they need to be in the driver's seat, and supporting communities' in promoting social cohesion and self-help efforts;
- 5. Integrating and scaling-up:** different assets and complementary activities (e.g. through FAO and IFAD) need to be integrated and implemented at a meaningful scale, matching the scale of the problems that affect communities. Resilience building through FFA and complementary efforts need to be at a scale, commensurate to the scale of the shocks.

1.6. Three Principles Guiding FFA

- 1. PRINCIPLE 1: Adherence to WFP's Strategic Plan and overall Programme Guidance**
Through [WFP's Strategic Plan](#)⁸, the [Strategic Results Framework \(SRF\)](#)⁹, and the [Programme Category Review](#)¹⁰. Each project must address assessed needs, programme quality, synergies, consensus-building, and measurable results - guidance is found in [WFP's Programme Design Framework](#)¹¹. Instrumental in aligning project design with the objectives of the Strategic Plan, this framework incorporates all activities, including FFA, nutrition, school feeding, relief, etc.
- 2. PRINCIPLE 2: Livelihood-Based Approaches**
The rationales and specific FFA measures to be selected are influenced by livelihood type and their related social and environmental factors. This element lies at the core of disaster risk reduction and resilience-building efforts, requiring FFA to be designed and programmed to the livelihood system.
- 3. PRINCIPLE 3: Build on what works, build consensus, and foster participation**
FFA interventions need to build upon what works, particularly on what continues (sustainability) after WFP support ends in a given area, region or country. The participatory and capacity building efforts made through FFA to communities is key – the greater their involvement, the greater the benefits communities derive from the intervention. Participation - or the lack of it - can be the factor that leads to either the success or failure of a FFA activity in the field.

⁸ Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc062522.pdf>

⁹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/forms/wfp261465.pdf>

¹⁰ Available at: <http://one.wfp.org/eb/docs/2010/wfp220540~2.pdf>

¹¹ Available at: <http://one.wfp.org/eb/docs/2010/wfp220540~2.pdf>

2. FFA'S CONTRIBUTION TO ELIMINATING WORLD HUNGER

2.1. The Vision: Zero Hunger

Achieving Zero Hunger is the overarching global vision for WFP. Zero hunger is at the heart of the new sustainable development agenda, and is also clearly recognized in the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, which emphasizes the importance of addressing food insecurity and undernutrition to reduce vulnerability and build resilience.

2.1.1. The Sustainable Development Goals 2015 - 2030

The [Sustainable Development Goals \(SDGs\)](#)¹², approved in September 2015, are the universal set of goals, targets and indicators framing the agenda's, policies, and actions of UN Member States, UN agencies and other groups for 2016-2030. They expand and replace the [Millennium Development Goals \(MDGs\)](#)¹³ of 2000-2015.

There are 17 SDGs, they are universal in nature, they apply to all countries, and they clearly recognize the importance of environmental concerns to sustainable development. The new agenda represents a more holistic framework and seeks to address the root causes of poverty and hunger by calling for action in the areas of inequality, infrastructure, and employment.

Food security and nutrition are featured alongside poverty eradication at the top of the 2030 Agenda. The SDGs represent an integrated and comprehensive approach to sustainable development that place the eradication of hunger, malnutrition and poverty at the core of this agenda, demonstrating the resolve to complete the unfinished business of the MDGs by expanding on previous efforts to address the underlying causes of hunger and malnutrition.

The 2030 agenda recognizes that ending hunger means ensuring access to nutritious food for the most vulnerable, tackling the multi-dimensional causes of malnutrition, including health and sanitation; and increasing agricultural production through sustainable and resilient food systems.

For WFP, SDG 2 is the principle goal to which its programmes will contribute to addressing.

SDG 2: "End Hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture"

SDG 2 contains five targets, of which four are derived from the pillars of the Secretary General's Zero Hunger Challenge ([Annex 1b](#)) and are of direct relevance to WFP's mandate and FFA¹⁴:

2.1 - By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round.

2.2 - By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons.

2.3 - By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including

¹² Available at: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/?menu=1300>

¹³ Available at: <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/>

¹⁴ Target 2.5 relates to maintaining genetic diversity of seeds, cultivated plants, farmed and domesticated animals, and their related wild species through diversified seed and plant banks, and promoting access and fair sharing of benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources. WFP programmes (including FFA) do not support this target of SDG2.

through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment.

2.4 - By 2030, ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality

SDG2 represents the vision and blueprint to achieve zero hunger at the global level, and shape WFP's efforts accordingly. WFP will implement Agenda 2030 at the country level through its new approach to **Country Strategic Plans (CSP)**¹⁵, whose objectives are to:

- (i) support countries to make progress toward achieving zero hunger;
- (ii) operationalize WFP's corporate Strategic Plan at the country level; and
- (iii) improve WFP strategic positioning at national and global levels.

SDG 2 provides a more comprehensive approach to addressing the various dimensions of food security and nutrition, with targets on access, malnutrition, agricultural productivity, and resilient food systems representing integrated and complementary areas for action. The potential for transformative change is further strengthened by the integrated nature of development goals, meaning that the outcomes related to SDG 2 will also directly and indirectly depend on progress that has been made in other SDG's.

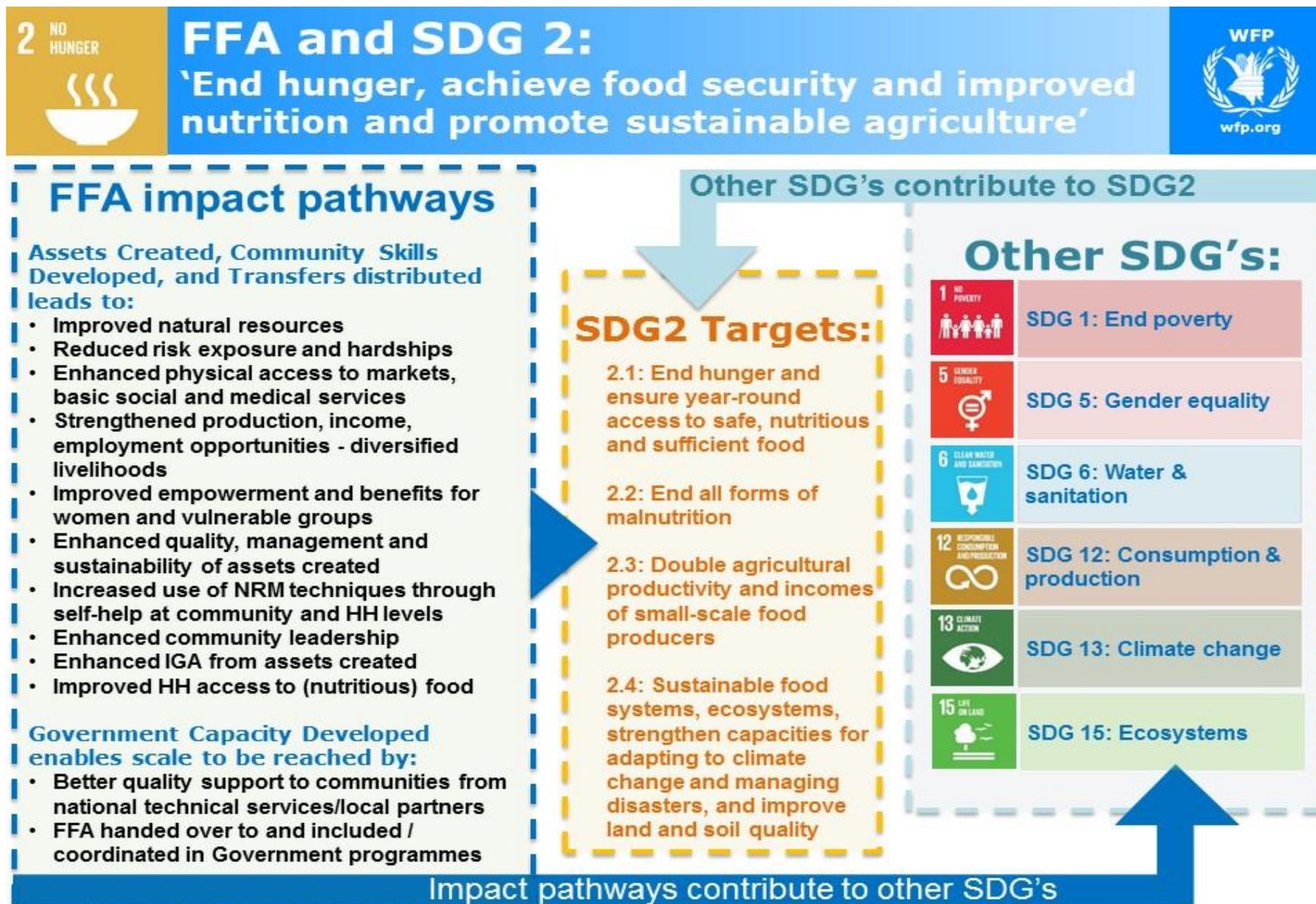
In this regard, FFA, through the transfers (food or cash-based) it provides and the assets it creates to stabilize and restore landscapes, reduces hardships on women's and girls, reduce disaster risk, increase food production, and strengthen and diversify livelihoods, directly contributing to the following SDGs:

- **SDG 1:** End poverty in all its forms everywhere
- **SDG 2:** End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture
- **SDG 5:** Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
- **SDG 6:** Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all
- **SDG 12:** Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
- **SDG 13:** Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts¹⁶
- **SDG 15:** Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests

¹⁵ The CSP approach will operationalize WFP's Strategic Plan by linking country-level planning and operations to national and global zero hunger targets. The integration of WFP programmes into national food security and nutrition frameworks will help to ensure that the organization is well-positioned to deliver a coherent and focused portfolio of assistance. Guidelines available at: http://pgm.wfp.org/index.php/Topics:Country_Strategy

¹⁶ Acknowledging that the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change is the primary international, intergovernmental forum for negotiating the global response to climate change.

Figure 1.1 – FFA and SDG 2



2.1.2. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015 - 2030

Approved at the World Conference for Disaster Reduction in Hyogo, Japan in 2005, the [Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters \(HFA\)](#)¹⁷ was the first plan to explain, describe and detail the work required from different sectors and actors to substantially reduce disaster losses by 2015 by building the resilience of nations and communities to disasters - meaning reducing loss of lives and social, economic, and environmental assets when hazards strike.

At the Third United Nations World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction in Sendai, Japan in 2015, the successor to the HFA - the [Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030](#)¹⁸ – was endorsed. The Sendai framework recognizes the importance of addressing food insecurity and under nutrition to reduce vulnerability and build resilience. It emphasizes the importance of anticipating long-term risks, taking action to avoid exposure to new risks and reducing existing risk levels. It highlights the contribution of climate change to increasing risks to food systems posed by higher temperatures, drought, flooding and irregular rainfall.

The Sendai framework is structured on four priority areas (below – with FFA contributions):

Figure 1.2 - Sendai Framework Priorities and FFA contributions



Priority 1. Understanding disaster risk
FFA's use of the 3PA contributes to linking the understanding of disaster risk between national, sub-national, and local levels - through the combined lenses of recurring food insecurity and natural shocks, land degradation, livelihoods, gender, and seasonality - and programmatically informs the other pillars of the Sendai Framework for Action.

Priority 2. Strengthening disaster risk governance to manage disaster risk
FFA's use of the 3PA contributes to identifying strategies that combine early warning and preparedness, with prevention, mitigation, response and recovery at national, sub-national, and local levels; the complementary links between FFA and other multi-sectoral programmes; and the partnerships needed for strengthened disaster risk management.

Priority 3. Investing in disaster risk reduction for resilience
FFA's strong focus on natural resource and sustainable land management is foundational for DRR by: **(i)** stabilizing fragile landscapes to reduce likelihood and impact of shocks - e.g. through afforestation to lower flood risk; increasing incomes/savings by restoring degraded land to productive land, etc.; **(ii)** ensuring humanitarian access during shocks - e.g. clearing roads after floods/earthquakes etc.; and rapidly restoring livelihoods and access to food after shocks - e.g. clearing farmlands and roads to markets, etc.

Priority 4. Enhancing disaster preparedness for effective response and to "Build Back Better" in recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction
FFA's use of the 3PA contributes to enhanced preparedness, **(i)** national context analyses to identify areas in which to combine early warning, preparedness, safety nets, and humanitarian & development actions; **(ii)** sub-national seasonal livelihood programming consultations to identify DRR activities and partnerships; and **(iii)** community identification of self-help and local actions to strengthen community efforts in managing disaster risk.

FFA is foundational to other WFP preparedness activities, including social protection, safety nets, FoodSECuRe, and R4 amongst others. Assets can strengthen preparedness before shocks occur, and rapidly restore access to food and protect livelihoods during a shock. Planning can identify in advance the partners needed to deliver quality FFA, shortening response time and accelerating recovery whilst simultaneously building back better.

¹⁷ Available at: <http://www.unisdr.org/2005/wcdr/intergover/official-doc/L-docs/Hyogo-framework-for-action-english.pdf>

¹⁸ Available at: http://www.preventionweb.net/files/43291_sendaiframeworkfordrrren.pdf

2.1.3. The 21st session of the Conference of the Parties (COP21)

Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) reached an agreement on climate change at the Conference of the Parties 21st session (COP21) in Paris. This agreement is essential for limiting the extent of climate change and mitigating its impacts, particularly on the most vulnerable populations. Recognizing the fundamental priority of ensuring food security and ending hunger, it links and addresses the adverse consequences of climate change on food systems and livelihoods, and strongly recognizes the need to reduce and manage the losses and damages caused by increasing climate extremes. It includes three sub-goals:

- i) Limit the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2 °C;
- ii) Increase the ability to adapt to the adverse impacts of climate change, foster climate resilience and pursue sustainable development with low greenhouse gas emissions and stable food production; and
- iii) Ensure that financial flows are consistent with a path towards low greenhouse gas emissions and climate-resilient development.

The Paris Agreement represents a major step forward on a number of issues critical for WFP. It will influence WFP's approach to food security and nutrition – as well as emergency preparedness, response and resilience building. It has direct implications in terms of access to climate finance and WFP's work to support governments to reduce hunger and adapt to climate change. Five issues are of direct relevance to WFP:

Climate Finance: includes continuing efforts to access climate financing for WFP programmes. The **Food Security Climate Resilience (FoodSECuRE)**¹⁹ facility represents a specific vehicle for WFP to access climate finance, as a multilateral, multi-year, replenishing fund to provide financial and programmatic support to community-centred actions that reinforce and build climate resilience. FFA is a key programme eligible for financing under FoodSECuRE, provided certain conditions are met.

Loss and Damage: calls for increased efforts in specific areas, including early warning systems, emergency preparedness, climate risk insurance, and resilience of communities, livelihoods and ecosystems. FFA is a key programme to reduce risk and build resilience to shocks, and is part of the **R4 Rural Resilience Initiative**²⁰ which uses FFA to both reduce risks through the assets created, and the provision of an insurance premium as a transfer modality against climate-related crop losses.

National Adaptation Plans: developing countries are to develop National Adaptation Plans (NAPs) that define their adaptation needs and actions, and serve as the primary mechanism to channel climate finance for adaptation. WFP supports NAPs through analysis, programming and technical assistance.

National Commitments: countries have agreed to review Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDCs) to reduce greenhouse gas emissions every five years. WFP can support countries in developing their INDCs.

Agriculture: has been a contentious topic due to its links to emissions and mitigation negotiations. The Parties have agreed to address this in the next two years.

Outside the UNFCCC process, the **Global Alliance on Climate Smart Agriculture (CSA)** is an alternative effort to address the food security and agricultural implications of climate change. FFA can have a role in supporting CSA.

¹⁹ More information available at: <http://www.wfp.org/climate-change/initiatives/foodsecure>

²⁰ More information available at: <http://www.wfp.org/climate-change/initiatives/r4-rural-resilience-initiative>

2.2. The Resilience Agenda

2.2.1. The RBA Conceptual Framework for Resilience, 2015

Resilience cannot be achieved by a single actor. Programming for enhanced resilience requires taking a strategic view on partnerships to achieve multi-stakeholder impacts across sectors to ensure that WFP’s approach evolves in the light of experience.

In 2014 the three Rome-based agencies (RBA) of FAO, IFAD, and WFP harmonized their resilience approaches, and developed a joint [RBA Conceptual Framework for Collaboration and Partnership – Strengthening Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition](#)²¹ for greater collaboration in the context of multiple, multi-level and complex vulnerabilities and risks.

The joint approach, which envisages resilience as a capacity with three dimensions - **absorptive, adaptive** and **transformative** – identifies four major areas for better collaboration on resilience:

- **Policy dialogue:** by collaborating in policy and strategy formulation to support plans and programmes intended to strengthen national resilience, foster institutional capacities at all levels, and supporting policy dialogue including global and regional policy efforts.
- **Analysis and planning:** rather than by designing new joint analytical and planning approaches, the framework proposes to identify the complementarities among existing tools and approaches, and use them as the basis to develop synergies for collaborative programmes to strengthen resilience. WFP’s three-pronged approach (3PA) is a feature in this collaboration.
- **Programming:** by converging their respective efforts to complement each other, from policy-development and capacity-building efforts in resilience, to early warning and preparedness for governments and local institutions, and activities on the ground with local authorities and communities. Where RBA’s have programmes in the same geographic area, they will better align them to be mutually reinforcing using seasonal, livelihoods and gender lenses.
- **Monitoring impact and measuring resilience:** by supporting improvements of existing monitoring systems, participating in assessments and using the data for programming and dialogue with governments and implementing partners, and through the Food Security Information Network (FSIN), establishing a technical working group to promote debates, identify technical challenges and build consensus around issues related to food security, resilience measurement and analysis, and elaborating basic principles for measuring resilience.

The joint RBA framework offers a number of opportunities for working together, from policy and assessment work, joint planning and design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. Key in the framework is that ‘joint’ does not necessarily mean that everything needs to be done together at all times, but rather that opportunities for sequencing, aligning, and complementing on-going programmes for complementarities should be sought out wherever possible.

For example, when refugees or IDP’s return home WFP can use FFA to restore and rehabilitate land back to its productive potential, followed by FAO providing the skills training and capacity building for improved agriculture, and finally IFAD to provide financial support and connectivity to markets once production has been established. Such actions do not require a joint budget, but rather joint planning to sequence these on-going programmes, and eventual monitoring to determine joint impact. Important also is that not all joint RBA programmes need to have the three agencies working together at the same time – often, only FAO and WFP will be present – and this is still seen as an RBA partnership.

²¹ Available at: <https://www.wfp.org/rba-joint-resilience-framework>

2.2.2. WFP Policy on Building Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition, 2015

Building resilience to shocks of individuals, households, communities, systems, and institutions is a recurring theme throughout the SDGs and the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction. An estimated eight out of ten WFP beneficiaries live in degraded, fragile, shock prone environments, with an alarmingly low asset base, a high exposure to shocks, and levels of vulnerability and food insecurity that become increasingly complex and deeply entrenched - therefore FFA naturally belongs to the solutions needed to overcome the underlying causes of such vulnerability and build resilience to risks and shocks, and contribute to achieving Zero Hunger and the SDG's.

WFP's new resilience policy [Building Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition](#) (May 2015)²² reflects WFP's adoption of a resilience-building approach to programming. It aligns WFP with global resilience policy, the joint RBA approach to resilience, and ensures that WFP's activities complement the resilience-building programmes of other actors. WFP's practical experience across its humanitarian and development mandate offers various comparative advantages in enhancing resilience through food security and nutrition interventions. Many operations already include elements of resilience-building: the fundamental shift that is articulated in the policy is in how programming is designed, implemented and managed. A practical example of the application of a resilience lens to programme design is WFP's Three-pronged Approach (3PA).

FFA's contribution to resilience through the three capacities (absorptive, adaptive, and transformative) centres on the creation of assets tailored to livelihood needs for vulnerable households and communities, which aim to increase access to food whilst reducing risks, strengthening their abilities to manage shocks, and creating foundations on which other government and partner programmes can build upon to further resilience outcomes*:

Table 1.2 - FFA's contribution to resilience through the three capacities

| | Absorptive capacity | Adaptive capacity | Transformative capacity |
|----------------------|--|---|---|
| Capacity Description | The capacity to withstand threats and minimize exposure to shocks and stressors through preventative measures and appropriate coping strategies to avoid permanent, negative impacts. | The capacity to adapt to new options in the face of crisis by making proactive and informed choices about alternative livelihood strategies based on an understanding of changing conditions. | The capacity to transform the set of livelihood choices available through empowerment and growth, including governance, policies / regulations, infrastructure, community networks, and formal and informal social protection mechanisms that constitute an enabling environment for systemic change. |
| FFA contribution | Through (i) asset creation centred on reducing disaster risk and impact of shocks (e.g. assets reducing the risk of flood and landslide; supporting early recovery through the quick reconstruction of critical assets; etc.), and as a foundation to strengthen livelihoods, increase production and access to food in the long-term, and (ii) improved or maintained access to food through the FFA transfer in the short-term, in time of need. | Through asset creation that strengthens and diversifies livelihoods, offering greater choice and opportunities in the face of shocks (including by improving geophysical conditions), physical access to markets, increased productivity, reduced vulnerability, and strengthened programming and planning processes (e.g. community-based participatory planning). | Through FFA's use of the 3PA, that connects local level contexts with those at regional and national levels to inform policies and strategies required to support the most vulnerable populations to better manage risks and shocks; through FFA capacity development/initiatives aiming to integrate FFA within broader government priorities and multi-sectorial partnerships; and at an ecological level, FFA can stabilize and restore degraded and fragile landscapes into stable and productive ones. |

***Note** that some activities can address multiple capacities.

²² Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc063833.pdf>

2.2.3. Supporting Policies for FFA

This FFA manual has been developed and structured to comply with WFP policies, and adherence to the guidance presented in this manual for FFA planning, design, and implementation will ensure compatibility with corporate policies. **Annex 1c** provides details of the policies of relevance to FFA. Whilst there are a number of policies that support FFA, or to which FFA must ascribe to, the key ones that must be considered when using FFA are as follows:

- **Emergencies:**

Food Aid and Livelihoods in Emergencies: Strategies for WFP (WFP, 2003)²³ - the relevance for FFA is to prioritize the preservation or quick repair/rehabilitation of existing key assets rather than constructing new assets. Simultaneously, to identify which existing assets need to be improved, or what new assets may be required, once programming moves into the recovery phase – i.e. the synergy between the short and longer-term view.

- **Linking Relief and Development**²⁴

From Crisis to Recovery (WFP, 1998)²⁵ - amongst other aspects, this policy emphasizes the use of FFA in integrating communities into the selection, planning, and implementation of activities. Furthermore, it highlights the need for consideration of the environment.

- **Development**

Enabling Development policy (WFP, 1999)²⁶ - this policy states WFP's development assistance should enable the poorest people to meet their short-term food needs in ways that build longer-term human and physical assets, and should only be provided where lasting physical assets or human capital will be created, and where these assets will benefit poor, food-insecure households and communities.

- **Crosscutting Policies:**

Policy on Building Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition (WFP, 2015)²⁷ - moving people and countries out of food insecurity, vulnerability, and poverty requires holistic long-term efforts that bring together development and humanitarian actions. Development gains can be quickly wiped out during shocks and crisis, so humanitarian actions should be positioned in ways that protect these development gains. Similarly, development must complement efforts tackling the underlying causes of vulnerability in ways that contribute to reducing impacts of recurring shocks and stressors. This policy recognizes that most programmes can contribute to building resilience, but only if planned and implemented with a resilience lens from the outset. FFA is a significant programme for resilience, contributing both to development action through landscape stabilization, reducing disaster risk and environmental and livelihood hardships particularly on women and girls, and rapidly establishing access to food during emergencies through humanitarian action.

Disaster Risk Reduction and Management: Building Food Security and Resilience (WFP 2011)²⁸

- central to WFP's mission is the link between food insecurity and natural disasters, and the importance of preparing for, preventing and mitigating the impact of disasters to prevent further food insecurity. FFA has a major role for environmental rehabilitation to reduce physical risk and increase community capacity to withstand the effects of shocks in disaster prone areas, and reduce household vulnerability through better adaptation to climatic variability.

²³ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp015464.pdf>

²⁴ Following the approval of the "Policy on Building Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition", and the approval of the "WFP Policy on Capacity Development" in 2009, the "WFP Policy on Disaster Risk Reduction and Management" in 2011, the "Update of WFP's Safety Nets Policy" and the "WFP Nutrition Policy" in 2012, and the policy on "WFP's Role in Peacebuilding and Transition Settings" and the "Revised WFP School Feeding Policy" in 2013, the following policies have now become superseded: i) "Transition from Relief to Development" (WFP/EB.A/2004/5-B); ii) "Enabling Development" (WFP/EB.A/99/4-A); and iii) "From Crisis to Recovery" (WFP/EB.A/98/4-A).

²⁵ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp000174.pdf>

²⁶ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp000029.pdf>

²⁷ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc063833.pdf>

²⁸ Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc061382.pdf>

WFP and the Environment (WFP, 1998)²⁹ – by laying out the relationship of WFP programmes to the environment, this policy highlights how environmental degradation from natural disasters, soil erosion, declining soil fertility, desertification and reduction of biological diversity leads to food insecurity and vulnerability, undermines the economic and productive bases of communities, displaces millions of people, and can lead to human conflict over resources. FFA programmes and interventions will play a major role as they often directly relate to the restoration or rehabilitation of natural assets as essential elements of livelihoods, and building community resilience.

Update of Safety Nets policy (WFP 2012)³⁰ and WFP’s **Safety Nets policy (2004)**³¹ – this is a particularly relevant policy for FFA, especially in those contexts exposed to regular seasonal hardships. Community works through FFA can function as a safety net by providing predictable food assistance (either through food or cash-based transfers) to vulnerable groups with surplus labour that are facing food gaps, whilst building assets that benefit households and communities.

Gender Policy 2015-2020 (WFP, 2015)³² – gender lies at the heart of FFA. Women in particular carry a disproportionate burden of environmental hardships due to their multiple-roles within the household of collecting and water and firewood, working on and using the land and natural resources within them, and caring for the children and family. FFA’s livelihood- based and consensus building approach particularly aims to reduce the hardships experienced by women through asset creation that has direct positive impacts on their lives, and contribute to transform unequal gender relations to promote shared power, control of resources and decision-making between women and men, and support for gender equality and women’s empowerment.

The IASC Commitments on Accountability to Affected People/Populations³³ – whilst not a policy, WFP has ascribed to the five Commitments on Accountability to Affected People / Populations (CAAPs) of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). Although applicable throughout WFP’s work, the CAAPs are particularly relevant in FFA through the participatory planning processes FFA requires.

2.2.4. Linking FFA to policy within this guidance

Given the cross-cutting nature of policy and its relevance throughout different stages of FFA development, the principles and planning approaches outlined in these policies have been mainstreamed throughout all the Chapters in this guidance manual. Broadly though:

Chapter 2 provides the contextual analyses required to support the positioning of FFA planning within the Emergency, Linking Relief and Development, and Development settings. It provides the foundation on which longer-term planning visions can be built, contributing to bridging transitions from Relief to Development. It considers environmental issues, and indicates the types of coordination and partnerships that may be required to achieve longer-term plans and objectives.

They incorporate the ability to design flexible plans based on participatory processes, and identifies opportunities for developing integrated and complementary programming coordinated with communities and partners, presenting these through a contextualized livelihoods and gender lens.

Chapters 3 and 4 integrate the nuts and bolts of policy into actual planning and implementation of FFA, through gender and human rights/protection based, participatory, partnered, and technically robust measures that will ensure appropriate and environmentally sound programmes to reach strategic objectives.

Chapter 7 is based on the Strategic Results Framework to ensure adherence to corporate standards.

²⁹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp000272.pdf>

³⁰ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc061855.pdf>

³¹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp039212.pdf>

³² Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/communications/wfp276754.pdf>

³³ Available at: https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/en/system/files/documents/files/iasc_caap_tools_v4_12nologo.pdf

2.3. FFA within WFP's Operations

WFP's mandate and policies are to help households, specific groups, and communities who are vulnerable to food insecurity through a tool-box of food assistance and logistical support. WFP's **Mission Statement**³⁴ specifically outlines that such food assistance should aim:

- *to save lives in refugee and other emergency situations;*
- *to improve the nutrition and quality of life of the most vulnerable people at critical times in their lives; and*
- *to help build assets and promote the self-reliance of poor people and communities, particularly through labour-intensive works programmes.*

WFP and its governing body, the Executive Board (EB), have agreed to a set of parameters which help to ensure WFP stays within its mandate and mission by governing and measuring WFP's work. These are the Strategic Plan and their related Strategic Objectives; and the Strategic Results Framework which is used to measure the success of WFP's operations against the Strategic Plan.

2.3.1. The Strategic Plan and Strategic Objectives

WFP's Strategic Plans establish the organization's direction and management priorities, typically in four to five year periods, and must be approved by the EB. The Strategic Plan 2014-2017 provides the framework for WFP's operations and its role in achieving a world with zero hunger. The Strategic Plans contain sets of Strategic Objectives (SO's) describing what needs to be achieved. Programme activities (such as FFA) are used to achieve the SO's. The balance of SO's and programme activities guide the selection of programme categories – i.e. Emergency Operations (EMOPs), Protracted Relief and Recovery Operations (PRROs) and Country Programme (CP) or Development (DEV) projects. Guidance on which FFA activities are most appropriate and relevant according to the SO, and how they fit into the programme categories, is found in **Annex 1d**.

Note: to align with the SDGs, a new Strategic Plan 2017-2021 with related SOs will be advanced by one year and presented at the November 2016 Executive Board. Once approved, **Annex 1d** will be updated accordingly following the new Strategic Plan 2017-2021 and its related SOs.

2.3.2. The Strategic Results Framework

The **Strategic Results Framework (SRF)**³⁵ is the basis of WFP's measurement of its performance against the Strategic Plan. The SRF provides the basis for aligning country-level monitoring and reporting in relation to the SOs, allowing WFP to track outcomes and outputs at project level and aggregate these to show corporate level achievements. In this way, the SRF provides the basis for accountability of actual country-level activities against planned activities aligned with the Strategic Plan. Guidance on how to use the SRF for Monitoring and Evaluation of FFA is found in **Chapter 7**.

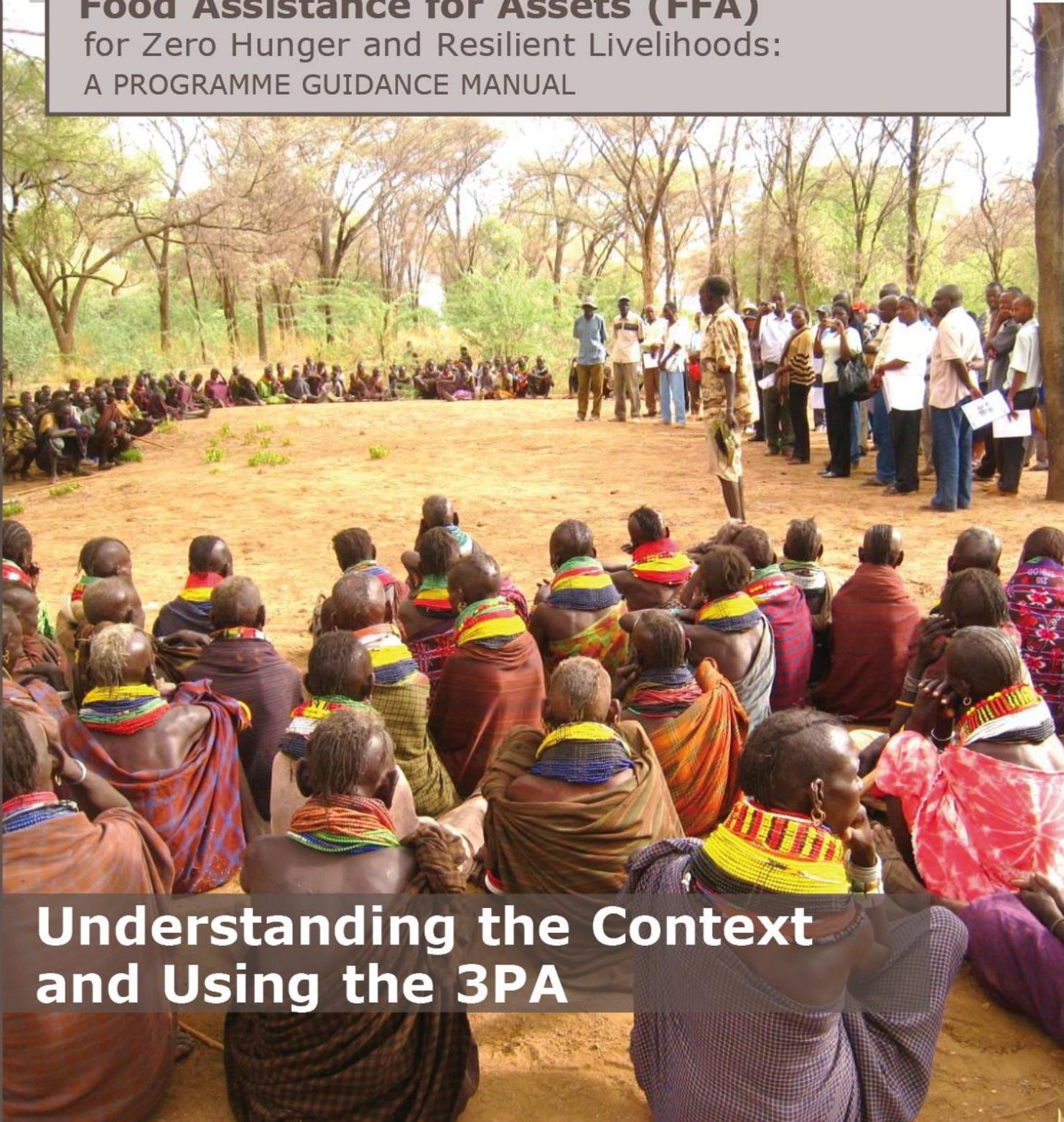
Note: in November 2016 the SRF will change into the **Corporate Results Framework (CRF)** to align with Strategic Plan 2017-2021. The CRF will differ from the current SRF in several ways: first, it will be a single, comprehensive framework providing a complete picture of WFP's expected results and metrics for the 2017-2021 period; secondly, the CRF will, for the first time, include impact level statements and indicators; thirdly, the top of the CRF results hierarchy will be aligned with those SDG goals and targets of relevance to WFP's vision of zero hunger (especially SDG 2); and finally, the CRF will be a key instrument to help guide planning, budgeting, monitoring, performance management and reporting at HQ-, Regional-, and Country levels.

³⁴ Available at: <http://www.wfp.org/about/mission-statement>

³⁵ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/forms/wfp261465.pdf>

Chapter 2

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Understanding the Context and Using the 3PA

1. OPERATIONAL POSITIONING OF FFA WITHIN THE COUNTRY CONTEXT

1.1. Key elements to consider for FFA Programmes

A solid rationale as to why WFP response is required and what it aims to achieve must be based on a robust contextual analysis of the country. It is important to understand the contextual differences within a country to geographically position different programme rationales, the livelihoods, partnerships and opportunities that exist at sub-national levels, and finally of the local conditions, needs, and aspirations of vulnerable communities themselves and the people within them.

Such sub-national variations can be consolidated into an overall description of the country context, ensuring that national level WFP rationales and response strategies for a country are built on local contexts, whilst simultaneously determining the geographical targeting and broad FFA measures that would be relevant to each specific context – i.e. the 'why', the 'where', and with 'what'. Beyond government and national-level frameworks, strategies, and policies that guide FFA programming (**Chapter 1**), key elements in determining country context for FFA include:

1. **Food security and nutrition status:** this is WFP's entry point to provide food assistance programmes – i.e. the geographical areas where populations and individuals are found to be or are at risk to food and nutrition insecurity. Knowing where hungry and undernourished people are is where to focus WFP's FFA efforts to contribute to **SDG 2: Ending Hunger, and achieve Food Security and improved Nutrition**.
2. **Shocks and stressors:** repeated exposure to these events prevent vulnerable populations from moving out of food insecurity as they are caught in a struggle of coping with crisis and with insufficient time to recover before the next shock occurs. Knowing where, how often, and the types of and complexities of shocks that are experienced informs where to focus safety nets and disaster risk reduction (DRR) efforts, supported by early warning and preparedness actions. Particularly for natural shocks, this information shows where to focus WFP's FFA efforts to contribute to **SDG 13: Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts**; the **Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction: priorities 1, 2, 3, 4**; and under **SDG 2 to create conditions that 'Promote Sustainable agriculture'**.
3. **Land degradation:** there is a strong correlation between levels of land degradation and shocks - the more degraded the land, the greater the negative impacts of shocks will be. Understanding the relationship between land degradation and the frequency and types of shocks is a critical element in building rationales for resilience building and DRR. Knowing where land degradation is severe and/or is increasing provides a lens for WFP FFA programmes to contribute to **SDG 15: Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss**; the **Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction: priorities 1, 3**; and under **SDG 2 to create conditions that 'Promote Sustainable agriculture'**.
4. **Agro-ecological zones, livelihoods, and seasonality:** **livelihoods** are the relationship between people and the landscape (i.e. how they use it) and how they live, whilst **agro-ecological zones** indicate what the primary land use and production system is on which these livelihoods depend. **Seasonality** is the time of the year in which different events occur and their impacts on livelihoods and agro-ecological systems, and consequently what people – girls and boys, women and men – will do at these times. This contributes to understanding how WFP's FFA can contribute to **SDG 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls**; the **Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction: priorities 1, 2, 3, 4**.

1.2. Understanding Country Contexts

Trend analyses – that is, using and comparing historical information to identify common patterns and differences – are a way of understanding and showing what people have been experiencing. This provides the evidence of the long-term context that people have faced, and is essential to inform the justifications and rationales needed for long-term programming, including for FFA.

Combining trends of food security and nutrition status with exposure to shocks identifies where and which food insecure populations have experienced repeated shocks. Overlaying this with trends of land degradation informs both current and future land-related risks.

Interpreting this context against the types of agro-ecological zones, livelihoods, and seasonality of these areas enables the identification, positioning, and delivery of food assistance in ways that also reduce people's vulnerability and risks to disasters and shocks. These are the key elements in finding entry points for FFA, and positioning the programme within longer-term/multi-year planning and operations within recovery, DRR, Safety Nets, and resilience building efforts.

1.2.1. Food Security and Nutrition: Links to FFA

WFP's entry point is based on food security and/or nutrition status – in geographical areas where people are found to be food insecure. This information is provided through food security and nutrition assessments, analyses, and/or monitoring systems, depending on the assessment and analysis systems that a country has in place.

These can be regular (e.g. monthly, quarterly, or yearly) such as WFP VAM's Food Security Monitoring Systems (FSMS), Emergency Food Security Assessments (EFSA's), partner analyses (e.g. the Integrated Phase Classification (IPC) and FEWSNET), or Government-led assessments (e.g. Long and Short Rains Assessments in Kenya), or the Southern Africa country-specific Vulnerability Assessment Committee's (VAC) analyses. They provide information on the current food security and nutrition situation at the time the assessment was done, and in certain cases may also include a time-bound projection (e.g. until the next harvest) on how the food security may evolve. This is critical information to inform on-going or new programmes in the short-term as they reflect the current situation, but are insufficient to inform and design long-term programming.

Conducting trend analyses using historical assessment data will help to overcome this challenge, as they provide an understanding of a longer-term context in which to interpret new and regular food security and nutrition assessment findings.

For example, a resilience-building FFA programme is a multi-year effort requiring a long-term plan. The most recent assessment shows 35% of the population in a specific area is food insecure and is likely to remain so until the next harvest. Whilst this is enough evidence to justify food assistance until the next harvest, it is insufficient to make the case for continued food assistance after it – evidence is needed showing that they will still be food insecure over the next few years (i.e. in the longer-term). Consolidating data from all food security assessments done in the past will show those areas and the proportion of the population within them that have been **consistently food insecure**. This is a trend analysis that shows where **food insecurity is recurring and hence predictable** – and provides the evidence to justify long-term programmatic engagements.

The same principle applies for nutrition information, although such data tends to be more limited. Where nutrition trend analyses cannot be done due to lack of data, a simple overlay of the most recent nutrition information over a historical trend of food insecurity can be used. This provides insights as to whether there is a convergence between food insecurity and nutrition status to further inform FFA design. Nutrition can be presented in two ways: as stunting, which reflects a long-term chronic nutrition problem; and wasting, which shows where undernutrition is rapid and likely as the result of a shock.

1.2.2. Shocks: Types and Relevance to FFA

Although it is impossible to predict with any certainty when a shock will happen, historical trend analyses of shocks (and in particular for natural shocks) provide insights into the likelihood of these events occurring in the future and the time or season in which they can be expected.

Once trends in food security, nutrition, and shocks are understood, it is essential to know the type of shock(s) that people face to begin informing the kind of impacts they will have on food security and vulnerability, and how FFA can be used to reduce these risks (further detailed in **Annex 2a**). Any number of diverse shocks can occur, and can be broadly classified as:

- i) **Natural shocks** – e.g. droughts, floods, cyclones, earthquakes, tsunamis, etc.
- ii) **Man-made shocks** – e.g. conflicts
- iii) **Economic shocks** – e.g. high food prices, etc.
- iv) **Complex (or multiple) shocks** are the simultaneous occurrence of more than one shock, comprised of any combination of the above – e.g. conflict and high food prices during a drought; flooding at the onset of rains after a drought, etc.

Furthermore, shocks can also be regarded as:

- i) **Rapid onset** - such as floods, storms, earthquakes etc. that can happen very quickly and unexpectedly, and which are likely to require immediate emergency responses.
- ii) **Slow onset** – such as droughts, where the shock unfolds at a slower rate and there is more time for preparedness and planning.

Knowing the 'type' of shock(s) that can occur, and the likelihood of their future occurrence based on the regularity of these events in the past, is critical to support efforts to build resilience to shocks, and to determine the rationales for using FFA. **Consider for example:**

- Natural shocks such as droughts and tropical storms – although not 'predictable' – do occur more frequently and during specific times of the year. Historical trend analyses can show the regularity of these shocks and can be used as a proxy of the likelihood of their occurrence in the future, and hence as a rationale for using FFA for resilience building.
- Showing the likelihood of certain natural shocks occurring, particularly rapid-onset and infrequent ones (e.g. earthquakes/tsunami's) is generally not possible. This makes building FFA rationales for resilience unlikely, although FFA can be used during the emergency and (early) recovery before transitioning to longer-term resilience building efforts.
- Other shocks, particularly man-made or economic, can be rapid (e.g. outbreak of conflict) or slow onset (e.g. increasing food prices) depending on circumstances. The ability to anticipate these events through historical trend analyses may not always be possible, and FFA as a response to these shocks will likely be limited to emergency and/or early recovery interventions, and resilience building respectively, as they begin to occur.

1.2.3. Land Degradation: Relevance to FFA

The status of the natural environment can magnify the impact of shocks. Heavily degraded land - that is, land that is no longer protected because vegetation cover is lost, soils are laid bare, and is greatly eroded – becomes unable to withstand the natural elements, such as rain, wind, and temperatures, to which it is exposed. These elements on degraded land further increase degradation, leading to a cyclical and destructive effect that makes land extremely fragile and unable to withstand even normal climatic patterns.

For example even normal rainfall on highly degraded lands leads to further soil loss and erosion, and in turn can lead to shocks. Above normal heavy and intense rains can be disastrous – degraded lands cannot capture, absorb, and withstand such rain and heightens the risk of landslides and floods. In turn, floods and landslides further degrade land and increase its susceptibility to shocks.

People rely on the natural environment for their livelihoods and coping strategies during times of crisis, and poor land practices and unsustainable use of environmental resources will increase land degradation and the risk of shocks. This becomes a cyclical pattern, with human pressure on land contributing to the risk of increasing degradation in an effort to cope. Understanding links between land degradation and its capacity to magnify the impact of shocks is crucial for the development and design of FFA programming. Details of land degradation and its causes are found in **Annex 2b**.

1.2.4. Agro-ecological zones and Livelihoods: Relevance to FFA

Agro-ecological zones and livelihoods are closely interlinked. Agro-ecological zones differ in soil types, precipitation (e.g. rainfall, snow), and temperatures, which together provide the conditions that determine the type of vegetation that will grow – for example, deep and lush rainforests in wet and warm tropical environments; or sparse tree and grass cover in hot, dry, and sandy arid and semi-arid environments, etc. People are adapted to the environmental conditions and natural resources they contain, and determine how they live and make their living (i.e. their livelihoods).

Broadly, there are two types of agro-ecological zones WFP operates in:

Arid / semi-arid zones; and
Tropical / sub-tropical zones

Each agro-ecological zone has its own broad livelihood groups. Arid and semi-arid lands contain pastoralists, agro-pastoralists, and farming communities on marginal lands. Tropical and sub-tropical zones mostly support settled agrarian livelihoods. If these agro-ecological zones are next to coastlines or contain large water-bodies, then livelihoods could be based predominantly on fishing. Urban livelihoods will be found in all agro-ecological zones. It is important to note that livelihoods follow seasonal patterns which will differ in each agro-ecological zone, and are at risk to and respond to specific (natural/weather-based) shocks experienced at specific times of the year.

Precipitation and altitude are major contributors to seasonality - for instance, rainfall patterns will determine when 'wet, or rainy' and 'dry' seasons occur; higher altitudes will have colder, snowy winters whilst low-lying areas will experience hotter or more moderate temperatures all year round, etc. Such differences also determine the types of (natural) shocks and when they are likely to occur – for example, a greater likelihood of droughts and flash floods in drier, arid zones if the rainy season fails; or the likelihood of cyclones and storms in tropical areas during the times of monsoon rains, etc. The relationships between agro-ecological zones themselves can influence the type of shocks that can be found in these areas – for example, melting snow in high altitude, mountainous areas during the spring can result in flooding in adjacent low-lying areas, etc.

FFA should consider and address damaging livelihood practices and negative coping strategies that further aggravate land degradation and impact of shocks - for example, cutting trees for charcoal-making and sales in sub-tropical zones which will accelerate land degradation and greatly increase flood and landslide risk during cyclones; or the heavy congregation of animals in pastures in arid/semi-arid zones which strips vegetation cover and increases soil erosion, and further loss of vegetation. More details on livelihoods and their relationship to FFA are found in **Annex 2c**.

2. Tools to understanding the context for FFA

Understanding country contexts to position FFA is based on two major and interlinked analytical processes – WFP’s Programme Design Framework and the Three-Pronged Approach (3PA), which provide a combination of analytical tools and consultative processes.

2.1. The Programme Design Framework and FFA

The **Programme Design Framework**³⁶ is a tool to assist in the formulation and design of new operations and programmes. It sets out an overall framework with seven key principles guiding programme design, six building blocks related to the analyses required to inform programme objectives and design decisions, and examples of technical areas that make up programme components – including FFA. It also emphasizes the need for carrying out **risk management**³⁷ (from assessment to mitigation) across functions (programmatic, financial, security, reputational etc.) and from varying perspectives (for example, beneficiaries, partners and WFP).

The **six programme design building blocks** (below) are an integral part of consultative processes and play a major role in informing the decisions on programme objectives and detailed programme design work. Each building block is critical to generate information that programme officers can use to define objectives and detailed programme responses and decisions:

1. **Exposure to Vulnerability** (i.e. food security trends)
2. **Trends of Shocks/Risks** (i.e. recurrence and frequency)
3. **Alignment and Complementarity** (i.e. of programmes and partners)
4. **Strategic Positioning** (i.e. of government policies and strategies, etc.)
5. **Implementation Capacity** (i.e. to design and implement effective programmes)
6. **M&E and Good Practices** (i.e. lessons learnt and programme effectiveness)

The guidance on the Programme Design Framework shows how these building blocks link together, and how each one of these are used to inform FFA (and other programmes).

The Three-pronged Approach (3PA) is in effect a translation of how to approach building blocks 1, 2, and 3. The 3PA brings together the historical exposure and trends of food security and natural shocks, identifies the alignment and complementarities of programmes and partners, and complements the strategic positioning of FFA.

The other three building blocks are equally important, as they bring in the aspects of government (and partner) policies, systems, and infrastructure/capacities that need to be considered (covered in building blocks 4 and 5), and the importance of doing M&E from both a reporting perspective and to inform overall programme design (building block 6). This framework should be shared with partners at the outset of a new programme design process.

³⁶ WFP. 2012. Programme Design Framework. Available at:

http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp253408.pdf

³⁷ Risk management guidance manual available at: http://pqm.wfp.org/index.php/Topics:Risk_Management

3. USING THE THREE-PRONGED APPROACH (3PA) TO OPERATIONALIZE FFA

Understanding country contexts to position FFA is based on the Three-Pronged Approach (3PA), which is a combination of analytical tools and consultative processes. The 3PA is a programming approach developed by WFP in consultation with governments and partners to strengthen the planning and design of (amongst others) resilience building, productive safety nets, disaster risk reduction, and preparedness – and informs if there is a role for, and how to position, FFA within these programmes.

The 3PA is WFP’s analytical and planning contribution to the joint Rome-based Agencies (RBA) Conceptual Framework for Strengthening Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition, and is featured in the WFP Policy on Resilience, 2015.

The 3PA contains the previously discussed elements – food security, nutrition, shocks, land degradation, agro-ecological zones/livelihoods, and seasonality (amongst others). It uses historical data to identify trends of recurring and predictable food insecurity to inform plans and policies, promote operational partnerships, and strengthens planning and design of long-term programmes.

The 3PA brings people, governments and partners together to identify the context-specific actions required, using converging analyses, consultations, and participatory approaches. It is made up of three consultative and technical processes at three different levels:

- 1. The Integrated Context Analysis (ICA)** at the national level: a collaborative and consultative programming tool that helps orient geographic prioritisation for intervention based on where different levels of recurrence of food insecurity and natural shocks have historically overlapped. It is used to inform strategic programmatic decision-making in specific geographical areas in resilience, disaster risk reduction, social protection, and preparedness actions.
- 2. Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP)** at the sub-national level: Consultative process that brings together communities, government, and partners to develop a shared understanding of the context and to highlight which ongoing programmes should be implemented when, for whom, and by which partners, during typical and crisis years and identify programme gaps. This dialogue aims to strengthen operational plans across multiple sectors and institutions, to inform resilience-building, productive safety nets and other relevant agendas, and to enhance partnerships and coordination.
- 3. Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP)** at the local level: A community level participatory exercise to empower vulnerable communities and women, build a shared understanding of livelihoods, landscapes, shocks and stresses, vulnerabilities and priority needs, and to develop a multi-sectorial action plans tailored to the local context.

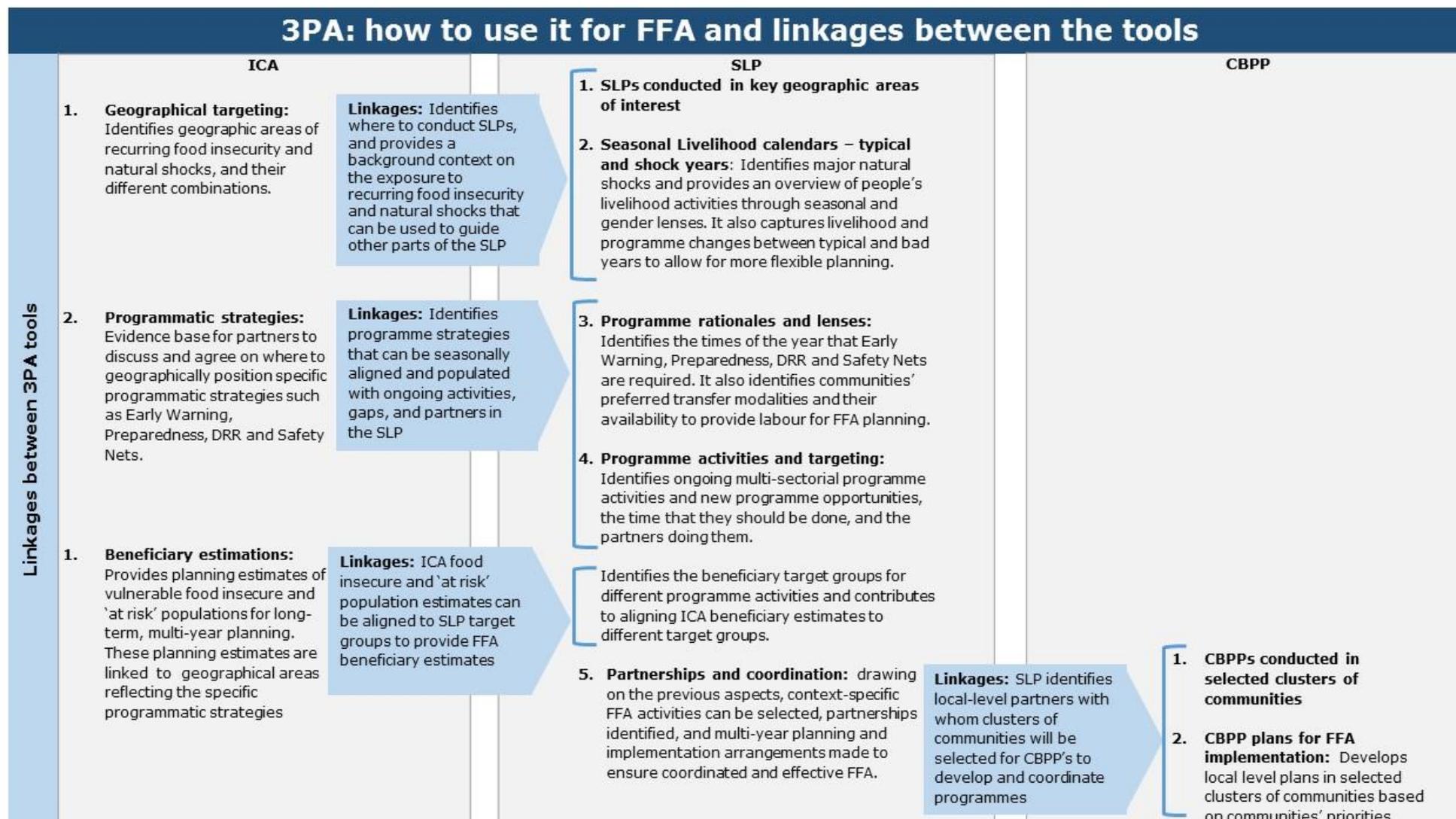
Given that the 3PA informs more than just FFA and is of relevance to and used by other Divisions and Units within WFP, the guidance on the methodology and how to conduct the **3PA**³⁸ is found within the overall WFP Programme Guidance Manual.

The following sections however will outline how to use the 3PA for FFA specifically.

³⁸ 3PA guidance available at: http://pgm.wfp.org/index.php/Using_the_3PA

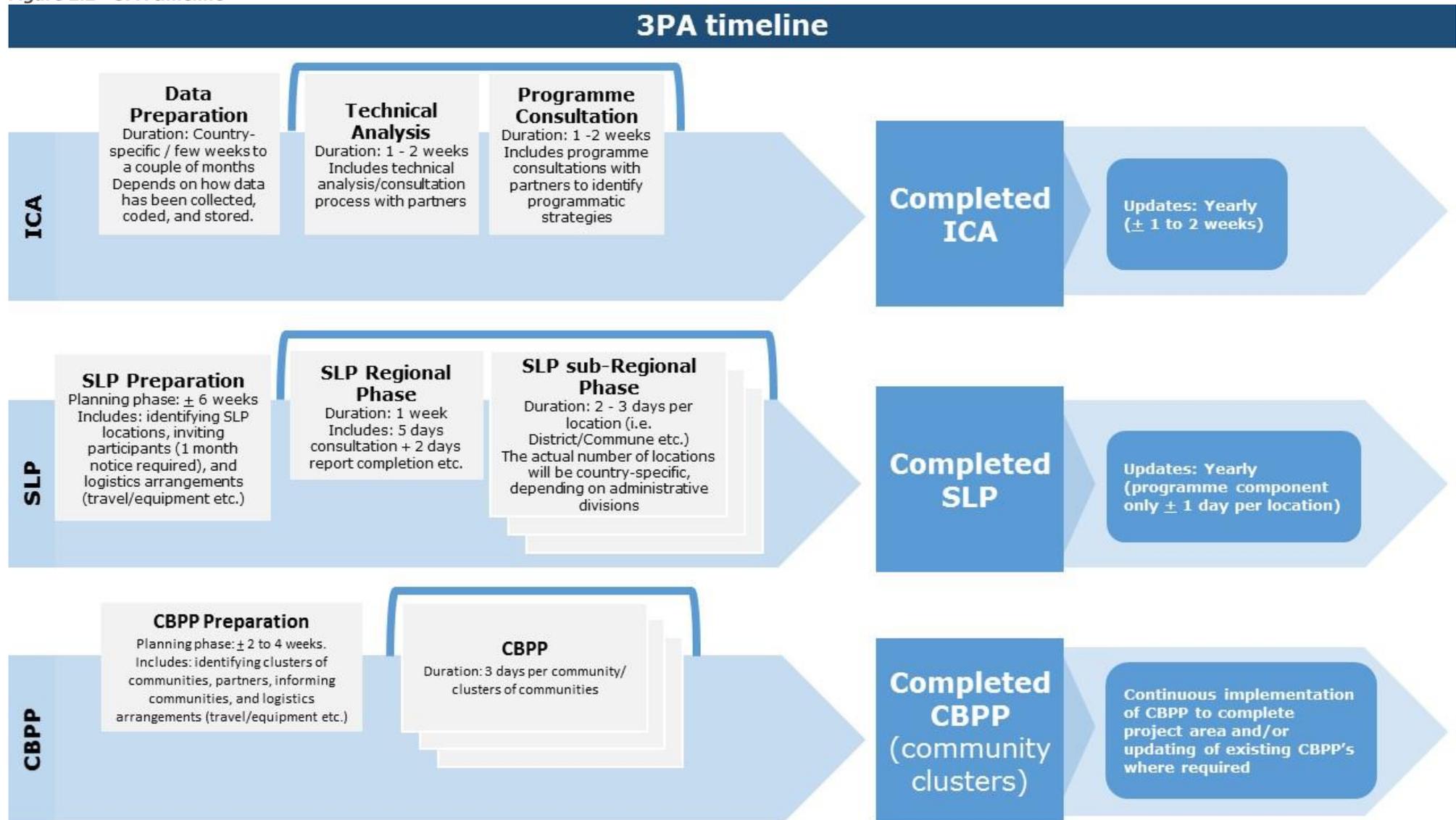
3PA linkages

Figure 2.1 - 3PA: how to use it and linkages between the tools



3PA timeline

Figure 2.2 - 3PA timeline



3.1. Using the Integrated Context Analysis (ICA) for FFA

The ICA combines historical trends of food security, natural shocks and land degradation with other information such as nutrition, seasonality and livelihoods to identify different areas of intervention and appropriate programme strategies.

The ICA is based on mapping historical trend analyses across a number of technical and sectorial disciplines, the findings of which are overlaid onto each other to identify areas of convergence, and shown in maps. By focussing on historical trends and moving away from snapshot situational analyses, the ICA helps to understand the recurrence of food insecurity and exposure to natural shocks, by geographical areas and numbers of food insecure people to better understand context.

The value of the trend analysis lies in providing the evidence of where these factors (such as food insecurity, shocks, land degradation³⁹ etc.) are constantly and predictably occurring, which in turn guides where longer-term programmes are likely to be required. This complements the snapshot analysis that shows an existing situation to inform whether any short-term adjustments are needed in on-going, longer-term programmes.

Once an ICA has been completed, findings should be reviewed together with governments and partners to jointly identify and discuss overall and appropriate long-, medium-, and short-term programmatic strategies that draw on their technical expertise and understanding of the country. The result would be an evidence-based tool for decision-making and joint identification of such programmatic strategies, whilst ensuring that these approaches are complementary to each other.

There are three key aspects to draw upon when using the ICA for FFA:

- 1. Geographical targeting:** The ICA identifies geographic areas of recurring food insecurity and natural shocks, and their combinations. This can be used to find geographical areas where further in-depth analyses and specific studies are needed (e.g. watershed and natural resource use, etc.) to provide more detailed information to inform FFA programming, including where to conduct **Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP)** consultations to identify area-specific complementary and multi-sectorial programmes. By using ICA areas to target such efforts, timing and costs can be reduced.
- 2. Programmatic strategies:** the convergence and combinations of recurrent food insecurity and shocks allows to identify geographical areas for different types of programmatic strategies, and builds the case for targeted, predictable, and long-, medium-, and short-term interventions. They provide the evidence base for partners to discuss and agree on where to geographically position specific programmatic strategies, such as early warning, preparedness, disaster risk reduction (DRR) and safety nets, and the combinations between them in different areas for effective resilience building. For FFA, they provide the entry points for determining how this activity will be used – i.e. for DRR, for productive safety nets, as part of preparedness, etc. and how this contributes to resilience building. In turn, this will also help define to which Strategic Objectives FFA will be aligned to within the country operation.
- 3. Beneficiary estimations:** historical estimates of the numbers of food insecure populations are used to show the predictability of people in need, providing the evidence for making the case for long-term assistance for affected populations and in particular for safety nets. They also indicate the number of people 'at risk', that could potentially become food insecure in the event of a shock, to inform preparedness and emergency response planning, as well as estimating a core number of 'most vulnerable' people, that are always food insecure irrespective of good years. Estimates provided are used for planning purposes, in conjunction with the SLP process.

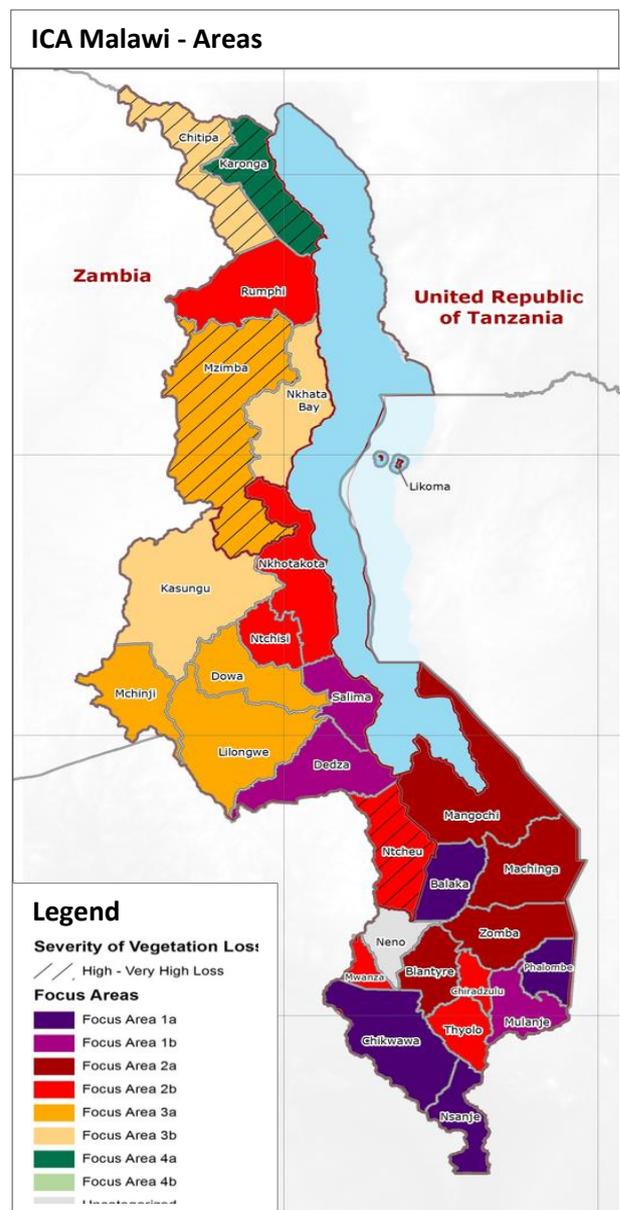
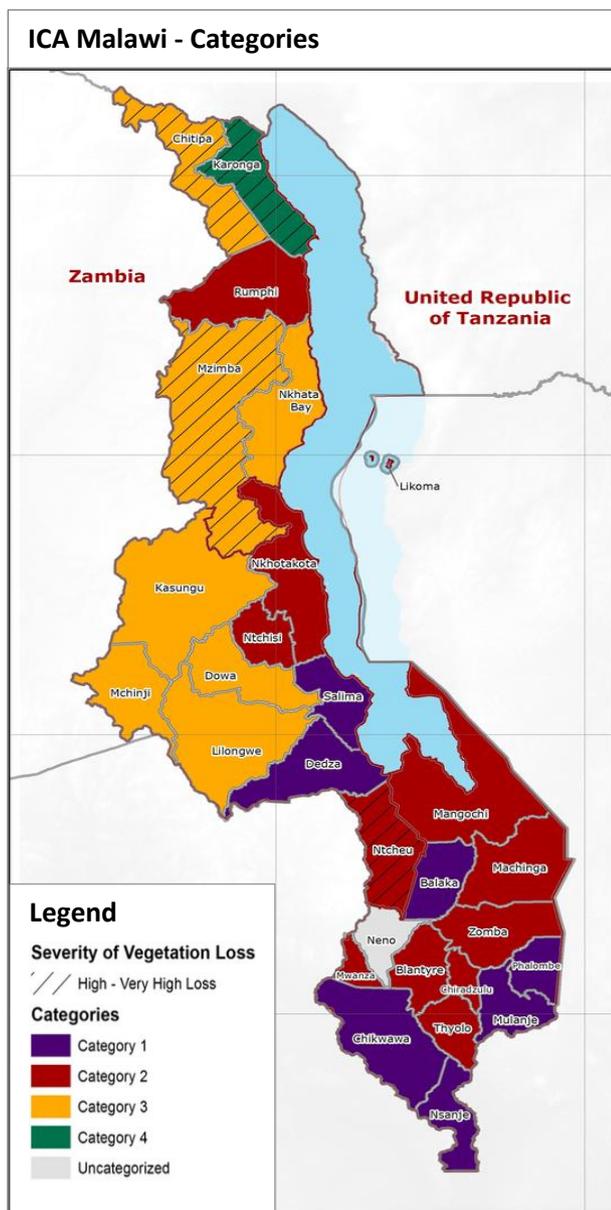
³⁹ These are the key indicators that are analyzed in an ICA. Additional indicators of interest to WFP and other partners (e.g. conflict and other shocks; human, livestock and crop diseases; agricultural yields and production; school enrollment and attendance rates; clinics, schools, markets, and other infrastructure; etc.) can be identified, analyzed, and overlaid onto the ICA to create a country-specific and tailored ICA+. Refer to the [ICA Guidance](http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/forms/wfp274385.pdf) for more information: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/forms/wfp274385.pdf>

3.1.1. How to use the ICA for Geographical Targeting of FFA:

The ICA identifies nine possible combinations of recurring food insecurity and natural shocks, and synthesizes these into five categories (below), as illustrated in the 2015 Malawi ICA map.

| Exposure to Natural Shocks | Recurrence of Food Insecurity | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | LOW | MEDIUM | HIGH |
| LOW | Area 5 CATEGORY 5 | Area 3 B CATEGORY 3 | Area 3 A CATEGORY 3 |
| MEDIUM | Area 4 B CATEGORY 4 | Area 2 B CATEGORY 2 | Area 1 B CATEGORY 1 |
| HIGH | Area 4 A | Area 2 A | Area 1 A |

Figure 2.3 - 2015 Malawi ICA map



Categories are used to identify broad programmatic strategies based on the combinations of recurring food insecurity and natural climate-related shocks. These provide the evidence required to justify where to consider and place safety nets (predictability of food insecure populations) and disaster risk reduction (occurrence of natural shocks) actions, including early warning and preparedness, which, when combined, provide a major foundation that contributes to building resilience for food security.

Areas (that make up the categories) are used to deepen the understanding of the nature of the recurrence and occurrence of food insecurity and natural shocks, to further guide the placement and type of programmatic strategies that could be applied.

The **Table 2.1** below shows the generic descriptions of ICA categories / areas. For more information on **how to use ICA categories/areas for FFA** see **Table 2.2**.

Table 2.1 - Generic descriptions of ICA categories/ areas

| CATEGORIES | AREAS | CONTEXTS | BROAD PROGRAMMATIC STRATEGIES |
|------------|----------|--|---|
| CATEGORY 1 | AREA 1 A | High recurrence of FI High exposure to natural shocks | Longer-term programming to address conditions of protracted crises and frequent natural shocks that impede recovery, aiming to improve food security, reduce risk and build resilience to natural shocks and other stressors. |
| | AREA 1 B | High recurrence of FI Medium exposure to natural shocks | |
| CATEGORY 2 | AREA 2 A | Medium recurrence of FI High exposure to natural shocks | Programming to address seasonal food insecurity and/or to support post-shock recovery , aiming to reduce risk and build resilience to natural shocks and other stressors. |
| | AREA 2 B | Medium recurrence of FI Medium exposure to natural shocks | |
| CATEGORY 3 | AREA 3 A | High recurrence of FI Low exposure to natural shocks | Longer-term programming to address conditions of long-term (chronic) food insecurity likely due to non-climatic causes (e.g., pervasive poverty, protracted conflict, etc.) aiming to improve food security and build resilience to man-made shocks and stressors. |
| | AREA 3 B | Medium recurrence of FI Low exposure to natural shocks | |
| CATEGORY 4 | AREA 4 A | Low recurrence of FI High exposure to natural shocks | Programming that strengthens early warning and preparedness (considering land degradation trends) to reduce risk and build resilience to natural shocks and other stressors. |
| | AREA 4 B | Low recurrence of FI Medium exposure to natural shocks | |
| CATEGORY 5 | AREA 5 | Low recurrence of FI Low exposure to natural shocks | Programming that strengthens preparedness to reduce risk and build resilience to natural shocks and other stressors. |

Whilst the ICA map presents the categories, and areas within them, as a synthesis of different trends of food security and natural shocks, the ICA report will provide deeper insights into the context – for example, the natural shock layer presented in the maps could be a combination of rapid- (e.g. floods) and slow- (e.g. drought) onset shocks, whilst the reports will show where these shocks are individually occurring in different categories/areas. Similarly, the food security layers can inform whether the recurrence of food insecurity is either constant (e.g. all year) or seasonal. These are important to not only to inform the programmatic strategies (e.g. seasonal safety nets, or preparedness in rapid-onset shock contexts), but also the type of FFA programmes that could potentially be required (e.g. productive or protective assets within safety nets, etc.).

The ICA also includes the following additional layers that, when overlaid onto the categories/areas, provide a set of lenses to further inform programming. For FFA, the following should be considered:

- **Land degradation:** in areas where this is high and/or accelerated, FFA should also stabilize landscapes to improve natural resources for improved production/livelihoods, and DRR.
- **Nutrition:** in areas where undernutrition is high and causes undernourishment, FFA should aim to improve nutrition (e.g. through water programmes that contribute to reduce the time women spend away from children and compromise caring practices, that improve hygiene, increase production etc.)
- **Seasonality:** when FFA activities should be implemented (e.g. dry seasons; times of mobility of pastoralists, etc.)
- **Livelihoods:** the types of populations and the natural resources/assets that are likely to be needed (e.g. to improve livestock browse and water; land management techniques for agriculture, etc.)
- **Populations:** where food insecure populations are found, their relative density, etc.

The following **Table 2.2** show how to use the ICA categories/areas to decide how FFA can be positioned in different contexts. This should be used together with the lenses (above), and with the Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) consultative processes to further inform the use of FFA.

Table 2.2 - How to use FFA categories to inform FFA

| HOW TO USE ICA CATEGORIES TO INFORM FFA | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
| | Contexts | FFA Programmes | Strategic objectives |
| CATEGORY 1 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recurring food insecurity year after year – in both Area 1A and Area 1B. This demonstrates a protracted case of food insecurity with yearly predictability of food insecure populations, providing the evidence to justify long-term assistance to end hunger and the need for Safety Nets. • High exposure or risk to natural shocks – exposure is much higher in Area 1A compared to Area 1B, but still important. This demonstrates a regular recurrence/risk to these events and the evidence to support a strong focus on Disaster Risk Reduction, coupled with early warning, preparedness and early response actions. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FFA as part of Productive and Protective Safety Nets: to address long-term food insecurity, FFA can meet short-term access to food through its transfers whilst creating assets that improve and strengthen livelihoods, combined with those that stabilize landscapes (particularly in areas with high levels of land degradation) and reduce the risk and impact of natural shocks, thereby contributing to ending hunger over time. • FFA as part of preparedness strategies: given the high risk of natural shocks, the pre-identification of FFA activities that can be quickly scaled up to absorb additional food insecure people in the event of shocks, together with the planning (i.e. partners and agreements, tools, targeting, etc.) arrangements are required to ensure a rapid response. | <p>In both Areas 1A & 1B FFA is relevant to build resilience under:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic Objective 3 - Reduce Risk and Enable People, Communities and Countries to Meet their Own Food and Nutrition Needs |
| CATEGORY 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seasonal food insecurity or recovery from shock – both Area 2A and Area 2B. Reviewing the data and understanding the historical context will indicate whether food insecurity is seasonal (each year) or linked to exposure and recovery from a shock. The former can demonstrate the seasonal predictability of food insecurity and hence the evidence for long-term assistance and Safety Nets, whilst the latter indicates the need for recovery based programmes. • High exposure or risk to natural shocks – in both Area 2A and Area 2B This demonstrates the regular recurrence/ risk to these events and the evidence to support a strong focus on Disaster Risk Reduction, coupled with early warning, preparedness and early response actions. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FFA as part of Productive and Protective Seasonal Safety Nets: to address seasonal food insecurity, FFA can meet seasonal food short-falls through its transfers whilst creating assets that improve and strengthen livelihoods, combined with those that stabilize landscapes (particularly in areas with high levels of land degradation) and reduce the risk and impact of natural shocks to contribute towards ending seasonal hunger. • FFA to support Recovery: to restore and rebuild livelihoods in post disaster and transitional situations. This is particularly relevant after a single rapid-onset shock (such as floods, earthquakes etc.) or after protracted crises (such as a drought, or multiple shocks) to stabilize situations, by rebuilding and/or putting in place key foundational assets to promote livelihoods, as well as those that reduce the risk and impact of shocks. • FFA as part of preparedness strategies: given the high risk of natural shocks, the pre-identification of FFA activities that can be quickly be scaled up to absorb additional food insecure people in the event of shocks, together with the planning (i.e. partners and agreements, tools, targeting, etc.) arrangements are required to ensure a rapid response. | <p>Depending on the context, in both Areas 2A & 2B FFA is relevant to build resilience under:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic Objective 3 - Reduce Risk and Enable People, Communities and Countries to Meet their Own Food and Nutrition Needs – where food insecurity is seasonal • Strategic Objective 2 - Support or restore food security and nutrition and establish or rebuild livelihoods in fragile settings and following emergencies – where the focus is on recovery |

| HOW TO USE ICA CATEGORIES TO INFORM FFA | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
| Contexts | FFA Programmes | Strategic objectives | |
| CATEGORY 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Protracted and/or seasonal food insecurity, or recovery from a non-natural shock – the recurrence of food insecurity is likely to be due to: <p>Area 3a – a deep-rooted structural problem or the recurrence of non-climatic shocks. The yearly predictability of food insecure populations in this area provides the evidence required for long-term assistance and the need for Safety Nets.</p> <p>Area 3B – either seasonal hunger (yearly) or recovery from a shock event. With the former, a Seasonal Safety Nets would be justified, whilst with the latter recovery based programmes. A review of the data contained in the ICA and an understanding of the context will indicate which of these scenarios has been the case.</p> • Low exposure or risk to natural shocks – in both Area 3A and Area 3B <p>Climate-related shocks do not appear to be a regular occurrence in these areas, yet exposure to other events could be factor – e.g. conflict and/or economic crises, or rapid-onset natural shocks such as earthquakes or tsunamis etc. that may require a focus on DRR, early warning, preparedness, and early response actions.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FFA as part of Productive and Protective Safety Nets: particularly in Area 3A to address conditions of protracted food insecurity likely due to non-climatic causes (e.g. pervasive poverty, protracted conflict, high food prices, etc.), FFA can meet short-term access to food whilst creating assets that improve and strengthen livelihoods, and in areas with high levels of land degradation with a focus on stabilizing landscapes to reduce future climate-related risks. • FFA as part of Productive and Protective Seasonal Safety Nets: to address seasonal food insecurity, FFA can meet seasonal food short-falls through its transfers whilst creating assets that improve and strengthen livelihoods, and if relevant and possible those that address shocks that may be experienced in the area. Where there is evidence of land degradation, FFA should aim to stabilize landscapes to reduce future risk and impacts of climatic shocks. • FFA to support Recovery: to restore and rebuild livelihoods in post disaster and transitional situations. This is particularly relevant after a single rapid-onset non-climatic shocks (e.g. earthquakes) or after protracted crises (e.g. conflict, high food prices, etc.) to stabilize situations, by rebuilding and/or putting in place key foundational assets to promote livelihoods, as well as those that reduce the risk and impact of shocks. • FFA as part of preparedness strategies: depending on if and the type of shocks being faced, early warning and preparedness measures may be relevant. In these cases, and if appropriate, the pre-identification of FFA activities that can be quickly scaled up to absorb additional food insecure people in the event of shocks, together with the planning (i.e. partners and agreements, tools, targeting, etc.) arrangements are required to ensure a rapid response. | <p>Depending on the context, in both Areas 3A & 3B FFA is relevant to build resilience under:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic Objective 3 - Reduce Risk and Enable People, Communities and Countries to Meet their Own Food and Nutrition Needs – where food insecurity is seasonal • Strategic Objective 2 - Support or restore food security and nutrition and establish or rebuild livelihoods in fragile settings and following emergencies – where the focus is on recovery |

| HOW TO USE ICA CATEGORIES TO INFORM FFA | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Contexts | FFA Programmes | Strategic objectives | |
| CATEGORY 4 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low or infrequent recurrence of food insecurity – in both Area 4A and Area 4B These areas do not show evidence of high levels of recurring food insecurity – although there may be pockets of food insecurity which, where identified, should be addressed. • High exposure or risk to natural shocks – exposure is much higher in Area 4A compared to Area 4B, but still important. This demonstrates a regular recurrence/risk to these events and the evidence to support a strong focus on Disaster Risk Reduction, coupled with early warning, preparedness and early response actions. | <p>Category 4 areas are not natural entry points for long-term FFA, although other WFP food assistance programmes may be relevant (e.g. nutrition, school feeding, P4P etc.). For FFA, consider:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FFA as part of preparedness strategies: given the high risk of natural shocks, the pre-identification of FFA activities that can be quickly scaled up to absorb additional food insecure people in the event of shocks, together with the planning (i.e. partners and agreements, tools, targeting, etc.) arrangements should be considered. • FFA as part of early response and recovery: given the high risk of natural shocks, FFA may play a role in emergency response and subsequent recovery to restore access to food during or immediately after shocks - for example, providing households with FFA supporting productive efforts such as clearing roads to improve access to emergency assistance, clearing drainage lines, repairing basic infrastructure linked to production, or reinforcing shelters, etc. Where relevant and depending on context (timing, type of shock, impact etc.) asset creation to stabilize landscapes to reduce the risk of and impact of natural disasters should be considered. | <p>In both Areas 4A & 4B may be relevant for FFA in the event of shocks, under:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic Objective 1 - Save Lives and Protect Livelihoods in Emergencies • Strategic Objective 2 - Support or restore food security and nutrition and establish or rebuild livelihoods in fragile settings and following emergencies – where the focus is on recovery |
| CATEGORY 5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low or infrequent recurrence of food insecurity - Area 5 does not show evidence of high levels of recurring food insecurity – although there may be pockets of food insecurity which, where identified, should be addressed. • Low exposure or risk to natural shocks – in Area 5 climate-related shocks do not appear to be a regular occurrence, yet exposure to other events could be factor – e.g. conflict and/or economic crises, or rapid-onset natural shocks such as earthquakes or tsunamis etc. that may require a focus on DRR, early warning, preparedness, and early response actions. | <p>Category 5 is not a natural entry point for long-term FFA, although other WFP food assistance programmes may be relevant (e.g. nutrition, school feeding, P4P etc.). For FFA, consider:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FFA as part of early response and recovery: whilst the risk of climate-related shocks is seen to be low, there could be other rapid-onset natural and/or manmade shocks that may require an emergency response and/or preparedness measures. In such cases, FFA may play a role including in a recovery phase to restore access to food during or immediately after shocks. Where relevant and depending on context (timing, type of shock, impact, levels of ;land degradation etc.) asset creation to stabilize landscapes to reduce the risk of and impact of future natural disasters should be considered. | <p>Category 5 may be relevant for FFA in the event of shocks, under:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic Objective 1 - Save Lives and Protect Livelihoods in Emergencies • Strategic Objective 2 - Support or restore food security and nutrition and establish or rebuild livelihoods in fragile settings and following emergencies – where the focus is on recovery |

3.1.2. How to use the ICA for FFA beneficiary estimations:

When developing a long-term plan, an estimation of the number of people that are likely to require assistance throughout this period is needed to inform the scale of the programme and budgeting requirements. These planning estimates can then be adjusted on a yearly basis throughout the programming cycle by food security assessments that reflect any changes in the current situation. This is crucial for a timely adjustment of beneficiary numbers, particularly in times of a shock.

ICA historical analyses of food insecure population numbers provide estimates for FFA planning.

Step 1: Comparing planned vs. actual FFA beneficiary numbers

To derive planning estimates for FFA, a first analysis of previous (FFA) beneficiary numbers should be conducted that compares planned and actual beneficiaries over time. This provides a basis against which to evaluate whether previous beneficiary planning estimates have been realistic and achievable. Two key areas need to be investigated:

- (i) where the numbers of planned beneficiaries was higher than the actual beneficiaries reached, then identify and understand the factors that prevented reaching the total planned beneficiaries and if these factors can be overcome; and
- (ii) where the numbers of actual beneficiaries was either the same as or higher than the planned beneficiaries, if this represents an opportunity to increase the number of FFA beneficiaries in the next round of programmes. This analysis will serve as a benchmark when reviewing the number of historically food insecure people identified through the ICA to determine potential FFA beneficiary numbers for long-term programming.

Step 2: ICA food insecure population estimates

The ICA presents population estimates to be considered for short-, medium- and long-term planning purposes. These are:

- **For Long-term planning:** the average estimated number of food insecure people in the last five years, reflecting the number of people who have been either (a) consistently food insecure or (b) have experienced food insecurity at some point as a result of a specific shock or event. This figure can represent an overall longer-term planning estimation. Within these estimates there are two sub-sets representing:
 - (i) **A core 'most vulnerable' group:** an estimated number of food insecure people who have been consistently food insecure in the last five years, irrespective of better conditions (e.g. good harvests; no shocks etc.). This represents those most vulnerable to food insecurity, and corresponds to **Group D of the SLP vulnerability profiling for targeting**
 - (ii) **A 'vulnerable' group⁴⁰:** seasonally food insecure people, or consistently food insecure likely as the result of a recent or repeated exposure to shocks. This group will correspond to **Group C (and some Group B) of the SLP vulnerability profiling for targeting**
- **For preparedness planning:** an estimate representing the number of additional people at risk of falling into food insecurity in the event of a shock (be it natural or man-made). This group will correspond to **Group B of the SLP vulnerability profiling for targeting**

Note: the explanations and descriptions of what is intended by Groups B, C, and D in the SLP vulnerability profiling for targeting is presented in this Chapter under **Section 3.2.3: How to use**

⁴⁰ Although this estimate might not be presented in the ICA reports, this can be easily calculated from the difference between (1) the overall long-term planning estimates and (2) the most vulnerable and at risk population estimates.

the SLP Programme Activities for FFA, and specifically under the heading: **Using the vulnerable household profiles for targeting FFA**

Step 3: Planning estimates for long-term FFA

The ICA food insecure population estimates are presented at Category and Area classification levels. Once ICA Areas where FFA will be implemented have been selected, review the long-term estimates identified by the ICA against the historical FFA planned and actual beneficiary analysis to determine the most realistic FFA beneficiary numbers for the programme.

These final planning estimates will be the basis to use for the duration of the FFA programme to ensure that people will be assisted for a sufficient number of years to reach the medium and long-term outputs and outcomes on livelihoods, DRR, and resilience that FFA intends to achieve.

Step 4: Planning estimates for FFA for preparedness

To strengthen preparedness and rapid response using FFA it is necessary to understand where FFA can be scaled up in the event of a shock. The FFA planned and actual beneficiary analysis from Step 1 will indicate where opportunities for a scale up – and to which levels – exist.

These numbers should be reviewed against the estimates of the additional people at risk to food insecurity from the ICA Area estimates, and the arrangements required as indicated in the '**FFA as part of preparedness strategies**' actions outlined in the ICA Category descriptions.

3.2. Using Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) for FFA

The SLP is a consultative process to design integrated multi-year, multi-sectorial, and complementary operational plans using livelihood, seasonal, and gender lenses.

The SLP is a powerful planning tool to coordinate stakeholders in identifying short- and long-term interventions suited to different contexts. It brings humanitarian and development interventions together by combining seasonal, livelihood, gender, crisis and programme aspects to identify the most appropriate range of interventions, and then aligning these into complementary short- and long-term plans for action. SLP complements existing government planning processes, providing a framework to align ongoing government and partners efforts at national and sub-national levels.

The value of the SLP lies in reaching a common understanding of the context between communities and government, partners, and WFP staff of the livelihoods in an area and how seasonal and non-seasonal shocks and stressors affect them, the identification of on-going programmes across sectors, and who is implementing them. These findings are used to align programme activities against livelihood activities according to the most appropriate time (seasonality) and target group (household profile), and to identify complementarities between multi-sectorial programmes and the partners delivering them.

SLP is conducted in two phases: the first phase at a broader, regional/provincial level to provide the overview of seasonality, livelihoods, and programming; the second phase refines and tailors the findings to district/commune levels (i.e. the lowest administrative level to which government development plans exist).

Ideally, an ICA would have been conducted prior to the SLP thereby providing the context against which to review SLP findings. The broad programme strategies identified through the ICA (e.g. Safety Nets, DRR, Preparedness, and their combinations to build resilience) will provide the FFA rationales and Strategic Objectives needed to explain why, how, and what FFA will address.

Once the SLP has been completed, the following four main outputs should be used to inform FFA:

- 1. Seasonal Livelihood calendars – typical and shock years:** these provide an overview of the livelihood activities and strategies in the area, explaining who (women and men, boys and girls) is doing what activities, and at which time in a 'typical year'. The calendar also shows the impact on livelihoods and what people (by gender) will do differently during 'shock' years, when the most common /recurring shock occurs. This informs how FFA can be used to strengthen livelihoods, reduce disaster risks and impacts, reduce hardships (especially for women and girls), and contributes to complementing other aspects of people's food security and nutrition.
- 2. Programme rationales and lenses:** this synthesizes times of the year that people (i) experience the least stresses and can make the greatest investments for their livelihoods; (ii) are preparing for difficult times ahead; and (iii) are experiencing the most difficult time of the year and draw on their investments to deal with these hardships. This aspect shows FFA's entry point into a resilience building continuum and overall strategy in relation to other partners' efforts. Within these timeframes, communities' preferred transfer modalities (cash, food, vouchers or a mix thereof) and availability to work are captured to be used for FFA planning.
- 3. Programme activities and targeting:** this aspect of the SLP identifies on-going multi-sectorial programme activities (and programme gaps) in the area and which partners are implementing them. It aligns these activities to the most appropriate times of the year that they should be done, based on peoples (by gender and target group) on-going livelihood activities, capacities, and needs. This is used to align and complement FFA activities with the actions of others.

4. Partnerships and implementation: drawing on the previous aspects, context-specific FFA activities can be selected, partnerships identified, and multi-year planning and implementation arrangements made and applied to ensure coordinated and effective FFA operationalization. The SLP also provides a solid set of arguments to advocate with partners and donors for multi-sectorial, multi-year and government-led interventions and investments in the right place and at the right time.

Figure 2.4 shows an example of Seasonal Livelihood Programming Calendars (from an SLP conducted in South Sudan in 2013). The following sections show 'zoom-ins' of specific parts of the calendar. Note that these calendars are a subset of the original version and are presented here for illustrative purposes only.

Figure 2.4 - SLP Seasonal Livelihood Calendar – example from Warrap State, South Sudan

| Typical year | | | | | | | | | | Trigger Months (Dry spell) | | | Bad year | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---------------|-------------------------|----------|---------|----------|-------------------------|-------|-----|----------------------------|--|--|--|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|
| Livelihoods calendar | | | | | | | | | | Livelihoods calendar | | | Livelihoods calendar | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | June | July | August | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August |
| Rains | Heavy rains | Lighter rains | Start of the dry season | | | | Difficult - hot and dry | | | | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains |
| General | Difficult - roads wet | | | | | | | | | | Difficult - roads wet | | | Good access - roads are dry (walking and driving) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Physical access | Women walking to collect water | | | | | | | | | | Women walking to collect water | | | Savara water shortages - 4 to 5 hours | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Water stress | Conflicts over water amongst communities in Warrap | | | | | | | | | | Conflicts over water amongst communities in Warrap | | | Increased conflicts over water and pastures | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cattle movements | Return to homestead (Wut Aker) | | | | | | | | | | Return to homestead (Wut Aker) | | | Wut Aker - stay home until it rains in Gok | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| On-farm Labour | Harvesting (men) | | | | | | | | | | Harvesting (men) | | | Late & reduced harvest | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Beans | Threshing (women) | | | | | | | | | | Threshing (women) | | | Threshing Sorghum (W. Land clearing/fencing (m) Tilling (planting) / weeding (men+) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sorghum | Threshing (women) | | | | | | | | | | Threshing (women) | | | Threshing Sorghum (W. Land clearing/fencing (m) Tilling (planting) / weeding (men+) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Crop/Livestock Diseases | Amy worms | | | | | | | | | | Amy worms | | | Amy worms | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Crops: Amy worms | Livestock outbreaks | | | | | | | | | | Livestock outbreaks | | | Livestock outbreaks | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Own food Production | Milk continues to decrease | | | | | | | | | | Milk continues to decrease | | | Milk - reduced | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cattle Milk | Sheep milk - for children | | | | | | | | | | Sheep milk - for children | | | Sheep milk - reduced - mostly kept for children | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Goat & sheep: Milk | Consumption of sorghum from own production and stocks | | | | | | | | | | Consumption of sorghum from own production and stocks | | | Green consumption - sorghum | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sorghum | Highest production | | | | | | | | | | Highest production | | | Highest production | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Income Sources | High sales - lower prices | | | | | | | | | | High sales - lower prices | | | No / minimal groundnut sales in a bad year | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Groundnut sales | Highest sales | | | | | | | | | | Highest sales | | | Hiring for land clearing / preparation / tilling / planting / weeding - higher price at start of season due to difficulty | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Head - farm labour | Less sales but better prices | | | | | | | | | | Less sales but better prices | | | Sales of sheep/goats start for celebrations / sales peak at height of hunger period but prices very low | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Goat / sheep sales | Hiring for land clearing / preparation / tilling / planting / weeding | | | | | | | | | | Hiring for land clearing / preparation / tilling / planting / weeding | | | Hiring for land clearing / preparation / tilling / planting / weeding - higher price at start of season due to difficulty | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Human Diseases | High sales - low prices | | | | | | | | | | High sales - low prices | | | High sales - low prices | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Malaria | Malnutrition - food stresses & shortages | | | | | | | | | | Malnutrition - food stresses & shortages | | | Malnutrition increases | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Malnutrition | Malnutrition - water stress, poor sanitation/caring practices | | | | | | | | | | Malnutrition - water stress, poor sanitation/caring practices | | | Malnutrition - food stresses & shortages | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Diarrhoea | More people affected with malaria (rains) | | | | | | | | | | More people affected with malaria (rains) | | | More people affected with malaria (rains & high grass) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Diarrhoea outbreak due to water contamination | Food stresses & shortages | | | | | | | | | | Food stresses & shortages | | | Diarrhoea outbreaks - water is contaminated | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Expenses | Lowest prices - cereals | | | | | | | | | | Lowest prices - cereals | | | Lowest prices | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Market prices - Cereals | Increasing cereal / food purchases | | | | | | | | | | Increasing cereal / food purchases | | | Cereal prices increase (high demand/reduced supply) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Food | Increasing expenditures on health / treatments / medicines | | | | | | | | | | Increasing expenditures on health / treatments / medicines | | | Food purchases begin and progressively increase - at the height of the hunger period food inputs are almost solely purchased | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Medicine | Savings and loans | | | | | | | | | | Savings and loans | | | Savings and loans | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agro-inputs | Hardest - food shortages / high workloads / stress | | | | | | | | | | Hardest - food shortages / high workloads / stress | | | Hardest - food shortages and workloads | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Men: better/harder | Better - harvests & food / celebrations / families together / resting | | | | | | | | | | Better - harvests & food / celebrations / families together / resting | | | Better months - food stocks/resting period | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Women: better/harder | Hardest - migration stresses / hot / higher workloads / food shortages | | | | | | | | | | Hardest - migration stresses / hot / higher workloads / food shortages | | | Difficulties increase - water shortages/limited income/high expenses and workloads/hunger period | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lean season | Peak of the lean season | | | | | | | | | | Peak of the lean season | | | Peak of the lean season | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Livelihoods calendar
This part of the calendar shows key livelihood indicators and the time of the year in which they occur, capturing the major impacts of shocks.

Programme lenses
These 'lenses' provide overall programming rationales and the broad times when they would support households' investments, preparedness for difficulties ahead, and the times when households face the greatest challenges.

Programme activities
The box below shows details of programme activities to be implemented throughout the year, the appropriate target groups selected for each programme activity, and the partners that are currently implementing these activities. Activities found to be relevant in the area but which are not currently being run, are captured in the lowest box ('Programme opportunities').

| Typical year: Programme lenses | | | | | | | | | | Programme lenses | | | Bad year: Programme lenses | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---------|----------|----------|---------|----------|-------|-------|-----|------------------|--|--------|----------------------------|---|--------|-----------|---------|----------|----------|---------|----------|-------|-------|-----|------|------|--------|
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | June | July | August | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August |
| Support IHI investments (or Recovery after a bad year) | Strengthen HI's capacity to prepare for coming hardships | | | | | | | | | | Protecting lives, livelihoods, & safeguarding development gains | | | Strengthen HI's capacity to prepare for coming hardships | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Consider: Health / Assets / Human capital | Consider: Health / Nutrition / Assets / Production / Human Capital / Production | | | | | | | | | | Consider: Health / Nutrition / Assets / Human Capital / Production | | | Consider: Health / Nutrition / Assets / Production / Human Capital / Production | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Labour-based? Yes - women & men | Labour-based? Yes - women & men | | | | | | | | | | Labour-based? Yes - women & men | | | Labour-based? Yes - women & men | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Transfer preferences: (women & men) | Cover food needs: Food | | | | | | | | | | Cover food needs: Food | | | Cover food needs: Food | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cash | Cover non-food needs: Cash for work/assets | | | | | | | | | | Cover non-food needs: Cash for work/assets | | | Cover non-food needs: Cash for work/assets | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Programme activities | | | | | | | | | | Programme activities | | | Programme activities | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|---------------|-------------------------|----------|---------|----------|-------------------------|-------|-----|----------------------|---|--|--|---|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | June | July | August | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August |
| Rains | Heavy rains | Lighter rains | Start of the dry season | | | | Difficult - hot and dry | | | | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains |
| Natural Resource Management (NRM) | Wild life management | | | | | | | | | | Wild life management | | | Wild life management | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Forest Nursery | Establishing: Forest Nursery | | | | | | | | | | Establishing: Forest Nursery | | | Establishing: Forest Nursery | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agriculture (Ag) | Distribution: Agricultural inputs (seeds & tools) | | | | | | | | | | Distribution: Agricultural inputs (seeds & tools) | | | Distribution: Agricultural inputs (seeds & tools) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Farmers Field Schools (FFS) | Construction: Irrigation water ponds | | | | | | | | | | Construction: Irrigation water ponds | | | Construction: Irrigation water ponds | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | Poultry | | | | | | | | | | Poultry | | | Poultry | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Health Sanitation (HS) | Prevention/Treatment: Vaccinations | | | | | | | | | | Prevention/Treatment: Vaccinations | | | Prevention/Treatment: Vaccinations | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| WATSAN | Construction: Pit latrines | | | | | | | | | | Construction: Pit latrines | | | Construction: Pit latrines | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| School feeding | Distribution: School feeding | | | | | | | | | | Distribution: School feeding | | | Distribution: School feeding | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Micro-finance (Mf) | Construction: Slab slaughterhouses | | | | | | | | | | Construction: Slab slaughterhouses | | | Construction: Slab slaughterhouses | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Income (ISA) & Markets (Ma) | Distribution: Micro-finance | | | | | | | | | | Distribution: Micro-finance | | | Distribution: Micro-finance | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Sector Activity | Target groups | | | | | | | | | | Partners |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|---|---------|---------|---------|-------|-------|---------|--|
| | Gender | Target groups | Specific groups | Organisations implementing these activities | | | | | | | |
| Natural Resource Management (NRM) | Men | Women | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D | Returns | Women | Youth | Special | Natural Resource Management (NRM) |
| Wild life management | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF |
| Forest Nursery | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, HeRRYS, JAM, WC, FAO, WVI, Oxfam |
| Agriculture (Ag) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Agriculture (Ag) |
| Agricultural inputs | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, JAM, HeRRYS, FAO, WC, HeRRYS, MC |
| Farmers Field Schools (FFS) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, FAO, WFP |
| Irrigation water ponds | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, JAM, WC, WVI, FAO, VSF, MC, HeRRYS |
| Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) |
| Fish ponds | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | HeRRYS, MC |
| Poultry Production | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, VSF |
| Health Sanitation (HS) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Health Sanitation (HS) |
| Vaccinations | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, GOAL, UNICEF, WVI, CCM |
| Nutrition (SP/BSFP) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | WVI, ACF, GOAL, MSF, DOR, NCA, CCM, WFP |
| WATSAN | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | WATSAN |
| Pit latrines | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, SMOG, WVI, Oxfam, ACF, IOM, NRC |
| Hygiene & Sanitation | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, SMOG, WVI, NCA, UNICEF |
| Education (Ed) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Education (Ed) |
| School feeding | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF |
| Micro-finance (Mf) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Micro-finance (Mf) |
| Schools | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, WVI, WC, IOM, WINROK, UNDP |
| Health Centers | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | N/A |
| Feeder Roads | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, WVI, VSF, GOAL, NCA, CCM |
| Income (ISA) & Markets (Ma) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, JAM, WVI, WC, HeRRYS, MC, Oxfam |
| Slab slaughterhouses | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Income (ISA) & Markets (Ma) |
| Micro-finance | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOARF, GIZ, WADA |

| Programme opportunities/ gaps | | | | | | | | | | Programme opportunities/ gaps | | | Programme opportunities/ gaps | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|-------------------------|----------|---------|----------|-------------------------|-------|-----|-------------------------------|--|--|--|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|--|-------------|------|--------|
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | June | July | August | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August |
| Rains | Heavy rains | Lighter rains | Start of the dry season | | | | Difficult - hot and dry | | | | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | Heavy rains | | |
| Natural Resource Management (NRM) | Establishing: Tree planting | | | | | | | | | | Establishing: Tree planting | | | Establishing: Tree planting | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Live fencing | Establishing: Live fencing | | | | | | | | | | Establishing: Live fencing | | | Establishing: Live fencing | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agriculture (Ag) | Distribution: pesticides | | | | | | | | | | Distribution: pesticides | | | Distribution: pesticides | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mulching | Establishing: Mulching | | | | | | | | | | Establishing: Mulching | | | Establishing: Mulching | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | Construction: Cattle crush | | | | | | | | | | Construction: Cattle crush | | | Construction: Cattle crush | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cattle crush | Construction: Fish cold chains | | | | | | | | | | Construction: Fish cold chains | | | Construction: Fish cold chains | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Sector Activity | Target groups | | | | | | | | | | Partners |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|---|---------|---------|---------|-------|-------|---------|-----------------------------------|
| | Gender | Target groups | Specific groups | Organisations implementing these activities | | | | | | | |
| Natural Resource Management (NRM) | Men | Women | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D | Returns | Women | Youth | Special | Natural Resource Management (NRM) |
| Tree planting | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Natural Resource Management (NRM) |
| Live fencing | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Community |
| Agriculture (Ag) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Agriculture (Ag) |
| Pesticides | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | N/A |
| Mulching | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Community |
| Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) |
| Cattle crush | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Community |
| Fish cold chains | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | N/A |

3.2.1. How to use the SLP Seasonal Livelihood Calendars for FFA:

The ICA Category and Areas provides background context on the exposure to recurring food insecurity and natural shocks against which to interpret the livelihood calendar for the area in which the SLP was done (particularly relevant for point 1 below). If no ICA is available, determining the predictability of people in need of food assistance, and likely duration of programme interventions (i.e. long, medium, and/or short-term) needs to be deduced and inferred from the SLP findings.

The SLP livelihood calendar informs FFA planning and design by providing information on:

1. The recurrence of food insecurity in the area

Informs whether food insecurity is protracted, seasonal, or as a result of a recent shock and is of relevance when interpreting the seasonal livelihood patterns. It indicates the predictability of people requiring food assistance and the evidence supporting rationales for FFA to be part of a long-term effort, as part of preparedness actions, or potentially as part of a rapid emergency response in the event of a major shock or crisis. Understanding the likely duration that FFA would be required for contributes to identifying which and how FFA activities can be planned, sequenced, and delivered in a manner that systematically support specific aspects of livelihoods and in ways that build on each action to maximize positive outcomes.

2. The shocks and stressors experienced, their regularity, and their impact by gender

Knowing the types of shocks and stressors will show if FFA can be used to reduce the event or its impacts, and mostly relevant for natural and climate shocks and stressors to which land-stabilization and sustainable land-management FFA can be used. The regularity of these events will inform the changes that may be needed to FFA programme activities to absorb or manage the shock, and whether a scale-up of FFA is relevant as part of preparedness. Understanding the impact that these events have on gender (in relation to livelihood and societal/family roles) determines how FFA, and which types of activities, can be used to reduce hardships.

3. Livelihood activities in typical and shock years:

Understanding what people do at different times of the year is critical to avoid negative impacts on other livelihood activities – e.g. drawing farmers away from planting crops to work on FFA. Knowing what people experience at different times of the year also informs what types of FFA are appropriate – e.g. FFA water harvesting programmes to bring water closer to the home will reduce seasonal hardships of women, and give them more time to pursue other livelihood activities (e.g. income generation, etc.). Changes between typical and bad years can be incorporated into planning, leading to a more flexible programme plans that can absorb the impacts of shocks – i.e. by including the programmes and activities that should be scaled-up, scaled back, removed, or introduced in a bad year in the development of long-term plans.

4. Complementarity of FFA with other sectors:

While building the livelihood calendar, links between environmental factors, shocks and stressors, and livelihood roles and actions, and how these all impact on food security and nutrition emerges. How FFA may be utilized to address a number of these links must be explored, for example how FFA to increase access to water can reduce time spent collecting water by women and in turn improve child caring practices and improving their nutrition; or by providing the foundation for other partners to implement programmes that improve production, etc. Whilst the livelihood calendar can identify complementarities between sectors, the programming calendar (subsequent sections) will identify complementarities between programme activities and partners.

Figures 2.5, 2.6, 2.7, and 2.8 show 'zoom-ins' of the SLP Seasonal Livelihood calendars – for typical and bad years - from an SLP consultation carried out in South Sudan (2013). These also include the bad year 'trigger months' (**Figure 2.6**), that reflect the first part of the rainy season that determines whether the cultivation and growing period may be compromised and lead to poor harvests and a bad year. Note that these calendars are a subset of the original version and are presented here for illustrative purposes only.

Figure 2.5 - SLP Seasonal Livelihoods Calendar: Typical Year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

| Typical year | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|---------------|---|----------|--|----------|--|------------------------------|---|---|------------|--------|--|
| Livelihoods calendar | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | |
| Rains | Heavy rains | Lighter rains | | | | | | Light rains | (very light, scattered and windy) | Heavy rains | | | |
| Dry season | | | Start of the dry season | | | | Difficult - hot and dry | | | | | | |
| General | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Physical access | Difficult - roads wet | | Access still difficult - in lowlands (swampy) | | | | | Difficult access - roads wet | | | | | |
| Water stress | | | Women walking to collect water | | Severe water shortages - women/girls spend 4 to 5 hours a day collecting water | | | | | | | | |
| Conflict over water | Conflicts over water amongst communities in Warrap | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cattle movements | Return to homestead (Wut Aker) | | | | To the Toic | | | Return to homestead | | | To the Gok | | |
| Own on-farm Labour | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Beans | Harvesting (men/w) | | | | Threshing (women) | | Land clearing/fencing | | Tilling / planting / weeding (men/w) | | | | |
| Sorghum | Harvesting (men/w) | | | | Threshing (women) | | Land clearing/fencing | | Tilling / planting / weeding - men and women | | | | |
| Crop/Livestock Diseases | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Crops: Army worms | | | | | | | | | | Army worms | | | |
| Livestock: Anthrax | | | | | | | | | | Greatest risks of anthrax outbreaks | | | |
| Own food Production | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cattle: Milk | Milk continues to decrease | | | | | | | | Highest production | | | | |
| Goat & sheep: Milk | Sheep milk - for children | | Goat milk - mostly kept for children | | | | Sheep milk - high production (esp. for children) | | Reducing | | | | |
| Sorghum | Consumption of sorghum from own production and stocks | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Green consumption - sorghum | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Income Sources | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Groundnut sales | High sales - lower prices | | Highest sales | | Less sales but better prices | | | | | | | | |
| Hired - farm labour | Hiring for land clearing / preparation / tilling / planting / weeding | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Goat / sheep sales | Higher sales/price - celebrations | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Human Diseases | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Malaria | | | | | | | | | | More people affected with malaria (rains) | | | |
| Malnutrition | Malnutrition - food stresses & shortages | | | | Malnutrition - water stress, poor sanitation/caring practices | | | | | | | | |
| Diarrhoea | Diarrhoea out break due to water contamination | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Expenses | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Market prices - Cereals | | | | | Lowest prices - cereals | | | Increasing prices - cereals | | Highest prices - cereals | | | |
| Food | Increasing cereal / food purchases | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Medicine | Increasing expenditures on health / treatments / medicines | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agricultural inputs | Seeds and tools | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Women: better/harder times | Better - harvests & food / resting period | | | | | | | | Hardest - food shortages / high workloads / stress | | | | |
| Men: better/harder times | Better - harvests & food / celebrations / families together / resting | | | | | | | | Harder - migration stresses / hot / higher workloads / food shortages | | | | |
| Lean season | Peak of the lean season | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Reading tip:

- Positive indicators
- Negative indicators

TYPICAL YEAR ACTIVITIES: The SLP Livelihoods calendar shows the key livelihood indicators and the time of the year in which they occur. The calendar follows a colour code to help visualize better/worse times of the year and key activities. For example, in Warrap State, the period with highest stress in a typical year is June-August.

Figure 2.6 - SLP Seasonal Livelihood Calendar: 'Trigger months' – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

| Trigger Months (Dry spell) | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|--------------------------|--------|
| Months | June | July | August |
| Rains | Light rains - windy & scattered, erratic | | |
| Dry season | | | |
| General | | | |
| Physical access | | | |
| Water stress | | | |
| Conflict over water | | | |
| Cattle movements | Wut-Aker | Stay home until it rains | |
| Own on-farm Labour | | | |
| Beans | Tilling / planting - reduced | | |
| Sorghum | Tilling / planting / weeding - men & women | | |
| Crop/Livestock Diseases | | | |
| Crops: Army worms | Army worm | | |
| Livestock: Anthrax | Greatest risks of anthrax (Jongnhial) | | |
| Own food Production | | | |
| Cattle: Milk | Reduced cattle milk production | | |
| Goat & sheep: Milk | Reduced sheep milk production | | |
| Sorghum | | | |
| Income Sources | | | |
| Groundnut sales | | | |
| Hired - farm labour | Reduced hired labour on farms | | |
| Goat / sheep sales | High sales - low prices (sheep/goats) | | |
| Human Diseases | | | |
| Malaria | Malaria increases | | |
| Malnutrition | Malnutrition increases - food shortages | | |
| Diarrhoea | | | |
| Expenses | | | |
| Market prices - Cereals | no selling of cereals | | |
| Food | High cereal / food purchases | | |
| Medicine | High expenditures on medicines | | |
| Agricultural inputs | | | |
| Women: better/harder time | Hardest - food shortages and workloads | | |
| Men: better/harder time | Hardest - food shortages and workloads | | |
| Lean season | Peak of the lean season | | |

TRIGGER MONTHS: In Warrap State of South Sudan, the bad year calendar developed during the consultation was based on a dry spell scenario, with poor rains during the cultivation and crop growing period of June to August - as identified in the Historical shock trends.

The trigger months reflect the first part of the rainy season which determines whether the cultivation and growing period may be compromised, and lead to poor harvests.

This component of the SLP livelihood calendar is used when planning for a bad year – i.e. the months reflected in this scenario can replace those of the typical year, which would then lead into the bad year.

Figure 2.7 - SLP Seasonal Livelihoods Calendar: Bad year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

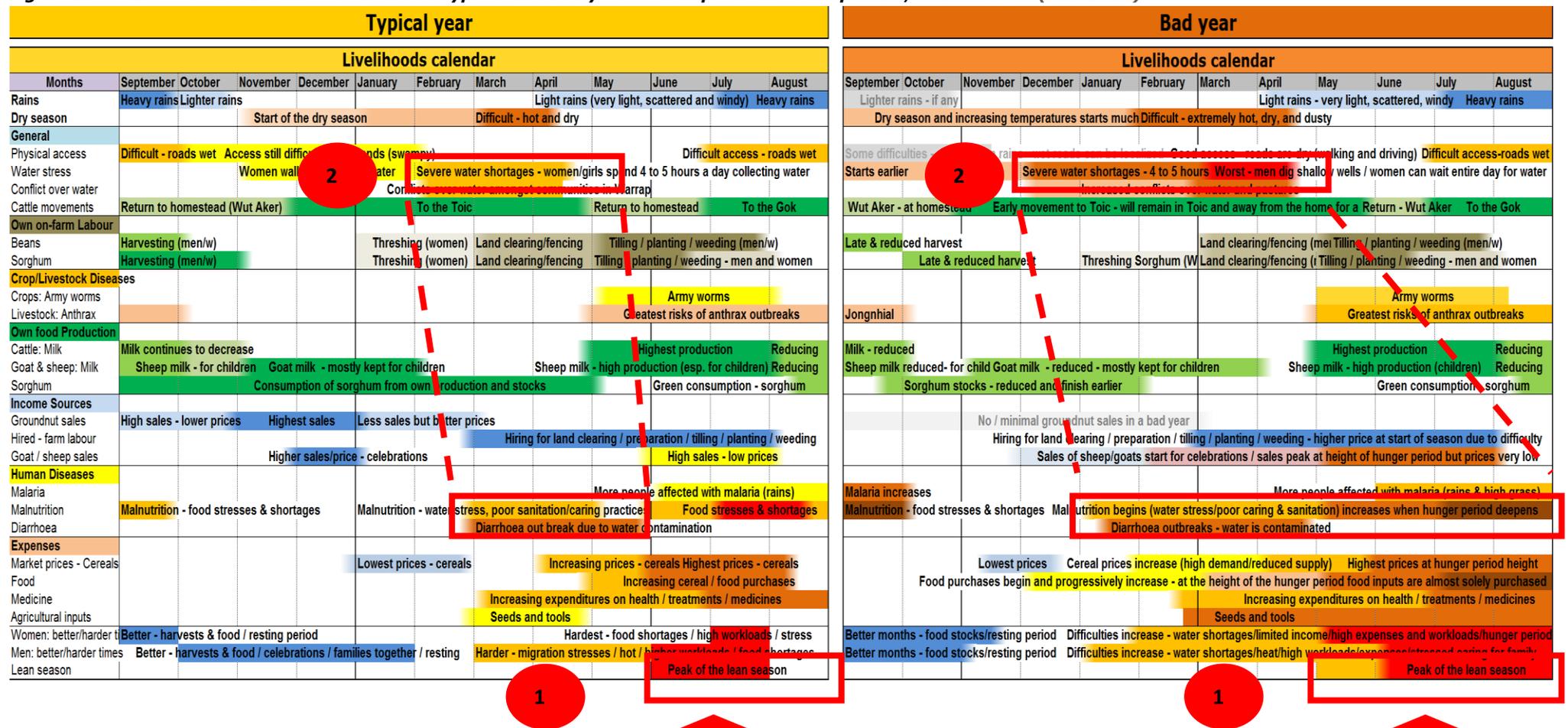
| Bad year | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|---------|----------|--|---------|----------|--|--|-----|------------------------------|-------------|--------|
| Livelihoods calendar | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August |
| Rains | Lighter rains - if any | | | | | | | Light rains - very light, scattered, windy | | | Heavy rains | |
| Dry season | Dry season and increasing temperatures starts much | | | | | | Difficult - extremely hot, dry, and dusty | | | | | |
| General | Some difficulties - depends on rains - wet roads can be localized | | | | | | Good access - roads are dry (walking and driving) | | | Difficult access - roads wet | | |
| Physical access | Starts earlier | | | Severe water shortages - 4 to 5 hours | | | Worst - men dig shallow wells / women can wait entire day for water | | | | | |
| Water stress | | | | | | | Increased conflicts over water and pastures | | | | | |
| Conflict over water | Wut Aker - at homestead | | | | | | Early movement to Toic - will remain in Toic and away from the home for a | | | Return - Wut Aker To the Gok | | |
| Cattle movements | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Own on-farm Labour | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Beans | Late & reduced harvest | | | | | | Land clearing/fencing (men/w) | | | | | |
| Sorghum | Late & reduced harvest | | | Threshing Sorghum (W) | | | Land clearing/fencing (men/w) Tilling / planting / weeding - men and women | | | | | |
| Crop/Livestock Diseases | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Crops: Army worms | | | | | | | Army worms | | | | | |
| Livestock: Anthrax | Jonghial | | | | | | Greatest risks of anthrax outbreaks | | | | | |
| Own food Production | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cattle: Milk | Milk - reduced | | | | | | Highest production | | | Reducing | | |
| Goat & sheep: Milk | Sheep milk reduced- for child Goat milk - reduced - mostly kept for children | | | | | | Sheep milk - high production (children) | | | Reducing | | |
| Sorghum | Sorghum stocks - reduced and finish earlier | | | | | | Green consumption - sorghum | | | | | |
| Income Sources | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Groundnut sales | No / minimal groundnut sales in a bad year | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Hired - farm labour | Hiring for land clearing / preparation / tilling / planting / weeding - higher price at start of season due to difficulty | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Goat / sheep sales | Sales of sheep/goats start for celebrations / sales peak at height of hunger period but prices very low | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Human Diseases | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Malaria | Malaria increases | | | | | | More people affected with malaria (rains & high grass) | | | | | |
| Malnutrition | Malnutrition - food stresses & shortages | | | Malnutrition begins (water stress/poor caring & sanitation) increases when hunger period deepens | | | | | | | | |
| Diarrhoea | Diarrhoea outbreaks - water is contaminated | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Expenses | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Market prices - Cereals | Lowest prices | | | Cereal prices increase (high demand/reduced supply) | | | Highest prices at hunger period height | | | | | |
| Food | Food purchases begin and progressively increase - at the height of the hunger period food inputs are almost solely purchased | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Medicine | | | | | | | Increasing expenditures on health / treatments / medicines | | | | | |
| Agricultural inputs | | | | | | | Seeds and tools | | | | | |
| Women: better/harder time | Better months - food stocks/resting period | | | Difficulties increase - water shortages/limited income/high expenses and workloads/hunger period | | | | | | | | |
| Men: better/harder time | Better months - food stocks/resting period | | | Difficulties increase - water shortages/heat/high workloads/expenses/stressed caring for family | | | | | | | | |
| Lean season | | | | | | | Peak of the lean season | | | | | |

Reading tip:

- Positive indicators
- Negative indicators

BAD YEAR ACTIVITIES: Main impacts experienced by communities when a shock hits are captured in bad (i.e. shock) years. For example, in Warrap State, the time with highest stress lasts longer in the bad year (May-August), compared to the typical year scenario (June-August). Differences between the typical and bad year are captured in grey.

Figure 2.8 - SLP Seasonal Livelihood Calendar: Typical and bad year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)



SEASONALITY: By identifying the main indicators for the local livelihoods, patterns of vulnerability are identified and agreed upon by the partners, government, and community representatives. Changes in typical and bad years help have a better understanding of the impact of shocks on people.

For example:

- The lean season, as shown above, lasts longer in a bad year (May-August), compared to the typical year (June-August).
- Further above: severe water shortages intensify and last longer (5 months) in the bad year compared to the typical year (2.5 months), and this, in turn, may have a negative impact on health and nutrition.

3.2.2. How to use the SLP Programme lenses for FFA entry points:

Moving vulnerable people out of food insecurity and building their resilience to shocks requires a combination of development and humanitarian actions, and should build on and strengthen the efforts people make themselves. Development is a long-term effort and should serve as foundation to move people along a continuum of improvement, and humanitarian action should be used to safeguard against setbacks to development resulting from shocks and stressors. Both development and humanitarian action should aim to assist households to move along this continuum, supporting their own livelihood investments, helping them to prepare for coming hardships to better manage shocks and stresses, and to protect their livelihoods and assets during these events.

To better understand how development and humanitarian programmes can work together in support of peoples own efforts, this part of the SLP summarizes livelihoods into:

- **The best times of the year, when investing in livelihoods** by households has the greatest chance of success. At these times, people face the least stress to meet basic needs – e.g. food after harvests – so there is increased opportunity to invest in other livelihood inputs
- **The times before hardships, when preparedness** for coming difficulties is required to strengthen positive coping strategies to minimize possible asset depletion and livelihood risks.
- **The most difficult times of the year, when protecting lives and livelihoods is a priority** so that people do not have to sell or deplete assets in order to cope with hardships

These lenses show the entry points for FFA as well as other government and partner labour-based asset creation programmes (e.g. Public Works). They should be used to define what these programmes aim to achieve – i.e. supporting livelihood investments (primarily a development footprint), strengthening preparedness (development and humanitarian), or protecting lives and livelihoods (primarily humanitarian) - and whether people can provide labour to work on asset creation, and what they perceive is the most appropriate transfer during these times.

These lenses should be used for FFA in the following ways:

1. Positioning FFA within complementary efforts

The lenses reflect three household and livelihood intents - **investing, preparing, protecting** – during the year. They show programmatic building blocks on how development and humanitarian efforts can relate to and complement each other, and how long-term programme strategies to support and build on peoples own efforts can be structured. This is important to position FFA as a complementary effort with other partners.

For example, governments or other partners (e.g. UNDP) may want to conduct asset creation through labour-based employment or public works schemes and provide a cash-based transfer, but not necessarily for food security objectives or to fill a food gap. Similarly, WFP may want to conduct FFA and use its transfer (food or cash-based) to fill a food gap.

In such cases, partner asset creation and/or employment programmes could fall under and support the investment and preparedness periods, with the intent of the transfer to be used for non-food household expenditures; WFP's FFA could fall under and support the preparedness or protective periods, with the intent of the transfer to fill the household food gap. In this way, both partner and WFP's asset creation strategies and objectives are clearly positioned, and in support of each other.

2. Timing of FFA

Depending on the livelihood type, the time and type of FFA measures required to reach the objectives may not necessarily coincide with the time that they can be implemented, or to fill the food gap. This can either be due to environmental constraints (e.g. rainy periods), household gender-based labour constraints (e.g. women working during agricultural land preparation; or pastoral men migrating with animals etc.), and the time that the food gap needs to be filled. This requires matching up the aspects, and the programme lenses can be used to do this.

- **Firstly**, the lenses indicate overall whether women, men, or both can dedicate labour at this time without compromising other livelihood activities, and this informs when FFA activities should and can be implemented.
- **Secondly**, the lenses indicate the intensity of the labour and the relative time that women or men can dedicate to work on asset creation given environmental conditions (e.g. high or low temperatures) or existing livelihood workloads (e.g. significant time women spend collecting water at the peak of the dry season, etc.). This informs the type of FFA activity that can be selected based on whether it requires higher or lower intensity work, and the amount of time required on a daily basis to work on the activity. This allows for the right activity to be planned for at the right time, and that essential labour-intensive works will need to be carefully planned with communities.
- **Lastly**, the lenses will show whether the time that labour can be dedicated to implement asset creation matches the time that the food gap is experienced. Where the two match, then the FFA food or cash-based transfer is clearly shown to be filling the current food gap; where it doesn't match, then planning requires discussions with communities and donors to clearly explain that the intent of the FFA transfer will be to fill the food gap that will occur once the activity has been completed to avoid misunderstandings or wrong expectations.

3. Considerations on transfer modalities

The transfer modalities used by FFA to fill food gaps are either food, cash, and/or vouchers. The programme lenses indicate what women and men perceive the most appropriate transfer modalities to be in different times of the year, and their reasons for these choices. Whilst these should only be seen as indications of preference and that the technical decisions on whether to use cash and/or vouchers for WFP lies elsewhere ([Cash and Voucher Manual](#)⁴¹), it is widely recognized that injecting cash into most local economies has positive impacts and strengthens and accelerates economic growth, which is why the use of cash is largely encouraged. Important for FFA is to:

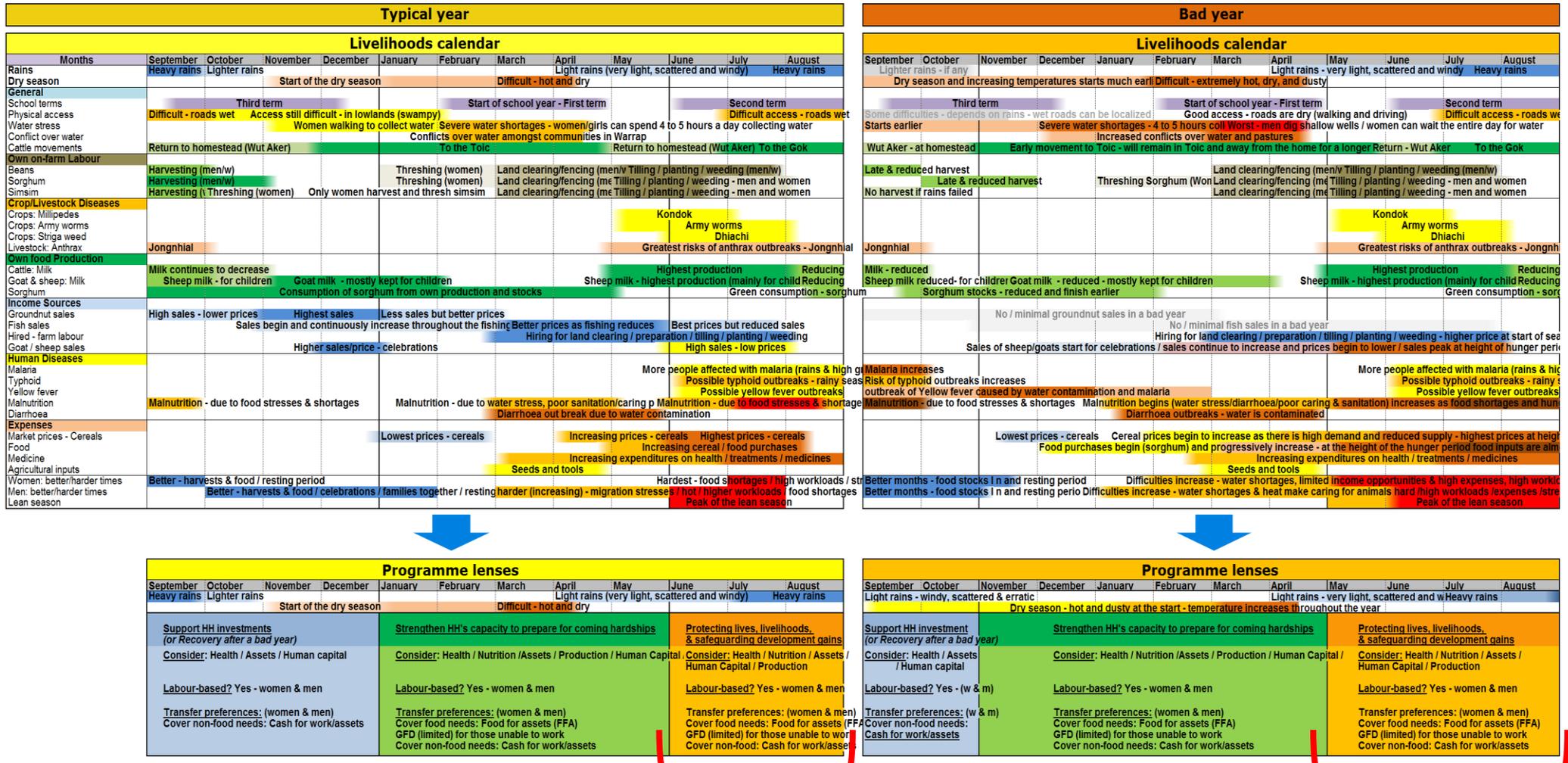
- Understand the reasons (by gender) for the preferences of one transfer modality over the other
- Determine whether FFA can play a role in removing any constraints to the use of cash over food, and build this into the FFA programme (e.g. if a food transfer is preferred because markets cannot be accessed during rainy seasons, could FFA to build feeder roads/community paths overcome this?). Whilst it may not be possible to use cash transfers in the first or second years of the FFA project, one of the goals during this time is to enable the shift to cash transfers in the future.

⁴¹ Available at: http://pqm.wfp.org/index.php/Cash_Based_Transfers

Figure 2.9 - 'Zoom-in' showing SLP Programme lenses for typical and bad years.

| Programme lenses – Typical year | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|--|---|-----------------|-------------------|--------------------|---|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------------------|--|------------|
| Bilthii September | Lal October | Horbeklai November | Konpiu December | Nyieth January | Kol February | Akocdit March | Akocthiu April | Aduong May | Alekbob June | Akoldit July | Bildit August | | | |
| Amiathnoon (heavy rains - grass flattened) | | | Dry season - hot, dusty and windy at the start - temperature increases throughout the year | | | | | | Akang (light) | | | Dengdit (heavy rains) | | Amarwadich |
| Support HH's to make investments (or support Recovery if following a bad year) Consider: Health / Assets / Human Capital Cash for non-food expenditures Labour? Yes - Women & Men can work at this time Transfer modality preference for project work: Cash (for both women & men) | | | | Strengthen HH's capacity to prepare for coming hardships Consider: Health / Nutrition / Assets / Production / Human Capital Cash for non-food needs Labour? Yes - Women & Men can work at this time Transfer modality preference for project work: Mix of Food & Cash (for both women & men) | | | | Protecting lives, livelihoods, & safeguarding development gains Consider: Nutrition / Health / Assets / Production / Human Capital Cash for non-food needs GFD for those unable to work Labour? Yes - Women & Men (consider lighter works) Transfer modality preference for work: Food (for both women & men) | | | | | | |
| Programme lenses – Bad year | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bielthii September | Lal October | Horbeklai November | Kon December | Nyieth January | Kol February | Akonydit March | Akanythii April | Aduon May | Alekbob June | Akoldit July | Bildit August | | | |
| Amarwadich | | | Amiathnoon (rain heavier, more wind) | | | | | | Akang (late) | | | Dengdit (erratic/heavy) | | Amarwadich |
| | | | Dry season - hot, dusty and windy at the start - temperature increases throughout the year | | | | | | Dry season | | | | | |
| Support HH's to make investments (or support Recovery if following a bad year) Consider: Health / Assets / Human Capital Labour? Yes - Women & Men can work at this time Transfer modality preference for project work: Cash (for both women & men) | | | | Strengthen HH's capacity to prepare for coming hardships Consider: Health / Nutrition / Assets / Production / Human Capital Cash for non-food needs Labour? Yes - Women & Men can work at this time Transfer modality preference for project work: Mix of Food & Cash (for both women & men) | | | | Protecting lives, livelihoods, & safeguarding development gains Consider: Nutrition / Health / Assets / Production / Human Capital Cash for non-food needs GFD for those unable to work Labour? Yes - Women & Men (consider lighter works) Transfer modality preference for work: Food (for both women & men) | | | | | | |

Figure 2.10 - SLP Programme lenses: Typical and bad year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)



PROGRAMME LENSES: These 'lenses' provide overall programming rationales and the broad times when they would support households' investments, preparedness for difficulties ahead, and the times when households face the greatest challenges. These broad lenses are informed by and are directly related to the SLP livelihood calendar. Differences between a typical and bad years are captured, for example: note how the 'Protection period' increases in a bad year (May-August) compared to a typical one (June-Aug).

3.2.3. How to use the SLP Programme Activities for FFA:

The programme activity calendar is a key component of the SLP. It captures the timing of different activities and which vulnerable groups (and gender) they should be targeted to, and places them under the programming entry points and lenses to show where each one can contribute to supporting and strengthening livelihoods, both as stand-alone activities and as part of a larger, joint effort. It shows how one programme implemented at a certain time can support another provided later on, thereby highlighting opportunities for complementarities and new partnerships.

Using the programme calendar for FFA

Programme activities by sector (e.g. Agriculture, Livestock, Health, Nutrition, Education, Governance, etc.) are placed in an Excel table by communities and technical partners under the months of the year when they are most appropriate and relevant. Placing programmes along this timeline shows which months specific FFA interventions should be implemented and how they relate to other activities. It facilitates the identification of complementarities between activities and sectors, providing a visual as to where FFA fits within an overall programme intervention strategy.

The programming calendar should be used for FFA in the following ways:

- **Tailoring FFA to the most appropriate periods:**
Use the calendar to identify the specific and most appropriate FFA activities that can be done in each month, in typical and bad years, taking into account on-going livelihood activities, labour intensity, and gender aspects.
- **Identify opportunities for new programming partnerships:**
Use the calendar to identify how FFA can complement other sectors and partner programmes – e.g. by identifying the time that agricultural terraces should be constructed through FFA, and when other partners should follow this with seed distributions and trainings; in afforestation programmes by identifying the correct times to establish plant nurseries to ensure that seedlings will be produced in time by other partner programmes; or that water programmes through FFA are timed to ensure that improved access to water coincides with school enrolment, so girls can register and attend school instead of collecting water, etc.
- **Explain how FFA fits into overall programme strategies:**
Use the calendar to identify which FFA activities will contribute to which programme strategies and overall livelihood support – for example, which FFA activities coincide with the **'preparedness'** period (hence a DRR role), or **'protective'** period (hence a protective Safety Net role) etc. This will contribute to identifying and demonstrating the contribution of FFA in an overall long-term resilience building strategy with governments and partners. This aspect can also be used for advocacy and fund raising for FFA programmes.
- **Develop a multi-year FFA programme calendar for long-term planning:**
Based on the timeline of typical and bad years, develop a multi-year FFA plan of work showing the sequencing of FFA activities across the years. This provides a visual timeline of the long-term FFA plan of work, and will facilitate local level planning and coordination of activities not only by WFP but also by local authorities, partners, and communities.

Figures 2.11, 2.12, and 2.13 show 'zoom-ins' of the SLP Programme activities from different contexts, showing how the SLP approach was used to align programmatic rationales with selected activities.

Figure 2.11 - SLP Programme activities and Programme opportunities/gaps – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

| Programme activities | | | | | | | | | | Target groups | | | | | | | Partners | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------|---------------|--------------------------------------|----------|---------|----------|--|-------|---|---------------|------|--------|--------|-----|---------------|---------|----------|---------|-----------------|---|-------|-------|---|---|
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | Gender | | Target groups | | | | Specific groups | Organisations implementing these activities | | | | |
| Rains | Heavy rains | Lighter rains | | | | | | | | | | | | Men | Women | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D | Returnees | Women | Youth | | |
| Dry season | | | Start of the dry season | | | | Difficult - hot and dry | | | | | | | X | X | | X | x | X | X | X | X | X | Natural Resource Management (NRM) |
| Natural Resource Management (NRM) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | X | SMoARF |
| Wild life management | | | | | | | | | Training: Wild life management | | | | | X | X | | X | x | X | X | X | X | X | SMoAF, HeRYSS, JAM, WC, FAO, WVI, Oxfam |
| Forest Nursery | | | Establishing: Forest Nursery | | | | Establishing: Forest Nursery | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | X | Agriculture (Ag) |
| Agriculture (Ag) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMoAF, JAM, HeRYSS, FAO, WC, HeRYSS, MC |
| Agricultural inputs | | | | | | | | | Distribution: Agricultural inputs (seeds & tools) | | | | | X | X | | X | x | X | X | X | X | X | SMoAF, FAO, WFP |
| Farmers Field Schools /FFS | | | | | | | | | Establishing: Farmers Field Schools /FFS | | | | | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | X | SMoAF, JAM, WC, WVI, FAO, VSF, MC, HeRYSS |
| Irrigation water ponds | | | Construction: Irrigation water ponds | | | | Construction: Irrigation water ponds | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) |
| Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | HeRYSS, MC |
| Fish ponds | | | Construction: Fish ponds | | | | Construction: Fish ponds | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMoARF, VSF |
| Poultry Production | | | Poultry | | | | Poultry | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Health/Sanitation (H&S) |
| Health/Sanitation (H&S) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMoH, GOAL, UNICEF, WVI, CCM |
| Vaccinations | | | Prevention/Treatment: Vaccinations | | | | Prevention/Treatment: Vaccinations | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | WVI, ACF, GOAL, MSF, DOR, NCA, CCM, WFP |
| Nutrition (SFP/BSFP) | | | | | | | Prevention/Treatment: Nutrition (BSFP) | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Education (Ed) |
| Education (Ed) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | X | X | X | X | | | | | SMoGEI |
| School feeding | | | Distribution: School feeding | | | | Distribution: School feeding | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | Infrastructure (Inf) |
| Infrastructure (Inf) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | SMOGEI, WVI, WC, IOM, WINROK, UNDP |
| Schools | | | Construction: Schools | | | | Construction: Schools | | | | | | | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | |

PROGRAMME ACTIVITIES:
 Ongoing activities are aligned to the times of the year when they can be done (according to the seasonal livelihood calendar). For each programme activity, the appropriate target groups and the partners that are currently implementing these activities are selected.

PROGRAMME OPPORTUNITIES/GAPS: These help identify activities that are relevant in the area but which are not currently being implemented / no partner is available.

| Programme opportunities/ gaps | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------|---------------|-------------------------|----------|---------|----------|--------------------------|-------|-----|------|------|-----------------------------|
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August |
| Rains | Heavy rains | Lighter rains | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dry season | | | Start of the dry season | | | | Difficult - hot and dry | | | | | |
| Natural Resource Management (NRM) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Tree planting | | | | | | | | | | | | Establishing: Tree planting |
| Live fencing | | | | | | | | | | | | Establishing: Live fencing |
| Agriculture (Ag) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pesticides | | | | | | | Distribution: pesticides | | | | | |
| Mulching | | | | | | | Establishing: Mulching | | | | | |

| Target groups | | | | | | | Partners | | |
|---------------|-------|---------------|---------|---------|---------|-----------------|---|-------|-----------------------------------|
| Gender | | Target groups | | | | Specific groups | Organisations implementing these activities | | |
| Men | Women | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D | Returnees | Women | Youth | |
| X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | Natural Resource Management (NRM) |
| X | X | X | X | X | | X | X | X | N/A |
| | | | | | | | | | N/A |
| X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | Agriculture (Ag) |
| X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | N/A |

Figure 2.12 - Year programme activities for Agro-pastoralists aligned with programme lenses in Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

| Typical year - Programme activities | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|---|---|---------------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|------|-------------|
| Months | September | October | November | December | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August |
| Rains | Heavy rains | Lighter rains | | | | | | Light rains (very light, scattered and windy) | | | | Heavy rains |
| Dry season | | | Start of the dry season | | | | Difficult - hot and dry | | | | | |
| Broad programme rationales | Support HH investments (or Recovery after a bad year) | | | | Strengthen HH's capacity to prepare for coming hardships | | | | Protecting lives, livelihoods, & safeguarding development gains | | | |
| | <u>Consider:</u> Health / Assets / Human capital | | | | <u>Consider:</u> Health / Nutrition / Assets / Production | | | | <u>Consider:</u> Health / Nutrition / Assets / Human Capital / Production | | | |
| | <u>Labour-based?</u> Yes - women & men | | | | <u>Labour-based?</u> Yes - women & men | | | | <u>Labour-based?</u> Yes - women & men | | | |
| | <u>Transfer preferences:</u> (women & men) Cover non-food needs: Cash for work/assets | | | | <u>Transfer preferences:</u> (women & men) Cover food needs: Food for assets (FFA) GFD (limited) for those unable to work Cover non-food needs: Cash for work/assets | | | | <u>Transfer preferences:</u> (women & men) Cover food needs: Food for assets (FFA) GFD (limited) for those unable to work Cover non-food: Cash for work/assets | | | |
| Programme activities | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Natural Resource Management (NRM) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wild life management | | | | | Training: Wild life management | | | | | | | |
| Forest Nursery | | Establishing: Forest Nursery | | | | Establishing: Forest Nursery | | | | | | |
| Wild life association | Establishing: Wild life association | | | | Establishing: Wild life association | | | | | Establishing: Wild life association | | |
| Agriculture (Ag) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agricultural inputs | | | | | | Distribution: Agricultural inputs (seeds & tools) | | | | | | |
| Farmers Field Schools /FFS | | | | | | Establishing: Farmers Field Schools /FFS | | | | | | |
| Irrigation water ponds | | Construction: Irrigation water ponds | | | Construction: Irrigation water ponds | | | | | | | |
| Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Fish ponds | | | Construction: Fish ponds | | Construction: Fish ponds | | | | | | | |
| Poultry Production | | Poultry | | | Poultry | | | | | Poultry | | |
| Health/Sanitation (H&S) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Vaccinations | | Prevention/Treatment: Vaccinations | | | Prevention/Treatment: Vaccinations | | | | | | | |
| Nutrition (SFP/BSFP) | | | | | | | Prevention/Treatment: Nutrition | | Prevention/Treatment: Nutrition | | | |
| HIV/AIDS | | Awareness HIV/AIDS | | | Awareness HIV/AIDS | | | | | Awareness HIV/AIDS | | |
| WATSAN | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pit latrines | | | | Construction: Pit latrines | | | | | | | | |
| Hygiene & Sanitation | | | | | | Awareness: Hygiene & Sanitation | | | | | | |
| Education (Ed) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Training Teachers | | | | | Training: Teachers | | | | | | | |
| School feeding | Distribution: School feeding | | | | Distribution: School feeding | | | | | Distribution: School feeding | | |
| Infrastructure (Inf) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Schools | | | Construction: Schools | | Construction: Schools | | | | | | | |
| Health Centers | | | Construction: Health Centers | | Construction: Health Centers | | | | | | | |
| Feeder Roads | | | Construction: Feeder Roads | | Construction: Feeder Roads | | | | | Construction: Feeder Roads | | |

PROGRAMME ACTIVITIES AND PROGRAMME LENSES: Participants link the activities to the programme lenses. This defines clearly which activities are done at what time of the year, under which transfer and conditionality.

Figure 2.13 – Aligning the 3-pillared WFP, FAO, UNICEF Somalia Resilience Strategy through an SLP (Somaliland SLP 2012)- Programmes by agency

| Togdheer & Oodweyne - Somaliland - Typical Year Calendar | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|-----------------|------|--|--------------------|-----------|------------------------------------|--------------------|----------|--|-------------------------|-------|
| Months | April | May | June | July | August | September | October | November | December | January | February | March |
| Rainy seasons | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dry seasons | | Gu - main rains | | | Hagaa - dry season | | | Deyr - short rains | | | Jilaa - long dry season | |
| Intervention rationale | Assistance rationale: Investment | | | Assistance rationale: Protective | | | Assistance rationale: Preparedness | | | Assistance rationale: Protective | | |
| Enhance Productive Sector: | | | | Livestock vaccinations Training community animal health workers | | | | | | Livestock vaccinations Training community animal health workers | | |
| Access to basic services: | Fortified food (vitamins) Provision of health/first aid emergency kits to Health centres Improving MCH facilities (solar power, latrines) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Mosquito nets distribution | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | MCH (pre and post natal care) Supplementary feeding (PLW and children U-5) Supplementary feeding (HIV and TB patients) Nutritional surveillance system | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Teacher refresher courses School / learning materials provision | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Improving schools facilities (solar power, latrines, tree planting) School Feeding | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Referral systems Counselling (women/children) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Latrine construction | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Breastfeeding awareness Hygiene /sanitation/health awareness at school Malaria awareness campaigns Child protection awareness CEC awareness and capacity building (parents inclusion) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Measles vaccination Mosquito nets distribution | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Teacher refresher courses | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Social safety nets: | Tree planting | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Nurseries Gabions & Stone bunds Check Dams & Stone lining Feeder road construction/rehabilitation Balli (small dam) construction & rehabilitation / Berkad construction & rehabilitation Shallow well construction, rehabilitation, Sub-surface dams Roadside water harvesting / run-off run-on Fuel efficient stoves | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GAPS AND OPPORTUNITIES | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Enhance Productive Sector: | Opportunities | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Early warning info sharing with community Veterinary posts/ervices | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Genetic improvement (crossbreeding) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Fodder banks Introduction of drought resistant grass species | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Pasture seeding Fodder banks Introduction of drought resistant grass | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Access to basic services: | Restocking | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Animal feed (emergency) Poultry rearing Community market associations | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Water troughs Grass seeds collection | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Access to basic services: | Water tankering | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Emergency water tankering Therapeutic feeding (PLW and U5) Mobile schools for pastoralists Non formal schools for adults Water management awareness/training Borehole construction (mechanical) Training in food preparation & safety | | | | | | | | | | | |

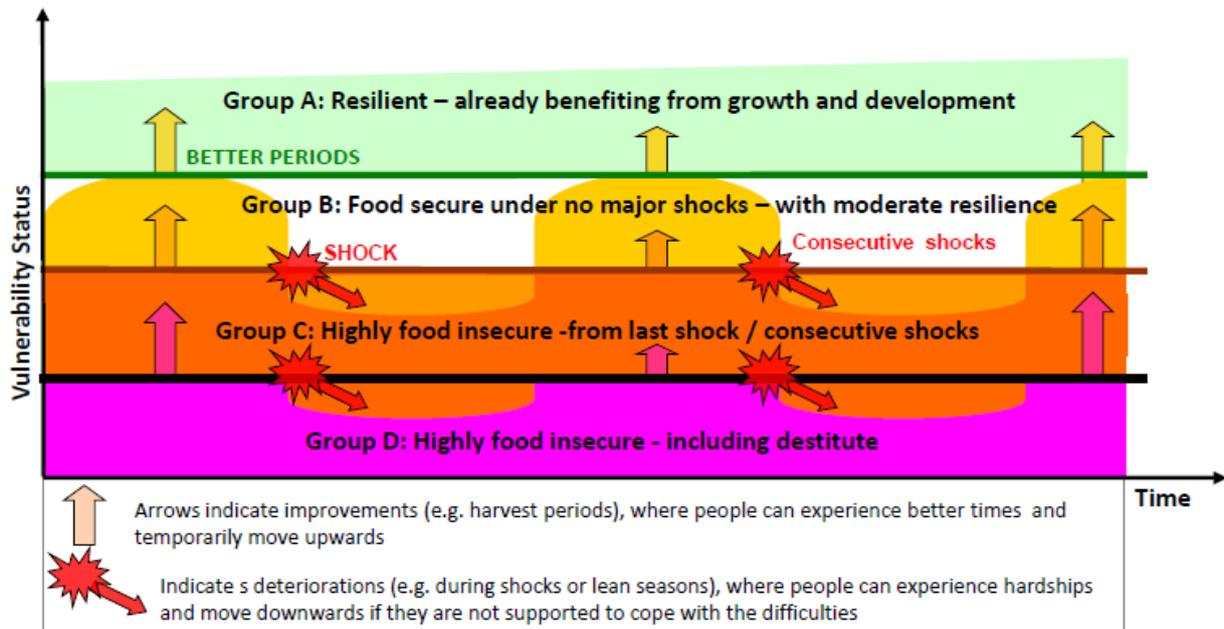
| | | |
|--|--|---|
| WFP programmes | FAO Programmes | UNICEF Programmes |
|--|--|---|

Using the vulnerable household profiles for targeting FFA

Certain programmes should be available for everyone irrespective of vulnerability status (e.g. social services such as health, nutrition, education, or early warning, trainings, etc.), whilst others are targeted to specific vulnerable groups (e.g. FFA, relief, etc.). Longer-term programme plans for resilience building efforts include knowing who is at risk to what, and in turn which programmes should be targeted to whom to avoid setbacks in the development continuum. The SLP conducts a household vulnerability profiling exercise and links these profiles to the activities identified in the programme activity calendar.

The SLP categorizes vulnerable households into the following four groups:

Figure 2.14 - Household vulnerability groups



Using the links of FFA activities to target groups

The programme calendar already identifies which FFA activity will be relevant for which target group – by household vulnerability, by gender, and by interest group (i.e. women groups, youth, farmers associations, etc.). For example, see extract on programmes per sector and target groups in **Figure 2.15**.

From this, use the calendar to:

- Identify which are the activities that will constitute the core long-term FFA programme, and which activities will need to be scaled-up in the event of crisis, who they should reach, and why. This is a fundamental point in designing flexible and adaptive programme plans that can absorb shocks without compromising existing and on-going FFA efforts.
- Summarize the types of activities that have been selected for each of the vulnerability groups (i.e. those that reduce risks to shocks, reduce hardships, strengthen and rehabilitate degraded landscapes, etc.). This contributes to building the overall rationale for the FFA response and how this will support specific household groups and communities to build their resilience for food security and nutrition.

Figure 2.15 - SLP Programme activities, target groups, and partners – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

| Programme activities | | | | | | | | | Target groups | | | | | | | | | | Partners | |
|----------------------|---------|---|-------|-------------|---------------------------------|------|------|-------------|-------------------------------------|--------|-------|---------------|---------|---------|---------|-----------------|-------|-------|----------|---|
| Month | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | Sector Activity | Gender | | Target groups | | | | Specific groups | | | | Organisations implementing these activities |
| | | | | Light rains | very light, scattered and windy | | | Heavy rains | | Men | Women | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D | Returns | Women | Youth | Special | |
| | | Difficult - extremely hot, dry, and dusty | | | | | | | Natural Resource Management (NRM) | X | X | | X | x | X | X | X | X | | Natural Resource Management (NRM) |
| | | | | | | | | | Wild life management | X | X | | X | x | X | X | X | X | | SMoARF |
| | | | | | | | | | Forest Nursery | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | | SMoAF, HeRYSS, JAM, WC, FAO, WVI, Oxfam |
| | | | | | | | | | Wild life association | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoARF |
| | | | | | | | | | Agriculture (Ag) | X | X | | x | X | X | X | X | X | | Agriculture (Ag) |
| | | | | | | | | | Agricultural inputs (seeds & tools) | X | X | | x | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoAF, JAM, HeRYSS, FAO, WC, HeRYSS, MC |
| | | | | | | | | | Farmers Field Schools (FFS) | X | X | | x | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoAF, FAO, WFP |
| | | | | | | | | | Irrigation water ponds | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | | SMoAF, JAM, WC, WVI, FAO, VSF, MC, HeRYSS |
| | | | | | | | | | Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | X | X | | x | X | X | X | X | X | | Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) |
| | | | | | | | | | Fish ponds | X | X | | x | X | X | X | X | X | | HeRYSS, MC |
| | | | | | | | | | Poultry Production | X | X | | x | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoARF, VSF |
| | | | | | | | | | Health/Sanitation (H&S) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | | Health/Sanitation (H&S) |
| | | | | | | | | | Vaccinations | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoH, GOAL, UNICEF, WVI, CCM |
| | | | | | | | | | Nutrition (SFP/BSFP) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | | WVI, ACF, GOAL, MSF, DOR, NCA, CCM, WFP |
| | | | | | | | | | HIV/AIDS | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoH, WADA, NCA, UNICEF, UNHCR |
| | | | | | | | | | WATSAN | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | WATSAN |
| | | | | | | | | | Pit latrines | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoGEI, SMoW, WVI, OXFAM, ACF, IOM, NRC |
| | | | | | | | | | Hygiene & Sanitation | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoW, SMoH, WVI, NCA, UNICEF |
| | | | | | | | | | Education (Ed) | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | Education (Ed) |
| | | | | | | | | | Training Teachers | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoGEI, WINROK, NRC, WVI, DOR DON BOSCO |
| | | | | | | | | | School feeding | | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoGEI |
| | | | | | | | | | Infrastructure (Inf) | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | Infrastructure (Inf) |
| | | | | | | | | | Schools | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoGEI, WVI, WC, IOM, WINROK, AMA, NCA UNDP |
| | | | | | | | | | Health Centers | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoH, WVI, VSF, GOAL, NCA, CCM |
| | | | | | | | | | Feeder Roads | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | | SMoAF, JAM, WVI, WC, HeRYSS, MC, OXFAM |
| | | | | | | | | | Income (IGA) & Markets (Ma) | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | | Income (IGA) & Markets (Ma) |
| | | | | | | | | | Slab slaughterhouses | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | | SMoARF, GIZ, WADA |
| | | | | | | | | | Micro-finance | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | | WC |
| | | | | | | | | | Governance (Gv) | | | | | | | | | | | Governance (Gv) |
| | | | | | | | | | Capacity building | | | | | | | | | | | WINROK, UNMISS, UNHCR, INTROOS, UNDP |
| | | | | | | | | | Protection of forests & wildlife | | | | | | | | | | | SMoAF, SMoARF |
| | | | | | | | | | Peace/Conflict | | | | | | | | | | | UNICEF, UNHCR, UNMISS, TOCH, LCAD |
| | | | | | | | | | Information (Info) | | | | | | | | | | | Information (Info) |
| | | | | | | | | | Annual assessments | | | | | | | | | | | WFP, FAO, partners |
| | | | | | | | | | Early warning | | | | | | | | | | | WFP, FAO, partners |
| | | | | | | | | | Market price monitoring | | | | | | | | | | | SMoAF, WFP, FAO, FEWSNET |

| Programme opportunities/ gaps | | | | | | | | | Target groups | | | | | | | | | | Partnerships | |
|-------------------------------|---------|---|-------|-------------|---------------------------------|------|------|-------------|-----------------------------------|--------|-------|---------------|---------|---------|---------|-----------------|-------|-------|--------------|---|
| Month | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | Sector Activity | Gender | | Target groups | | | | Specific groups | | | | Organisations implementing these activities |
| | | | | Light rains | very light, scattered and windy | | | Heavy rains | | Men | Women | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D | Returns | Women | Youth | Special | |
| | | Difficult - extremely hot, dry, and dusty | | | | | | | Natural Resource Management (NRM) | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | Community | Natural Resource Management (NRM) |
| | | | | | | | | | Tree planting | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Community | N/A |
| | | | | | | | | | Live fencing | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Community | N/A |
| | | | | | | | | | Agriculture (Ag) | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | N/A | Agriculture (Ag) |
| | | | | | | | | | Pesticides | X | X | | X | X | x | X | X | X | Community | N/A |
| | | | | | | | | | Mulching | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | Community | N/A |
| | | | | | | | | | Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) | X | X | | x | X | x | X | X | X | Communities | Livestock & Fisheries (L&F) |
| | | | | | | | | | Cattle crush | X | X | | x | X | x | X | X | X | Communities | N/A |
| | | | | | | | | | Fish cold chains | | | | | | | | | | Communities | N/A |

PARTNERSHIPS: Activities are then linked to which partners are doing them and who (gender and demographics) will actually benefit from them. Partners engage in discussions to complement activities in the area, expanding the time span of resilience interventions.

Estimating FFA beneficiaries target groups

- If an **ICA has not** already been conducted, use the historical analysis of FFA beneficiaries to determine the long-term planning estimates (**Chapter 2: Section 3.1.2 – Step 1**), and link these to the relevant SLP vulnerability household profiling exercise to determine and describe which populations will be targeted for long-term FFA programming (mostly Group C, and some Group B and D), and those that will be targeted in the event of a shock (Group B).
- If an **ICA has been conducted**, use the estimates of vulnerable populations from the ICA Areas reviewed against the historical analysis of FFA beneficiaries to determine the long-term planning estimates (**Chapter 2: Section 3.1.2 – Step 2 and/or 3**) and those for scale-up in the event of a shock (**Chapter 2: Section 3.1.2 – Step 4**), linking these to the activities in the programme calendar using the below table as a reference:

Table 2.3 - Estimating FFA beneficiaries target groups

| SLP | ICA description and estimates | Use for FFA |
|----------------|---|---|
| Group A | Not considered | Not considered |
| Group B | Those at risk in the event of shocks | Provide the estimates for the group of people to be considered for scale-up in the event of a shock |
| Group C | Group of 'vulnerable' people who are seasonally food insecure, or consistently food insecure likely as the result of a recent or repeated exposure to shocks | Provide the estimates of the main beneficiary group for FFA, and should be considered for long-term FFA programming |
| Group D | Core group of 'most vulnerable' people who have been consistently food insecure irrespective of better conditions (e.g. good harvests; no shocks etc.) | Only some of these will be FFA participants (most of the households in this group will be elderly or labour-constrained, unable to participate in FFA). Nevertheless, efforts should be made wherever possible to include this group in FFA estimates, and to include them in FFA projects with lighter activities (e.g. distributing water, acting as caregivers to children of participating mothers) for solidarity purposes. |

- Beneficiary estimates of the different FFA target groups and their related activities should be used to inform the preparation of budgets, particularly between what is required for the long-term and what would be required for a scale-up in the event of shocks.

3.2.4. How to use the SLP for FFA Partnerships and Implementation:

Two major aspects are further required to begin operationalizing the FFA plan – the partnerships needed to deliver FFA at scale, and the implementation arrangements. This should be done at local levels – i.e. at a district, commune, or ward level, or the lowest administrative level in which government plans exist, or where partners operate.

Partnerships and taking FFA to scale:

The programme activity calendar of the SLP indicates the partner(s) implementing the FFA activities. Using this, and together with the partners that will be implementing the FFA activities:

- **Determine the geographical coverage** that FFA will be implemented in, and areas that the partners are covering with their activities (use a map of the area for this process). If the partner and programme coverage is comprehensive enough to fall within natural boundaries (i.e. a water catchment area) at a sufficient scale, it will provide the first stages of developing an integrated watershed approach.
- **Select clusters of communities** within these geographical areas. These clusters will serve as the planning and implementation units of the partnership, and where subsequent CBPP plans will be done. If there are any geographical or activity gaps from the partners, determine whether they can be filled by existing partners, or if additional partnerships are needed to fill these gaps.
- **Determine where to start first** by reviewing the range of activities needed and whether the partners exist to begin implementation. For example, those clusters of communities where the full range of activities and the partner(s) are already present and ready to deliver should be those selected to be the first areas in which to begin implementation. Those that do not have the full range of required activities will require plans with incremental programme scale-ups - including associated timelines – until this is achieved. Such areas would require joint advocacy by government and partners to ensure programmes move into these areas (if required).
- **Determine partner capacities and put in place implementation arrangements** before beginning FFA. The FFA programme plan needs to be reviewed with partners, and their capacities assessed, prior to signing Field Level Agreements (FLA's). Key aspects to consider in this process are:
 - (i) determining the quality of the assets they can deliver (do they have demonstrated quality assets? Are they new partners that still need to be evaluated?)
 - (ii) determining their capacities and the type of support they may need to fill these for effective delivery (do they have experience in CBPP or do they need training? Do they have sufficient staff for implementation, technical oversight and monitoring? Will they contribute the tools and equipment, and any other non-food item that may be needed or would this come from WFP?)
 - (iii) are they able reach all intended FFA beneficiaries in typical years, and able to scale-up and reach additional people in the event of a shock. Or will additional partners be required to fill gaps or manage such scale-ups, etc.

Implementation

Effective FFA implementation requires a robust and well-designed plan which also takes into account staffing and technical capacities, budgeting, and coordination. Developing such a plan requires consensus and agreements amongst local governments, partners, and communities.

Linkages to other plans:

Other community, partner, and government plans may exist, and the process of designing a detailed operational plan should build on and complement what is already there, such as:

- **Community-based plans:** Determine whether the clusters of communities to be reached already have detailed plans (e.g. CBPP's), and if these are already in place they should be reviewed and strengthened against the SLP findings and previous processes. If these plans do not exist, they will need to be developed (**Chapter 3**).
- **Partner plans:** Such plans are likely to have time and resource commitments which may not be possible to change. Partners should however review their respective plans and ascertain whether any simple adjustments can be made (i.e. seasonal realignments), or whether they can include new or scale-up existing programmes, and/or expand into new areas where there are gaps, etc.
- **Government plans:** Most importantly, the FFA multi-year plan (and the SLP overall) should be used to complement and strengthen existing local level plans - for example by showing how activities in local plans can be seasonally aligned to livelihoods, to whom they should be targeted, how they complement other sectors, and any gaps that may exist.

Additional budgets considerations:

On top of regular budgeting procedures, the SLP guides a number of additional considerations to assist in formulating budgets and resourcing to ensure effective implementation. The seasonality of FFA means that it is time-bound, and delays in resource allocations can risk that certain activities will not be completed in time, or cannot start on time and hence be delayed by a year until the next FFA season. This compromises the outputs and outcomes of the long-term plan and contribution to other partner's efforts, and resilience building as a whole. These are critical aspects, and donors / CO management must be made aware of these when raising resources and disbursements for FFA.

When preparing the budget and the resource plan, the following time-bound aspects must also be considered:

- **Staffing:** is the staffing capacity sufficient to deliver the FFA activities? Is there a need for specific technical staff for certain activities, when and for how long?
- **Tools and equipment:** are specific tools and equipment needed? What is the lead time for purchasing and delivering these items to ensure timely availability and not delay implementation?
- **Scale-up:** when is this likely to be required, what are the activities and estimated beneficiary numbers, and what would be the lead-time and financial resources needed to do such scale-up's in terms of staffing, partners, and equipment? Has advanced funding been secured, or other potential sources of funding identified? When would resources be required to ensure that scale-up is timely (particularly in rapid-onset contexts) and does not compromise on-going FFA efforts?

3.3. Using Community-based Participatory Planning (CBPP) for FFA

CBPP is a community level participatory exercise to identify needs and tailor programme responses to local requirements by ensuring prioritisation and ownership by communities.

CBPP is a practical planning tool for vulnerable communities, government extension staff and cooperating partners. It is a two to five day field exercise used to develop a three year programme plan. Through CBPP, food-insecure communities are placed in the driver's seat of planning, contributing to their own resilience building efforts and development. Overall, CBPP links people to their landscapes and provides the entry point for scaling up resilience building activities through assets creation and complementary partners' efforts.

The CBPP provides a local level tool for partners to complement food assistance by identifying a package of activities that better support vulnerable groups, and women in particular. It helps link short and long term multi-sectorial interventions to tackle the underlying causes of food insecurity and shocks, empowers women and marginalized groups by including them in discussing, selecting, implementing, and benefitting from programmes that reduce their environmental, social and economic hardships within their community.

How to conduct a CBPP, and how to use it specifically for the selection of appropriate and relevant assets in a community is presented in **Chapter 3**. The following sections describe how to use the CBPP as part of the 3PA process – i.e. how to use it to link FFA with the actions of communities and other partners.

3.3.1. Planning for FFA and Synergies with other Programme Activities

Important synergies between FFA and other programme areas are identified during SLP exercises and community planning work, and complementarities and support that FFA can provide to other efforts should be included and identified in CBPP and other community planning processes.

Complementary efforts are also at the basis of resilience building initiatives, including the use of a variety of WFP tools. Particularly in highly vulnerable and food insecure areas, the lack of livelihood assets and adoption of poor livelihood strategies often mean that, for example, girls do not go to school, markets are difficult to access, water is of poor quality, and income generation opportunities are limited.

The CBPP provides a concrete step to identify key assets and other complementary initiatives that WFP's food assistance and partners' efforts can support.

Field staff and cooperating partners always need to adapt community-based planning to local contexts and to what the programme can realistically deliver. However, even for simple plans that largely focus on the rehabilitation of few infrastructural assets it is possible to take a wider perspective and include specific interventions that may not necessarily be supported by WFP, but possibly by other partners. This further highlights opportunities for partnerships with partners such as UNICEF, FAO, IFAD and others stakeholders.

The following outlines a number of key aspects that can be included during planning work that relate mainly, although not exclusively, to FFA and resilience building activities:

Emergencies and FFA

FFA can be part of an emergency response (**Chapter 1**) as an activity that moves a particular group of beneficiaries from receiving unconditional transfers (e.g. general food distributions, or direct cash-based transfers) to conditional assistance through the construction and establishment of community or household level assets (i.e. FFA). Determining the proportion or estimates of beneficiaries that can shift from receiving unconditional assistance to FFA is an important aspect to consider when conducting simple participatory planning during an emergency, or when conducting CBPP's in areas that are prone to recurrent shocks and crisis.

Shifting from unconditional transfers to FFA:

In a number of emergency situations a beneficiary may move from receiving unconditional transfers to FFA to achieve a specific objective, noting that a number of beneficiaries unable to provide labour would still continue to receive unconditional transfers. Very simple planning with communities is possible during emergencies, and should include determining the proportion or numbers of beneficiaries that can shift from unconditional transfers and into low-tech and low-risk type of FFA activities.

Complementary Emergency Assistance and FFA:

There are a number of contexts where unconditional assistance will be required as a complement to FFA, for example seasonally when access to food is difficult (e.g. floods prevent people reaching markets), when a shock occurs during an on-going FFA programme and needs increase beyond the estimated requirements or FFA capacities (e.g. during a drought), or for specific vulnerable groups with special needs (e.g. nutritional support to children below 2 years of age, and pregnant and lactating women) during the lean season or periods of the year where specific shocks will be expected (e.g. cyclone seasons, etc.).

This unconditional assistance can be provided either simultaneously (i.e. at the same time as FFA for specific beneficiaries or vulnerable groups) or when environmental conditions do not allow FFA to be extended (e.g. dry season FFA activities cannot be extended in to the rainy seasons, etc.).

CBPPs or other local-level planning exercises should incorporate the provision of unconditional transfers to specific groups in addition to FFA along the aspects outlines above. The inclusion of emergency response efforts as part of CBPP's and should be informed by direct accounts from the community and their recall of the history of shocks.

Activities such as pre-positioning of emergency food assistance, the pre-identification and estimates of potential caseloads, and the delivery mechanisms for seasonal food or cash-based transfers that take into consideration market conditions will need to be discussed and included in the plans. Aggregated information from a number of CBPPs can provide key information on the need to maintain a robust emergency relief and nutritional response in areas subject to recurrent crisis – a key aspect in areas where a number of households cannot participate in FFA due to labour or other specific constraints (e.g. disabilities, orphaned or elderly headed households, etc.).

Safety nets and FFA

FFA can be an important component or complementary activity to safety nets, either through a direct focus to increase the livelihood capital of targeted beneficiaries by creating productive assets, or to support specific nutritional interventions or national safety net programmes such as supporting home-grown school meals programmes.

FFA part of safety nets programmes:

As part of productive safety nets, FFA becomes a major component by providing conditional transfers to create productive assets. Such programmes are often led by the government and supported by partners.

Recognizing the protracted nature of safety nets, CBPP and local planning approaches become key to fine tuning targeting and complementarities - for example, to link FFA activities targeted to food insecure households with the priorities of the entire community, and to seek complementary actions for other non-food insecure households in the same community that are not eligible and included in the safety net programme. Further guidance on planning and programming, including for FFA, is found in the [Guidance on Safety Nets](#)⁴².

WFP's role and experience in developing or enhancing safety nets that include productive assets through FFA is important, particularly in regard to planning and implementation. The experience from FFA and CBPPs can, for example, offer the following programmatic elements: (i) a common planning approach for the assets building component; (ii) a set of consolidated work norms and technical standards (e.g. derived from existing experience on the ground); (iii) transfer delivery mechanisms (food and/or cash-based) and related market analyses; and (iv) specific measurement indicators based on the objectives of the programme.

Nutrition and FFA

Rehabilitating degraded watersheds through FFA can improve the overall nutritional condition of targeted communities, and of children in particular – for example by stabilizing catchments to replenish water tables leads to cleaner and safer water through springs, opportunities to introduce water harvesting systems and increase more diverse horticulture production, introduce beekeeping, and increase fodder production and/or improved grazing areas for livestock.

Introducing fruit trees and legume shrubs often increases people's protein intake, and can be coupled with extension services and trainings that advocate for and/or improve awareness at community levels for better nutrition.

School meals and FFA

FFA can complement school meals through the creation of school gardens, school-based woodlots and tree nurseries, take-home 'green rations' in the form of fuel efficient stoves or tree seedlings for planting at the homestead, environmental training and awareness, etc.

FFA can open up markets, and if brought to scale may support government home grown school feeding programmes. The CBPP planning stage may identify a number of such synergies, particularly for clusters of CBPP or watershed plans that when connected with each other can generate the scale required for the development of value chains for markets and school meals.

Children in Local Development (CHILD)

[CHILD](#) is a participatory community planning tool to improve the school environment and transform the school into a local development resource. A CBPP or similar planning approaches can be adapted to support school children, teachers and parents to improve the school environment, including the rehabilitation, greening and productive capacity of the school compound, awareness creation on environmental rehabilitation, gender aspects and solidarity mechanisms. The latter are particularly important in communities where the poorest families either cannot, or find it too difficult, to keep children at school.

Through a CHILD sensitive approach, FFA can support families establish assets and reduce specific hardships that act as barriers to sending their children to school, or to avoid early drop out. References regarding a CHILD approach and related planning is included in the [CHILD Guidance](#).⁴³

⁴² Available at: http://pgm.wfp.org/index.php/Topics:Safety_nets

⁴³ WFP Ethiopia (Joseph Barnes et al), 2005. Children in Local Development (CHILD) Guidance. Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282741.zip

An example of convergence between FFA, Nutrition, and School Meals

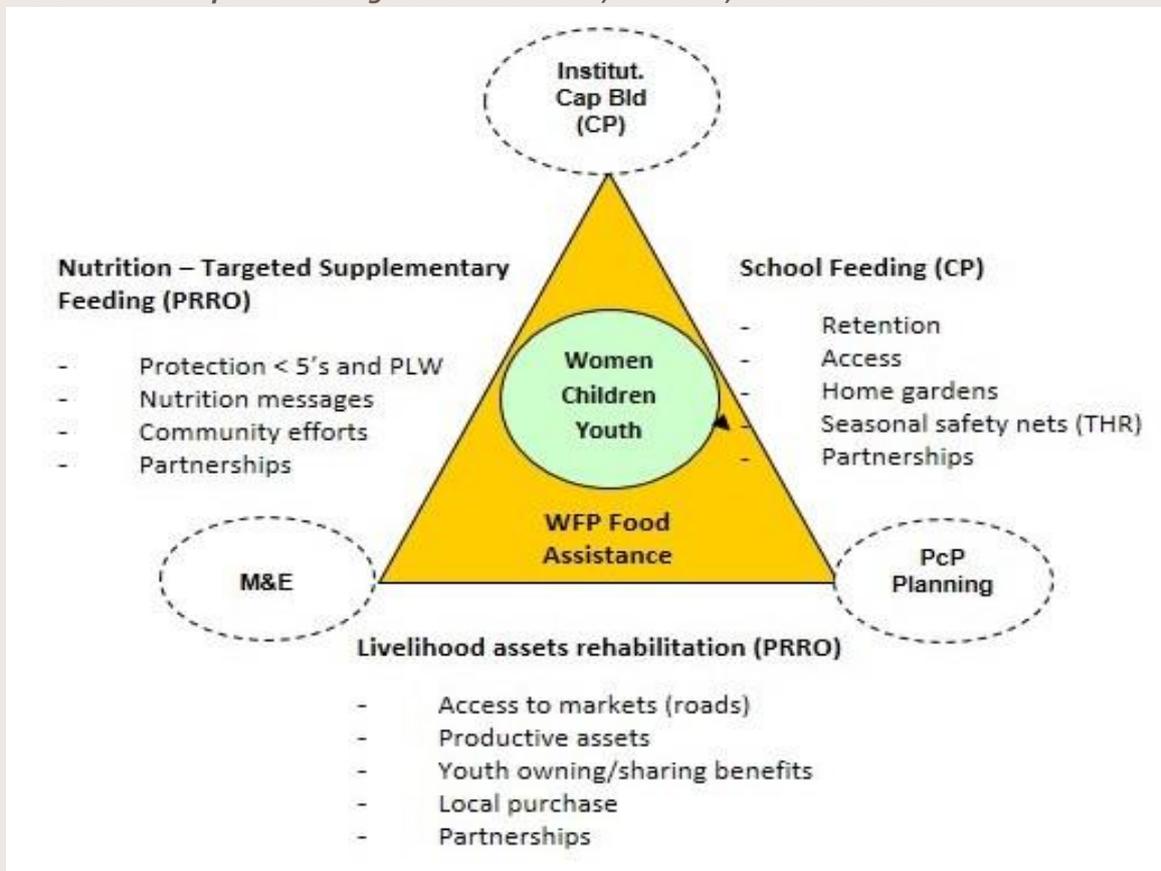
The following example illustrates a synergetic approach between FFA, nutrition and school feeding in a specific country. To the extent possible, participatory planning approaches need to include sections relating FFA to activities that support nutrition interventions – e.g. for children below two years of age or to cover the first 1000 days of life. Planning needs to envisage the support to pregnant and lactating women to minimize workloads by focusing on lighter activities, and on establishing specific support systems such as crèches for small children while women are at work.

The Context: Severe moderate acute malnutrition (seasonal), limited employment (especially for the youth and women) and low income levels, recurrent floods, high dropout rates and low retention rates of school going children.

- a. **School feeding (in a CP)** supports children to return to/access schools and improves retention
- b. **Nutrition (in the PRRO)** interventions protect malnourished children and their mothers to avert the long lasting effects of malnutrition and subsequent negative impacts on productivity
- c. **FFA (in the PRRO)** activities target the rehabilitation of productive areas and feeder road construction, with the aim of providing opportunities to increase local production and food supply for eventual local purchase and/or processing into commercialized nutritious products - which in turn may be used in nutrition and school feeding programmes.

Aligned, these three activities result in a **'triangle of opportunity of mutually reinforcing interventions'** shown in the diagram below. Three programme functions featuring at the points of the triangle highlight: (i) Participatory planning; (ii) Capacity development of local institutions: and (iii) monitoring and evaluation.

Figure 2.16 - An example of convergence between FFA, Nutrition, and School Meals



Chapter 3: Section 5 elaborates on how to strengthen the nutrition focus of FFA programming.

Local purchases, value chains, and FFA

Major synergies exist between FFA and local purchases, through interventions such as feeder roads, swamp land rehabilitation, and other land management interventions that can be planned and linked to P4P and similar types of local purchase and value chain development efforts. As rehabilitated areas start generating agricultural surpluses, trainings on local purchases can start in these sites and support an increasing cycle of expanding environmental rehabilitation linked with local purchase and value chains. In Guatemala for example, FFA has been used to rehabilitate watersheds and move households away from subsistence agriculture livelihoods, to a more economic-based one through diversified cash crops and horticultural production linked to markets.

The CBPP process, and particularly the identification of specific clusters of CBPP sites along potential value-chain continuums, can generate a number of opportunities for partnerships at the early stages of planning and implementation - for example with NGOs, FAO and IFAD on forming and training groups (e.g. farmers, women, youth, etc.) on the preservation of produce, small micro-enterprise development, and packaging and marketing. During the CBPP exercises, activities such as enhanced local storage construction using low cost materials and pest safe/control techniques, construction of solar driers, establishment of cereal banks, and post-harvest handling techniques can be discussed and become part of a major planning exercise with partners.

Insurance for Assets and FFA

WFP, through the [R4 Rural Resilience Initiative](#)⁴⁴ helps governments and communities to manage climate risks and adapt to climate change through integrated risk management approaches that involve natural resource management to reduce disaster risk, the insurance of crops to climate-related shocks, the provision of micro-credit, and support to make and manage savings.

Including a period of labour in exchange for an insurance premium requires a major set of preliminary planning arrangements, including amongst others: (i) availability of programmes such as productive safety nets able to provide sufficient transfers to cover food needs, and an element of additional work required to buy the insurance; (ii) a reliable private sector insurance partner; (iii) well defined criteria for verification of rainfall data and impact on crops that trigger insurance pay-outs, and the potential pay-out delivery systems themselves; and (iv) complementary measures to optimize the risk reduction efforts created by this initiative.

From an FFA planning perspective, it is critical to undertake quality CBPP to capitalize on the potential benefits provided by an insurance mechanism whilst ecosystems are being 'rebuilt'. What is critical to consider from an FFA objective perspective and R4 are the following aspects:

- Targeting under R4 is potentially biased towards those households with larger land plots, and can miss a number of land poor or landless beneficiaries. However, FFA can rehabilitate existing and reclaim new land to increase the land capital of those households. Similarly, insurance should be allowed for small plots and specific agreements reached with insurers
- Schemes should require an incremental approach and foresee gradual inclusion
- The FFA programme needs to rest on sound programmatic and planning procedures that lead to the creation of productive safety net programmes in the first place. Such programmes are essential to ensure protracted and predictable transfers to vulnerable groups, enabling the R4 approach to graft its complementary components of insurance, credits, and savings.

⁴⁴ More information available at: <http://www.wfp.org/climate-change/initiatives/r4-rural-resilience-initiative>

Preparedness work and FFA

FFA activities and particularly CBPP planning work can be highly complementary in a number of contexts. Particularly pertinent are the areas that show a strong trend of specific shocks, for example in areas affected by cyclones, hurricanes, flooding and other sudden onset shocks (e.g. volcanoes).

Use CBPP's for hazard risk mapping and preparedness actions. Some partners in shock prone countries develop community based hazard maps and preparedness plans, including the identification of wardens, provision of emergency radio sets, evacuation routes, training and simulating drills at community level, the building of shelters, safe caches for seeds and tools, etc. These plans can be integrated into a more detailed CBPP that would also include preventative measures that are possible to build using FFA.

Chapter 3

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Planning FFA



World Food Programme

wfp.org

1. PARTICIPATORY PLANNING FOR FFA

1.1. Relevance of Participatory Planning for FFA

Participatory planning for FFA is a people-centred approach, to empower the most vulnerable and promote social inclusion, including through access to and benefit from the assets created.

Participation of rural people in local level planning has increasingly taken root in the last two decades following the push given by the implementation of the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and related approaches. Successes are mixed – with significant progresses observed in some countries while in others the impact of participatory planning is at best anecdotal and often small scale. However, **participatory planning that works ends up achieving sustainable assets** generating concrete benefits through assets that are managed by local communities and/or households. To reach such results, participation – whether using a simple or more complex approach – needs to be seen as a straightforward, respectful and constructive dialogue between the promoters of the planning approach and the community.

This is important to avoid ending up with approaches that the following remark describes:

“Much participatory methodology becomes condescending and patronizing of local populations, just the opposite of the original intent Rather than treating local people with respect and as colleagues, participatory methods sometimes treat them more like school children by playing titillating games, drawing exercises, etc.”
Robert E. Rhodes – IIED.

In other words, participatory planning is nothing more than ‘organized common sense’ and is made of dedicated efforts to engage people in both dialogue and actions aimed at solving problems. Capacity for dialogue and negotiation is as important as technical capacity and a minimum level of resources to make planning and subsequent implementation happen. This combination of dialogue-technical capacity-resources makes ‘participation’ something meaningful.

Thus, participatory planning for FFA is not optional – it is a must!

For FFA, participatory planning should be included in the Field Level Agreements (FLA) with cooperating partners (CPs). Participatory planning should be integrated into country-based Standard Operational Procedures (SOP) developed to guide WFP staff and stakeholders on how to undertake FFA programming. In this regard, sufficient consideration should be placed into the FLA to support participatory planning efforts, including minimum budget requirements (complemented adequately by the partner), and baseline documentation for tracking changes over time.

There are many ways to conduct participatory planning, ranging from extremely complex and time, resource, and capacity intensive approaches, through to simpler and more rapid techniques. For FFA, the premise is to use or build on any existing community planning approaches that may already be in place by government or partners, provided that they adhere to minimum standards and quality.

Where these do not exist, then the **Community-based Participatory Planning (CBPP)** approach developed specifically for WFP’s FFA programmes for low to medium capacity contexts, and explained throughout this guidance, should be used.

1.2. Basic features of Participatory Planning

There are four basic features to consider when beginning to develop the participatory planning approach will be appropriate to use for FFA, namely:



Table 3.1 below describes these four features, indicating the actions and measures to consider depending on the levels of these features.

TABLE 3.1 - Participatory Planning Basic Features

| Key Elements | Description |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. Local planning experience | <p>Stock take, review and adapt existing participatory planning approaches to local conditions and FFA requirements (see Section 3). Ensure that aspects, for example of food insecurity and prioritization of assets, assets ownership and management, and gender are included.</p> <p>In the absence of relevant local experience, develop a planning approach by using the experience of other countries with similar level of capacity, livelihoods and agro-ecology profiles - starting with a simple methodology and testing it in a number of representative locations before scaling it up.</p> |
| 2. Capacity levels for planning | <p>When capacity is low make it simple: The planning approaches to use in contexts with low capacity need to be simple – as should be the type of FFA activities to select and implement. Scaling up participatory planning is possible for a limited and “low-tech” range of FFA interventions.</p> <p>Where capacity is satisfactory or high: invest in more integrated planning approaches: upfront dedicated investments to scale up the dissemination of community/area-based participatory planning through specific institutions is recommended, and with a number of partners (e.g. FAO, UNICEF, GIZ, etc.).</p> |

| Key Elements | Description |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 3. Institutional support | <p>Situation 1: Top-down institutional environments, where rural communities and households have limited decision-making autonomy and tend to follow prescriptive directives. In such contexts it is common that government strategies require that WFP and any other partners' resources are used for labour-intensive works, often decided with little community consultation which in turn often leads to asset creation of limited quality and relevance for the communities. It is possible to introduce community participatory planning in such contexts, although it would need careful packaging and introduced through well accepted NGOs or government institutions willing to test or introduce participatory approaches. This can be as simple as establishing a Relief & Development planning committee at community level, undertaking a mapping exercise, and completing a plan that captures the needs and priorities of different community groups and quality technical standards. These efforts can pave the way for simple yet important steps towards increasingly more participatory planning approaches.</p> <p>Situation 2: A mix of bottom and top-down institutional environments with some attempts of bottom-up planning. This situation occurs in a number of countries emerging from conflict or social strife where WFP operates. This is often an evolution from the situation 1 above. In such contexts, there may be new policies and strategies that are conducive to or include elements of participatory planning (e.g. policies that state the need to empower vulnerable groups). In these contexts participatory planning can be strengthened or introduced using simple methods, and gradually scaled up.</p> <p>Situation 3: A committed but weak or highly-constrained institutional environment, supportive of participatory approaches. In such contexts, governments often face limited capacity at various levels, lack decentralized outreach, and have insufficiently trained personnel. Numerous NGO's operate in many of these contexts but are not always well linked to government institutions and/or directly focused at community levels. Different planning approaches can be in use, but with limited coordination on common technical and planning standards, with a tendency to have numerous small projects (some very innovative but poorly networked and documented), a few integrated efforts, and insufficient attention paid to strengthening the capacity of local institutions.</p> <p>In these contexts focus should be on: (i) a greater engagement of government institutions in improving or developing the planning approach based on best practices, and (ii) strengthening technical and outreach capacities (e.g. training budget, experience sharing, provision of items, etc.) of government partners as well as NGOs.</p> <p>Situation 4: An institutional environment strongly committed to empower people and the most vulnerable, with medium to high capacity for planning and implementation of FFA. A number of UN and NGO partners may already support the strengthening of national and sub-national/local institutions in planning and implementation of various rural development and food security initiatives. However, additional capacity is often required at a decentralized level, for institutions and technical staff to deliver adequate extension services and technical support to local communities. In such contexts it is important to focus on building capacities, and integrating and scaling-up of efforts that can strengthen the quality and ultimately the impact of participatory planning.</p> |

| Key Elements | Description |
|---|--|
| <p>4. Biophysical and social environment</p> | <p>Specific FFA activities related to resilience building, risk reduction and adaptation to climate change often requires community-based participatory watershed/area based planning: In a number of agro-ecological systems, attention to watershed principles and landscape interactions is critical for planning, designing and implementing FFA and complementary interventions. Ideally, community-based participatory watershed planning should be adopted as a main approach for FFA in most degraded agricultural systems. This is not always possible due to capacity constraints. Field staff and partners however should be made aware of basic watershed planning principles and use them for either simple or more complex forms of planning that consider landscapes and territorial units as key planning features. To this effect, the description of the relevance of watershed planning principles included in Section 4.2 is a good starting point to think of FFA interventions as an integral part of watershed and people’s planning.</p> <p>Participatory planning should promote self-help efforts: any participatory planning process should aim at mobilizing self-help efforts provided by the community in addition to FFA work. Communities and individual households can contribute a significant amount of planned assets creation/rehabilitation work through own self-help, mass mobilization, or solidarity driven efforts aimed at assisting the poorest members of a community. Such initiatives should be stimulated through participatory planning processes and dialogue.</p> |

1.3. Capacities for Participatory Planning and FFA

The level of detail that each participatory plan can reach depends on the level of capacity available on the ground. There are however trade-offs, where some of the commonly desired features in a comprehensive participatory plan may not be possible. **A common mistake is to develop and use comprehensive planning approaches in areas with low capacity and resources.** These are often impossible to use and raise unnecessary expectations.

Similarly, FFA is influenced by partner and stakeholder capacities on the ground which largely dictate the technical complexities and types of interventions that can be chosen for implementation. FFA options can be divided between **low-tech, low-risk interventions**, and those that are **high-tech, high-risk interventions**. A mix of low, medium and high complexity is also common.

Levels of capacities for both FFA planning and implementation need to be matched together – e.g. where capacity to plan is low, then FFA activities requiring high capacities to implement them should not be selected, etc. **Table 3.2** links different levels of complexity in FFA planning, design, and implementation based on levels of capacity, to assist in selecting the most appropriate approach:

TABLE 3.2 - Participatory planning methods in relation to capacity

| Capacity Contexts for FFA planning, design, and implementation | FFA Planning and implementation approach – suggested methods |
|---|---|
| Low capacity (overall) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Simple approach: planning focused on a few tools/modalities, and low tech-low risk FFA interventions requiring limited supervision and technical inputs. → Avoid designing interventions that require significant expertise that is not be realistically available. This does not mean that low quality work should be undertaken, but rather that the focus should be on those interventions that involve a set of tasks requiring less technical inputs. The ability to engage in FFA work due to other work commitments also needs to be considered. |
| Mix of high/sufficient and low capacity (e.g. good in some districts / limited in others) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Simple approach (i.e. above) in low capacity areas, with gradual expansion to introduce/use more integrated and elaborated approaches in areas with greater capacity (by government and/or NGOs). → Simple/intermediate approach: planning which includes both low tech and more sophisticated interventions, and adjusting to local technical capacities. → Planning approach includes more people-landscape aspects (e.g. basic resources mapping, transects, specific FFA interventions selected based on partners and capacities to provide appropriate technical support, etc.) |
| High/sufficient capacity (overall) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Select best approaches that suit local contexts and have the potential to be institutionalized through capacity development and dissemination of best practices (e.g. participatory watershed planning). → In high capacity contexts: consider more sophisticated approaches – e.g. Sustainable Land Management (SLM) (see Section 1.4), a comprehensive concept that within specifically defined landscape units integrates ecological and social approaches (i.e. ecosystems management and community/household/group-based intervention approaches). These approaches require moving beyond administrative boundaries that cut across sub-watersheds, but into landscape units that contain the natural resources on which livelihoods are built. An example of such an approach is Participatory Watershed Planning (see Section 1.4), which links people and their livelihoods to their natural environment by focusing on water catchments as the geographical unit of focus for planning. |

1.4. What Participatory Planning tools to use?

The level of complexity that relate to participatory planning tools varies from context to context and is based on local capacity levels. The Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP) approach has been developed specifically for FFA where there are no other government or participatory planning systems in place, and where capacity to implement participatory planning for FFA is low and needs to be strengthened.

The CBPP (presented in this guidance) represents the simplest methodology and includes the minimum requirements of a participatory planning process required for FFA and complementary interventions – this entails:

- sufficient time for dialogue, listening and engaging with the communities
- observations of the area, walks and specific simple mapping techniques
- negotiations with communities on aspects such as targeting, tenureship and access to assets created, and self-help efforts, amongst others

Table 3.3 provides a rapid reference of approaches that meet the basic principles of participatory planning, that have been developed and implemented in a number of countries, and that can be selected and adapted to suit the local context. The CBBP is featured in this table, and explained in detail in **Section 2: Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP)**.

TABLE 3.3 - Examples of key participatory planning approaches relevant for FFA

| Capacity Context | Planning Approach | Description |
|---|---|---|
| <p>Low capacity</p> <p>(requires a minimum amount of initial training and awareness raising)</p> | <p>Basic Participatory Planning</p> <p>(for low capacity contexts with Low-risk/Low-tech approaches)</p> | <p>1) The “Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP)” approach is developed by WFP to suit contexts with low (and low-medium) capacity but where local communities, with very limited support, can prepare simple local level plans. This is the first level of participatory planning on which to build increasingly robust methods. Annex 3a provides English⁴⁵ and French⁴⁶ versions of annotated (i.e. with guidance) CBPP templates, and without annotations for field use also in English⁴⁷ and French⁴⁸.</p> <p>2) <u>Community based food aid targeting and distribution in Kenya (2004)</u>⁴⁹</p> <p>These guidelines were developed for relief operations and include a number of steps that are precursors of participatory planning, as they promote the creation of relief committees that also have early recovery functions (this will require sufficient NGO capacity for minimum support).</p> |

⁴⁵ WFP, 2016. CBPP annotated template (in English; pdf/Word formats). Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp283040.pdf.

⁴⁶ PAM, 2016. Format annoté pour la Planification Communautaire Participative (PCP) (en français ; formats pdf/Word). Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282778.pdf.

⁴⁷ WFP, 2016. CBPP template, without annotations (in English; pdf/Word formats). Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp283041.docx.

⁴⁸ WFP, 2016. Format PCP, sans annotations (en français ; formats pdf/Word). Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp283043.docx.

⁴⁹ WFP Kenya and Government of Kenya, 2004. Community based food aid targeting and distribution in Kenya. Available at: <http://goo.gl/20yWR5>.

| Capacity Context | Planning Approach | Description |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Mixed low, medium and high capacity | Community-based Participatory Planning | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Refer to the CBPP (annotated) templates introduced above. 2) Building resilience through Productive Assets Creation in Zimbabwe - Community Level Participatory Planning Approach 'How To' Facilitation Guidelines (2012)⁵⁰ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – See also: Action plan example⁵¹ and Action plan template⁵². This provides guidance and examples of a step-by-step process on how to identify and implement FFA interventions at village or ward level. It can be used effectively from low to high capacity contexts. 3) FFA Implementation Manual for Kenya (2010)⁵³ <p>These guidelines have been developed in Kenya as part of national policy. It recommends the use of conditional transfers for able bodied beneficiaries receiving food assistance at times of shocks – these guidelines can be used and/or adapted to suit emergency, early recovery and longer term FFA efforts.</p> 4) The Local Level Participatory Planning Approach (LLPPA - 1999)⁵⁴ <p>Developed in Ethiopia and extensively used for community level participatory planning linked to WFP FFA land rehabilitation works; this link includes a TOT guideline and useful formats for LLPPA.</p> 5) Planification Participative pour la Gestion Durable des Terres (2009)⁵⁵ (planning approaches and planning formats) <p>Guidelines developed in Burundi based on LLPP and adapted in Haiti.</p> 6) WFP manual (draft) on Local Level Participatory and Implementation Approach (LLPIA) – Tanzania (2011)⁵⁶ <p>A complete community based planning approach building upon WFP experience in the region.</p> 7) Participatory land use planning in Tanzania⁵⁷ <p>Useful guidance on main description methods and mapping</p> |

⁵⁰ WFP Zimbabwe, 2012. Community Level Participatory Planning Approach - 'How To' Facilitation Guidelines. Available at: <http://goo.gl/W9bPui>.

⁵¹ WFP Zimbabwe, 2012. Community Level Participatory Planning Approach - Action plan example. Available at: <http://goo.gl/80ooBC>.

⁵² WFP Zimbabwe, 2012. Community Level Participatory Planning Approach - Action plan template. Available at: <http://goo.gl/0XscEE>.

⁵³ WFP Kenya and Government of Kenya (2010). Food for Assets (FFA) Guidelines for Project Implementation Teams. Available at: <http://goo.gl/QNUZtg>.

⁵⁴ WFP Ethiopia and MoA Ethiopia, 1999. Local Level Participatory Planning Approach. A Trainers' Manual. Available at: <http://goo.gl/tKEldy>.

⁵⁵ PAM Haiti et Ministères Agri-Elev-Env-TP Haiti, 2009. Formats de la planification participative pour la gestion durable des terres. Available at: <http://goo.gl/aZQoRQ>.

⁵⁶ WFP Tanzania, 2011. Guidelines for Local Level Participatory Planning and Implementation for FFA Programming in Tanzania. Available at: <http://goo.gl/xo9P0H>.

⁵⁷ National Land Use Planning Commission of Tanzania, 1998. Guidelines for Participatory Village Land Use Management in Tanzania. Available at: <https://goo.gl/gHtn7r>.

| Capacity Context | Planning Approach | Description |
|--|--|--|
| High capacity | Community-based Participatory Watershed Planning | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The Community-based Participatory Watershed Development Planning (CBPWD) guidelines –Ethiopia, MOARD (2005)⁵⁸ These guidelines are based on field rooted and effective planning experiences. They include planning procedures and modules as well as a number of technical information kits for over 60 interventions which are relevant in a number of degraded and food insecurity contexts. 2) The India Integrated Watershed Planning Guidelines⁵⁹ Adopted at a very large scale and constitutes a key reference in Asia. 3) FAO Management & Sustainable Mountain Development Working Paper (Asia Experience - 2003)⁶⁰ Contains important perspectives on watershed management efforts from district to community level. |
| Tools that may be applicable to different contexts | Others | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) tools⁶¹ Provides interesting definitions and tools for PRA, recommending its use largely on problem identification rather than actual planning of interventions. 2) The Rural Economic Advancement Programme (REAP)⁶² In Bhutan – this offer interesting and simple village level planning guidelines. 3) The Opportunities and Obstacles to Development - A Community Participatory Planning Methodology Hand Book (Tanzania, 2007)⁶³ This handbook offers an easy to read set of principles, definitions and procedures for local level planning. However, the guidelines are more geared towards overall community development and are not focused on food security. Some tools like transects, village mapping and wealth ranking are possible to adapt to other contexts and linked to the prioritization of FFA. |

Note: A simple or basic planning approach can also include medium to sophisticated interventions, depending on levels of capacity and time available for planning.

⁵⁸ MoARD Ethiopia and WFP Ethiopia, 2005. Community Based Participatory Watershed Development: Parts 1 and 2 (Annexes). Available at: <http://goo.gl/Ay9Evt>.

⁵⁹ Government of India, 2011. Common Guidelines for Watershed Development Projects. Available at: <http://goo.gl/U6Rz7e>.

⁶⁰ FAO, 2003. Preparing for the Next Generation of Watershed Management Programmes and Projects. Available at: <http://goo.gl/au6TQ8>.

⁶¹ KSToolkit, sa. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) tools. Available at: <http://goo.gl/1W3GWF>.

⁶² UNDP, 2009. Guidelines for Participatory Village Planning under the REAP. Available at: <http://goo.gl/3MR0Pa>.

⁶³ United Republic of Tanzania, 2007. The Opportunities and Obstacle to Development: A Community Participatory Planning Methodology Handbook. Available at: <http://goo.gl/iCeaIT>.

2. COMMUNITY-BASED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING (CBPP)

A magnitude of the scale that can be reached using participatory planning approaches is reflected in a few countries (e.g. Ethiopia, Kenya, Guatemala, Niger, etc.) that have made large advances in this regard, including the use of the Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP) approach developed for FFA in the absence of other government or partner planning processes.

Each CBPP usually covers a community made up of 1-4 small villages that on average consist of between 1,000 to 2,500 people, over an area ranging between 500 to 1,500 hectares (depending on the context). In any given country WFP can, with the support of government institutions and cooperating or implementing partners, envisage reaching a sizeable scale of planning in a relatively short period of time (2-3 years).

The following sections, whilst not prescriptive, will provide a number of suggestions on how to introduce, consolidate and eventually scale up participatory planning in food insecure areas for livelihoods rehabilitation and resilience building efforts.

2.1. Aims of the CBPP

Experience and capacity to conduct participatory planning is limited in a number of contexts where WFP delivers FFA. In such conditions, the CBPP has been developed for areas with low-medium capacities and offers a simple participatory planning approach to identify **what FFA activities** to select and prioritize, and **where and with whom** specific interventions should be planned.

The premise for introducing the CBPP is to answer the questions of: **what participatory planning approach is feasible in contexts of low or limited capacities, where access is difficult, and communities are vulnerable and food insecure?**

Whilst the CBPP is not intended to be a comprehensive planning approach but one that aims at producing a good community-based plan over a short period of time, it should nevertheless still arrive at a set of quantified planned targets and tentative budget which can be further refined during the technical design and implementation stages of FFA. Furthermore, the CBPP can gradually evolve into a more sophisticated planning approach when local capacities allow.

The objective of promoting and using the CBPP is to scale up participatory planning for community-level asset creation programmes. For this reason, the CBPP developed and outlined in this guidance is deliberately simple and rapid to undertake (± 3 days), designed to allow for the scale-up required to cover all communities where FFA is implemented. The intent is also to demystify the difficulty of systematically using participatory planning at scale, even when such approaches do not necessarily follow a typical 'participatory orthodoxy' that is seldom possible in contexts where WFP operates.

Therefore, the ambition of CBPP is to:

1. Initiate a dialogue within the community(ies) and to feature vulnerability and food insecurity as key issues that need to be addressed
2. Support actions through that empower the most vulnerable members of the community
3. Foster the role of local governmental institutions in supporting this dialogue, and in leading the technical support for durable solutions; and
4. Create a conducive environment for other partners to complement WFP's efforts
5. Coming to a community action plan (including which assets) with an initial set of tentative targets for each of the main activities identified.

Note that where similar or planning approaches already exist in a given country, efforts should not be duplicated and WFP should build upon these other, on-going approaches as required.

2.2. Core Principles of the CBPP

1. **CBPP places food-insecure communities in the driver's seat of planning and development**, including for FFA.
2. **Community members who will benefit from the FFA intervention** must be involved throughout the planning process, and CBPP is required to validate and fine-tune the details of each FFA intervention to ensure they all fit into the longer-term goals of the community.
3. **CBPP is a major empowerment tool** if applied systematically, and when linked to quality assets that deliver their intended purpose. Through its inclusive approach, CBPP places community members at the centre of the asset creation effort, ensuring the relevance, ownership, implementation plan, management, and maintenance of the assets.
4. **CBPPs focus on ecosystems links people to their landscapes** in ways to help them better understand the root causes of their environment-related vulnerabilities⁶⁴, and providing entry points to scale up recovery and resilience building through asset creation and complementary partners' efforts.
5. **CBPP should build on any existing participatory planning approaches**, but with specific attention being paid to vulnerabilities, food security and nutrition - aspects that may not necessarily be emphasized in other planning efforts.
6. **CBPP should complement and reinforce decentralized government planning efforts**, and become an integral part of capacity development efforts to strengthen government institutions (e.g. technical services).
7. **CBPP provides opportunities for different technical services to provide their assistance effectively** – e.g. through ensuring quality standards are met and by supporting equitable access to benefits generated by the assets created for the poorest community members. The CBPP (or upgraded version) can become a country led and owned tool for scaling up resilience building work, with government institutions having a leadership role in coordinating partners' efforts and ensuring adequate coverage.
8. **CBPP is a key contribution to monitoring and evaluation baselines and tracking:**
 - **Qualitative:** use community-level information collected through CBPP to establish baselines, tracking ongoing performance, impact monitoring and evaluation. This includes problems affecting the community and their perceptions of risks and vulnerability, their priorities to address such problems, the hardships faced by specific groups (i.e. time spent by women/girls collecting water and firewood), access conditions to basic services and markets, production levels, etc. CBPP also includes photographs of each transect area and reference maps when available (e.g. google earth, etc.) to be used for monitoring, evaluation, and the **possible documentation of good practices** (see **Chapter 9**).
 - **Quantitative:** use the CBPP to collect baselines for (i) community-level indicators (project-specific indicators); and for household-level indicators (FCS, DDS, etc.). More information in **Chapter 7**. CBPP also offers a spatial dimension to track specific environmental changes, such as vegetation indexes and water, and other landscape features.

Figure 3.1 - CBPP exercise



⁶⁴ People are linked to their ecosystem, but often they do not see the causality linkages between the root causes (e.g. environmental degradation, erosion, etc.) and the symptoms (e.g. more floods, less soil fertility, etc.).

2.3. Timing requirements to do CBPP

How long does a CBPP take?

A basic CBPP to develop a three to five year community action plan can be done through a field consultation exercise that takes (on average) **three days**. This will need to be followed by other technical exercises and surveys to refine the design and layout of specific FFA (and other) activities.

For example, a community access road may be identified and placed into a CBPP action plan with related rough planning and implementation estimates - but must be followed with specific technical planning and design sessions for precise road layout and construction. The same applies to certain water harvesting and soil conservation measures for watershed rehabilitation, etc. Thus, the **CBPP is never a one-off exercise** and, depending on contexts, may require several rounds of technical consultations and follow-up sessions to consolidate the participatory thrust initiated during the first overall CBPP exercise.

There are exceptions and the amount of time a CBPP consultation phase will take to complete may vary depending on local conditions such as community members' interest and receptiveness of the approach, complexity of the area (e.g. difficult terrain, climate), workloads, etc. In such cases, follow-up work for further elaboration and detail design would be required based on the technical solutions identified (see **Section 3.2** for further details).

Note that more elaborated planning approaches in high capacity contexts exist – those that may require a few weeks for completion and involve levels of commitment and capacities that are only available in a few contexts where government and/or partner capacity is high (**Table 3.2** for details).

When is the best time to undertake CBPP?

The choice of the best period for planning will obviously depend on each context.

Common practice to undertake CBPP when the likelihood to have as many community members present as possible is high. Two factors can influence this: the first relates to the time available for community members to engage in the planning effort of the CBPP, and the second to the presence or (temporary) absence of specific groups of the community (e.g. seasonal migration). This is important in contexts where specific groups migrate away in search of job opportunities at particular times of the year, or where livelihood strategies (e.g. for pastoralists) imply long periods of absence of some of the household members.

For example, a good period for CBPP in parts of the agricultural areas of the Sahel would be around October – before the seasonal outmigration of men in search of labour, and when the harvest is largely over. This period provides an opportunity to discuss the results of the harvest concomitant to long lasting issues. The presence of most community members also ensures that decisions are endorsed by all, including those decisions that entail agreements (e.g. land tenure) over the assets created and benefits for the most vulnerable.

It is also important to undertake CBPP early enough before implementation is expected to start (at least for FFA) to ensure there is enough time to refine programme plans, design, and acquire the necessary tools and resources needed for implementation.

Note that in situations where it is not possible to wait for the best period to carry out CBPP, they can still be undertaken provided it is agreed that they will be refined and/or decisions on specific FFA activities are deferred until all key community members are present.

2.4. Roles and responsibilities for CBPP

Undertaking CBPP requires preparation at different administrative levels (e.g. District/Department, Commune/Ward, and community levels – or their country-specific equivalent), each with their own roles and responsibilities in terms of:

- Identifying and selecting the communities where CBPP is to be undertaken (see **Section 3**)
- Deciding the best period for planning with community and other stakeholders/partners
- Planning and preparing the CBPP effort – i.e. teams' organization and deployment
- Training requirements - e.g. a Training of Trainers (TOT) may be required for cooperating partners, government technical staff, and WFP personnel
- Supporting the follow-up technical planning and design work for the implementation of FFA and complementary measures.

At District/Department Level:

WFP and partners (UN, NGOs, etc.) should always strive to enhance the role and capacity of government institutions at various levels to design and lead the planning and implementation processes related to livelihood assets building. Institutions at the District/Department (or country-specific equivalent) level are likely to be the most important ones for WFP Sub-Office and cooperating partner staff to engage with in the technical implementation of FFA and other related programmatic efforts such as resilience building and productive safety nets, among others.

To strengthen capacities and facilitate the role of government institutions in leading livelihood assets building, it is recommended that an **FFA Technical Support Core Team (TSCT)** to plan and implement FFA is established at the District/Department level (or equivalent) where such institutions tend to have decentralized Offices across different sectors, including those that relate to the technical areas relevant for FFA⁶⁵. Such a TSCT could be established under a designated 'FFA main reference' Office (e.g. Ministry of Agriculture & Livestock) and whose function is to provide technical support for programmes that include FFA, particularly on planning, design, implementation, and sharing of lessons learned.

A TSCT (or equivalent support structure) could be created to function only during the initial stages of FFA planning after which technical assistance would be provided based on local demands, or it could become a permanent reference group established to support integrated activities in a number of priority communities in the district/departments and communes/wards.

A TSCT could consist of 2-3 (or more) staff from the following disciplines, depending on local personnel availability:

- Natural resources/Environment officer
- Forestry/Agro-forestry officer
- Agronomy officer
- Water Harvesting /Irrigation officer
- Land Use and Administration officer
- Cooperative/Marketing officer
- Rural Road Construction/infrastructure officer
- Other officers from relevant institutions (WFP SO staff, other UN officers, NGO technical staff, etc.)

⁶⁵ For example, offices of the Ministry of Agriculture, Environment, Water, Rural Development, and sometimes Public Works, etc. (names of these offices will vary from country to country).

A team leader can be selected from the main reference Office to facilitate the TSCT activities, who would have the following roles and responsibilities:

1. Coordinate with partners (WFP, NGOs, UN) on work plans for planning, training, supervisory work, and technical guidance
2. Participate in the selection and prioritization of communes/wards in the district, and clusters of priority communities within them for CBPP work and technical support
3. Organize and conduct training to local staff, cooperating partners and community level planning teams, including preparation of training guidance and tools
4. Assist in CBPP planning, and in the technical design of FFA activities;
5. Collect and review CBPPs, assist in mobilizing and coordinating resource requirements (of the community, government, external support, and others) for implementation of CBPP
6. Assist communes and communities in negotiations over tenure issues with local authorities, engage in the resolution of disputes, and promote the sustained management of assets
7. Coordinate specific technical support from regional or central level (as required)
8. Support result-based monitoring using participatory approaches, and regular review of CBPPs
9. Support knowledge sharing, dissemination and networking of CBPP and FFA activities within and across districts
10. Hold monthly or quarterly meetings to review progress on CBPP and FFA work.

The above may represent a close to ideal situation which could be a challenge to establish in a number of country contexts with limited capacity, where at best 1-2 officers may be available to support CBPP and FFA from the district/department (or equivalent) levels. However, WFP and its partners should make all efforts possible to gradually build district level capacities and support TSCT type of functions over time.

At Commune/Ward level:

At the Commune/Ward level (or equivalent, and generally contain a group of between 10 to 30 communities) there may be a representative of the Offices of Agriculture, Health and Education sectors etc. in addition to representatives of the local administration. Such representatives, in addition to staff of specific NGOs/WFP cooperating partners and other stakeholders working in the area can constitute an overall commune level **FFA Steering Committee for Planning and Implementation** that oversees the CBPP planning and implementation phases, particularly on aspects such as:

1. Selecting FFA sites, and assist in planning/tracking the completion of CBPP in communities
2. Resolving specific issues related to tenure, and resolution of disputes
3. Provide technical support by availing technical staff, or through other additional assistance
4. Coordinating meetings on convergence of efforts, scaling-up specific activities, and reviewing progress made, etc.,
5. Supporting advocacy efforts.

The role of WFP at the commune/ward level is often limited to regular supervision and occasional technical support, making the engagement of cooperating partners and government staff critical for the successful organization and implementation of CBPP consultations followed by the design and implementation of FFA and complementary efforts.

Note: this may be ambitious in certain country contexts, and where this is not possible then at a minimum a government representative should be assigned to act as a focal point for CBPP and FFA.

At Community level:

Depending on the country and social context, a community can either be a single, larger settlement, or comprise of a series of smaller of villages/settlements spread over a given area that cluster together into a community. When conducting CBPP and FFA, consultations and the assets that are then created will need to be planned according to these community configurations, and it is recommended to establish the following planning team structures according to community types:

1. **Single planning teams:** The CBPP process at community level should include the creation of a **Community level planning & development team** that is representative for the whole community, and is appropriate in those community configurations that consist of a single, larger settlement with a relatively homogenous livelihood type. The first steps of the CBPP consultation (which focuses on a wealth and vulnerability ranking exercise) can be used to identify and establish a truly inclusive and representative local team which should consist of at least 10 community members, and ideally more.
2. **Composite or disaggregated planning teams:** Where communities are comprised of several small villages and settlements, each of these smaller settlements can be represented in the CBPP process by establishing **Planning cells** which are made up of four (or more) village members (2 women and 2 men). These planning cells will participate in the overall community level planning sessions, and in developing detailed plans for their own specific locations and village/settlement priorities.

For example: communities that are comprised of a number of villages/settlements over a larger geographical area may have great differences between the livelihoods in the upper parts (e.g. steep slope and plateau) and lower parts (e.g. valley bottoms and flood plains, etc.); or a rural town where there are significant livelihood differences between those that use an irrigation scheme and those that depend on rainfed agriculture, etc. When coming together, each of the smaller planning cells can negotiate specific requirements and priorities depending on their context as well as agree on common efforts related to a shared set of requirements, such as community access roads, water point's development, skills training, forestry and management of grazing areas, etc.

There are communities that include different yet interrelated livelihood systems, for example fishermen, farmers, traders, and livestock herders that all coexist in the same community. These groups have specific and often well-established arrangements with each other, yet there will be instances where each group tends to be independent from each other from a social perspective. In this case, each livelihood group may establish its planning cell in an effort to combine and negotiate their different set of priorities within the broader community planning team.

At community level, the role of a government representative (e.g. an agricultural extension worker) and trained cooperating partner staff is essential in facilitating the CBPP process, implementation, supervision and monitoring of FFA and asset creation.

Further reference regarding various examples of planning set-ups is found in **Table 3.2 (Section 1.3** of this Chapter).

2.5. What Steps should a CBPP include?

The steps⁶⁶ below follow a logical sequence of planning work (see also example in **Annex 3a**).

Figure 3.2 - Steps included in a CBPP

| | |
|---|--|
| STEP 1: Pre-planning (district or ward level) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selection of priority communities/villages for CBPP • Sensitization of traditional village heads/leaders, local administrators, etc. • Organization of planning work & technical support, materials, logistics, etc. |
| STEP 2: Planning Unit Description - Introduction to the community | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Administrative unit name, location, name, size (ha/acres), etc. • Introduction of planning team to community, explanation of planning steps • Organization of planning work & vision exercise |
| STEP 3: Problem identification, vulnerability / wealth ranking & planning team composition | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vulnerability ranking exercise (by the community) • Formation of a representative community level planning team • Problem identification & ranking exercise (gender sensitive) |
| STEP 4: Socio-economic conditions & seasonal livelihood analysis | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information on crop production, livestock, water, shocks, etc. • Seasonal calendar & discussion (hardships, expenditure periods, labour, etc.) • Gender dynamics, tenure issues, specific challenges & opportunities description |
| STEP 5: Community area mapping & description of agro-ecological systems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Map of the area (e.g. ground drawing map, google mapping, topomaps, etc.) • Main climate/landscape features (e.g. land use, watershed boundaries, drainage) • Profiling through transect walks & description; homestead sketching |
| STEP 6: Identifying main & complementary activities, & design | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify main potential actions, linkages between specific problems & solutions • Technical discussion on specific FFA & complementary activities, and their design • Specific in depth technical design sessions for FFA & other activities planned |
| STEP 7: Identify partnerships & management requirements | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Priority activities for complementary efforts to FFA (WFP and others) identified • Potential partners identified & listed for complementary partnerships • Specific measures that require agreements with multiple partners (e.g. tenure) |
| STEP 8: Targets & phasing of activities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FFA and other activities 3-5 years targets & details for year 1 (e.g. participants) • Id. of HH/Groups benefitting from specific FFA vis-a-vis FFA participants • Estimate of self-help/solidarity efforts, & management requirements |
| STEP 9: Resource requirements, incl. capacity development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Estimate cash and/or food transfers, essential equipment, materials and tools • Training & supervision requirements - including period for preparation/delivery • Estimate budget (this step is completed after detail surveys are done) |
| STEP 10: Specific data collection on monitoring indicators | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collection of specific outcome indicators (only when CBPP period is conducive) • If the above is not possible agree on data collection planning & key indicators • Specific requirements & plotting of CBPP site(s), mapping vegetation index, etc. |

⁶⁶ These 'steps' may be also called 'phases' or 'key elements of planning' in different guidelines and approaches – besides, some steps may be clustered differently and they need to be considered flexibly depending on context.

In summary and overall:

- **Step 1:** is a pre-planning phase
- **Steps 2 to 6:** (including identifying and quantifying main interventions) **must** be part of the 3 days CBPP consultations. Part of step 6 (i.e. detailed technical design) is done during the CBPP, but some FFA activities will require additional visits and design sessions from specific technical experts
- **Steps 7 to 10:** can be part of the CBPP follow-up. If time allows, some of these may take place during the CBPP - but it is not mandatory and can be developed at later stage.

2.6. Managing expectations

A common criticism made to participatory planning is that it can raise expectations amongst community members that may then not be met during implementation because of lack of funding. Therefore it is important for WFP and partners to ensure that specific limitations regarding funding are known to the community members upfront during the planning work.

Following are some basic points in managing community expectations when planning for FFA:

- To initiate and rollout participatory planning, resources need to be available to ensure that a minimum of meaningful activities are implemented in the selected communities in a way that can cover the food needs of the targeted population.
- Planning can be initiated when resource forecasts for FFA are highly probable but have not yet materialized at the time of planning⁶⁷– i.e. when there is sufficient confidence that minimum resource requirements for FFA will be made available at time of implementation.
- In circumstances where resources for FFA are not yet available, but where funding for FFA will be provided pending the preparation of participatory plans (e.g. a donor prerequisite), WFP needs to: (i) support the selection and training of cooperating partner’s staff in developing CBPP based on available capacity; and (ii) undertake CBPP in identified and selected food insecure communities.
- Where funding for FFA is not secured, it is nevertheless suggested that CBPP is still undertaken and explained to communities that whilst funding may be received for FFA, it is not guaranteed. A number of community members may already be receiving other food assistance programmes (e.g. unconditional food or cash-based transfers, etc.), thus the possibility of not receiving FFA funding or not reaching the agreement to shift from unconditional assistance to FFA will not impact on the immediate needs or the on-going provision of these other food assistance programmes. Note that regardless of whether resources are secured or not, transparency with communities is fundamental, and it should be explained that there may be circumstances which could affect the level of resources committed to implement the CBPP action plan. The value of the CBPP needs to be also advocated for planning beyond WFP support, and resource limitations should not be an obstacle for planning (and rallying support) for activities that are deemed essential but fall beyond what WFP can technically and financially support.
- During the planning process, community’s or group of households’ expectations related to activities that require significant complementarity from other partners will need to be carefully managed, as the implementation of these activities falls largely outside of what WFP can provide and commit to – for example, the provision of improved seeds and training on improved farming practices once an irrigation scheme has been rehabilitated through FFA, etc.

⁶⁷ Referred to resources to be made available for CBPP planning and related design efforts – for example through DSC and ODOC.

2.7. CBPP and links to other approaches

2.7.1. Government approaches

The introduction of a CBPP or equivalent form of planning need to be carefully aligned to existing planning efforts conducted by the government at all levels (District/Department; Commune/Ward; and Community – or all country-specific equivalents).

In certain decentralized contexts, government planning efforts could include development plans made to the smallest administrative unit (e.g. the *Plans de Développement Social, Economique, et Culturel* at commune level in Mali). Whilst these plans reflect in various ways the needs and aspirations of the local population, they may lack however the level of detail required to place livelihoods, food insecurity and poor nutrition in the forefront of village/community planning. They may also lack sufficient information on causality of problems, shocks, risks and hardships, gender dynamics and vulnerabilities, among others.

In this regard, the CBPP (or its equivalent planning approach) is complementary to these existing plans, as it provides a solid justification in support of efforts that government would like to pursue – e.g. establishing government strategies pertaining to resilience and climate adaptation, poverty reduction and food security, among others.

WFP and partners can also support developing or enhancing a common participatory planning tool that merges the strengths of different approaches, based on and drawn from field experience – for example in Ethiopia, where the Ministry of Agriculture led the development of a robust planning approach – **Community Based Participatory Watershed Development (CBPWD)**⁶⁸ – which based on different organizations' methodologies (e.g. WFP, GIZ, USAID, and ILRI).

While the likelihood of finding well-structured planning approaches developed by government to enhance livelihoods in food insecure areas is limited to a few countries, the promotion of such planning tool(s) should remain a main objective of WFP and its partners.

2.7.2. Partner approaches

It is possible to build upon cooperating partner (CPs) experiences in asset building programming and participatory planning approaches and tools that have been adapted to local contexts. In such situations, WFP should assess if these approaches reflect the basic principles of participatory planning for FFA (**Section 2.2**), and add any elements that may be missing in the CP approach.

In situations where the CPs asset creation programmes and planning approaches are limited, the CBPP approach can be introduced and in consultation with local partners and institutions, adjust the CBPP to fit the local context, field-test it in a number of representative locations, and subsequently make any required adjustments based on the first year of experience. Once refined, the locally adapted CBPP can then be scaled up. Scaling up may be incremental or large scale depending on the size of the programme, local capacity and resources available for implementation.

An important step for rolling-out and scaling-up the implementation of CBPP and FFA is to train local institutions and CPs in these tools to ensure the field level capacity needed for this work. Such training could be done in a number of ways – e.g. through a training of trainers (TOT), in-service training, and through other forms of capacity development efforts including through direct specialized support, academia or specific research groups, etc.

⁶⁸ MoARD and WFP, 2005. Community Based Participatory Watershed Development: Parts 1 and 2 (Annexes). Available at: <http://goo.gl/Ay9Evt>

2.7.3. Developing common planning approaches

Building on the earlier points, WFP may want to support the development and rollout of a common participatory planning approach for landscapes-livelihood restoration and enhancement. The overarching principles of: (1) placing people at the centre of planning and using landscapes as a binding element to enable people to plan; and (2) remain practical, feasible and flexible (i.e. no blue prints) should guide this intent. Such a planning approach – building upon the CBPP and/or partners approaches – can initially be very simple and improve over time, and grow in complexity and integration as more partners join to complement the planning tool(s) and its implementation.

Broadly, the community planning tools should include some of the following:

- Working in an interdisciplinary team
- Group meetings and brainstorming
- Vulnerability/wealth ranking exercises
- Problem identification and ranking exercise
- Gender sensitization sessions
- Semi-structured interviews
- Transect walks, village and households mapping
- Soil, vegetation and landscape features observations & surveys (e.g. landscape features description, watershed and community area delineation, etc.)
- Action planning and discussion on prioritization of activities
- Negotiations over specific benefits and management aspects

The intention of developing a common planning approach does not mean promoting a standard tool, as the key principles of flexibility and adaptability should remain core to such an endeavour – yet it is important to agree on developing and promoting the use of a participatory planning approach to implement asset creation activities in ways that enable them to become an integral part of government and partners' programmes, such as productive safety nets, resilience building and climate adaptation activities, etc.

WFP may decide to support a leading institution (e.g. a Ministry of Agriculture) to establish a time bound working group, composed of different stakeholders with solid experience in participatory planning, and tasked to develop a 'CBPP' type of planning approach that reflects the basic principles of participatory planning for FFA (**Section 2.2**).

A number of experiences in **Table 3.3** can be used as a basis to begin developing such a tool, and **the last section of Annex 3a** provides additional information and a checklist of ensuring nutrition and gender sensitive aspects are included in the development of common participatory planning tools.

The following Sections 3.1 to 3.6 focus on specific aspects of planning and how it relates to the local context (s), as well as how specific programmatic requirements (e.g. targeting) may not be necessarily linked to the solutions of the problems faced by the community (or of the most vulnerable groups) that require more inclusive approaches instead. Hence, the need to adjust planning approaches and/or seek partnerships to overcome these hurdles.

3. OTHER CONSIDERATIONS IN PARTICIPATORY PLANNING

3.1. Landscapes and Watersheds

Landscapes

“The landscape approach draws on the principle that land resources need to be managed not only on the basis of commodities and market needs, but also and above all, on the basis on the local ecological and socio-economic conditions... It relies very much on the combination of land management principles at plot, farm or village level, with natural resources management and planning at a broader landscape level. Landscape management adds a wider dimension to farm level management, through a collective understanding of all land resources, practices, and tenure arrangements, within a landscape, including forests, water resources and cycles, biodiversity, soils and erosion control, microclimates, land access and rights, sharing of the use of rural and agriculture infrastructures (communication, water, storage)”.

Global Drylands: a UN Response – 2011, UNEP

Whilst **the term landscapes is increasingly used as an overall binding concept** that combines ‘*land management principles at plot, farm or village level, with natural resources management and planning at a broader landscape level*’, the terms *watershed approach* or *watershed planning* are also used and often interchangeable.

However watershed planning also implies specific technical aspects that a ‘broader’ landscape approach does not precisely define. For example, the exact boundaries between specific hydrological boundaries, the definition of specific areas and related calculations of peak runoff discharges, erosion rates, and so on.

In most contexts where WFP provides food assistance, understanding sub-watershed interactions within and between communities is a major step in selecting and designing proper FFA interventions. In each community there may be one or more sub-watershed units that need to be identified for planning. For example, a number of conservation and reforestation measures on sloping parts of a watershed can protect downstream areas from floods. Rural people and farmers interact differently in different portions of a watershed, and sometimes very complex arrangements are required to ensure that a given land use can be treated with different measures that may require FFA. All this has implications on the type of FFA to build and how those relate to the targeted groups in a community.

A community-based and participatory approach should consider watershed planning principles, not only the specific sub-watersheds within a community but also the interactions between communities sharing specific territorial units or landscapes.

Watershed planning approaches used in the past (particularly during the 1970s and 1980s) tended to have a strong technical focus and did not always reconcile the specific needs of small communities and user groups with the imperative of major watershed driven soil conservation and reforestation efforts⁶⁹.

⁶⁹ This resulted in top-down planning and limited sense of ownership and participation of local populations in maintaining the terraces or tree plantations created – such assets were looked at more like impositions from the top rather than the result of robust and interactive negotiations with the communities concerned. The IIED Publication - Participatory Watershed Research and Management Shadow Falls, by Robert E. Rhoades and available at <http://pubs.iied.org/pdfs/6148IIED.pdf> states: “One solution to resolving the messy overlay of human activity and naturally defined watersheds is to combine watersheds with ‘participation’; that is, full involvement of local populations in the identification of priority problems and potential solutions with teams of scientists, planners, and development specialists”.

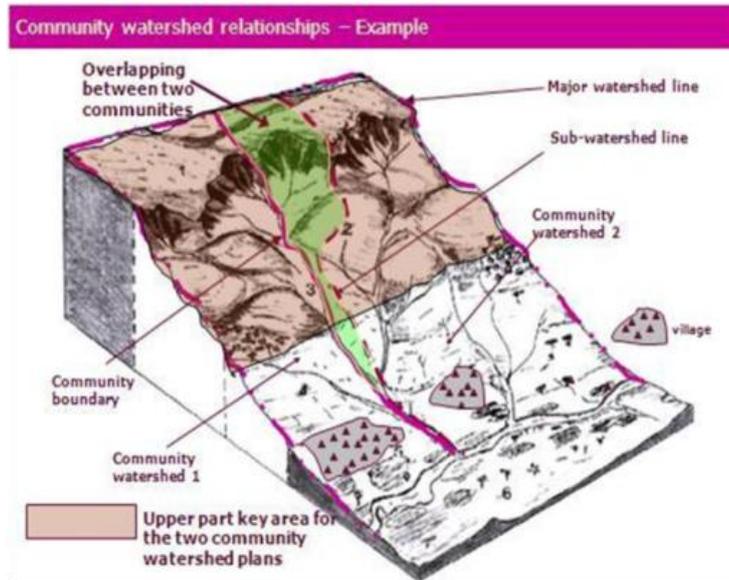
Therefore, a central element of participatory planning is to explore how people interact in different parts of a watershed (or catchment area) surrounding their homes and village. How rural people share and use degraded grazing lands, how they share and cultivate steep slopes, how they consider gullies and what ideas they have in terms soil erosion, deforestation, droughts and floods, and what to do in terms of rehabilitation are all useful issues to examine.

Understanding these dynamics – i.e. how people and sub-watersheds interact - can provide the most meaningful approach to FFA; such approaches have been developed and used in different parts of the world, notably in India, Nepal, China, Kenya, Guatemala, Zimbabwe, and Ethiopia.

Watershed interactions can be further broken down at sub- and micro watershed levels, ultimately up to each household’s homestead or crop field. In this regard, understanding the watershed logic is also important for managing small areas, e.g. stabilizing a few hectares of steep sloping land is extremely important if it overlooks cultivated fields occupied by other farmers, etc.

Figure 3.3 below shows the interaction between two catchments. The two communities share a portion of the sub-watershed area (the green zone, where community 2 has a portion of land that influences the hydrology and direction of runoff into the area used by community 1. The two communities share a common outlet (river) and large denuded range of steep slopes.

Figure 3.3 - Example of community watershed relationships



Two community-based participatory watershed plans need to be developed, with their respective planning teams to also engage in dialogue and negotiate series of FFA able to fix the entire watershed.

Understanding watersheds

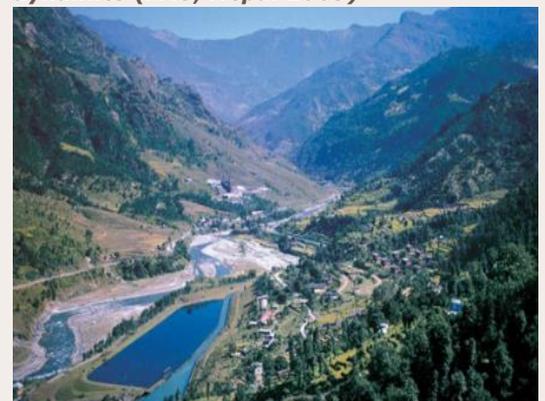
A watershed is the area of land where all of the water that is under it or drains off of it goes into the same place. John Wesley Powell, scientist geographer, put it best when he said that a watershed is:

"that area of land, a bounded hydrologic system, within which all living things are inextricably linked by their common water course and where, as humans settled, simple logic demanded that they become part of a community."

A watershed (also called a basin, or water catchment) consists of a series of smaller catchment areas. Some of these may or may not be degraded (e.g. deforested). People live in different parts of a watershed, so the actions of one group can affect those living elsewhere – e.g. deforested hill slopes for agricultural production increases likelihood of floods and landslides in the valleys.

Degraded watersheds degrade livelihoods, leaving households exposed to shocks. In some countries, the extent of land degradation requires significant investments in participatory soil conservation and water harvesting measures. The inability to ensure adequate conservation and sustained protection of watersheds causes rapid acceleration of soil erosion, depletion of water tables, and low soil contents of moisture and nutrients. This translates into frequent crop failures.

Figure 3.4 - Major watershed and land use dynamics (FAO, Nepal 2005)



3.2. Targeting and technical logic

In food insecure and vulnerable contexts, levels of food insecurity may differ between communities and the groups/households within them, and resource limitations may restrict who receives food assistance (e.g. FFA). This implies that eligibility for food assistance may deny specific communities and/or groups of households the possibility to tackle several of the underlying causes of vulnerability and food insecurity that would require wider participation.

This means that there is a need to reconcile the targeting logic between (i) targeting the food insecure areas and who receives assistance, and (ii) the scale at which technically the programme is required to address underlying causes of vulnerability and those participants that are not eligible for (WFP) food assistance.

For example, a large number of CBPP plans may be developed for multiple communities in areas of widespread food insecurity. However, the targeting logic (i.e. focusing on the most food insecure communities only) may not have these CBPPs necessarily linked one to another along specific landscape continuums. In other words, areas identified and targeted only through a food insecurity logic may not be sufficient in scale to address specific problems that lead to food insecurity and vulnerability, and which may require a broader geographical coverage of FFA that could extend outside of the food insecure areas (i.e. targeting based on a technical logic and on socio-economic relationships between communities).

This is particularly true when problems identified by the community relate to entire landscape units and/or require the application of a watershed planning/technical logic that encompasses several groups and often communities within a given area.

Figure 3.5 - An example of three communities which are part of a common sub-watershed that has gone through an integrated land rehabilitation exercise - Ethiopia



Similarly, intra and inter-community prioritization of the most food insecure households may leave significant problems unresolved – for example, watershed rehabilitation requires addressing land issues within the entire geographical area, not just the land used by the food insecure households.

It is important to note that when problems identified are beyond the single communities' capacity to address, targeting 'boundaries' should not become barriers to problem-solving. This applies where the problem of food insecurity and exposure to shocks is so great that targeting below the community level would be counterproductive, and there will be the need for most households to be included in FFA or a set of diversified efforts from WFP and partners.

Overcoming these challenges requires consensus and understanding from all (or the majority) of community members on the need for the activities (e.g. land rehabilitation) and how certain bodies of work that are required but cannot be done by food insecure households alone will be addressed – e.g. will households that are not eligible for FFA do the work through self-help measures, etc.?

The CBPP intends to reconcile the need to target the most food insecure and to provide them with a voice in decision making and benefits-sharing, while fostering the participation of the entire community without which it is difficult to tackle the root causes of food insecurity. It can help in identifying those FFA interventions that are possible to carry out as per the consensus of the entire community(ies) with the resources available, and those that will not be possible to implement and would require additional partners' support and/or self-help measures.

Hence, the following questions are key with regards to targeting and participatory planning: To what extent is the targeting of specific communities (and households) consistent with the solutions required to address the underlying causes of food insecurity in your area? How can CBPP planning assist in reaching such consistency?

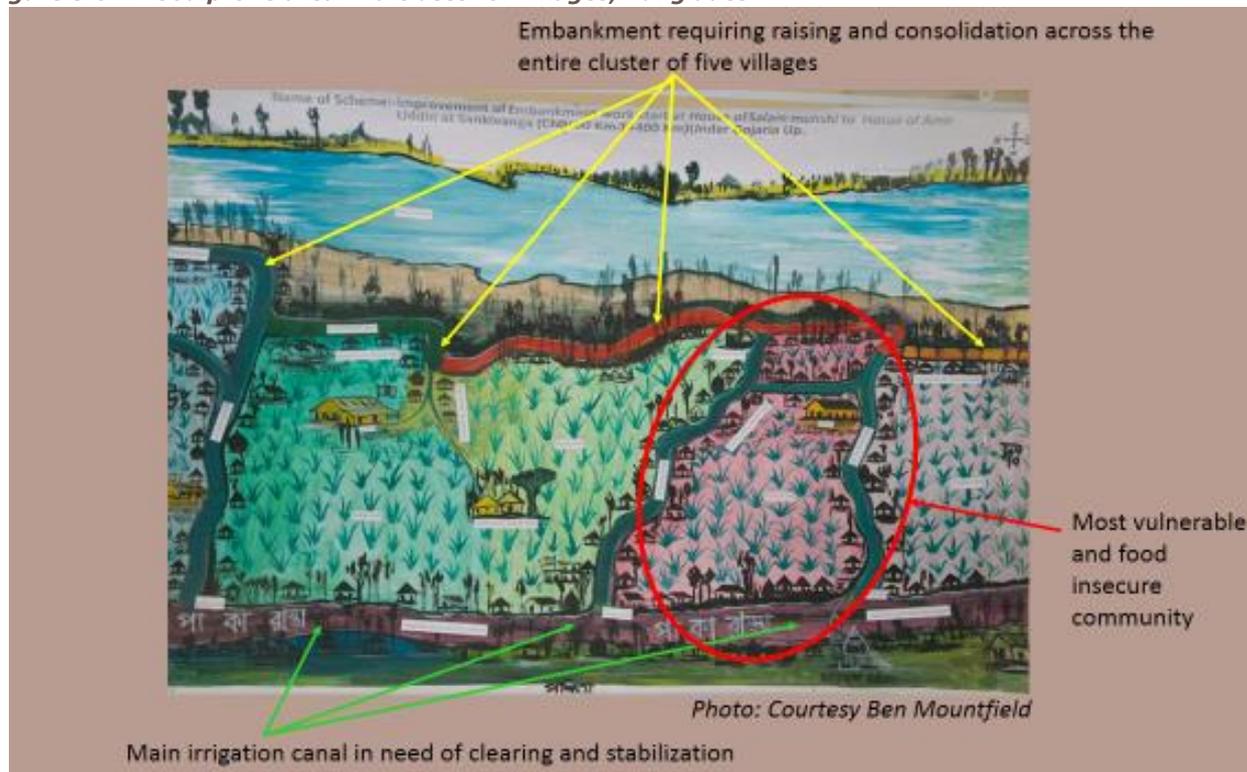
The subsequent page provides an example from Bangladesh that illustrates how the CBPP can assist in reconciling the targeting logic of food insecurity and technical requirements.

Following this, **Table 3.4** provides information on the contexts where such reconciliations may be required, and how they can be addressed.

Example from Bangladesh: One targeted community needs to raise embankments to prevent flooding. This activity however needs to be done across three communities to be completed and be technically sound.

In this example of a CBPP, the entire cluster of villages is flood prone but the one circled in red is particularly exposed and is also where food insecurity is the highest.

Figure 3.6 - Flood prone area in a cluster of villages, Bangladesh



Accordingly, food assistance will prioritize the community and households in the most vulnerable area. However, **from a solutions perspective, unless the entire embankment across all five communities is raised and stabilized it will not be possible to control the flooding problem.** The same logic applies for the irrigation canal clearing work required to improve the irrigation potential for the community.

When, in order to address a problem, more than one community's involvement is required, CBPPs should be undertaken in all the other communities concerned through either WFP or other partners' support. The relevance of the asset itself, however, may be sufficient to mobilize local contributions across the area and/or receive support from other partners willing to provide additional incentives as part of pro-poor investments.

When FFA is provided to only a sub-set of community members considered most food insecure, a CBPP can assist in:

- mobilizing overall community participation (self-help);
- exploring if the target group for food assistance may support investments of common interest; and/or
- advocate for additional resources (from WFP and partners) to assist remaining households (e.g. the borderline poor or transient food insecure) with incentives for preventative efforts that are over and above their own self-help capacity.

Table 3.4 below summarizes the different settings where a reconciliation between food security and technical targeting logic is required and how it should be handled.

TABLE 3.4 - Ways to address targeting and technical logic

| Specific targeting vs technical logic issues | Planning requirements required to overcome the issue | Remarks on feasibility |
|---|--|--|
| <p>1. Multiple communities:</p> <p>Addressing specific problems or underlying causes of food insecurity ⁷⁰ requires the involvement in planning and implementation of different / multiple communities - including communities not considered highly food insecure and not targeted by WFP’s food assistance</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A CBPP approach can be used to seek what assets or activities are common to all concerned communities and those that are community specific. • Different communities’ representatives can be invited to a meeting and discuss: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) The nature and magnitude of the problem (e.g. a damaged road, a flood control dike breakage, a major erosion problem, etc.) ii) WFP limitations in terms of resources and coverage to embrace all communities iii) The potential interest of the communities not targeted by WFP to undertake a CBPP or mobilize internal and/or external resources for a one-off activity only iv) Their agreement or not to participate and contribute to complete the required assets <p style="text-align: center;">AND</p> v) Any action required to advocate for other partners to join this effort. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If agreed that some communities not targeted for WFP assistance should undertake a CBPP to cover a whole territorial unit (e.g. sub-watershed, <i>terroir</i>, etc.), arrangements are required for completing the CBPP planning work in WFP and other community sites - i.e. budget and other resources for planning. • The communities not targeted to receive food assistance should be supported through other partners funds (if available) <p style="text-align: center;">OR</p> <p>Non-WFP targeted communities agree to support the asset creation effort using their own resources (provided they are sufficient to complete the asset). If overall resources are not sufficient to complete such asset/s, it should not be considered for implementation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In such a situation, one of the underlying causes of food insecurity will not be tackled (i.e. deferred to another period). In this case FFA activities should focus on supporting only what the targeted community and households have identified as problems that they can address in their area with available resources. |
| <p>2. Single community:</p> <p>One community plan covers a well-defined territorial unit (e.g. sub-watershed) and one sub-group of community members</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning work should involve discussions with all community representatives on whether FFA targeted beneficiaries can work on the lands of the other non-WFP assisted community members (and ensure this is agreed by all). <p style="text-align: center;">OR</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-help/voluntary efforts can be mobilized and cover non-WFP beneficiaries – however, this may not always be possible if they are also poor and facing different constraints. Therefore, additional partners’ resources may be required (same as above) to support non-WFP assisted households in |

⁷⁰ This relates to problems that are within the relative capacity of a small or relative large group of communities to resolve with support from WFP, Government and Partners, and do not relate to disastrous external factors or to a major disruptive situation that would require unaffordable high costs.

| Specific targeting vs technical logic issues | Planning requirements required to overcome the issue | Remarks on feasibility |
|--|---|--|
| <p>is targeted to receive food assistance – however, some of the problems identified need the agreement and/or contribution of all members to be resolved - e.g. the treatment of an entire sub-watershed</p> | <p>If the non-WFP assisted groups can provide voluntary contributions to build or rehabilitate assets that are of common interest.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CBPP can be also used by the community to negotiate with cooperating partners⁷¹ the additional (non-WFP) resources required to support efforts. | <p>completing a specific set of assets.</p> <p>For example, soil and water conservation efforts across degraded catchments may be highly labour demanding (beyond self-help capacity), including for those households that may not be food insecure but have lands that need intensive rehabilitation.</p> |

3.3. Coverage and technical coherence of CBPP and FFA

Scattered community plans vs. concentration of efforts in specific territorial units

CBPP planning is particularly relevant for areas facing recurrent shocks and chronic food insecurity. As communities are assisted year after year the shift from unconditional to conditional transfers is often the trigger that requires enhanced planning, thus CBPP.

As illustrated earlier (**Section 3.2**), whilst a number of FFA activities in each CBPP can benefit specific households, groups or the community at large, **other FFA interventions may not be effective unless 'aggregated' across landscapes at a scale that allows them to achieve the desired impact.** These broader units are also enablers of value chains that can generate (and often sustain) a critical mass of produce and other related benefits (e.g. water for domestic consumption and irrigation). This is particularly important when problems raised by communities relate to flooding, access roads, reforestation, erosion control and water harvesting.

More specifically, activities like natural resource rehabilitation and restoration of the productive potential of degraded lands, water harvesting, and reforestation are often part of an integrated approach requiring the participation of most or all community members, as well as needing to be achieved at scale in order to generate positive results. Thus, it becomes important to also think of the CBPP as a tool able to indicate what it takes to tackle the underlying causes of food insecurity in a given area and not simply a tool for better FFA planning meant only to support food insecure targeted beneficiaries.

Each CBPP and especially their aggregation along landscape continuums can provide significant contributions in overcoming food insecurity and building resilience through the binding together communities and groups within them.

Such CBPP clusters can form a stronger unit for planning transfers and mobilize both internal community resources but also resources from partners.

⁷¹ Some of these discussions may also become an integral part of policy dialogue as having significant relevance in the building resilience thematic area. For example, reconciling 'what it takes' to address large scale degradation of ecosystems with specific programmatic imperatives (e.g. targeting the poorest) should be debated to avoid that rigid definitions and assumptions may defeat a greater purpose of achieving . An example of such arguments is found in the following 'Paper for Dialogue': WFP Ethiopia/Carucci V., 2006. Sustainable Land Management as key enabling element to end poverty in Ethiopia: gaps, dichotomies and opportunities. Available at: <http://goo.gl/E6C4M7>.

Figure 3.7 - Example of cluster of degraded community watersheds all treated with different FFA interventions, Ethiopia



What does it take to roll-out the CBPP and achieve significant coverage and impact?

The following provides an example on how to meet both the targeting requirements of supporting most food insecure communities (and households) and the technical/socio-economic logic needed to address specific problems faced by the community.

The illustration on the following page is based on the identification of specific 'clusters' of sites that demonstrate the type of multiple, layered and integrated efforts that should be pursued – together with partners – to reconcile targeting and other technical and socio-economic requirements.

Note that the remaining scattered sites that are not part of the 'cluster' should nevertheless also have CBPP plans, as they remain important for FFA (if required) or any other self-help activity in those communities. The demonstration effect generated in the 'cluster' sites should be used to subsequently advocate for replication in the other areas.

Use the following phases (Figure 3.8 below) to achieve greater impact with CBPP and FFA:

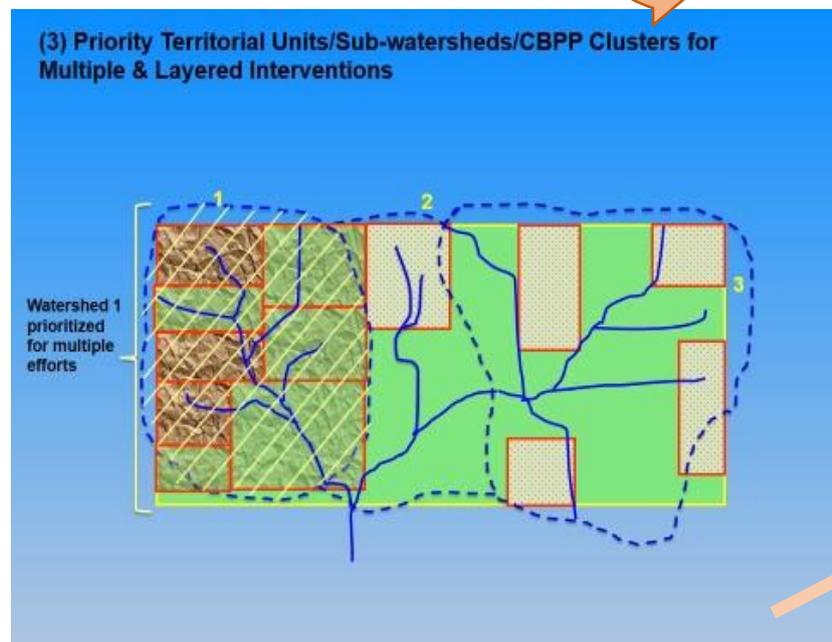
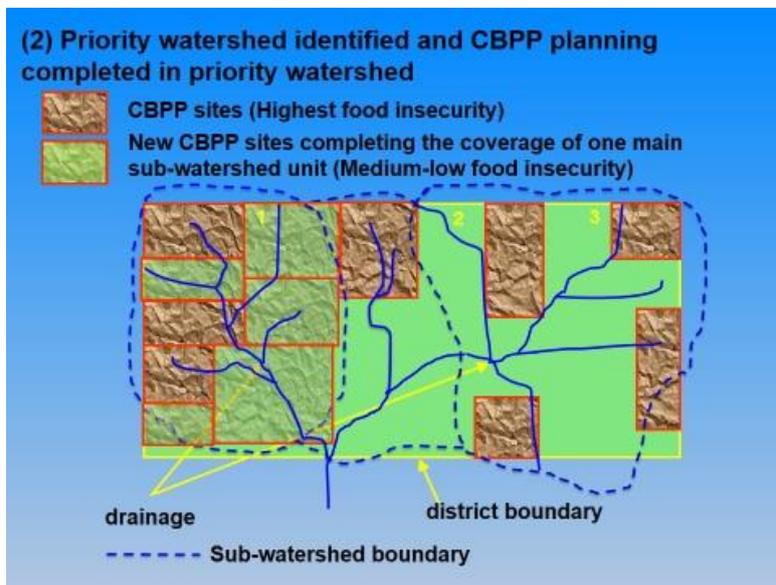
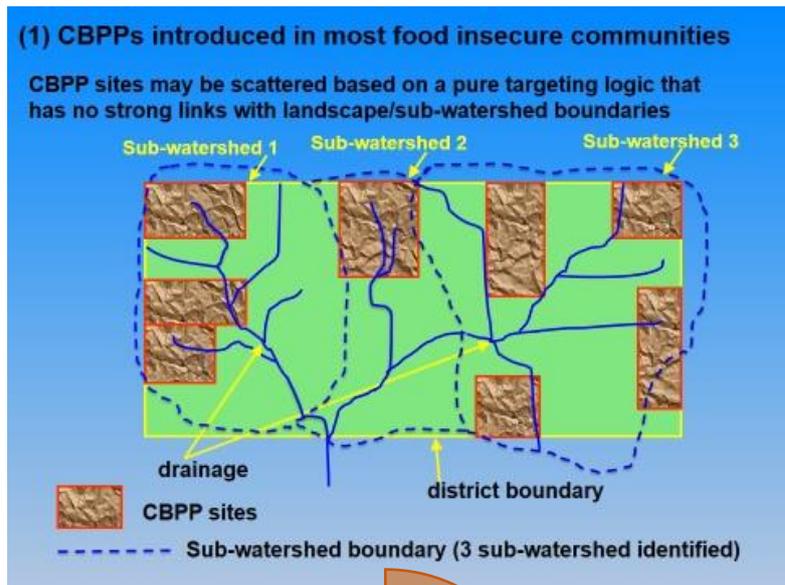
1. Select priority districts and sub-district areas
 - ✓ Use the Integrated Context Analysis (ICA)
 - ✓ In absence of an ICA use secondary data from existing assessments and target areas showing recurrence of high levels of food insecurity and shocks
2. Discuss at district level how to target specific highly food insecure groups of communities
3. Identify potential priority clusters for CBPP from a landscape logic (e.g. watershed) and for greater integration and layering of FFA and complementary interventions
4. Organize technical support and training on participatory planning & FFA
5. Organize budget support for planning work and compilation of data/info
6. Complete each CBPP – including detail description of FFA and complementary interventions
7. Cluster CBPPs, define priority activities, resources and additional requirements (advocacy)

Which priority cluster of community sites to select?

1. Where impact can be achieved with expected resources (WFP & partners)
2. Where WFP commits to invest on a multi-year basis
3. Where partners can commit to integrate & layer
4. Where specific communities and related territorial units are strongly linked

5. Where the technical logic is not compromised

Figure 3.8 - Illustration of a concentration of efforts



- Natural Resources Rehabilitation and Mgt.
- Synergies (FFA, Nutrition, P4P, HGFS, etc.)
- Group Formation & Income Generation Activities
- New technologies (e.g. water harvesting, agroforestry, conservation agriculture, post-harvest loss reduction, etc.)
- Markets development
- Training & Experience sharing
- Empowerment of women/youth
- Scale/coverage & diversification
- Baseline for M&E
- Others

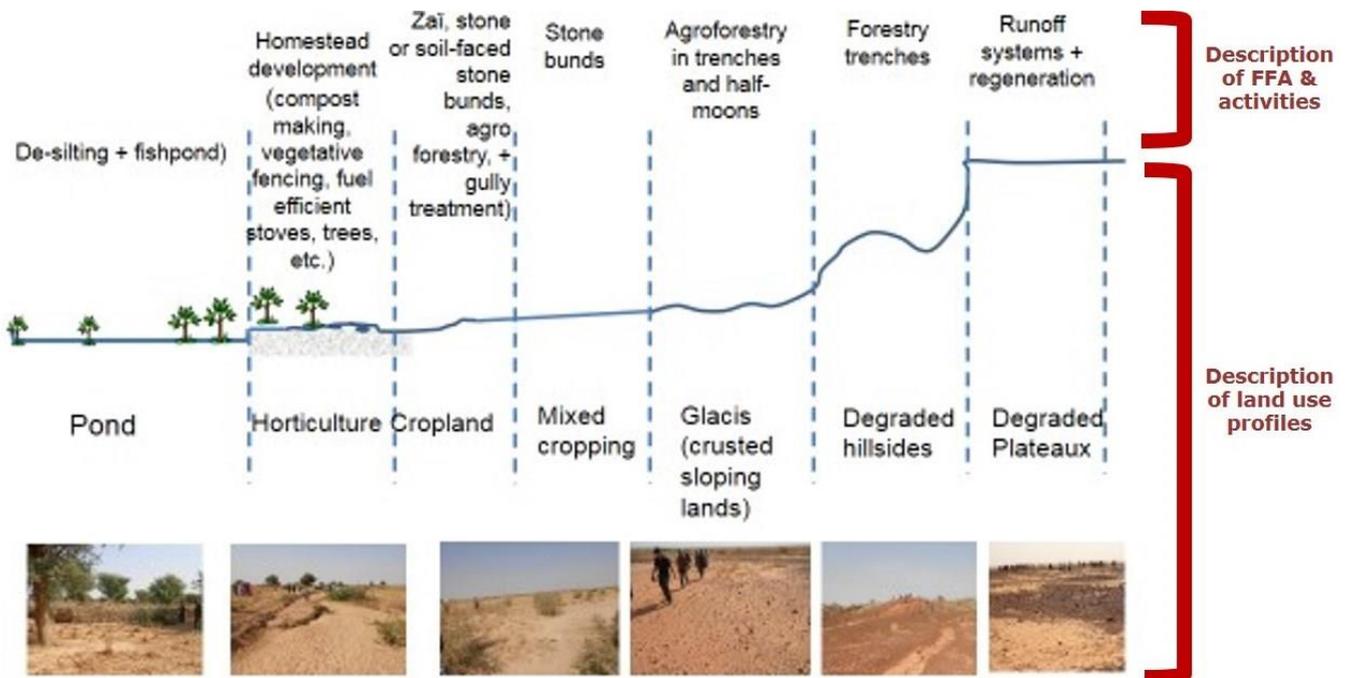
3.4. Community vs Private land and assets

In degraded contexts, it is important to consider that food assistance provided through specific FFA and complementary programmes is often required across different land uses, and cannot be effective to achieve rehabilitation objectives if it is targeted only for communal lands or Public Works. Therefore there are local contexts where the **technical logic demands for interventions to include both communal and privately used lands (Chapter 4)**.

These aspects will emerge during the CBPP planning process, and it is particularly interesting to observe **the relationship and close interconnection of different land use treatments during the transect walks and during the discussions regarding land tenure, prioritization and selection of the type of FFA activities required in each part of the community**. What most CBPP will indicate is that the amount of work required to reach adequate standards is significant, and cannot be done in isolation from other households within a common sub-watershed unit.

The following figure shows how, during a transect walk, land should be treated as a whole yet will require different treatments in different parts:

Figure 3.9 - Illustration of a transect walk and treatment measures



In concrete terms, as not all households that share the same land-use unit have the same labour profile and wealth, incentives or a combined form of support can help enable the different households within this unit to work to conserve the land (see **Section 3.2**).

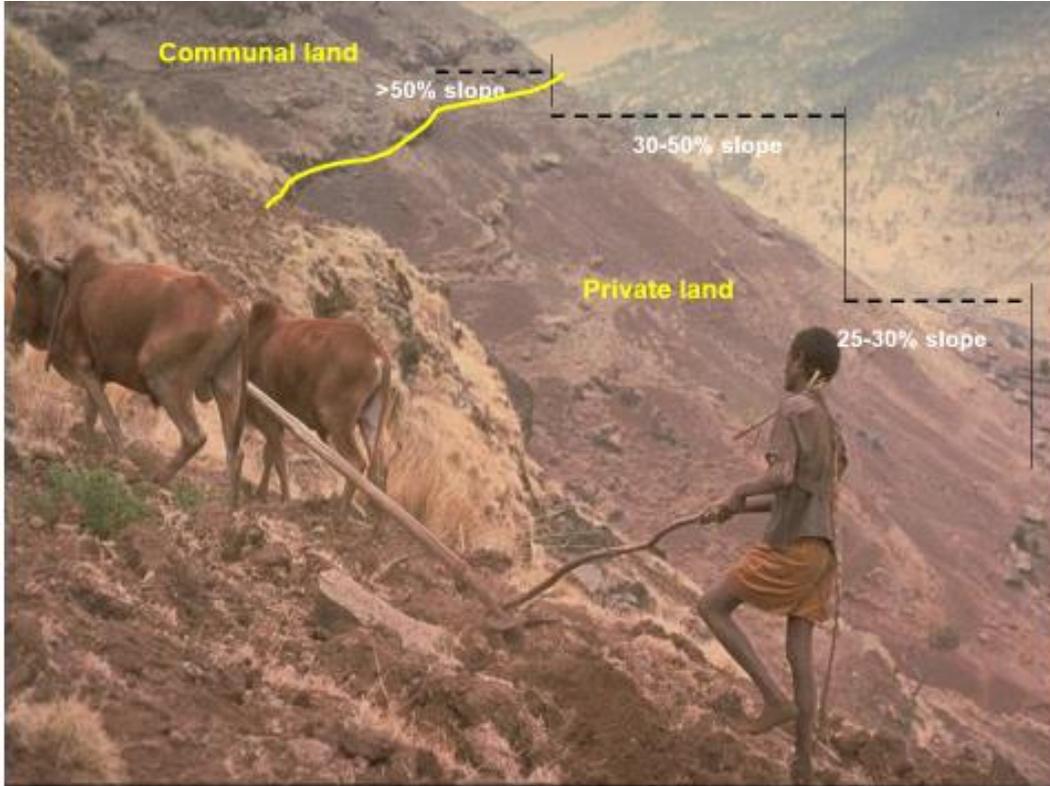
For example, according to the food security profile of the household different types of assistance can be provided – longer-term FFA targeted to the most food insecure, whilst other types of assistance (e.g. training or FFA at specific times) to the borderline food insecure and slightly better-off, as required. In such a process, one should avoid the major risk of disconnecting landscapes from coordinated investments, and from having self-help efforts standardized by land use when they should apply to all.

In the following example, only 12 households are regarded as highly food insecure and targeted for food assistance. Without the involvement and attention paid to support the remaining households

and treat the entire degraded area, this particular area will not be rehabilitated and rapidly become a waste land.

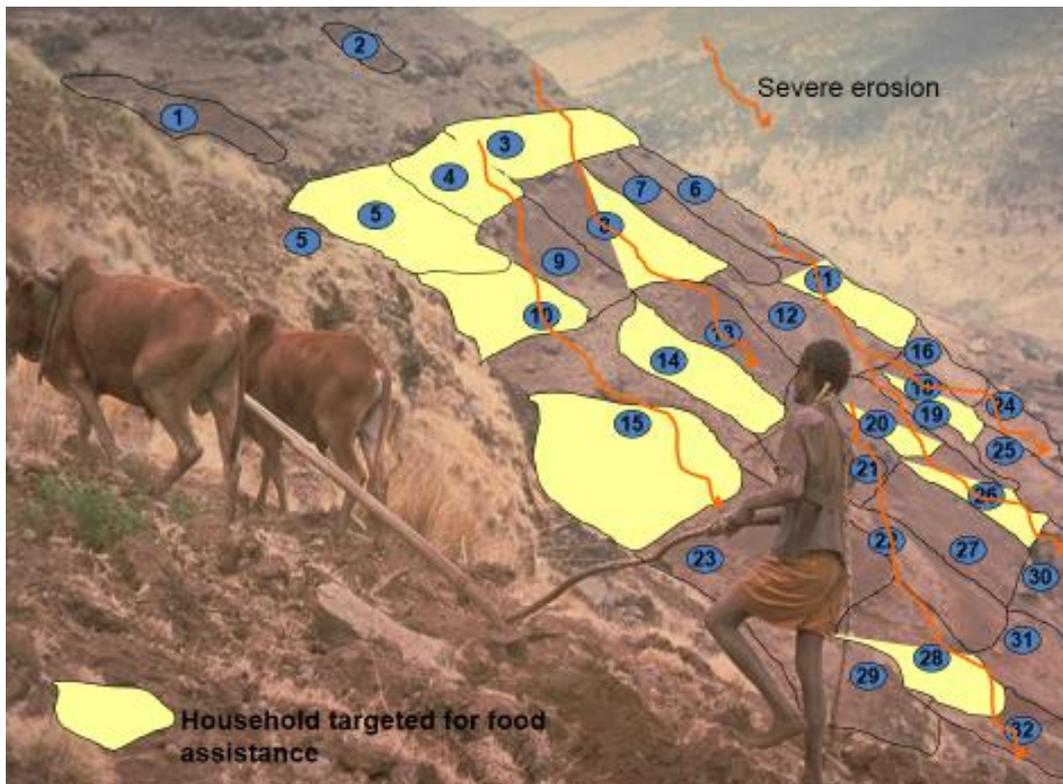
Besides targeting aspects, the rehabilitation of such type of areas is demanding and even households with better food security will find it difficult to invest 300-500 labour days of investment per hectare, unless incentives are used:

Figure 3.10 - Community vs Private land and assets



Example of a severely degraded area being encroached and cultivated.

The upper part is communal land used for grazing, and the middle and lower parts are privately used by 32 households to grow crops.



The 32 plots privately cultivated represents approximately 15 hectares in the sub-watershed

Plots of the targeted households for food assistance are those marked in yellow. Note that these are scattered, and not continuous.

Without treating the entire sub-watershed, effective land rehabilitation cannot occur.

3.5. Incentives, Self-Help, and Community Mobilization

3.5.1. Incentives

In most shock prone and food insecure areas, ecosystems degradation has reached an extremely alarming level of severity and scale. Yet discussions amongst practitioners continue on whether incentives are detrimental or not, if they suppress individual efforts, and whether they should be provided only for public works and not for investments on private lands, for example.

Whilst there are legitimate concerns regarding these points, an effective approach to land rehabilitation and sustainable land management (SLM) of communal and private lands in severely degraded landscapes requires major investments. It is neither a 'simple' nor an 'individual business' alone. With FFA, issues such as assistance dependency, incentives versus entitlements⁷² and the provision of complementary (i.e. non-WFP) assistance are often raised. This debate is useful as long as it helps to focus on how to avoid potential distortions that programmes that do not pay attention to quality and participation may generate.

However, perceptions or arguments regarding dependency are rarely supported by evidence and more often than not are backed up by ideological positions. Overall, programmes that are not decided together with and owned by the community and/or targeted households, that are poorly designed, and that do not generate benefits can create some dependency - in the form of an expectation of continuous assistance, and an interest only in the transfer received.

A CBPP is therefore a major step in the direction of avoiding such issues to emerge.

An important aspect of incentives, including of well-designed entitlement programmes, is that they manage to 'aggregate' and extend labour availability to ensure coverage and potentially a rapid fix to the problem. The 'no incentives or no conditional transfers' approaches tend to shift the attention away from what it takes to address complex problems such as the rehabilitation of degraded lands and the need to put back (and maintain) communities in a development continuum, to one of issues of principle and other ideological perspectives.

Note though that when incentives are applied as top-down approaches, with limited or insufficient technical standards and support, tenure insecurity and without a legal framework, such incentives are not only ineffective but often detrimental for building ownership and sustainability.

In conclusion, the fundamental issue regarding FFA is on how best to use food or cash-based resources for building quality, accepted and functioning assets that generate their intended objectives. It is important that ideological positions on incentives and entitlements do not prevent and inhibit the objectives of sustainable land rehabilitation and management of degraded areas to be reached, and at the scale and coverage required to build resilience.

Some examples of properly-used incentives:

Ethiopia:

A cost-benefit analysis and impact assessment of the WFP FFA programme in Ethiopia (MERET), which included FFA within a participatory watershed development planning approach, indicated economic and financial rates of return were over 12-13 percent, and reported an overall positive

⁷² Incentives versus Entitlements in the FFA context: FFA "Entitlements" can be described as resource transfers provided in relief/early recovery situations, in general replacing part -or exceptionally all- of the food assistance that would otherwise have to be provided in the form of general (free) distribution. "Incentives" are resource transfer provided in recovery or development situations, targeting food insecure households through longer term objectives, where the level of coordination and integrated approach, technical capacity and resulting assets created are expected to be of higher standards.

impact on productivity and downstream effects of conservation measures in cultivated lands, particularly in moisture stressed areas but also on steep slopes.

This result would have not been obtained without treatments 'across land uses' including private lands, solid technical support and the concomitant self-help contribution of the communities accounting for 20-40 percent of the total achievement.

India and China:

These countries continue to use large numbers of cash incentives to rehabilitate degraded watersheds, which include degraded cultivated private areas, as part of safety net schemes and various development programmes.

India:

The Government of India also supports the rehabilitation of degraded watersheds with cash incentives to treat eroded cultivated private lands, based on slope ranges, as one-off exercises and within rigorous management rules.

Other approaches:

Tax reduction has also been used in various parts of the world to encourage investment in conservation and greening. This does not mean incentives are always needed in communal and private lands but they can be an essential form of support in many contexts and need to be provided with in-built self-help contributions, participatory decision-making, management obligations and other incentives related to secure the tenure rights of the land users.

3.5.2. Self-Help and Community Mobilization

'Self-help' are those efforts that communities' themselves can do to develop assets without requiring transfers (i.e. food or cash-based) or other incentives. **It is important that FFA does not depress or substitute self-help efforts – rather FFA needs to be designed as an enabler of these efforts.** A number of FFA activities can be associated with self-help contributions (labour-intensive or more skills-based) towards supporting the neediest households.

Self-help efforts should be included at the early stages of FFA activity planning and design, not only as management measures (e.g. maintenance of assets created) but as an integral part of the asset creation/rehabilitation effort. Self-help contributions can be light, or substantial and integrated, and expected to increase each year as positive results from implementation start being seen.

There are a number of ways that this can be done - in some countries, during FFA implementation one day per week is dedicated to self-help efforts for community works; in others, a set number of days each year is provided by able-bodied households to do this. Where some of these programmes are considered rather top down, they can be reformed through participatory planning processes.

For instance, in various regions of Ethiopia, 'mass or social' participation to build various assets is commonly practiced, with an estimated 30 million labour days or more being generated each year. Most of this labour is used for soil and water conservation and construction/maintenance of feeder roads. Performance varies widely but as suggested in the [Ethiopia report of the Horn of Africa Consultations on Food Security](#)⁷³ (GOE/MOARD, 2007) it is important to re-think 'mass participation' as a value added component to existing packages and other forms of support to productive and solidarity purposes (e.g. building more and multiple assets for the poorest and the most food insecure people, etc.).

⁷³ GOE/MoARD, 2007. Horn of Africa Consultations on Food Security – Ethiopia. Available at: <http://goo.gl/5c3rnV>.

3.6. The Decent Work Agenda (DWA)

CBPP is an important vehicle for WFP to support the principles and objectives that Decent Work (DW) aims at - i.e. “*better employment and generating productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity*”. Although FFA is not an employment scheme it can contribute in many ways to enhance livelihoods that are in turn able to maintain or generate specific local employment opportunities.

The following aspects regarding FFA planning are provided in relation to the DW agenda and should be considered by field staff during participatory planning sessions, and in preparation to the implementation of FFA activities. CBPP is the initial step of empowering vulnerable groups - ensuring their role in decision-making is secured and maintained during the entire project cycle.

Table 3.5 - Role of Participatory Planning for mainstreaming Decent Work

| Planning aspects | Implications for Decent Work (DW) |
|---|--|
| <p>Participation of vulnerable groups in problem identification and fostering their empowerment – gender aspects</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social inclusion is a key aspect of DW and participatory planning includes a critical dimension of dialogue that focuses mainly on those community members that have no or limited voice in decision-making. Those members are often the most food insecure and the poorest in the community, with the lowest access to decent employment or working activity to allow them to meet their basic needs. • Problems related to the lack of access to markets, high levels of indebtedness, distressed outmigration, lack of land for cultivation, long seasonal food shortages, recurrent droughts and high food prices are all factors having severe repercussions on local jobs and overall livelihoods of the local population. • The most vulnerable often include women, youth or marginalized groups, likely to have the lowest employment opportunities, and are subject to exploitative practices. • Reducing hardships, promoting equality in decision making and sharing of benefits are key aspects of CBPP which are pertinent to DW. • A CBPP and related dialogue is important as it builds a good understanding of the livelihood profiles of these households, of their levels of vulnerability and of their problems, particularly: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Whether they are seasonally employed by better off households within the community for low wages (sometimes only provided with meals), or as a form of repayment of debts. ➢ Whether they are affected by distressed outmigration and subject to exploitative practices. ➢ Whether they revert to negative coping strategies such as removing children from school, levels of indebtedness, etc. • Participatory planning should make sure that this group is prioritized for the FFA interventions and that FFA can generate beneficial effects on their current and/or future jobs in the area. |
| <p>Type and Integration of FFA activities</p> | <p>In relation to DW and employment aspects, the outcomes expected from FFA activities and their integration can be related to what type and how FFA activities are selected and implemented. Accordingly, FFA can focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The reduction of time consuming tasks (e.g. water and firewood collection), investing in assets that decrease exposure to specific risks (e.g. flood protection), and |

| Planning aspects | Implications for Decent Work (DW) |
|-------------------------------|--|
| | <p>activities that have positive effects on well-being and productive employment (e.g. landscapes rehabilitation, etc.). Examples include water points built closer to residences, or the provision of safe access to markets through community access roads, etc.;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The rehabilitation of irrigation schemes and degraded lands with user rights agreed for those most in need – this can provide considerable opportunities for greater income and food security, hence local and self-farm employment; • The provision of skills training linked to income generation activities and to the management of specific assets, and the layering of multiple activities dedicated to women groups and youth – in support to the diversification of income sources; • Developing value chains for enhanced income/terms of trade (e.g. P4P); • Community access roads complemented by market development through local purchases, and value chains development e.g. training and group formation, cooperatives formation, warehouse receipt systems, trading arrangements for destocking, etc. → increases income and returns for work; • Seeking complementarities with partners to strengthen protection, equity and sharing of benefits that have a major impact on securing rights and foster a climate of social cohesion and guaranteed access to productive benefits, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Tenure arrangements related to rehabilitated lands; ➢ Access to grazing areas and collection of forest products; ➢ Reduction/ban of malpractices on women and girls (e.g. early marriages, abduction, etc.), stigma, etc. • The prevention of post-harvest and storage losses through the construction of solar driers, warehouses, skills training, etc. → potential increase of incomes and reduced child labour, generating higher returns for work provided. |
| Environment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The most food insecure live in degraded environments and resort to negative coping strategies to meet their basic needs. The rehabilitation of such ecosystems enables communities to reduce distressed outmigration, retain their work, and restore productive and environmentally sound local employments (e.g. beekeeping, horticulture, conservation agriculture, etc.). • Reduction of hardships is also enabled by ecosystems’ rehabilitation (e.g. water tables replenished, erosion and flooding contained, etc.) |
| Scale and partnerships | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scale and related partnerships are often important in FFA programmes for a number of contexts where, unless rehabilitation is undertaken to cover significant portions of degraded landscape units, it cannot generate sufficient livelihood opportunities, including related employment aspects. CBPP plans should therefore be clustered and include, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Multiple and integrated assets to protect communities from flooding or restore uncultivated land to a productive use ➢ Watershed development to raise water tables for irrigation purposes, which requires large scale treatments of degraded areas ➢ Ranges and pasture development that require multiple-level investments ➢ Value chains’ development through a critical mass of produce generated |

4. CROSSCUTTING ASPECTS IN PLANNING AND FFA

Significant linkages exist between gender, protection and tenure aspects (all being influenced by socio-cultural dynamics) that need to be considered during planning work to ensure that women, vulnerable groups or specific minorities are involved in the selection of and benefitting from FFA interventions. Thus, participatory planning shall give due consideration to four key crosscutting aspects: **(i) gender; (ii) tenure; (iii) protection; and (iv) environment**. They should also consider **programmatic synergies**, particularly with Nutrition.

4.1. Gender

Focus on gender is often confused as 'focusing on women or targeting women'. Gender is about women, men, boys and girls, and more particularly about the opportunities and constraints that influence decision-making and power structures, the complex intra-household and inter-household dynamics, as well as equitable access to and share of resources and services.

FFA planners should not consider gender as a separate set of analysis and work that focuses on specific groups, but rather **acknowledge gender as being of central importance for FFA planning and implementation**, and for the urgent solutions needed to reduce food insecurity and address poor nutrition. This and following sections, however, will strongly emphasize on the role of women and focus on how FFA can play an important role in empowering women, securing their role in managing assets and ensuring they can benefit from them. This emphasis is not delinked from the equally relevant role of men and (male) youth but is simply underlined as a major WFP area of concern across its operations. The focus on women (and girls) in a number of contexts stems is due to their often enduring the heaviest workloads and hardships related to family care and food production, and generally experience more disproportionate impacts from shocks and stressors.

In most contexts where WFP operates, FFA should aim to reduce hardships (e.g. collection of water, firewood, and fodder), increase access to food through improving access to markets or enhanced production (e.g. rehabilitation of degraded lands and irrigation schemes, etc.), and increase the abilities and capacities of communities and households to interact, take decisions, provide their own contributions to change, and get responsible for the management of assets created.

This offers a broad range of opportunities from a realistic whilst ambitious perspective, recognizing that several of the institutional and social contexts where WFP operates are often those where gender disparities are worse, and lack of protection and violence are persistent and affect specific groups (e.g. women, children, specific ethnicities, and marginalized people). In most contexts where FFA is considered as a programmatic response, **it is possible to provide support to those who do not have a voice and/or do not take decisions by using simple participatory planning approaches**. These approaches are not a panacea but a major first step in the process of empowering people - women groups for example - and finding concrete solutions to a number of their immediate needs and longer term priorities.

The relevance of participatory planning is also centred on the need to select and prioritize FFA activities that build on existing strengths of community members, including of the most needy and vulnerable.

In other words, advancing in gender terms is overall about empowerment and fostering equity through dialogue, participation and building of livelihood assets that bring tangible benefits to men, women, boys and girls that are identified as the most vulnerable. This process can be either gradual or fast-paced in terms of expected results, depending on the context of vulnerability, planning efforts, partnerships, and resources available.

A number of FFA activities with specific reference to gender are included in **Chapter 4: Section 6** and can be selected or adapted to inform the planning stage. Additional information on the specific role of women in planning is provided in **Annex 3a**, e-links and examples.

Durable solutions on gender equality and tenure aspects are often long term investments which require both state and non-state support. From an FFA planning perspective, participatory processes at the community level are the first key steps to move towards the identification of major gender and tenure related issues.

This is important as a number of opportunities to support the poorest sections of the community arise only after the planning and implementation phases, particularly when FFA generates concrete results in terms of more land becoming available for cultivation, more water available for small scale irrigation, more grasses and trees available from plantation and re-vegetation, etc. Suddenly, some of the agreements reached during planning stages may be re-thought by elites or other groups that are better able to influence decision-making at the expense of the most vulnerable and marginalized.

To this effect, **participatory planning needs to be perceived beyond the planning stage alone** - i.e. as a process that cuts across the initial planning work and covers detail activity design, the actual implementation of activities (including their adjustments as necessary), the assessment of results, and the re-planning work based on lessons learned. In a number of contexts this requires adequate follow-up from cooperating partners and government staff – e.g. to help in the registration of new land use rights, to negotiate contracts between different groups using assets such as irrigation schemes, to set bylaws for the management of natural resources that have to be adhered to by all community members, etc.

Quick reference guide on Planning FFA and Gender aspects

The planning of FFA in relation to gender will need to consider aspects such as:

- i)** The timing for implementation of FFA and existing workloads, particularly on women and other disadvantaged groups
- ii)** The adoption of fair work norms
- iii)** The need to accommodate specific requirements for those households over-burdened with children or other responsibilities but willing to participate in FFA activities
- iv)** The integration of activities that result in maximum benefits for disadvantaged groups, including women, youth and other groups
- v)** The integration of measures that enhance protection (e.g. enhance safety, equity and social cohesion)
- vi)** The management of assets and related aspects of tenure, to ensure that specific vulnerable groups (including women groups) have access to the assets created and retain ownership or share the benefits related to these assets

4.2. Tenure

'Land tenure consists of the social relations and institutions governing access to and the use of land and natural resources' (Daniel Maxwell and Keith Weibe).

Tenure issues are complex and may influence the preference for specific assets that benefit only selected groups and elites as opposed to the entire community or the most food insecure. This makes it important to ensure that specific groups (e.g. women groups, vulnerable households etc.) do not lose ownership or control over the key assets created or restored with the intent of improving their livelihoods and resilience to shocks.

Broad type of tenure systems: overall, two main type of tenure systems are in place: (i) customary land tenure systems; and (ii) government statutory systems. In many cases these two systems co-exist and broad variations exist between countries and within countries on the relative importance of the two.

In most of the vulnerable rural areas where WFP operates, customary systems are very relevant to access land for cultivation, grazing and forestry resources – for both farmers and herders - even when statutory systems exist. Property and user rights on cultivated land tend to be defined on an individual basis and inherited, whilst those related to pastures and forests are generally of a communal nature. In urban areas, statutory systems prevail but are often replaced with unjust, exploitative and often illegal arrangements, particularly in areas where the poor and vulnerable people reside. For example in slums where people pay rents to manipulative and corrupt landlords.

Contexts with high levels of vulnerability and food insecurity are also those where the competition for land resources is high and where productive areas become scarcer and more valuable, and are often the subject of multiple claims. Smallholder tenure systems, population density, and fragmentation of landholdings pose additional pressure to land tenure issues. These, if left unresolved, can trigger or fuel conflicts.

Therefore, **property and user rights (individual, groups, or communal) in relation to the restoring natural resources and regenerating productive land units through FFA should be discussed with community and government representatives during planning.**

Eventually, any agreement should be formalized through consensus (and signed by parties) and mechanisms put in place to regularly check that they are adhered to.

Some of these aspects need careful negotiation and may be seen as sensitive but cannot be ignored. The following aspects and possible actions are among those that can commonly emerge in planning for (and implementation of) FFA, particularly when aimed at building resilience.

4.2.1. Ownership claims over rehabilitated or reclaimed land

Typical examples of this are claims that specific community members or 'absentees' (i.e. landowners not living in the community) can make once unproductive and degraded lands have been treated with soil and water conservation measures through the work of the poorest community members (often women), and turned into productive units. Such land may have previously been of no interest to the owners or customary users and conceded to the vulnerable group. Ancestral ownership arguments, corruption of local leaders, or kin-group pressure are common modalities used by elites and some individuals to regain control over land resources. There are also legitimate claims that are made simply because of inadequate planning.

Possible actions to address this:

- Discussions on land property and user rights, and identification of potential bottlenecks for specific groups of households targeted through FFA to benefit from the assets created.
- Steps to secure groups' rights agreed between the FFA target group, other community members and/or the state authorities having decision-making power on tenure matters.
- Traditional leaders and state actors issue local bylaws or tenure arrangements protecting the vulnerable groups' right to the assets (e.g. user rights conceded for 10-20 years or more).
- In specific cases, different deals or arrangements can be reached between landholders and land borrowers – reaching mutually beneficial gains. For instance, a household group reclaiming degraded lands and able to produce crops through water harvesting will agree to provide part of the produce to the land owners or to the community to support a community initiative, etc.

4.2.2. Ownership claims over rehabilitated/new irrigation schemes

FFA can be used to restore or create new irrigation schemes and irrigated areas, and tenure aspects are important ensure that the most food insecure households will significantly or at least partly derive direct benefits from these schemes (i.e. directly benefiting means using the irrigation scheme, not being employed to work on these schemes by land owners).

Possible actions to address this:

- Develop legally binding contracts that stating that food insecure households get access to irrigation opportunities – e.g. include decisions on who will benefit from the irrigation scheme, the criteria used to share and allocate farm plots, and the use of irrigation water (periods, etc.).
- For irrigation schemes around small dams or reservoirs, ensure that (i) compensation for farmers previously owning the submerged area is dealt with, either by providing a number of plots of the irrigable area or other modalities; and (ii) the irrigable or command area is divided and used by land users following transparent and fair criteria for water use and turn periods.
- Context specific arrangements between users of irrigation schemes and others that have no access to irrigation (e.g. allowed to collect residues or seasonal employment, etc.).

4.2.3. Use of communal areas for natural resource restoration

Rehabilitating degraded hillsides requires treating such areas with terracing, re-vegetation and tree planting activities (amongst others), and closing off these areas for extended periods of time to avoid human and livestock interference. Community agreements to control grazing for a year or more are needed. This implies the set-up of a land management system regulating access to the rehabilitated area to avoid the relapse into degradation.

Possible actions to address this:

- Intra and inter-community agreements to regulate grazing, and establish guarding or other control systems. Ensure that customary institutions are involved and fully support these actions, as the management of communal areas for grazing or other uses often falls directly under their control.
- Develop bylaws on the use of the area until sufficient regeneration is achieved, including timing, sharing arrangements, fines and management aspects. Priority on the use of the area should include the food insecure groups. Access to benefits such as grasses (e.g. thatch) and other products (e.g. beekeeping) should be considered. Specific compensation to other land users previously benefitting from the area may be required (e.g. labour days provided in their farms).
- Adoption of a phased and demonstrative approach in areas where communities are reluctant to close large portions of communal land for regeneration purposes.

4.2.4. Use of rangelands for pastures and cropping

A complex set of arrangements and relationships exists with regards to tenure and rights to rangelands - or croplands after harvesting periods - for grazing purposes amongst different pastoral groups, and between them and agro-pastoralists. An understanding of these interactions is critical during planning stages (see **Annex 3a**). FFA can support the rehabilitation of rangelands, for example through the rehabilitation of areas encroached by invaders (e.g. *Prosopis juliflora*, *Sida cordifolia*, etc.) or through the creation of silvopastoral and agroforestry sites. The main problem is to protect the rehabilitated areas from outside interference without jeopardizing specific relationships and rights to pass that exist in many pastoral and agro-pastoral contexts.

Possible actions to address this:

- Meetings organized between different pastoral groups and communities to negotiate a no-interference approach in specific areas under rehabilitation. This work needs the participation of clan and customary institutions' leaders as key decision-makers. In most cases the support of government authorities is important but secondary to the one of traditional institutions.
- Conflict resolution meetings organized at regular intervals (e.g. seasonally, six-monthly, yearly etc.) to discuss and resolve disputes over land use and related issues, arrangements for managing areas at risk of severe degradation (e.g. that need agreements for putting areas at rest), and agree on priority areas for rehabilitation and natural resources management.
- Development of by-laws at the community level and between communities on the use of specific areas of interest (e.g. collection of dyes and gums as opposed to grazing, etc.).

4.2.5. Establishment and use of water points

Water scarcity and the need to access sufficient, clean and safe water is one of the most frequent needs that FFA is called upon to assist tackling. It should be ensured that the construction of water pans, ponds, dams, weirs and other reservoirs benefits the community, including the most food insecure households, and women in particular. Tenure aspects related to water points are complex and closely interrelated with land tenure. Key aspects to consider are i) the site selection of the water point, ii) compensation, and iii) the modalities agreed on the use of water for domestic, livestock or crop production purposes. Decisions about the construction, rehabilitation and use of water sources require robust consultation and discussions during planning stages.

Possible actions to address this:

- Compensation for households if their land is taken away for the construction of the water point;
- Agreements on the use of existing water points, particularly in relation to use by others outside of the community (e.g. some communities share their water sources with neighbours, whilst others charge fees);
- In pastoral areas, seek agreement on the improved management and rehabilitation of existing water points before establishing new ones. Rehabilitation/construction of water points may defuse disputes between groups, particularly as pressure on few water sources decreases. However, agreements on access rules and maintenance aspects should be established at community level and between groups;
- Discuss and agree on specific groups' control of water sources - e.g. women groups included in the management of water ponds and other water sources. In a number of cultural contexts this is also important from a social perspective as water points are among the only places for women to socialize and exchange information.
- These assets may directly reduce the time spent in collecting water but also create opportunities to generate income. However, increased water availability from wells or other structures may also (relatively) increase workloads linked to such opportunities – for example the application of small-scale irrigation. The latter, especially if located close to the homesteads, are largely considered as a major gain by women and poorest households.

4.2.6. Compensation aspects related to feeder road construction

Feeder/community access roads construction (anew) that link remote communities to markets and basic services may cross private and/or communal lands for which compensations may be required. Moreover, roads may need significant complementary measures such as gully control along drainage lines, and the stabilization and re-vegetation of portions of aggressive sub-watersheds above the road side.

Possible actions to address this:

- Compensation to farmers or households who lose land for the construction of the road may be possible by involving local administration, mobilizing community resources and seeking agreements on the type of compensation. These could include for example allocation of portions of reclaimed gullies/lands or other lands, fodder from re-vegetated areas, contributions in cash, receiving a portion of road passage fees if contemplated for management purposes, etc.);
- One or more of the actions indicated for the above situations as required.

The following links will provide considerable perspective to the tenure aspects in different contexts:

- FAO series on tenure aspects are a critical resource, as they cover a number of contexts where WFP operates – see [FAO's webpage on governance of tenure](#)⁷⁴ and in particular the recently published [Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the context of National Food Security](#)⁷⁵.
- In West Africa, for an excellent overview of key tenure issues to consider in the Sahel see this must-read IIED's publication [Land Tenure and Resource Access in West Africa: Issues and Opportunities for the Next Twenty Five Years](#)⁷⁶.
- Refer also to the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)'s publication entitled [Land Tenure Systems and their Impacts on Food Security and Sustainable Development in Africa](#)⁷⁷.

Quick reference guide on Planning FFA and Tenure aspects

- i) Understanding the broad type of tenure systems in your area/region/country (e.g. customary land tenure systems, and/or government statutory systems, common property resources, etc.)
- ii) Discussion on property and user rights (individual, groups, communal) in relation to the restoration of natural resources and the regeneration of productive land units through FFA with community and state representatives during planning work (e.g. issue of claims pre/post establishment of FFA, compensation aspects for loss of land caused by an FFA asset such as a water point, etc.)
- iii) Reach agreements on securing user/ownership rights over the assets created, using customary and/or state law and signed agreements (e.g. most food insecure households and specific groups such as women groups, youth, and others have secure access to land reclaimed, water points and other specific assets)
- iv) Establish FFA sites management groups

⁷⁴ FAO, sa. Webpage on governance of tenure. Available at: www.fao.org/nr/tenure/en/.

⁷⁵ FAO, 2012. Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the context of National Food Security. Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/016/i2801e/i2801e.pdf.

⁷⁶ IIED, 1999. Land Tenure and Resource Access in West Africa: Issues and Opportunities for the Next Twenty Five Years. Available at: <http://pubs.iied.org/pdfs/7396IIED.pdf>.

⁷⁷ Economic Commission for Africa, 2004. Land Tenure Systems and their Impacts on Food Security and Sustainable Development in Africa. Available at: <http://goo.gl/OBSffa>.

4.3. Protection - reference to conflict and transition

As highlighted in **Chapter 1**, WFP shall promote protection aspects in food assistance programmes that use FFA. Why protection matters for FFA is developed in [WFP guidance on Protection](#)⁷⁸, with relevant references on: i) the different protection risks and ii) the protection opportunities linked to FFA.

Consistent with protection principles and recommendations for promoting a 'do not harm' approach, a CBPP (or equivalent) is a key protection tool, particularly in promoting dialogue within and between communities, between community members and government institutions, and with cooperating partners. The CBPP also promotes community members' participation and self-determination, and as such upholds their right to be treated with dignity. It can also be used in support to preventative and stabilization efforts (post conflict), with a key purpose of empowering the most vulnerable and strengthening social cohesion, whilst tackling a number of the underlying causes of vulnerability and food insecurity.

CBPP can complement higher level dialogue on conflict resolution or prevention, for instance, by illustrating issues such as the scarcity of natural resources, land degradation or seasonal concerns, and by identifying the tensions that may regularly erupt in 'typical' or 'bad' years. All these should be considered when programming specific interventions, including those complementary to FFA.

Understanding protection risks:

Various risks associated with implementing FFA activities and the measures that could be adopted to reduce or prevent these risks can be identified through participatory planning approaches.

Similarly, as FFA is informed by multi-layered analyses and consultative processes which show correlations between food insecurity and compounding factors (including restrictions to accessing markets, degradation, conflict - including over scarce resources, etc.), approaches used for designing FFA are also of benefit to other programmatic sectors, partners, and governments.

Note that there may be contexts where community or groups-based planning (or implementation for that matter) need to be undertaken carefully as gatherings of many people -for example open assembly meetings and sensitive discussions may attract attention and possible acts of aggression. In such cases, gatherings should be avoided and consultations undertaken differently – either in safe areas via elected planning teams, or not undertaken at all until the situation is peaceful.

Participatory planning and protection opportunities linked to FFA:

A number of planning and design aspects have implications in terms of FFA supporting transitions and enhancing protection. In this regard, the CBPP plays a key role in selecting the right FFA assets and setting up arrangements for their sound management – for example key aspects such as the securing of tenure rights over assets created and the involvement of the poorest households in decision-making; re-establishing livelihoods through a number of FFA activities, including skills training coupled with re-integration packages; and the efforts made in seeking partnered efforts.

Overall, participatory planning for FFA can have major positive impacts on protection aspects and support a do no-harm approach – for example, by:

- Promoting participatory planning and intra and inter-community dialogue – with a strong emphasis on empowering the most vulnerable during planning and implementation phases;
- In setting up specific arrangements to reduce workloads for specific groups overburdened with other chores; supporting the inclusion of solidarity mechanisms to support labour constrained people; providing basic amenities at the workplace, conducting awareness sessions, etc.;
- Choosing FFA that reduce hardships and generate tangible benefits for the most vulnerable households;
- Establishing complaints and feedback mechanisms that defuse tensions as part of planning. Such mechanisms should relate to targeting (e.g. selection of participants, inclusion or

⁷⁸ WFP, 2016. WFP's guidance on protection (draft). Forthcoming.

exclusion errors, etc.), work arrangements, and the sharing of benefits. It is critical to set up such mechanisms by building upon existing best practices of community dispute resolution – in this regard, state actors and cooperation partners' involvement is often necessary to assist in verifying and negotiating specific claims;

- Promoting user rights over the assets created (including **Sections 4.1 and 4.2** on Gender and Tenure), and greater sharing of benefits;
- Improving access to markets and basic services through community access/feeder roads built to facilitate quick access to health centres, safer motorized transportation, etc.;
- Providing better and safer access to basic services in areas emerging from conflict. For example, the arrangements made at the local level for returnees coming back home after years/decades of absence and facing a number of tensions and competitive claims over land use rights with the population that remained behind, etc.;
- Promoting reconciliation events/workshops between groups and communities that have faced or are facing recurrent episodes of conflict, violence and discrimination (as part of CBPP but also intercommunity/district events);
- Bringing investments and resources closer to the homestead (i.e. water, firewood, income opportunities, etc.). This is particularly important for water, firewood and other items whose collection by women exposes them to security threats in insecure and volatile environments.

To this effect, protection issues should not be considered as an additional or separate element in planning FFA but as integral part of what proper planning and subsequent implementation of FFA can provide in terms of protection.

Quick reference guide on planning FFA, and Protection in Conflict and Transition Situations

- i)** Discussions on appropriateness of starting a participatory planning exercise (and related FFA interventions) and identification of foreseen potential risks;
- ii)** In areas affected by or emerging from conflict, or where specific social tensions exist, identify and promote measures that could defuse such tensions and reduce exposure to risks. For example through partnerships with stakeholders dealing with conflict resolution; trainings of community members on how to use and share specific natural resources; or the establishment of assets that can offset competition over resources (e.g. several water points, woodlots, etc.);
- iii)** Discussions on access to food and basic services for the most food insecure and marginalized groups. This includes having specific FFA interventions dedicated to groups that are particularly at risk of violence and/or disputes over specific assets (e.g. important in areas affected by, prone to, or emerging from conflict);
- iv)** Foresee risks associated with specific FFA interventions and identify mitigating actions. For example, water points' construction may become a source of conflict once completed, especially for women and girls who are often tasked to collect water;
- v)** Foster participatory planning approaches for FFA and complementary efforts in areas prone to or emerging from conflict, creating an environment that empowers women and other groups (with potential long term returns in relation to decreasing disparities and social differentiation, and on improving community cohesion);
- vi)** Consider selecting FFA interventions that could improve the safety of specific groups which are subject to violence and other risks. For instance, conservation activities around homesteads, nursery development, and water harvesting close to residences, etc.;
- vii)** Any other context specific measures aimed at reducing risks of abuse of and violence to vulnerable individuals.

4.4. Environment

Environmental aspects

These are central to planning work, particularly as land and natural resources' degradation and its various elements (e.g. soil erosion and declining fertility levels, the alteration of water regimes, and the destruction of the biological diversity, etc.) strongly influence the selection of FFA interventions. Environmental aspects are integrated in different ways depending on the specific objectives and the contexts where WFP operates - for example, a main focus on restoring natural resources in degraded and food insecure areas can significantly contribute to improving the environment.

Environmental risks

Some FFA interventions such as community access roads, flood control dikes, and a number of community-based public works may pose environmental risks. These risks need to be addressed through proper adherence to planning and design norms, environmental reviews as well as technical follow-up on environmental aspects during implementation and monitoring and evaluation work. Specific environmental impact assessments (EIA) are generally not required for community-based and small scale projects. However, EIA may be required in some complex terrains and/or when specifically required by donors.

Overall, FFA planning and design is guided by the application of improved standards (documented in this Chapter, **Chapter 4** and **Annex 4a**) to select the most appropriate FFA measures tailored to environmental and socio-economic context; and through improved technical standards and work norms.

Figure 3.11 - Example of environmental risk



*Example of environmental risks:
A feeder road constructed with
steep gradient, excessive width,
and lack of side drains, scour
checks and stabilization*

Which tools can be used to mitigate or avoid environmental risks?

An environmental screening or review of the potential environmental effects of specific FFA interventions and their related environmental management recommendation may become necessary when assets such as roads, dams and dikes are planned.

These assets, if not properly located, designed and implemented may generate negative environmental impacts, including health hazards. Poorly designed soil and water conservation measures can also have localized negative consequences on the environment.

Simple tools for environmental screening can be integrated in the planning approaches used at community level (suggested) and/or be used as standalone surveys.

Technical staff and expertise related to the assets (e.g. road or water engineers, foresters, etc.) need to be involved in the identification of the potential environmental risks and involved in the review. Depending on context, some activities may be considered at higher risk than others and may call for a more rigorous, separate environmental impact assessment (EIA). Overall, it is recommended that each CO engaged in FFA undertakes an environmental review of major activities together with government staff from relevant institutions (e.g. Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Water Development, Ministry of Environment, etc.), specialized agencies, or NGOs technical staff.

Table 3.6 includes a selection of FFA measures that may need a preliminary environmental review (and potentially a more in depth review, as required). The table may be expanded to include the description of potential positive impacts (in addition to negative impacts).

Table 3.6 - Reference of basic elements for preliminary environmental review

| | Risk by main type of measure (*) | Description of potential negative impacts | Possible mitigating and environmental management actions |
|----------|---|--|---|
| 1 | Community access road construction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Removal of natural vegetation increases exposure of surface soils to erosion Concentration of water runoff upstream (of roads) creates gully erosion downstream Poor maintenance leading to erosion and damage to cultivated land Risks of landslides from poorly constructed sections | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proper technical supervision during construction (from a road engineer or trained staff) Adherence to proper design following standards adapted to the type of soil and topography, to minimize possible damage to natural vegetation and erosion Adoption of a phased approach (e.g. approach followed in Nepal – i.e. the green roads concept) Reinforcements using stones and gabions Integration of conservation measures on upstream catchments to avoid concentration of runoff and damages to the road Organization of communities for continuous maintenance of feeder roads |
| 2 | Pond Construction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Poorly designed and located ponds will not provide sufficient water (waste of land) Concentration of livestock around ponds will degrade the surrounding environment and pollute the water Silting up of ponds from the runoff of the pond catchment Health hazards (water borne diseases in shallow ponds – e.g. malaria) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proper technical support, site selection and pond design, taking into consideration catchment conditions to avoid soil erosion and siltation Consider catchment and runoff coefficients that provide reliable quantity of water Provide protection of contamination from livestock (e.g. fencing, separate access, double ponds, etc.) Levelling of the pond base to avoid puddles Complementary efforts (e.g. provision of mosquito nets where malaria is endemic; planting of multipurpose trees, awareness creation on filtering and boiling water) |
| 3 | Spring development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unprotected and poorly designed springs may invite livestock concentration around springs and pollute the water Health hazards – e.g. areas around the spring become breeding areas for mosquitoes, etc. Untreated catchment area above the spring point may affect the spring flow, breach the collection chamber (pollution from soil erosion, etc.) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fencing of spring, and improve collection areas and drainage around the spring (e.g. place stone/slabs pavement, gravel, drains) Proper technical support to design collection chambers and provision of separate points of use for livestock (cattle trough, etc.) and human consumption (pipes, fitting and covers); Conservation of upstream catchment of the spring by soil and water conservation activities Diversion of excess runoff through cut-off drains |

| | Risk by main type of measure (*) | Description of potential negative impacts | Possible mitigating and environmental management actions |
|----------|---|---|---|
| 4 | Soil and water conservation structures (e.g. soil bunds, stone bunds, fanya juus, hillside terraces, etc.) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improper design and layout of structures can create series of bund breakages and accelerated erosion where runoff water concentrates (e.g. erosion damages downstream fields) Bunds and terraces not stabilized and maintained could be easily broken and accelerate erosion May harbour pests (e.g. rodents) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follow quality standard dimensions and design requirements Provide tie ridges to avoid concentration of runoff and strengthen bunds/terraces on depressions points Stabilize bunds with grasses and legumes Regular maintenance of bunds and protection from livestock is important for sustainable use Avoid round shaped stones for construction of stone raisers Integrate with biological measures and integrate pest management |
| 5 | Forestry and agroforestry | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inadvertent introduction of invader species Limited species diversity (e.g. planting of a single variety) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technical expertise to ensure adequate choice of species Prioritize local and multi-species plantation Organize eradication of obnoxious species and invaders |
| 6 | Check dams and soil sedimentation dams | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Poorly designed checks (dimensions, spillways, abutments, aprons, vertical intervals, etc.) affects stability of the structure and may lead to series of breakages and further erosion Can encourage the multiplication of invaders and weeds | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quality standards that can withstand very high runoff rates and stabilization with productive species Regular maintenance and management groups |
| 7 | Irrigation schemes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Salinization Health hazards (water related) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technical expertise required, and drainage Integrate pest management Others as required |
| 8 | Waterways and cutoff drains | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Insufficient consideration to catchment areas runoff estimates, design flow and poor layout will affect water flow and risk creating gullies and erosion of farmland Cut-off drains leading flow to unprotected waterways may damage the waterways | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure cut-off drains and waterways are designed to accommodate high peaks of runoff Catchment protection Drop structures and re-vegetation |

(*) These are some of the main asset types for which an environmental assessment may be required. Others may include dikes, canals construction and other interventions based on context.

Useful references include the following documents:

1. [Environmental Impact Assessment Guidelines for FAO field projects](#)⁷⁹ – Provides useful examples of projects specific requirements, forms and templates that can be used for EIA; see also the **Annex 2** of this document.
2. [R4’s Environmental Management and Monitoring plan \(EMMP\), Senegal](#)⁸⁰ includes the environmental review process for all ‘risk reduction’ activities, the monitoring plan, and the framework for the overall evaluation of environmental impact of the R4 project ([EMMP Annexes](#)⁸¹).
3. Environmental Impact Assessment - [Analysis and Mitigation Measures of Environmental Impact Potentially Caused by Food for Asset Project](#)⁸² (WFP, South Sudan).
4. [Environmental Guidelines for Small-Scale Activities in Africa. Second Edition](#)⁸³ (USAID, 2009).

Quick reference guide:

How to minimize/avoid environmental risks

- i) Planning work is important to reduce environmental risks – the more integrated and participatory the planning process is, the less are the environmental risks caused by inappropriate maintenance, and potential environmental gains become higher.
- ii) Planning approaches include the identification of where assets will be physically placed, and the impacts these assets are likely to have on both the natural and socio-economic environment. This helps identifying any potential negative environmental outcomes and determine whether these can be effectively mitigated/avoided as part of the selection process of the assets to be built.
- iii) Adherence to high quality standards and integration of activities is required (e.g. stabilization of physical structures, enhanced design and construction standards of feeder roads in mountainous terrains, etc.).
- iv) Simple environmental screening/review tools and formats could be developed based on **Table 3.6** and used as annexes to Field Level Agreements (FLA) and/or integrated in the participatory planning work for those FFA activities that may pose environmental risks.
- v) An awareness or training session on environmental risks and related procedures for the identification of mitigating actions should be undertaken for all cooperating partners involved in FFA.
- vi) Based on the screening, specific FFA interventions may be considered at high risk and rejected unless mitigation measures are agreed upon and supported. A matrix with basic environmental risks and mitigation actions can be included in the planning work at community level.
- vii) Specific activities identified as posing higher risks (e.g. requiring complex engineering standards) need a full environmental review and set of mitigation measures reviewed and approved, as per the [Engineering Directive](#)⁸⁴ and related procedures in **Section 7.3** and established between OSZ and RM to operationalize the circular.

⁷⁹ FAO, 2012. Environmental Impact Assessment Guidelines for FAO field projects. Available at: <http://goo.gl/neEOwY>.

⁸⁰ WFP, 2013. R4 Environmental Management and Monitoring Plan in Senegal. Available at: <http://goo.gl/K2G4ou>.

⁸¹ WFP, 2013. R4 Environmental Management and Monitoring Plan in Senegal - Annexes. Available at: <http://goo.gl/zpKJql>.

⁸² WFP Sudan, 2013. Analysis and Mitigation Measures of Environmental Impact Potentially Caused by Food for Asset Project. Available at: <http://goo.gl/AWtvdB>

⁸³ USAID, 2009. Environmental Guidelines for Small-Scale Activities in Africa. Second Edition. Available at: www.encapafrika.org/eqssaa.htm.

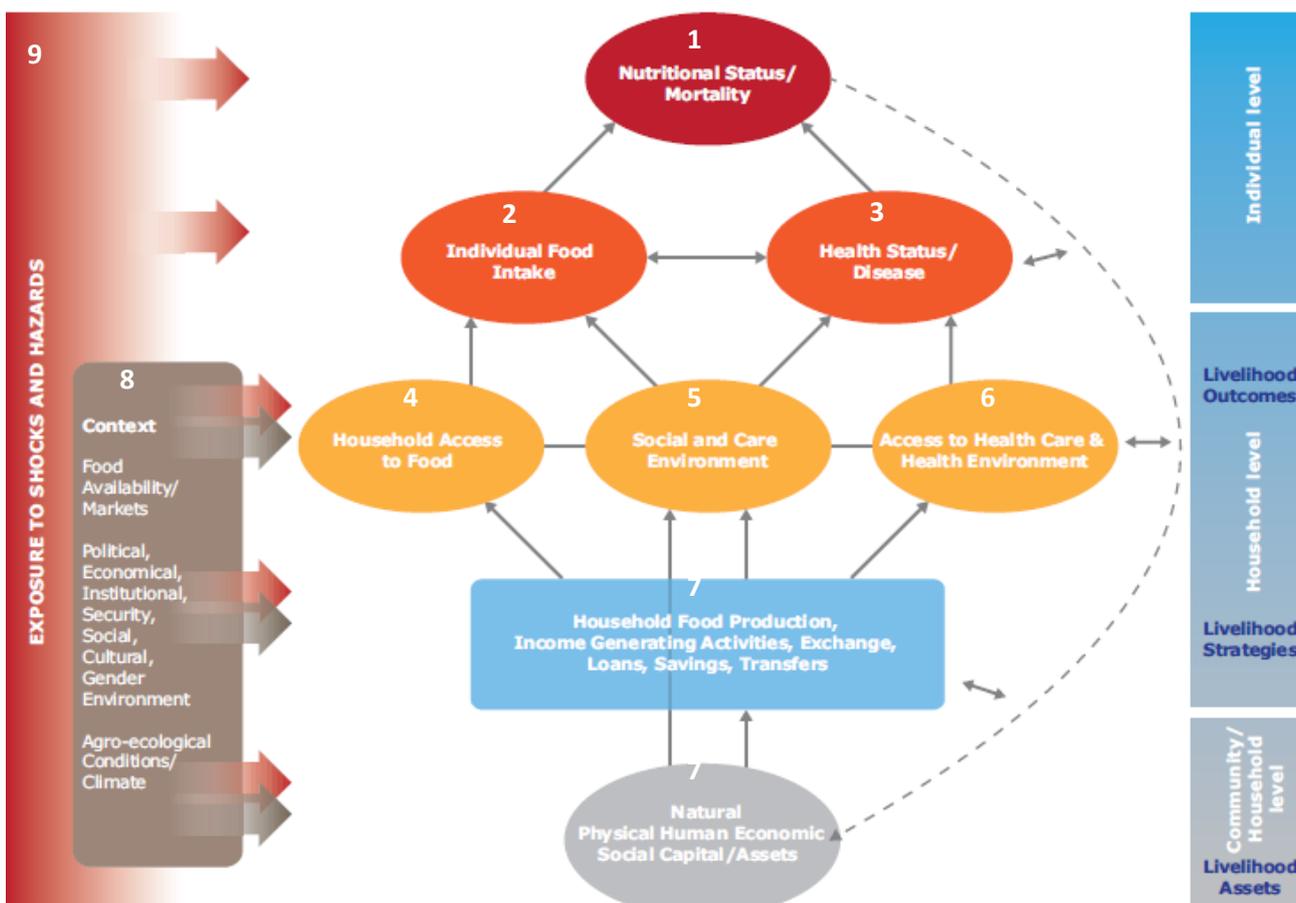
⁸⁴ WFP, 2015. Engineering services and construction activities in WFP. Available at: <http://goo.gl/j2O0JA>.

5. STRENGTHENING THE NUTRITION FOCUS OF FFA

WFP is committed to strengthening the focus on nutrition in its programmes even where it does not have a primary nutrition objective, including FFA. There are substantial opportunities to plan, design and implement FFA interventions and programmes in a way that they deliberately contribute to good nutrition, directly and indirectly. These opportunities, described in this section, are not standalone options to pick up from: FFA programming can contribute to improved nutrition in a given location only if it integrate several (if not all) of these opportunities. Some opportunities overlap with the ones introduced in the Section 4.1 on gender. In fact gender equality and women’ empowerment are vital to accelerate progress in improving nutrition.

The WFP food and nutrition security conceptual framework is useful to understand specific linkages described in this section, and guide programmatic thinking. According to this framework, the immediate determinants of nutrition are dietary intake and health/status. The framework also shows that many other factors, referred to as the underlying and basic determinants that are important for good nutrition – they include household access to food, good caring practices and maternal education, clean water, health care and hygiene, and livelihood assets and economic development. All the factors above are shaped by contextual variables – such as markets, institutions or climatic conditions. They are also largely influenced by shocks, seasonal hardships and other stresses.

Figure 3.12 - WFP food and nutrition security conceptual framework



Source: WFP, 2012. Nutrition at the World Food Programme: Programming for Nutrition-Specific Interventions. Available at: <http://goo.gl/FKws27>.

The following section outlines 5 major opportunities and ways to strengthen the nutrition focus in FFA programming and implementation:

5.1. Consider nutrition at the planning stage (CBPP)

First opportunity: The CBPP represents the first key opportunity to pave the way for more nutrition-sensitive FFA programming, particularly by highlighting key undernutrition-related issues and responses, by contributing to women and vulnerable groups' empowerment and by enhancing their participation in planning and decision-making. To maximize this potential, an annotated CBPP template with an enhanced nutrition and gender focus is developed: refer to the **Section 1.4** of this Chapter, **Table 3.3**.

A series of options for facilitators to strengthen the nutrition focus of the CBPP are embedded in this annotated CBPP template, including:

- ☑ Ensure that the **community planning team is both inclusive and representative** of women and vulnerable groups; make sure that this community planning team includes influential women and women knowledgeable on nutrition, care practices and health.
- ☑ Make sure that **women and vulnerable groups** are given sufficient space and time to contribute to the planning discussions, and that their voices and preferences are heard throughout the process.
- ☑ **Sensitize** the community planning team on undernutrition and stunting, for instance by calling on any health worker present to share its knowledge. This sensitization is critical, because stunting often goes unnoticed: people don't realize it is happening.
- ☑ Highlight specific **seasonal fluctuations**, which have a major influence on nutrition.
- ☑ Carry out discussions on the **production and consumption** of vegetables, fruits, milk, meat and other animal products in the community, particularly among pregnant and lactating women, infants and young children.
- ☑ Identify **services or projects** focused on nutrition or closely related to it, and barriers to access them.
- ☑ Identify **asset creation activities** that can (i) largely benefit women and vulnerable groups, (ii) reduce women and girls' hardships, and/or (iii) generate positive effects on incomes, diets and nutrition.
- ☑ Pay particular attention to women and most vulnerable during initial exchanges on **targeting**, making sure that they will benefit from and control over developed assets, in the long-term.
- ☑ Screen priority FFA and complementary interventions and foresee potential negative effects of some interventions on nutrition; identify a set of measures that could help mitigating these risks.

Refer to **Annex 3a** of annotated (i.e. with guidance) CBPP templates in **English**⁸⁵ and **French**⁸⁶.

5.2. FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition

Second opportunity: Focus on specific FFA implementation modalities, including targeting, transfers, timing of activities and work norms which can support nutrition (or those that can generate potential negative effects). FFA-related targeting should pay particular attention to women and the vulnerable groups, making sure that they will benefit from and control over developed assets in the long-term.

⁸⁵ WFP, 2016. CBPP annotated template (in English; pdf/Word formats). Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp283040.pdf.

⁸⁶ PAM, 2016. Format annoté pour la Planification Communautaire Participative (PCP) (en français ; formats pdf/Word). Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282778.pdf.

The timing, type of and control over FFA transfers present a clear opportunity to maximize the nutritional impact of FFA interventions or programmes in the short-term. It is essential to make sure that these transfers are provided before and/or during the period of the year for which a food gap has been identified. The provision of a transfer during the lean season or an early recovery phase contributes to maintaining nutrition levels over the short-term (by avoiding negative food coping strategies) and longer-term (by avoiding negative livelihood coping strategies). The composition or value of the FFA transfers (food-based, cash-based or a mixed of both) should enable recipients to access nutritious food and contribute in filling the 'nutrient gap'. To the extent possible, products should be multi-fortified. For more information, refer to the guidance on ration composition and cash-based transfers, and to the [Nutrition Division guidance](#)⁸⁷.

The timing and the type of the FFA-related work may generate potential negative effects on the nutrition, health and well-being of women and children. For instance, pregnant and lactating women (PLW) involved in hard FFA work, or women's participation in FFA programme activities compete with young infant and child care practices. These potential negative effects or risks can be mitigated, for instance by defining lighter work norms for PLW engaged in FFA, shifting to unconditional transfers or by adjusting the timing of FFA activities to avoid exacerbating already heavy workloads of caregivers. More examples are provided in the box below:

| Risk | Risk mitigation measures |
|---|---|
| <p>Pregnant and lactating women (PLW) are involved in hard FFA work: Physically demanding labour increases energy expenditure. Due to their physiological status, PLWs already have elevated nutrient needs, and requiring their participation in hard manual labour can compound the difficulty in meeting these nutrient requirements.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ Select lighter work for PLW engaged in FFA and define lighter work norms for PLW. ☑ Develop lighter activities in support of asset creation or other community work, such as baby-sitting, catering, collection of specific tree seeds and nursery work, sweeping of courtyards for manure/ droppings and roughage, weaving of shelters, etc. ☑ Provide unconditional support to PLW during specific periods. |
| <p>Programme activities compete with young infant and child care practices: Requiring caretakers to be away from home for long periods can compete with infant and young child care practices (related to breastfeeding, food intake, hygiene, health, etc.); poor cares practices are detrimental to nutrition.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ Adjust the timing of FFA activities to avoid exacerbating already heavy workloads of caregivers. ☑ Provide sufficient breaks for caretaking and feeding activities. ☑ Provide a set of alternatives to women with young infants and children, such as baby-setting and crèches. |

There might be other potential negative effects on the nutrition, health and well-being of women and children induced incidentally by some FFA implementation modalities: it is essential to identify these potential negative effects, and determine how to mitigate them.

Key guiding questions to incorporate essential 'do no harm' nutrition considerations:

- ☑ What FFA implementation modalities may be risky in terms of nutrition outcomes?
- ☑ Which ones and why?
- ☑ What mitigation measures do you suggest?
- ☑ Which partners can assist in doing this?

Important note: All FFA interventions and programmes should incorporate essential 'do no harm' nutrition considerations.

⁸⁷ WFP, 2012. Nutrition at the World Food Programme. Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp248307.pdf

5.3. Create/rehabilitate assets that contribute to nutrition

Third opportunity: Focus on the assets themselves. Created and rehabilitated assets can contribute to improved nutrition, directly and indirectly, and help tackling some of the underlying and basic causes of undernutrition in the medium- to long-term through various channels. However this potential will materialize **if and only if** a series of conditions are met:

Channels through which asset creation can contribute to improved nutrition, directly and indirectly:

- ☑ **By enhancing the availability and diversity of food produced and consumed locally, and by decreasing post-harvest losses.** This can include land reclamation for enhanced agricultural or animal production (grazing land, pasture); water harvesting techniques and creation of water points for irrigation and livestock; plantation of fodder plants; other activities to support the production of livestock and animal products (milk, eggs, meat, etc.); backyard or collective gardens and orchards; compost-making; small grain stores development; reforestation with trees producing nutritious fruits/leaves; training on agricultural, horticultural and animal production; training on asset management (creation, maintenance, utilization), etc.
- ☑ **By improving physical access to markets, and by strengthening and diversifying livelihoods and incomes, which can be used for covering various expenditures having a direct or indirect positive effect on nutrition** – including but not limited to expenses on nutritious food, clean drinking water, better cooking equipment, education or health services. Examples are the same as above (since food products can be monetized), but may also include other activities such as the construction of access infrastructure (feeder roads, etc.), or trainings on the strengthening and diversification of livelihoods that rely on the community's natural and physical assets base.
- ☑ **By protecting livelihoods from shocks, and thus maintaining local food production and/or income in risk prone areas.** This may be achieved through the stabilization of fragile landscapes or the raising of embankments that can protect crops and other livelihoods from landslides or floods, but also water harvesting techniques that can allow communities to better deal with droughts. Rehabilitated watersheds can also increase the rate of aquifer recharge in drought-prone areas.
- ☑ **By reducing hardships, and in turn increase the time allocated by women to livelihood activities, social and care activities.** This may include water points for human consumption, reforestation schemes with woodlots close to villages, training on fuel-efficient cooking stoves and other alternative energy techniques, plantation of fodder plants, which help reduce time required by women and young girls to collect water, firewood and fodder.
- ☑ **By improving access to basic social, WaSH or health services.** Examples include the construction of feeder roads and latrines, handwashing facilities, water points suitable for human consumption, or other small infrastructure.

Important note: All asset creation activities and assets - whatever the type and category - have the potential to meaningfully and sustainably contribute to good nutrition. What dictates their ability to do this relate to the context and the conditions presented in the box below. Additionally, the channels presented above are not standalone options to pick from: FFA programmes can contribute to improved nutrition in a given location only if they integrate several (if not all) of these channels and if they are complemented by other nutrition-specific and nutrition-sensitive activities (refer to the 'fourth and fifth' opportunities).

FFA and created/rehabilitated assets can contribute to improved nutrition and help tackle some underlying and basic causes of undernutrition in the medium- to long-term if and only if:

- ☑ Asset creation activities are tailored to the local context, selected through inclusive participatory planning approaches and pertinent in regard to existing landscapes, livelihoods and food and nutrition insecurity situations. ⇒ **See also the "first opportunity" above.**
- ☑ FFA implementation processes and modalities (targeting, transfers, timing of activities, work norms, etc.) support and do not harm nutrition ⇒ **See the "second opportunity" above.**
- ☑ Women and vulnerable groups should have access to the assets created and retain ownership or share the benefits related to these assets.
- ☑ The quality of assets is up to technical standards, and they are properly maintained and managed in the long-term.
- ☑ The capacities of community-based management committees, government technical services and local and government institutions are strengthened.
- ☑ The capacities of local and government institutions are strengthened; government institutions need to be in the driver's seat, and supporting communities' in promoting social cohesion and self-help efforts.
- ☑ Different assets and complementary activities, including nutrition-specific and nutrition-sensitive activities, need to be integrated and implemented at a meaningful scale to match the scale of the problems that are affecting communities.

All these conditions largely reflect good FFA programming (described throughout this guidance).

5.4. Integrate FFA with nutrition-specific training

Fourth opportunity: Complement FFA with nutrition-specific interventions and programmes, including nutrition education and behavioural change communication (BCC), focused on infant and young child feeding, production of nutritious food, basic sanitation and hygiene practices, etc. These nutrition education and BCC sessions benefit both women and men, and target village chiefs, traditional authorities and leaders of community-based institutions. Another example related to the sensitization of the community planning team on undernutrition and stunting during the CBPP process is by calling on any health worker present to share its knowledge. This sensitization is critical because stunting often goes unnoticed: people don't realize it is happening.

Such integration processes can help **increase the scale, coverage, and effectiveness of nutrition-specific interventions.**

5.5. Layer/integrate FFA with other nutrition programmes

Fifth opportunity: Addressing undernutrition and enhancing food and nutrition security requires an integrated set of interventions implemented concomitantly in the same region and communities. It also involve multiple sectors and stakeholders, including local institutions, authorities, Ministries and Government technical services, UN agencies, NGO and/or the private sector.

The fifth opportunity focuses on **layering and integrating FFA with other WFP programmes** (such as school feeding, P4P, emergency preparedness, safety nets, etc.) **and with partners' food and nutrition security programmes** - in particular those that contribute to women empowerment and that improve livelihoods and household food access, care practices, and health, educational and social protection services.

The Three-Pronged Approach (3PA) can be a powerful instrument to help layering and integrating FFA, WFP and other food and nutrition security interventions and programmes, , through multi-stakeholder consultative processes, joint problem analyses, collective action and intensified coordination. It is important to remind here that the 3PA is a multi-sectoral approach that goes beyond FFA and nutrition-sensitive programming.

Quick reference guide:

Different channels through which FFA programmes can contribute to achieve improved nutrition:

- ☑ **First:** Considering nutrition at the planning stage and strengthening the nutrition focus of CBPP.
- ☑ **Second:** Selecting FFA implementation modalities (targeting, transfers, timing of activities and work norms) that support and do not harm nutrition.
- ☑ **Third:** Creating or rehabilitating an integrated set of assets that contribute to improved nutrition, in the medium- to long-term, such as:
 - By enhancing the availability and diversity of food produced and consumed locally, and by decreasing post-harvest losses.
 - By improving physical access to markets, and by strengthening and diversifying livelihoods and incomes, which can be used for covering various expenditures having a direct or indirect positive effect on nutrition.
 - By protecting livelihoods from shocks, and thus maintaining local food production and/or income in risk prone areas.
 - By reducing hardships, and in turn increase the time allocated by women to livelihood activities, social and care activities.
 - By improving access to basic social, WaSH or health services.
- ☑ **Fourth:** Integrating FFA with nutrition-specific interventions and programmes, including nutrition-related training and BCC.
- ☑ **Fifth opportunity:** Layering and integrating FFA with other WFP and partners' food and nutrition security programmes, in particular through 3PA tools.

6. COMMUNITY-BASED PLANNING: PASTORALISTS AND URBAN

6.1. Planning in Pastoral contexts

This section highlights additional considerations that are specific to pastoral livelihoods as a result of their mobile and spatial nature – i.e. **the dimensions that mobility brings into planning**, as people will be in different places at different times (see **Annex 3b**).

The German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ)⁸⁸ released a working paper in 1994: [Planning with pastoralists: PRA and more](#)⁸⁹ which reviews planning methods (focused on Africa) and provides interesting historical perspectives on the evolution of pastoral planning, important comparisons and insights into different PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal) and other techniques that can be used, and useful considerations to take into account when approaching planning in pastoral livelihoods. It discusses participatory approaches to development planning applied in agricultural and/or natural resource management projects, and cites Uphoff (1986)⁹⁰ on the reasons why projects in pastoral areas differ from other rural development projects, namely:

- Pastoralists make use of arid and semi-arid areas where climatic variability is large, making the natural resources on which they depend highly variable in space and time (also between years);
- Pastoralists' main assets (livestock) are mobile rather than stationary (land);
- Land use in pastoral systems is large-scale so as to incorporate wet- and dry-season grazing and emergency reserve areas, and tends to be without defined boundaries;
- Tenure institutions for resources used by pastoralists tend towards common property regimes rather than clearly defines plots and farms;
- Pastoralists often use resources which are used simultaneously or during other seasons or years by other groups, also as cropland;
- Pastoralists therefore need to negotiate with other groups to gain access to resources, to manage their use and to improve them;
- To allow for mobility and flexibility of decision making, the pastoral household or an informal group of households are the basic operational units. Arrangements made among households or groups to negotiate resource access and herd movement are usually informal and not rigorously institutionalized.

(Uphoff 1986)

Thus, when reviewing the above points the key elements that need to be taken into account when approaching planning in pastoral areas are the dynamics of:

- Mobility patterns – where are people, and when?
- Interactions with others – who do they come into contact with, and what does this mean?
- Resource use and tenure – who is using what, and when?
- Decision making – what information do they need to plan, who should be part of planning, and why?

⁸⁸ As from January 2011, Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) merged with the Deutsche Entwicklungsdienst (DED) and the Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung GmbH (Inwent) to create the Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit - GIZ.

⁸⁹ GTZ, 1994. Planning with pastoralists: PRA and more. Available at: <http://qoo.ql/Gr8kW5>.

⁹⁰ Uphoff NT. 1986. Local institutional development: an analytical sourcebook with cases. West Hartford: Kumarian Press.

6.2. Approaching Pastoral Community-Based Planning

Pastoral livelihoods are complex, with a large range of variations found across regions, within countries, and even amongst pastoral groups themselves. This means that the specific livelihood contexts needs to be understood when designing planning approaches and programming. The earlier key elements provide useful parameters to guide the information and analyses needed to understand this context, for example:

- **Mobility patterns:** does the entire household move or only certain members? Do they move all year or only at certain times? When they move, do they stay within the same area, or travel across districts / provincial boundaries, or country borders? Are they subject to the national laws and policies of a single government or of multiple countries? Do pastoralists need to be reached by programmes and early warning systems at different times by multiple partners, either within the same or in different countries?
- **Interactions with other groups:** do pastoralists come into contact with others? If yes, who are they – other pastoralists, agro-pastoralists, farmers, traders, urban populations, state officials, etc.? Where and when do they come into contact with different groups, and what are the interactions that take place?
- **Resource use and tenure:** are there different groups of people using the same natural resources at different times? What are the rights of ownership (including perceptions) of each of these groups? What arrangements exist between these groups over the use of these resources? Are there multiple managers of specific resources (e.g. water points or forests managed and used by different groups at different times?)
- **Decision making:** who should be part of decision making on the use of land and natural resources – e.g. representatives of all the groups that come into contact with each other? Will there be representatives of multiple governments in discussions and planning? Will there be multiple partners both within, and across countries (where cross-border movements occur) to represent the areas in which pastoralists are found at different times? Is it feasible to bring everyone together, and what are the options?

Such questions highlight the complexities and challenges surrounding planning approaches in pastoral areas. Although this may appear overwhelming at first, robust planning is possible if these complexities are approached systematically, with each element of enquiry providing the information needed to guide the selection of the following step. For example, if there are no cross-border movements, there is no need to consider multiple governments and cross-country partners in planning; if only part of the household moves, then planning is required for both those moving and those staying behind, etc.

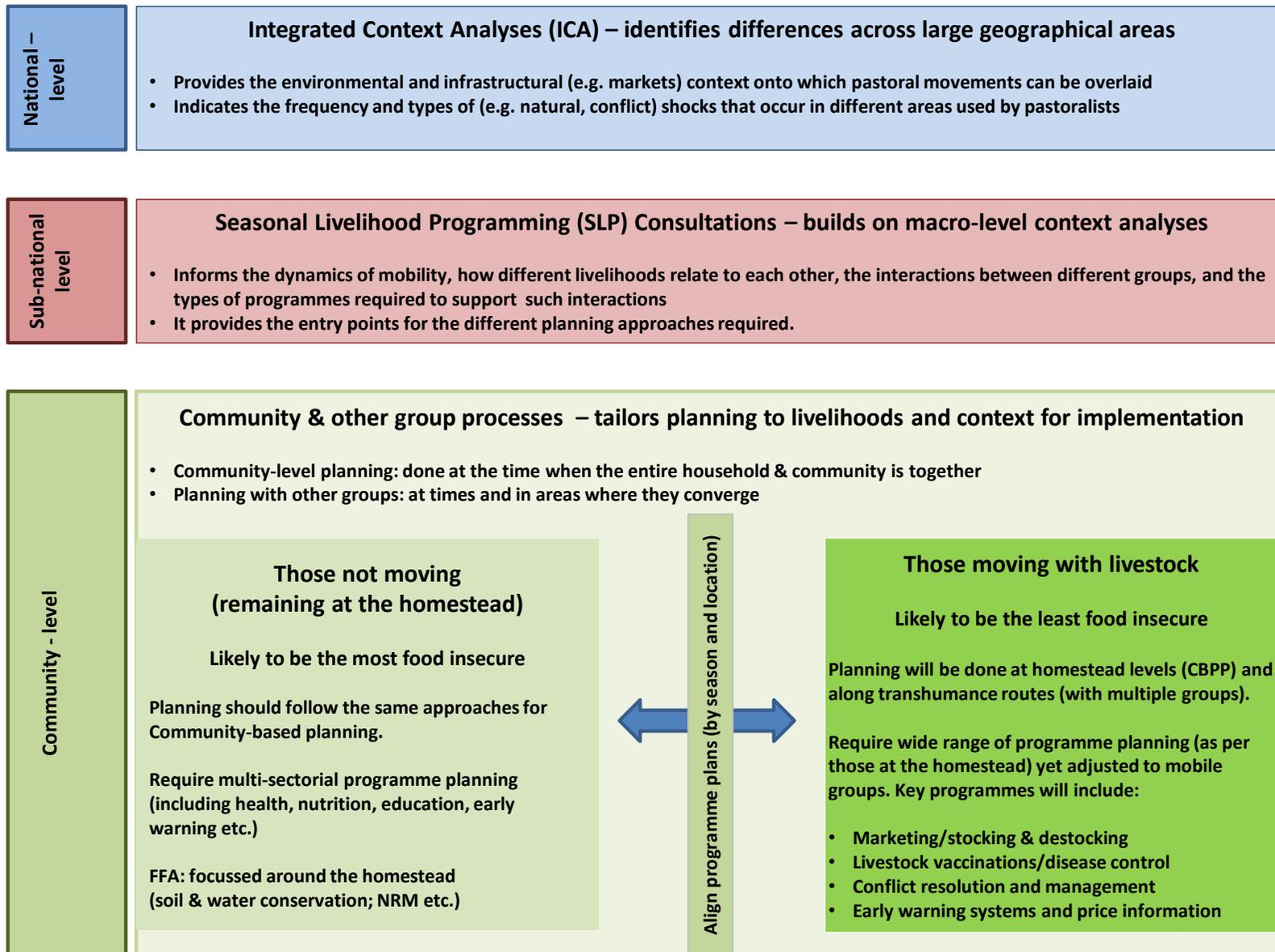
6.3. Steps to take in planning within pastoral contexts

Planning in pastoralist contexts, and with pastoralists themselves, can be complex and challenging when considering their spatial and temporal dimensions – i.e. when and to where they move.

Added to this is 'who' within the pastoral household is moving, as this differs according to the pastoralist type and specific livelihood they follow - for example, in a number of countries in east Africa a common pattern is the movement of men and young adults with the animals during the dry season, whilst women, children, and the elderly remain behind at a permanent settlement.

To facilitate planning (and programme) the 3PA is useful to tool to understand pastoral dynamics at different levels, from the broad spatial context (what are the conditions in the geographical areas they are traversing), to understanding who will be there, and when. The following is a synopsis of the broad application of the 3PA to guide planning in pastoralist livelihoods:

Figure 3.13 - Steps to take in planning within pastoral contexts



6.3.1. Step 1: Identify geographical planning units

Pastoralists could be traversing large geographical areas in their search for water and pastures. To make the planning process more manageable, break down these geographical areas into smaller units and within those identify what are the overall food security conditions, who (i.e. which household members, e.g. men and boys), why (e.g. migrating for pastures), and when (e.g. during the dry season) will they be in those geographical units, and which partners work in these areas.

1. Start with an ICA (or similar analysis) that provides the overall context of the recurrence of food insecurity, natural shocks, and land aspects (i.e. land type, use, level of degradation) to show the range of conditions across the geographical area that pastoralists travel through.

2. Identify and overlay other key aspects onto the ICA, such as pasture and rangelands (identified through the ICA), pastoral transhumance routes, key water points, areas of conflict, livestock markets, etc. (these can be identified through the SLP process, or other sources of information where these exist). This deepens the understanding of the geographical context, and identifies where planning will be required.

For example: Once the dry and wet season pastures have been identified and overlaid onto an ICA, those pastures at greater risk to shocks, experience more conflict, or are more degraded can be determined and would become the initial focus of where to prioritize planning, etc.

3. Select the geographical units to begin planning, and identify the partners working within them. Individual area-based plans (through a CBPP process) can be developed with partners for each of these units, after which these smaller plans can then be brought together into a whole – i.e. an overall operational plan that has been constructed from a number of smaller, specific plans tailored to context.

6.3.2. Step 2: Identify when, where, and with who in planning

Livelihood dynamics in pastoral contexts relate to seasonal aspects such as pastoral movements and decisions influenced by a complex set of climatic, social, and economic factors, which in turn will inform the planning approaches. There will be variations in pastoral livelihoods – those moving with animals (either all or part of the household), those settling in marginal lands and practicing agriculture (agro-pastoralists), and those that have gravitated to urban⁹¹ areas either because they have lost livestock to the extent that their livelihood is no longer viable (the destitute), or are in search of alternative livelihoods.

1. Start with an SLP that provides deeper information on the livelihood dynamics of the pastoralists, in particular who is moving (which pastoral group, and within that whether it is the entire household, or only certain members, etc.), when they are moving (e.g. dry or wet season, etc.), and where they are moving to (geographical areas). Use this to inform:

2. When community-based planning should take place (i.e. when all household members are together). Pastoral mobility makes participatory planning challenging, as this should involve multiple groups and partners being in the same place at the same time. SLP's can indicate appropriate times for participatory planning both within a pastoral community (e.g. when all the households and their members are together) and across different pastoral communities (e.g. during times of celebrations, when community meetings are held, when elders from different groups gather to discuss social issues, etc.). These all these provide important entry points for participatory planning approaches and should be maximized.

⁹¹ People in this 'urban' group are referred to in different ways depending on the country context - e.g. pastoral drop-outs (Ethiopia), ex-pastoralists (Kenya), the Berlawe (Somaliland), etc.

3. Where planning should take place (i.e. the geographical location). Closely linked to the above, knowing when pastoral communities are together should also inform where they are. In particular, those events that bring different pastoral groups together provide important entry points for participatory planning approaches and should be maximized.

4. Who should be part of the planning process can also be identified through the SLP process. When planning, all household members should be present, and where there are multiple pastoral groups then representatives from each should also be involved. Consider:

| Those household members and groups that don't move and remain at the homestead throughout the year | For those household members and groups that move away from the household at different times of the year |
|--|--|
| <p>Planning can follow the community-based participatory approach described in previous sections (i.e. the CBPP or equivalent).</p> <p>Note however that this planning should be done at the time when the entire household is together – i.e. when the men and young adults return to the homestead during the wet seasons, etc.</p> | <p>Planning is more complex, and must be linked to the areas they will be in at different times of the year, together with other groups that also use the same area (which may, or may not, be at the same time).</p> <p>Once pastoral movements are mapped and overlaid onto the context analysis (including information on any different group using the area) who needs to be involved in the planning process is clearer (i.e. which government authorities, partners, or other pastoral groups)</p> |

An understanding of the various pastoral groups found in an area and the setting up a process for planning in which to discuss how to programmatically link these groups together (see Somaliland and South Sudan examples below) is therefore critical. In turn, this offers opportunities to discuss with representatives from these groups how to bring everyone together for planning. Similarly, this can be done with pastoralists and non-pastoral groups, such as famers and other livelihoods that may be found in the area.

An example from Somaliland:

Given the high demand for livestock to cater for pilgrims on the Hadj (the annual pilgrimage to Mecca, Saudi Arabia) peaks in September / October), Somaliland pastoralists take their animals to the port of Berbera, where they are sold and exported to the Gulf.

The Barlawe, who are mostly poor / destitute and are linked to an urban economy, are still pastoralists in terms of their identity and skill sets - and earn income by watering, feeding, and loading animals onto boats. They provide a major link between pastoralists selling and traders buying and exporting animals.

When planning urban programmes for Barlawe, the three groups should be brought together to determine the best range of options – e.g. fodder production and storage around urban areas provides income for Barlawe, and supports pastoralists and traders. This brings sustainability and an eventual business model without further future external support.

An example from South Sudan:

In Warrap State of South Sudan it was reported that the Misseriya pastoralists come into the State from the North to graze and water their animals. When entering they make agreements with the people in Warrap State for the use of these resources, and to keep the peace. At the end of the dry season when they return north however, they raid cattle from the locals to drive across the border when they leave. These raids result in people being killed, as well as the Misseriya abducting women and children.

When considering programming options, conflict resolution, reconciliation, and peace building efforts are required at the time that the Misseriya enter Warrap, and intensified at the time they leave as this is the period that conflict is likely to erupt.

WFP's interventions may not always be appropriate and other partners' activities may be more relevant - e.g. conflict resolution and peace building activities - although in such cases WFP could support government and other partner efforts, as required.

6.3.3. Step 3: Bringing it all together

The following assumes that the overall dynamics of pastoral movements has been identified (e.g. through an SLP), informing who is moving and when, and the most optimum times when participatory planning with communities can be undertaken. Furthermore, the different livelihoods found in the area have been also identified – and it is this that should frame the final steps in the planning process. Major considerations in relation to these livelihoods are as follows:

1. Pastoralists on the move:

Pastoralists move in search of pasture and water if their animal herds are large enough to make such movements viable - i.e. they are unlikely to move far from the homestead or with the entire family if they only have a few animals unless it is an entire community on the move, whereby they will be relying on kinship support. Livestock represent the key assets of the household – thus, pastoralists on the move will be doing so with the major household assets, and relying on these for food and non-food items.

Depending on the size and composition of their livestock herds, in typical years they are likely to represent those people who are either food secure or at least are holding the assets that allow them to meet (or contribute) to their food needs – although in bad/shock years, food insecurity levels will change within this group. If they move far from the homesteads into remote areas, and for extended periods of time, programmes for this group need to be feasible for mobile populations.

Beyond the provision of basic services (health, education etc.) programmes should be geared towards supporting mobile pastoralists to manage and protect their assets (i.e. livestock). This includes – but is not limited to - aspects related to animal health (vaccinations and vector control of disease), marketing and trading (such as provision of livestock prices), stocking and de-stocking of animals (related to shocks), early warning and information provision to assist pastoral decision-making, and conflict resolution over shared resources and peace-building with other groups.

For WFP, the range of interventions for mobile pastoralists can be limited – and indeed, they are not likely to be the most food insecure group and hence a target group for WFP (in typical years). WFP would however have a major role in supporting the efforts of other partners through its information and advocacy programmes, such as early warning systems, and food security and market price monitoring, etc.

FFA for mobile groups is often not feasible due to people's workloads looking after animals, the ability to access, implement, and monitor projects in remote areas, and issues of ownership and tenure over the assets created given their use by different people at different times. The risk of creating conflict through asset creation in areas used by multiple groups is high - and before such programmes are decided upon and implemented, robust consultations and agreements with all users is essential. There are multiple examples where water points and improved pastures along pastoral routes have either led to conflict, have failed as the ownership and

hence maintenance of the asset has not been defined, or has resulted increased land degradation as no environmental management of the area has been put in place by the users.

Implications for FFA: Using FFA to reach mobile pastoralists in remote areas will generally be unfeasible given the challenges and constraints.

However, not all movements will be to remote areas – or into areas that are shared by multiple users. In Somaliland for example, many pastoralists do not move further than a week or so from the homestead, and remain within the District boundaries. Within such a context, it is possible to discuss, plan, and implement FFA along pastoral routes.

2. Pastoralists remaining behind at the homestead / agro-pastoralists:

The household members remaining behind at the homestead (typically women, children, and the elderly, or the poor with no livestock) whilst the others move with the animals are likely to be the most vulnerable and food insecure groups. They will typically be managing a few animals left behind (for milk or sales), and will be trying to earn income and marginal agricultural. Agro-pastoralists settled in a permanent homestead will be practicing agriculture (typically in marginal lands) and are likely to have low animal holdings.

The sedentary nature of these groups makes planning and programme implementation easier compared to those that are moving, and offers a wider range of programming opportunities as the challenges of mobility have been removed.

For WFP, the full range of its food assistance toolbox can be used for those groups – of-course, depending on context and relevance. Planning approaches can follow community-based participatory ones (e.g. CBPP) although the timing of when they are done is key – i.e. ensuring that it is done when any mobile household members have returned and the household/community is reunited.

Implications for FFA: FFA is a most relevant programme activity for pastoralists remaining behind at the household and for agro-pastoralists.

FFA interventions will be geared towards homestead development, soil and water conservation, and natural resource management. As these are mostly dry season activities, they coincide with hunger gaps thereby providing food assistance and assets to reduce future seasonal hardships.

3. Pastoralists that have gravitated to urban areas:

These are likely to be the most food insecure, vulnerable, and poorest group. Challenges for pastoralists moving into urban areas are their existing skill sets – mostly geared towards animal husbandry, and where demand for such skills will likely be limited. They will require a wide range of programmes, and livelihood support generally focuses on income generation.

Planning approaches can be complex and challenging in urban areas, particularly where people identifying with a specific community may be lost and they view themselves as individuals and not part of a whole. Initial stages of planning should determine whether there are community groups or associations that can be used to mobilize people for participatory planning. Refer to **Chapter 5** for more information on planning and implementing FFA in urban contexts.

Implications for FFA: Wherever possible, attempt to keep the link between those pastoralists in urban areas to those that still have active herds. Activities to consider are those that can be geared towards fodder production or holding pens in peri-urban areas, or services that can be provided to livestock sellers and traders, etc. This requires planning approaches that will bring these groups together.

6.4. Summary of planning aspects to be considered

In conclusion, when planning FFA in pastoral livelihoods consider whether the aspects on the following checklist have been analysed and are understood:

Pastoral System:

- 'Homesteads' and transhumance routes (location, time of permanence, gender, etc.)
- Role of livestock and its management
- Access and use/management of fodder and pasture (user rights, grazing arrangements between groups/clans, grazing reserves, management of pastures in typical and bad years, etc.)
- Water harvesting and water management
- Use and management of trees/shrubs (aerial pastures, dyes and gums, etc.)
- Coping strategies during droughts
- Access to basic services
- Trade and supporting communications/information systems (including the role of ICT etc.)

Agro-pastoral System:

- Cultivated areas (where, how are they cultivated, tenure, crop types, etc.)
- Permanent homestead areas
- Role of livestock and its management
- Access and use/management of fodder and pasture
- Water harvesting and water management
- Use and management of trees/shrubs
- Coping strategies during droughts and other shocks

Additional Aspects:

- Planning approaches in pastoral areas which include conflict resolution, negotiation periods and modalities, relationships between groups/clans and institutions, etc.
- Social structures and decision making processes – including the role of women
- Social and economic networks (markets, remittances, other income sources, etc.)

6.5. Planning in Urban contexts

Given the complexities of planning and programming in urban areas for FFA, the urban context is being treated as a standalone Chapter, including aspects of planning – refer to **Chapter 5**. All information related to programming and planning in urban areas will be found in that Chapter.

7. PLANNING AND SELECTING FFA INTERVENTIONS

This section describes the main type of FFA interventions possible to select for implementation during planning and how vulnerable groups, in particular women and disadvantaged groups, can best benefit from them.

7.1. Type of Interventions

A broad set of four intervention domains (*Assets Protection, Assets Restoration, Assets Rehabilitation and Asset Building, Asset Reclamation*) are explained in **Chapter 1** based on what type of FFA activities are suitable within each context and capacity requirements.

FFA interventions are normally focused on one or more of the below ten broader foci:

- 1. Soil and water conservation** (physical & biological, fertility management measures, gully control, etc.)
- 2. Land clearing restoring agricultural potential** (cutting of overgrown vegetation in abandoned and previously cultivated areas; removal of debris from agricultural areas after landslides/floods; etc.)
- 3. Physical access** (community access roads, bridges, trails, removal of debris, etc.)
- 4. Irrigation schemes and water development for domestic, livestock and aquaculture utilization** (irrigation canals; ponds; spring; shallow wells; etc.)
- 5. Forestry and agroforestry development** (afforestation, nurseries, seed collection, etc.)
- 6. Flood control** (embankment, raising grounds, cleaning canals, diversion weirs, etc.)
- 7. Community and social infrastructure** (latrines, schools, canteens, grain stores, etc.)
- 8. Alternative energy development** (building fuel efficient stoves, etc.)
- 9. Community-level food reserves** (cereal banks, other community-level security food stocks)
- 10. Natural and physical assets management related trainings and community plans** (training communities on technical standards, work norms, and maintenance of assets; training specific groups e.g. women on asset management; developing CBPP's; etc.)

The options within each of these may be further refined based on the agro-climatic and livelihood contexts for any specific intervention. A main menu of possible FFA interventions is included in **Table 4.1** of **Chapter 4** together with detail technical considerations in each technical section, some of which are also explained in **Annex 4a**.

In regard to participatory planning, a number of FFA interventions may be identified through the technicians of local government and/or cooperating partners' and suggested for inclusion. Whilst in a number of cases these suggestions are sound and based on solid experience, in others some activities may not be appropriate, particularly if new in a given area and not tested first carefully.

Participatory planning should emphasize the following four aspects regarding the selection of FFA interventions:

EXPLAIN – DEMONSTRATE – INVOLVE – CORRECT/ADJUST

For example:

- (1)** Each FFA activity – whether suggested by the community or by specific technical staff - need to be understood by community members, and its technical aspects related to the integration with other activities, ownership or user rights, and maintenance requirements should be explained and agreed;

(2) New FFA interventions not familiar to the community but of great potential can be suggested, explained with displays, drawings and videos but also through demonstrations;

(3) Any demonstration regarding specific FFA activities during the planning stages should be done with maximum attention and active participation of community members. This implies a discussion on possible changes in design aspects and on the possible inclusion of new suggestions about how a given activity can be introduced in specific areas;

(4) A number of FFA activities might have been introduced in a community in the past but may not have performed well for a variety of reasons. Although community members show reluctance, these can be re-suggested and re-introduced if they form part of a package with better technical design, management arrangements and complementary measures.

Figure 3.14 - Demonstration regarding specific FFA activities



7.2. Selection of FFA interventions

In addition to proper consideration to capacity levels, institutional aspects, bio-physical features, priority needs, resources and management of expectations, the following questions will help guiding field staff in the selection of FFA interventions:

(i) **Are your FFA interventions in line with the objectives set up by your operation and people's priorities? Is CBPP still useful if WFP can support only a few FFA activities?**

Suggestions: A CBPP plan needs to reflect what it takes to address a number of underlying causes of vulnerability. It is important to be clear with communities about specific limitations regarding what WFP can or cannot support depending on resources, timeframe, priorities and other limitations. This also relates to managing expectations (see also **Section 2.6**) and explaining to communities what can be realistically achieved under different funding scenarios.

A transparent participatory planning process will still make CBPP a valuable tool that can be used to: (i) achieve better results for whatever few or several FFA activities WFP is able to support based on local priorities and funds availability; (ii) provide documented evidence on why additional activities and resources are required, and hence be an advocacy tool; and (iii) become a tool that both government and other partners can use to complement what WFP is able to support.

(ii) **Does your FFA intervention involve the mobilisation of the entire community or groups for its implementation?**

Suggestions: As seen in **Section 3.1**, communities and their surrounding landscapes are interconnected in multiple ways and participatory planning is a binding tool that requires integration and flexibility.

For example, if a CBPP is developed for a flood prone area in Bangladesh or for a degraded watershed in Burundi, the participation of those households that may not strictly fall into the category of the “poorest-of-the-poor” or of the most food insecure still needs to be ensured. Participatory planning can be a mechanism able to reconcile targeting needs, the landscape and technical requirements, and the overall community aspirations.

(iii) Do your FFA interventions need specific agreements regarding gender (equality), needs of specific groups (e.g. HIVAIDS affected, marginalized groups) and tenure aspects?

Suggestions on gender and tenure: In selecting and designing FFA activities, gender, specific group’s needs and tenure aspects (see also **Sections 4.1 and 4.2**) should be considered (e.g. in relation to water and land management). These are aspects often beyond the ability of the target group to decide upon – i.e. for which the whole community, specific leaders and/or state actors involvement is critical. This is particularly relevant in FFA that focuses on the reclamation and rehabilitation of marginal lands as property or customary rights over the use of specific areas or assets needs to be understood and negotiated upfront during the planning and implementation stages. These include user or property rights that can be guaranteed to women, the youth and/or to poorest households. For example, benefits over reclaimed gully lands or other degraded land, equitable access to water resources for irrigation schemes, property or use rights over forest lands and trees (e.g. for beekeeping), etc. A number of these aspects are also very important in pastoral contexts – for example on the use of water points and of specific portions of rangelands during the dry or wet seasons, that require agreements between different pastoral groups and which are often difficult to maintain over time.

Suggestions on HIVAIDS and marginalized groups: The arrangements needed for specific groups potentially affected by stigma or that are culturally marginalized can be quite complex – for instance, planning for people living with HIVAIDS who may not receive adequate attention by the community and remain largely stigmatized, particularly women. In countries or areas with known higher prevalence, the CBPP should emphasize those FFA activities that reduce hardships, promotes social inclusion (e.g. awareness creation and anti-stigma efforts) and income generation activities (e.g. partnerships for vocational training delivered by partners, etc.).

Innovative approaches in the form of ‘solidarity schemes’ to assist these most deprived households can also be introduced - for example by engaging the large group of households participating in FFA to support the creation of multiple assets that will be targeted to and benefit a smaller number of the most needy. This form of support builds upon traditional forms of solidarity that are well practiced and understood in rural settings, but which have gradually been eroded due to the constant struggle to cope with adversity. These schemes also exist in urban areas where there are significant non-traditional and informal solidarity networks on which the poor rely for survival (religious, community, professional, etc.).

Most importantly, FFA activities targeted to support people living with HIVAIDS and marginalized groups can be strengthened and made more effective if partners are able to provide complementary support. For example, access to micro-credit schemes and the promotion of viable income generation activities, as well as a number of intra-community efforts aimed at reducing stigma and boosting social cohesion. FFA may include the Community Conversation approach in selected locations. The approach involves community members selected as social workers and trained using specific packages related to anti-stigma, voluntary testing, avoidance of malpractices, solidarity mechanisms and awareness raising. The Community Conversation approach has been found to be very effective and impacted positively in all the districts were it has been introduced in Ethiopia, for example.

7.3. Planning FFA with engineering requirements

There are a number of FFA activities that relate to the construction of infrastructure - for example schools, latrines, complex water reservoirs, diversion weirs, feeder roads and other specific structures. In September 2015 WFP issued an [Engineering Directive \(RM2015/004\)](#)⁹² that regulates all engineering services and construction activities in WFP operations. A number of sections in **Chapter 4** make reference to engineering requirements. The following provides the framework for planning FFA interventions that require engineering specifications:

1. FFA for which engineering specifications and adherence to the Engineering Directive and Engineering Department procedures for implementation are mandatory (*)

Certain FFA activities require meeting higher engineering standards, often beyond what is normally possible using local expertise from governments, NGOs, the UN and other partners. This is particularly necessary for: (i) FFA activities for which technical engineering requirements are complex and not available locally; for (ii) FFA activities where engineering standards are directly related to major safety aspects; and (iii) for FFA activities that require complex engineering design and implementation that go through tendering, even when engineering skills are available locally. Point (iii) will also apply to (i) and (ii) as required.

The following (non-exhaustive) list are activities requiring compulsory screening and vetting by WFP Engineering at HQ (RMMI) before approval of technical standards and project proposal:

- Buildings (e.g. school classrooms, health post, kitchens, latrines, etc.)
- Shelters
- Warehouse and storage facilities (all types)
- Bridges (all types)
- Earth, rock fill and concrete dams
- Gabion dam/diversion weirs (*)
- Feeder roads (*)

(*) These activities may only require general oversight from WFP Engineering if they meet some or all of the following criteria: when they do not go through a competitive tendering process, when local capacities are available and ascertained capable of meeting the required engineering standards, and when engineering designs have been done and approved by a qualified Engineer and have gone through an environmental assessment/review. In all cases, it is strongly recommended to contact WFP Engineering at early stages of the project to ensure compliance with the [Engineering Directive \(RM2015/004\)](#)⁹³.

2. FFA activities for which engineering specifications are recommended (through multiple sources)

The following FFA activities require engineering standards that are related to a number of fields of expertise depending on the nature of the activity. For example, water structures and irrigation might require support from hydraulic engineers, agronomists, road engineers, and/or structural engineers. Such expertise may be available at the local level from a variety of stakeholders that should be involved in supporting the design of specific FFA structures as required. The following are examples of FFA that may require engineering support to complement local experience and skills.

- Community access roads
- Large check dams
- Small scale irrigation schemes
- Soil sedimentation and overflow dams
- Waterways and cut-off drains

⁹² WFP, 2015. Engineering services and construction activities in WFP. Available at: <http://goo.gl/j2O0JA>.

⁹³ Ibid.

- Micro-ponds (structures), cisterns, spring development
- Small farm dams, ponds and shallow wells
- Reservoirs

3. The procedure for planning specific engineering requirements

If a construction component is considered within the project, it is crucial to have engineering oversight from the project's planning stages to its conclusion to ensure implementation is in accordance with engineering standards and project goals, budgets and milestones are reached.

Following the [ED Circular OED2014/015](#)⁹⁴ and [Engineering Directive RM2015/0004](#)⁹⁵, WFP Engineering released the [WFP's Construction Manual \(CM\)](#)⁹⁶, which establishes a framework to implement infrastructure projects. The WFP Construction Manual takes into account standardized international construction procedures and WFP and UN conditions, and establishes roles, responsibilities and reporting mechanisms during an engineering project. It provides the tools to manage engineering projects from conception to conclusion.

Once a project identifies the need for a construction/engineering component, the Chief Engineer should be contacted, preferably at early stages of the project or during initial feasibility studies. The Chief Engineer will assign a technical advisor to ensure that all technical conditions are included in the project.

During initial stages, the role of the technical advisor will be to help identify the project requirements, conditions, constraints and technical needs. The initial assessment will also determine the best technical approach, any required studies or designs, resources that may be needed during the project, the most appropriate contract forms, and others. The support will also help estimating budget needs for all technical activities during the project.

The initial assessment will determine the role of the technical advisor and of WFP Engineering during the project - this role could range from general oversight of the project up to full guidance and support. Nevertheless, projects that have engineering and/or construction components will need to comply with the requirements and procedures stated in the Construction Manual throughout all project stages.

The Construction Manual breaks down all projects into phases introducing intermediate milestones and decision points to help project management at appropriate stages during the project. These project phases included in the Construction Manual are:

- **Phase 0** – Business case and feasibility: initial phase required to identify the need for the project and to examine its feasibility⁹⁷ ([link to Phase 0 of the CM](#))⁹⁸.
- **Phase 1** – Project options and preliminary design: development of a preliminary design and a general cost assessment of the project ([link to Phase 1 of the CM](#))⁹⁹.
- **Phase 2** – Permits and authorizations: phase in which all permissions, authorizations, and related administrative requirements are addressed ([link to Phase 2 of the CM](#))¹⁰⁰.
- **Phase 3** – Detailed design and contract documents: phase for the development of the preferred solution to a detailed level, suitable to allow for the production of contract specifications and tender documentation ([link to Phase 3 of the CM](#))¹⁰¹.
- **Phase 4** – Construction procurement: management of the tender process and subsequent assessment and award ([link to Phase 4 of the CM](#))¹⁰².

⁹⁴ WFP, 2014. Infrastructure for Food Security - Engineering Services and Construction Activities in WFP. Available at: <http://goo.gl/pOR17p>.

⁹⁵ WFP, 2015. Engineering services and construction activities in WFP. Available at: <http://goo.gl/j2Q0JA>.

⁹⁶ WFP, 2015. WFP's Construction Manual. Available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/construction-manual>.

⁹⁷ At this stage the Chief Engineer, WFP Engineering should be contacted.

⁹⁸ WFP's CM – Phase 0. Available at: <http://goo.gl/pOR17p>.

⁹⁹ WFP's CM – Phase 1. Available at: <http://goo.gl/iLQOch>.

¹⁰⁰ WFP's CM – Phase 2. Available at: <http://goo.gl/jKv2Aq>.

¹⁰¹ WFP's CM – Phase 3. Available at: <http://goo.gl/3LYZZr>.

- **Phase 5** – Construction management: management and supervision of the construction activities ([link to Phase 5 of the CM](#))¹⁰³.
- **Phase 6** – Close out: completion of all closing reports and collating all project data ([link to Phase 6 of the CM](#))¹⁰⁴.

At the same time, the Construction Manual introduces a set of contractual conditions for different types of engineering projects, for example design/consultancy services, construction of small to medium sized structures, construction of complex structures, etc.

FFA activities that relate to Point 2 (above) will require the engagement of specialized technical staff during the CBPP exercise or subsequently at a later stage when specific FFA activities are identified during the CBPP but not designed because of lack of expertise or time constraints. The engagement with WFP Engineering at early stages of the project is crucial to ensure a good project plan and the adequate allocation of resources for the project.

Information related to WFP Engineering and engineering projects can be found in:

1. WFP Engineering Website: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/1>
2. Email: WFP.ENGINEERING wfp.engineering@wfp.org
3. Areas or work: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/services>
4. Construction manual: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/wfp-construction-manual>
5. Design codes: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/design-codes>
6. Standard details for engineering projects: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/standard-details>
7. Other resources for engineers: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/resources-for-engineers>
8. ED Circular OED2014/015: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/cd/wfp268531.pdf>
9. Directive RM2015/004: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/cd/wfp278801.pdf>

7.4. Maintenance and Management of Assets

The maintenance and sustained management of assets created will depend largely on two factors:

1. The planning and decisions taken in relation to the rights to use or own the assets, to the sharing of benefits, and to the arrangements put in place to utilize these assets (e.g. how much water can be extracted per day, how often cutting of branches and collection of grasses is permitted, etc.)
2. The quality of the design and implementation of the different assets and their integration.

A participatory planning process is critical to ensure that these two elements are well taken care of at different stages of the planning process, including those that typically follow the initial planning work itself and are pursued over the months during and after implementation of different FFA and other complementary activities. For instance, a number of negotiations and detailed planning work occurs during the design of specific assets such as setting new tenure arrangements that guarantee user rights to different groups, and the organization and training of different user groups to ensure that specific assets are properly used and maintained, etc.

¹⁰² WFP's CM – Phase 4. Available at: <http://goo.gl/KEqNRp>.

¹⁰³ WFP's CM – Phase 5. Available at: <http://goo.gl/WUVDfR>.

¹⁰⁴ WFP's CM – Phase 6. Available at: <http://goo.gl/Up3uId>.

Chapter 4

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL

Implementing FFA



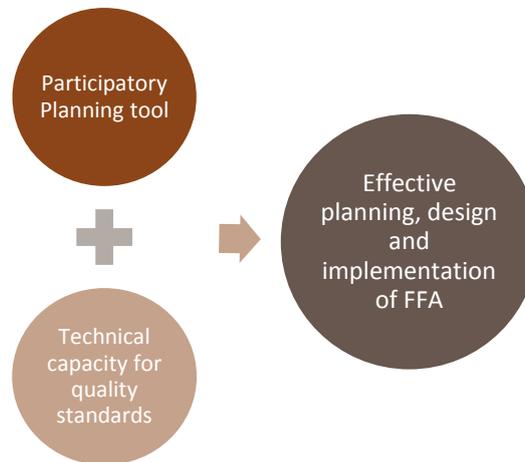
World Food Programme

wfp.org

Preamble

The Chapter highlights the relevance of technical aspects to:

- i) **Support participatory planning work in terms of selecting and designing the right type of FFA activities based on local context and priorities, and;**
- ii) **Support the application of quality standards for effective and durable assets building.**



The “quality” aspects: Chapter 4 describes why all FFA activities require maximum attention to quality aspects and why quality standards are critical to achieve an intended objective where WFP operates which often presents challenging situations. Quality standards means for example that FFA will be designed to adapt to increasingly erratic climate patterns and difficult terrains.

The “planning aspect” - meeting local demands and setting up management responsibilities: Participatory planning loses its effectiveness when technical capacity to fix specific problems is limited or not available. FFA that are built following quality standards are likely to perform well and provide tangible benefits, generate buy-in from community members and remain well maintained and managed, encourage replication and raise the interest from government institutions for extension and dissemination.

Field staff will use the following sections to support the selection and design of specific FFA activities and discuss with local communities the practicalities of what each activity implies in terms of the expected benefits they generate when properly implemented, what integration they demand, and what they entail in terms of management and maintenance commitment, among other aspects.

The “type of assets, integration and scale” aspects for sustained results: The following sections will also illustrate why specific FFA interventions are critical to address a number of underlying causes of food insecurity and undernutrition in a number of contexts, and include references to what type of benefits specific activities can generate.

What this Chapter provides and to whom?

Chapter 4 provides a **technical description of different FFA activities that can be selected, designed and implemented in the main agro-climatic and livelihood systems where WFP operates.** They emanate from field experience and documented evidence of FFA interventions from a variety of Country Offices.

The sections are developed to provide a:

- **Broad description of FFA, based on key agro-ecological and livelihood contexts, including how these influences the choice and design of measures to:**
 - Familiarize field staff at all levels with a number of aspects related to FFA selection, design, implementation and integration requirements.
 - Generate a better understanding of the complexity of specific contexts and of what partners are required for planning and implementation of FFA in such contexts.
- **A set of technical references in relation to the main FFA interventions provided as links in the different sections, which include:**
 - A wealth of technical information on design standards, parameters and examples - ready to be shared for testing and/or for wider dissemination.
 - Specific ready-to-use references such as **Annex 4a** which includes a number of technical information as 1-pagers or **INFOTECHS** for a range of assets which are commonly implemented in several WFP operations.
- **A description of how FFA interventions complement other interventions from partners, government, communities and households to:**
 - Strengthen the rationale of partnerships and how important are the complementary measures that other partners (e.g. FAO, GIZ, NGOs, Governments) can offer to make those FFA more sustainable and effective, hence contribute to building resilience.
 - Improve performance and scaling up of integrated and layered approaches that generate multiple benefits.
- **A description of specific FFA technical aspects in relation of their relevance to gender [] to:**
 - Make the right choice regarding what can benefit the food insecure the most, including from a gender perspective (e.g. reduction of hardships).
 - Enhance, through specific activities and benefits, the empowerment of disadvantaged groups.

What skills are required to design and implement FFA?

Many of the FFA interventions described in these guidelines have been designed and developed together with government ministries and departments that work closely with WFP staff in FFA programmes. Other interventions are based on the technical work from sister UN agencies such as FAO and ILO, and of technical cooperation agencies like GIZ, and NGOs. And finally, several FFA are also inspired by a number of households' creative solutions including modifications to original designs of specific interventions.

Chapter 4 is therefore mainly intended to support practitioners, technical staff from Government technical ministries, Cooperating Partners and WFP staff responsible for FFA.

Competencies: Regarding key FFA competencies, what is important for technical staff working in a specific context and assigned/involved in FFA is to acquire specific technical skills that are relevant for FFA. This should be achieved through access to guidance, training of trainers (TOT), in-service training and on-the-job training.

The technical staff from government and/or cooperating partners assigned or involved in FFA, need to be provided with both the FFA guidance tools, and the support required for their staff to assist communities in the design, implementation, management and follow-up of FFA activities.

Three main activities are considered standard practice to assist staff engaged in FFA, namely:

- An orientation/awareness training on basic FFA features and how FFA links to food security and nutrition, the range of technical activities (e.g. see **Table 4.1**), and how the choice of the technical measures are linked to participatory planning. This is commonly delivered by WFP staff/FFA focal points.
- The identification of key technical experts able to develop context specific guidance and deliver training on FFA activities that are new or not well understood by local staff. This requires dialogue between WFP and partners staff at different levels that should result in the development of a work plan for delivering such capacity. The work plan will identify key areas for technical capacity strengthening, the expertise required to develop guidance and deliver key training/capacity, timeframes and sources of support. In areas with very low capacity, an incremental approach will be used, starting with low risk activities and mobilizing additional competencies when and where possible (see **Chapter 3: Section 7.3**).
- Based on the above, the organization and support of training of trainers, in-service or on-the-job training on a range of FFA activities based on local priorities.

The technical competencies required for FFA are divided in three main groups

(1) Technical disciplines (standard - with context specific hands-on experience)

FFA are largely related to disciplines that fall within the realm of Agriculture, Natural Resources Management, Water and Infrastructure development. These relate to professional profiles that include foresters and agro-foresters, agronomists, soil conservation experts, natural resources development and environment protection specialists, water and irrigation engineers, and civil engineers, to name a few.

In any country the first provider of technical support for FFA should be the countries' government technical services. For example, the ministry of agriculture or rural development may have extension workers deployed at sub-district level and delivering different technical services to community members – from cropping methods to soil conservation, livestock vaccinations, small scale irrigation, among others. These local level staff are more of a generalist nature as opposed to specialized staff. The latter are commonly found at higher levels, e.g. at district/department levels and/or above, depending on the level of capacity a given government is able to deploy at the grassroots level.

In several countries a combination of agronomists, water development/irrigation, forestry and livestock specialists are available at district or equivalent levels, and routinely deployed to support their respective local level staff at a lower level (e.g. extension workers). These four broad disciplines alone cover substantial part of a number of potential FFA activities that may be generated from a participatory planning exercise. To this effect, such multi-disciplinary teams may be requested to provide joint or complementary training to local extension workers on a number of FFA activities, as well as to contribute following-up with the implementation and monitoring work.

WFP also works with a number of cooperating partners that tend to have locally trained staff in a number of agricultural and rural development related activities. A number of cooperating partners (CPs) have also technical staff deployed at the community level, working with local village/community committees and/or government extension staff on the priority set of FFA and other interventions required in a particular area where they operate.

There are recognized gaps in a number of contexts where FFA is required. Some of the basic competencies for which there is a general lack of adequate capacity relate to a number of technical areas reflected in a number of sections described in this Chapter. For example, the range of expertise available and capable to deal with arid and semi-arid environments and the rehabilitation of degraded ecosystems across all livelihood and agro-ecological systems is often insufficient.

To this effect, access to technical guidance materials illustrated in different sections of this Chapter (including references) need to be a major focus of WFP's efforts in terms of sharing context

relevant technical information. However, this is insufficient and needs to be complemented with deliberate efforts undertaken to build local level technical capacities, together with different partners as part of investments in capacity development (see **Chapter 10**).

(2) Technical disciplines (specialized)

Within the above mentioned disciplines, specialists may be required in relation to specific agro-climatic zones and areas of specialization such as experts in soil and water conservation, applicable in dry lands or in tropical and sub-tropical environments, irrigation development specialists, post-harvest losses experts, flood-control and road engineers, etc. Other relevant technical disciplines may also include drylands agroforestry, management of coastal areas, biological soil and water conservation techniques, low-cost and water efficient irrigation systems, dryland pastures development and management, gully control and reclamation, bridges construction, and building of community access roads in particularly for difficult terrains.

Specialized experts related to these disciplines may be identified inside the country or outside, to provide specific training and capacity to local staff, either from government, cooperating partners or both. Considering the nature of a number of contexts where WFP operates, FFA will be best delivered where a 'combination' of experts from key disciplines are involved in planning and implementation of FFA, or when specific experts are identified as skilled or experienced in multiple disciplines. For example, in the Sahel it is not uncommon to find areas with expertise that range from agronomic practices to soil conservation, agroforestry and water harvesting as these efforts are interrelated and are often required as integrated packages in a number of locations. In this regard, technical competencies tend to increase over time through training, exposure and with experience, covering a progressively wider range of disciplines as these are also mutually reinforcing. Where specialized technical expertise is needed for specific infrastructure works, the CO should contact the Chief engineer, WFP Engineering for overview and guidance (see **Chapter 3: Section 7.3**).

(3) Practical & Local experience

Local competencies relate to knowledge, skills, abilities and personal attributes that are linked to the performance of specific activities in a number of fields – these are one of the most frequently untapped capacities available at the grassroots level. For example traditional soil and water conservation activities, irrigation and water collection, tree planting and regeneration of pastures, which exist in many parts of the world. These imply the availability of significant competencies at the local level, even when the local measures are not sufficient or able to cope with changes induced by specific shocks. For example, the traditional stone terracing in many parts of Yemen and the Konso district in Ethiopia (stone terraces, cash crops and agroforestry); bench terraces in Rwanda and Kenya (soil terraces, cash crops and agroforestry); the Zai pitting method for degraded lands restoration in Mali and Burkina Faso; the agroforestry practices in Niger and Kenya; the rehabilitation of gullies in Ethiopia; the water harvesting techniques in Sudan; the snow-melt dependent water irrigation schemes in Nepal and Pakistan, and countless other technical skills.

Therefore, specific local skills and 'excellence' need to be recognized and tapped on in every context. One of the functions of the CBPP is also to identify and build upon such local best practices and skills during discussions and transect exercises/field surveys. These need to be considered as complex set of 'competencies', both from a technical, management and socio-economic standpoint as they relate to a number of benefits that impact on individuals, groups or the entire community. Some of these local skills and personal aptitudes can lead to considerable innovation, including when new techniques are introduced in a given context. For example, a trench technology for reforestation introduced in the Kallu district - Ethiopia - was changed into a multi-purpose productive trench designed for a combination of cash crops, trees planting and fodder production.

The above mentioned and other countless examples of innovation and adaptation of technical solutions in challenging contexts, are not always sufficiently recognized as valuable by specialized

or technical staff. This at times leads to lack of acceptance by community members of activities introduced by external specialists.

The implementation of FFA will therefore need to be considered as an opportunity not only to recognize local competencies and capacities but also to exchange and eventually merge external and internal capacities to generate innovative and sustainable technical solutions.

The Main Contexts¹⁰⁵ for FFA

For practical purposes FFA interventions are described as follows:

1. Semi-arid and arid zones
2. Tropical and sub-tropical zones
3. Flood prone environments (as a specific subset of the first two)
4. Community Infrastructure and Other assets

The description of FFA strategies and activities for pastoral areas are included in the arid and semi-arid zones section as pastoral livelihood systems are largely confined in dry areas. There are exceptions (e.g. cold continental areas and some high mountain ranges) which require context specific approaches which are beyond these guidelines to explore. Specific reference is also made to FFA activities that require significant engineering standards across different sections, and a note on FFA activities during emergencies.

What are the main FFA interventions and activities?

Table 4.1 offers a list of FFA interventions (e.g. physical soil and water conservation) and related activities (e.g. soil bunds, hillside terraces) that can be designed and implemented in a variety of livelihood and agro-climatic contexts.

A number of these activities will be applicable across a number of contexts, albeit with modifications to their design. However, some of them will be very context specific because they may have been developed to suit specific conditions (e.g. dry lands). The list is not exhaustive and many of these activities include a number of different design aspects based on the type of climate, soil, topography and specific community and household requirements.

It is possible that for some of these activities different terminologies are used in different countries – what is important are the technical standards and specifications they imply for their correct implementation and expected results.

Caveat: The menu of possible FFA interventions included in this Chapter is neither exhaustive nor prescriptive for any given broad context. Each FFA should be reviewed and eventually modified to suit local conditions.

¹⁰⁵Since it is impossible to capture all possible range of FFA and their technical variations for the many different country agro-ecological contexts, this guidance provides only major building blocks regarding the main agro-ecological or ecosystems systems where FFA can be relevant, largely from existing practice and experience. The classifications used (arid, semi-arid, subtropical, etc.) are broadly defined and approximate for practical reasons. Further documentation and reading need to be context specific and researched locally at Country Office level, through partners and field work. However, the guidance provided in this manual offers concrete examples of FFA activities, visuals, designs, implementation sequences and references that field staff may find useful and of practical use.

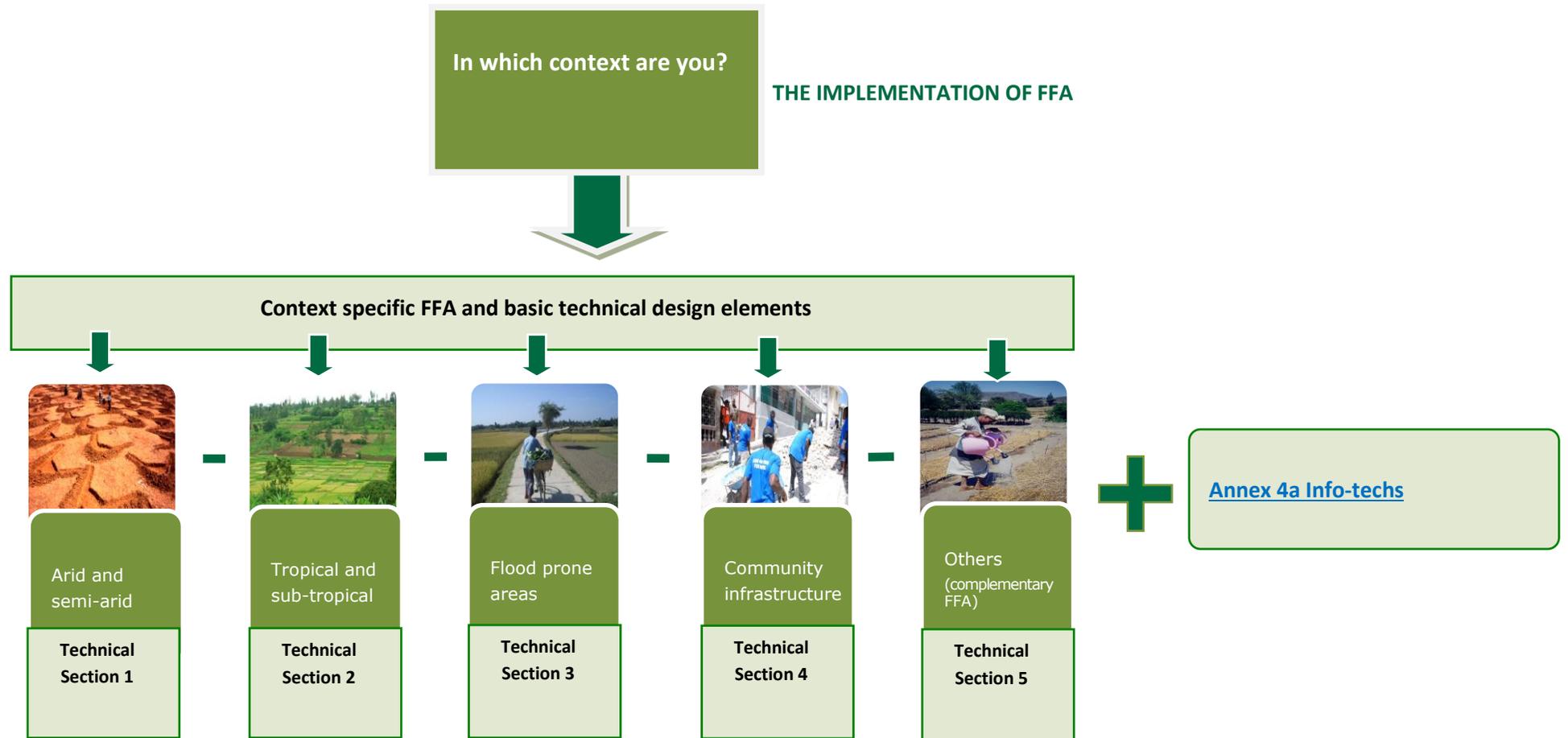
TABLE 4.1 - Main FFA Intervention Areas and Activities

| Main FFA | |
|--|---|
| 1. Soil and water conservation | |
| <p>Physical soil and water conservation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Level Soil Bund - Stone Bunds and Stone Faced Soil Bund - Level Fanya Juu - Bench Terracing - Conservation Tillage using local plough - Broad Bed and Furrows Maker (BBM) - Hillside Terraces - Hillside Terrace with Trenches | <p>Flood control and improved drainage</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Waterways (Vegetative and Stone Paved) - Cut-off Drains - Graded Soil Bund - Graded Fanya Juu - Improved Surface Drainage for Increasing Productivity of Vertisols and Soils with Vertic Properties |
| <p>Water harvesting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hand-dug Wells - Low cost Water Lifting - Low Cost Micro-ponds - Underground Cisterns (Hemispherical, Dome cap, Bottle Shape, Sphere, Sausage shape) - Percolation pit - Percolation Pond - Farm Pond Construction - Spring Development - Family Drip Irrigation System - Roof Water Harvesting System - Farm Dam Construction - River-bed or Permeable Rock Dams - Small Stone Bunds with Run-on and Run-off Areas - Narrow Stone Lines Along the Contours (Staggered Alternatively) - Stone Faced/Soil or Stone Bunds with run-on/runoff areas - Conservation Bench Terraces (s) - Tie Ridge (s) - The Zai and Planting Pit System - Large Half Moons (Staggered Alternatively) - Diversion Weir Design and Construction | <p>Soil fertility management and biological soil conservation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Compost Making - Fertilization and Manuring - Live Check dams - Mulching and Crop Residues Management - Grass Strips along the Contours - Stabilization of physical Structures and Farm Boundaries - Vegetative Fencing - Ley Cropping - Integration of Food/Feed Legumes into Cereal Cropping Systems - Intercropping - Crop Rotation - Strip Cropping |
| 2. Community and social infrastructure | |
| <p>Feeder roads</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Earth road on flat and rolling terrain – stable soils - Earth road on mountainous terrain–stable soils - Gravelled road on flat and rolling terrain – sandy or weak soils - Gravelled road on mountainous terrain – weak soils - Gravelled road on flat and rolling terrain– black cotton soils - Road on escarpment - Typical pipe culvert using concrete - Rings - Standard drift | <p>Other activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Footpaths, tracks and trails - Repair and/or Construction of classrooms - Repair and/or Construction of gender friendly sanitation devices in schools - Bricks making - Thatching and roofing - Construction of protection shelters - Grain stores, dryers, mini-warehouses - Fuel efficient stoves |

| Main FFA | |
|---|---|
| <p>3. Cross-cutting interventions</p> <p>Forestry and Agroforestry</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Area Closure - Micro-basins (MBs) - Eyebrow Basins (EBs) - Herring bones (HBs) - Micro-trenches (MTRs) - Trenches - Improved Pits (IP) - Multi-storey Gardening - Seed Collection <p>Gully control measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stone Check dams - Brushwood Check dams - Gully Reshaping, Filling and Re-vegetation - Sediment Storage and Overflow Earth Dams for Productive Gully Control - Sediment Storage and Overflow Soil Bunds <p>Other activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fish ponds | <p>4. Emergency contexts</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Removal of silt from water reservoirs - Clearing of canals and drainage lines - Removal of debris - Stone collection and shaping - Emergency road repair to restore immediate access to food and emergency relief to isolated communities at times of shocks - Shelters construction (e.g. with HABITAT, NGOs) - Latrines construction (e.g. with UNICEF, NGOs, etc.) - Sandbags filling and emergency flood control |
| <p>5. Skills training</p> <p>Emergency preparedness at community level</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training of communities in basic Early Warning, mapping of safe zones and escape routes, etc. - Training on preparation of community based contingency plans <p>Natural resource management and livelihood support</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training on participatory watershed or area based planning for community members/planning teams - Training on specific design, layout and construction of FFA (soil and water conservation, feeder roads, water harvesting schemes, gully control, forestry, etc.) - Training & awareness creation on conflict resolution, area management planning, etc. - Awareness sessions on environmental safeguards and impacts - Experience sharing and inter-community study tours | <p>IGA</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Support training sessions on Income Generation Activities (IGAs) linked to the management and development of natural resources, such as small nursery development, compost making, beekeeping, etc. - Training on the establishment/management of cereal banks, small grain reserves, etc. - Training on forest management, fuel efficient stoves construction and use, etc. - Training of farmers using the Farmer Field Schools approach (e.g. partnership with FAO and/ or MOA) |

The following graphic summarizes the main building blocks of FFA programming and the technical areas that relate to the broad ecosystems mentioned above.

Outline of the main Sections (with links and examples)



1. Technical Design of FFA in Arid/Semi-Arid Areas

1.1. Recognizing Key Biophysical and Climatic Features

The key biophysical features that influence the choice of specific FFA interventions and their design in arid and semi-arid lands are described in this section. These elements are closely linked to the main livelihoods predominantly found in these areas - i.e. settled agriculture, agro-pastoral and pastoral – thus the relevance of water harvesting is at the centre of many of the possible FFA interventions in this agro-ecological zone.

Annex 4a presents a number of detailed technical descriptions of FFA measures.

1.1.1. Rainfall

Arid lands receive around 200-400 mm/year of rainfall, and semi-arid between 400-600 mm/year. This latter range is nowadays modified upwards in many countries - i.e. 700 mm instead of 600 mm. In some countries (India) the upper limit reaches 750 mm/year, and in Ethiopia around 900 mm/year, largely to acknowledge the effect of slopes on effective rainfall (often only 2/3 or half of the total rainfall is useful for cropping as the rest is lost as runoff due to steep slopes and shallow soils). In arid and semi-arid areas the rainy season is short, distribution is erratic, showers are **intensive**, and subject to high annual rainfall variations. Droughts or erratic rainfall over time, amount, and distribution, are common in semi-arid and arid areas and the highest perceived reason for crop failure and food insecurity amongst settled agriculturalists and pastoralists.

1.1.2. Cropping seasons and effect of temperature and wind

FAO describes 'arid dry lands' having less than 75 days, and 'semi-arid dry lands' having between 75 to 119 days of crop growth in the season, although this range may vary in some countries depending on the altitude of cropping. Temperatures are high during several months of the year, with typical diurnal variations ranging from 10 to 45° C. In many situations, the fluctuations restrict the growth of plant species. High temperatures at the soil surface results in rapid loss of soil moisture due to high levels of evaporation and evapotranspiration.

Dry lands often have hot dry winds (due in part to limited/no vegetation) with three main effects:

- reduce the effectiveness of rainfall by evaporation from soil surface
- increase evapotranspiration from the leaf area of crops, increasing the risks of moisture stress
- surface of stored water (ponds, dams etc.) suffer from high evaporation losses (important when water dams or storage systems are developed)

1.1.3. Biophysical conditions and repercussions on the water cycle

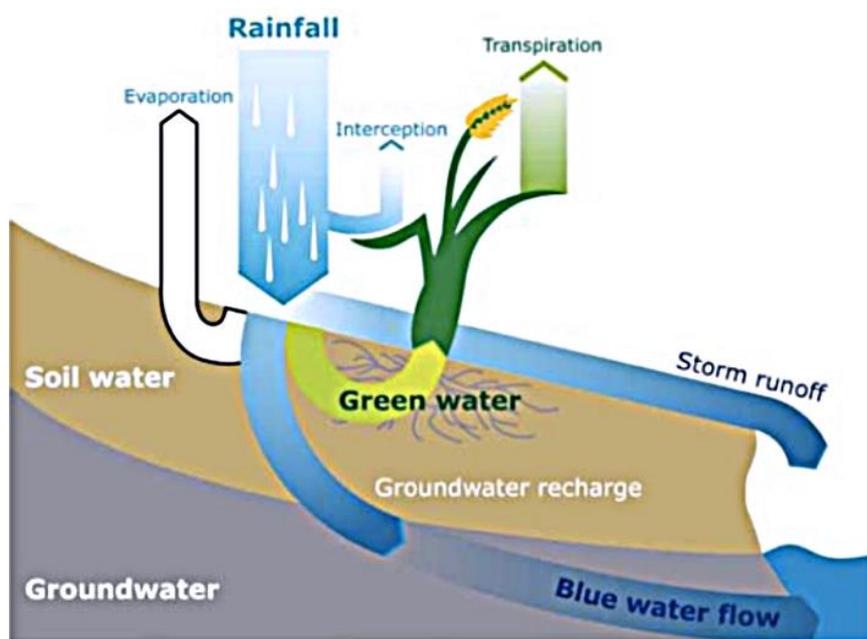
Arid and semi-arid areas are usually characterized by soils with low content of organic matter, and with high proportions of fine sands and loams. The tendency of these soils is to crust, have low infiltration rates, and a high susceptibility to water and wind erosion.

Local practices such as burning and grazing crop residues reduces the recycling of organic matter thereby decreasing the biological life of soil. In hotter climates termites replace earthworms, with tunnelling and turning the soil by termites being less efficient than that of earthworms (FAO Soil Bulletin 70). Soils in arid/semi-arid lands vary widely and are less homogeneous than those in moister climates. Vegetation is scattered and less developed, leading to greater surface water runoff, especially after late fires which destroy vegetative cover before the rains. This results in the

vegetative cover of soil being reduced to a period of 4 to 6 months, leaving the soil exposed to high temperatures and mineralization of the organic matter. Soil tends to become compacted and spatially discontinued: crust layers at the topsoil surface and a hard pan under the ploughed layer in cultivated areas. Limited moisture storage capacity of the soil diminishes its biological activities, and nutrients for crops reduces.

These conditions affect the water cycle (see figure below) and can result in a cycle that sees a drastic increase of surface water runoff and a drastic reduction of 'green' and 'blue' water flows. This affects water available for crops during the rainy season, of water for off-season cropping and horticulture, and increasingly limited availability of water for domestic and livestock uses, limited crop diversity and decrease of pastures.

Figure 4.1 - Water cycle (source IFAD)



Highlights from this section: The understanding of the climatic patterns and biophysical features help the design of measures able to support households and communities adapt to difficult and drought prone environments. For example, to design runoff water collection systems which are critical to plant trees or grow crops in dry land areas.

1.2. Technical strategies for FFA in arid and semi-arid areas

1.2.1. Main features

Conserving and managing water and soils is of primary importance in arid/semi-arid lands. These areas are home to marginal farmers, agro-pastoralists and pastoralists who are often amongst the poorest and most food insecure people in a number of countries, and are increasingly unable to cope with climatic and other risks. Correct water runoff management is often the precondition to restore productivity and enable the use of other inputs to improve agricultural productivity and the overall natural resources base.

Throughout these areas, the management of water runoff and biomass at farm plot and sub-watershed levels offer considerable opportunities for greater returns in crop (or fodder/pasture) production and better resilience against severe droughts. Improved land use, particularly of cultivated lands (including the productivity of homesteads) is possible only if integrated efforts are

undertaken for which water harvesting and soil conservation techniques are an essential part of the overall land rehabilitation effort. Water harvesting is also critical for the viability of pastoral and agro-pastoral systems, around the settlements and/or transhumance routes.

In regards to the sequence of water harvesting, **first manage rainfall; then manage runoff.**

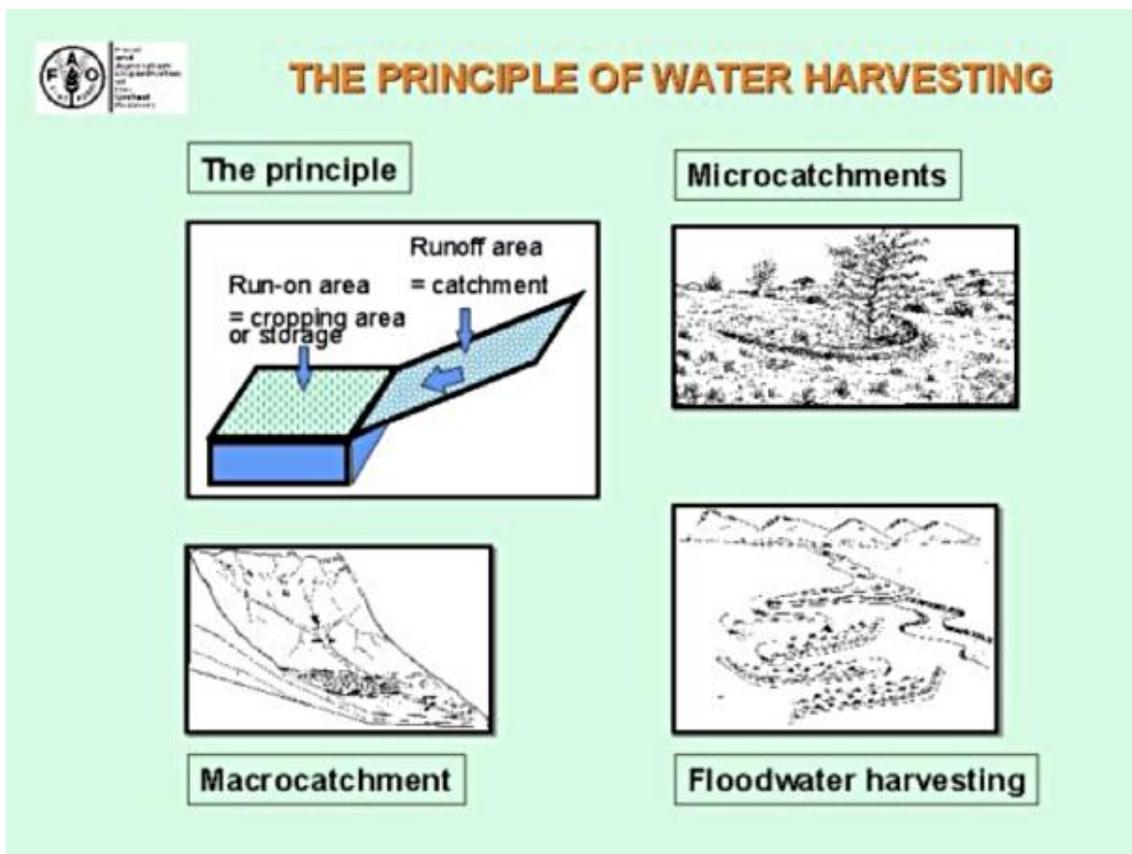
The main elements of erosion control is the presence of a good vegetation cover that reduces water splash and maximizes water infiltration, thereby reducing surface water volume and the velocity of runoff. Only when runoff is excessive and destructive that additional soil and water conservation measures are needed. **In dry zones, this sequence is not always possible** due to the absence of sufficient vegetation cover and biomass – particularly in already degraded drought prone areas.

The sequence may even be reversed in a number of dry land areas – e.g. specific physical water harvesting structures can stimulate biomass production which improves surface cover, soil structure and organic matter content, and reduce the effects of raindrop splash on soils.

Most of the measures described in this strategy use the "RAINFALL MULTIPLIER" effect, meaning measures designed to include a runoff area (micro-catchment) serving or supplying additional water to a run-on area (cultivated area). FAO for example, has developed guidelines on [Water Harvesting Measures – The Collection of Runoff Water for Productive Purposes.](#)¹⁰⁶

Rainfall multiplier systems are those activities designed to use internal or external catchments to supply additional water to crops, grazing systems, and trees; or in storage systems for future use. At the same time, these systems help to control soil erosion (see **Figure 4.2** below).

Figure 4.2 - FAO description of main water harvesting as rainfall multiplier systems



¹⁰⁶ FAO, 1991. *A Manual for the Design and Construction of Water Harvesting Schemes for Plant Production*. Available at: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/U3160E/u3160e03.htm>

Water harvesting includes different water reservoirs types (cisterns, ponds, dams, etc.) that collect water from external micro or macro-catchments for irrigation or domestic and livestock uses.

Overall, for the purpose of this guidance water harvesting and related rainfall multiplier systems are an integral part of the natural resources management (NRM), sustainable land management (SLM) and overall community centred development approaches in dry lands. If applied correctly, these can play an essential role to reduce risk of shocks and build household and community resilience.

A number of these measures are also described in soil and water conservation manuals, the main distinction being on whether the main focus is on water and/or soil. Overall, what is important is how these interventions can rehabilitate degraded and food insecure areas by harnessing soil, water, and vegetation to benefit vulnerable populations. It is also a key component/factor to build on local knowledge and existing best practices.

Some examples from local experience and best practices:

These few examples relate to opportunities for FFA to contribute to an overall resilience building effort that has management of rainfall and runoff at the centre of the strategy for land and community infrastructure rehabilitation. FFA will be used to support those activities that are typically enabling increased food access and require considerable labour efforts for their implementation:

1. Traditional water retention or percolation systems that slow down runoff (e.g. stone lines or stone bunds), soil management techniques (e.g. zai pits – largely used in Mali and Burkina Faso to rehabilitate degraded crusted soils through a cropping-recycling-fertility enriching method) and agro-forestry should be a starting point to consolidate, complement, expand or modify such systems for crop and fodder production, and other uses (e.g. scattered leguminous trees acacia on cultivated lands such as the *Faidherbia Albida* that through their nitrogen-fixing as well as leaves-dropping characteristics during the cultivation and/rainy season enhance the growth of crops).
2. Simple water harvesting methods, which capture runoff diverted from foot paths, tracks, rock outcrops, or micro-catchments are used to grow multipurpose tree species planted around farm boundaries, reclaimed gullies, open fields and homesteads.
3. Water harvesting intended as a combination of larger scale watershed rehabilitation measures that contribute to recharge water springs, permit cultivation during the dry season through shallow wells (e.g. in Ethiopia). As a result, nurseries and tree seedlings can be produced and vegetable gardening can be undertaken.
4. Water harvesting and the management of runoff is relevant for infrastructure works such as feeder roads construction, which could ensure much stronger road stability and ability to withstand high powered rainfall showers.

1.2.2. Technical Strategies

In arid/semi-arid areas, **TWO MAIN STRATEGIES** for land and water management for productive use are envisaged and are relevant to all livelihood types (agrarian, pastoral, agro-pastoral, etc.). In most arid and semi-arid contexts agrarian and pastoral livelihood systems tend to be mixed and include a wide range of typologies, from pure pastoralists to smallholder farmers, including agro-pastoralists and riverine farmers. Strategy 1 is often a 'must' requirement in arid contexts, in most of the semi-arid contexts a combination of Strategy 1 and Strategy 2 is required.

a) Strategy 1: FFA interventions (through rainfall multiplier systems)

Where: In areas where precipitation is insufficient to meet minimum water requirements of crops (e.g. due to erratic rains, high drought risk, low rainfall, etc.) or where crops have a higher water requirement than the rainfall in an area. For example, if total water requirement of a specific variety of Sorghum is of 500 mm and the total mean of seasonal rainfall is 400 mm, this crop will not grow under such conditions. Furthermore, considering that part of the 400 mm may be lost as runoff (between 20-70% depending on the status of the soil conditions), short cycle Sorghum varieties that can potentially grow with only 400 mm of rainfall will also likely fail.

What: FFA interventions to increase water availability to crops using rainfall multiplier systems (e.g. run-on/runoff systems), increase soil profile moisture storage capacity (e.g. fertility management, improved tillage, etc.), support the introduction of drought tolerant crops (e.g. with FAO, MOPA), and safe disposal of excess water runoff (if any).

Aim: Water harvesting and related fertility management strategies aim to manage water flows to increase water available to plants, enabling the growth of trees, fodder and food crops in most diverse and climate constrained conditions.

(a) Semi-arid areas:

- To introduce cash crops with higher water requirements
- To plant trees on marginal areas, steep slopes and shallow soils
- To collect and store water for domestic and livestock uses

Main types of measures to be selected for FFA in semi-arid areas may include:

- Stone faced soil bunds using small run-on/runoff systems (e.g. for staples or high value crops)
- Semi-permeable stone bunds or stone lines along the contours
- Vegetative strips combined with physical structures or stone lines (requires control grazing)
- Trenches, eyebrow basins, half-moons, herring bones, improved pits, etc.
- Gully control using soil sedimentation and overflow dams (in series)
- Infiltration pits and ponds at the break of the slope to increase water percolation into the soil profile and replenishment of water tables
- Integrated dry land forestry and agro-forestry systems
- Nursery establishment and seed multiplication of drought tolerant shrubs, grasses and legumes, fruit trees, cash crops, etc.
- Development of irrigation schemes, water use optimization (low-cost efficient systems), tie-ridging, and low-cost drip irrigation
- Homestead development with water harvesting systems such as micro ponds, underground cisterns, roof-water harvesting, and spring development and overflow storage tanks, etc.
- Farm dams and water ponds/pans for domestic and livestock uses (fenced, with windbreaks to reduce evaporation) with design able to evacuate excess runoff
- Ford crossing and feeder roads constructed with standards adapted to potentially unstable soils, improved drainage and reinforcements at depression points
- Watershed protection and area closure (and enrichment with different conservation techniques) above key community infrastructure and feeder roads (including check dams on small gullies)

(b) Arid areas:

- To convert marginal or abandoned lands into cultivated land for food crops
- To convert marginal or abandoned lands into cultivated land for fodder or improved pastures

- To establish wind breaks and stabilize sand dunes
- Rehabilitate 'cuvettes oasiennes' (oasis basins) in arid areas
- To protect irrigation schemes
- To consolidate or rehabilitate local spate (flood) irrigation systems
- To collect water for domestic and livestock uses

Main type of measures to be selected in arid areas may include:

- Most of the activities included for semi-arid areas in (a) above are relevant for arid areas. However, considering much greater erratic rainfall patterns in semi-arid areas, and the increased likelihood of high powered rainstorms occurring in arid zones (flash floods, heavy rain conditions, etc.), the design of different structures need to take into account the extraordinary water loading conditions capable to resist the force produced by these rainfall peaks (up to 200 mm/hour intensity). Improving the designs may also include the need to have well calibrated distances between structures, different size of structures, the inclusion of spillway areas, etc.
- For most structures (e.g. trenches, eyebrows, circular or trapezoidal bunds, etc.) the ratio between catchment (runoff) area and the receiving area (run-on) should be higher (more catchment/runoff area). This technique enables trees, fodder, staple or cash crops to grow in the total available land including where nothing (or very little) used to grow. Over the centuries land management systems in dry lands have been developed using similar principles. These principles are also part of the core methodologies for new systems developed today.
- Activities such as rehabilitating spate irrigation systems (e.g. diversion of flood water from small or medium to very large catchments into cultivated fields) is often a sophisticated intervention. Spate irrigation systems are common in countries such as Pakistan, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Morocco and Yemen, to name a few. A number of these systems are traditional and often established centuries ago. There are also modernized systems, and work best when built on traditional techniques as opposed to introducing rigid high tech engineering works.
- A number of spate irrigation systems are currently threatened by an increased frequency of very high rainfall intensities and floods occurring in increasingly denuded catchments – in other words, not able to accommodate and divert flood discharges. A number of such systems may require FFA and solid technical support from local partners and community members (see references at the end of section).

(c) Deserts and areas affected by extreme dryness:

FFA efforts in areas with rainfall <200 mm are limited, except for some dry land forestry, sand dunes fixation and oasis rehabilitation.

Highlights from this section: all possible means should be envisaged to combine, from the very beginning of implementation, different biological and physical measures able to harness rainfall water and surface runoff. **FFA should complement and supplement other partners' and community efforts (including traditional methods)** that reduces soil erosion, optimizes the use of available rainfall and runoff, increases production levels and/or improves access to market infrastructure. This is at the basis of food security in dry land areas.

The following examples illustrate the possibility to grow food, fodder and tree crops in arid and semi-arid lands using the rainfall multiplier effect of different interventions. A number of technical references are provided at the end of the section for further in-depth reading.

Examples of Strategy 1

1) Use of micro-catchments (runoff areas) and water collection structures (run-on areas) construction in arid zones for tree planting

Figure 4.3 - Semi-circular basins for reforestation in Niger (Keita Project – FAO/ITA with WFP support for FFW activities in the 1990’s, Photo source - FAO)



2) Steep slopes treated with stone bunds and continuous trenches and use of micro-catchments to direct runoff into micro-ponds



Figure 4.4 - Micro-ponds collecting runoff water originating from stabilized slopes and micro-catchments.

Note the entire slope is treated with stone terraces and trenches (Ethiopia, - MOA Productive Safety Nets Programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

Direction of water flow from small grassed micro-catchments into micro-ponds

3) Traditional water harvesting systems in the Sahel



Figure 4.5 - Traditional systems used in the Sahel such as the Tassa or Zaï pits exploits micro-catchments to direct runoff into the pits - this maximizes the soil moisture content available for plants and the use of animal dung.

Termites recycle organic matter and crop residues after millet is harvested, improving infiltration and fertility (Photo – source FAO).

4) Trenches and stone faced bunds in dry and bare sub-watersheds



Figure 4.6 - Trenches and stone faced bunds in dry and bare sub-watersheds.

Trenches are constructed on steeper portions of degraded hillsides, whilst contour stone bunds are constructed on the lower slopes – below photo provides a detail of trenches filled with water after rains (Niger –Keita Project, FAO/ITA, Photo R. Carucci).

5) Slowing down runoff in river beds to refill water tables and allow irrigation downstream using shallow wells



Figure 4.7 - A gabion and soil (laterite) percolation dam constructed across large river beds/drainage lines.

Their function is to slow down runoff water and increase underground recharge for dry season cultivation by digging shallow wells in the downstream area as well as planting Sorghum and millet crops in the upstream part following the receding waters towards the end of the rainy season (Niger – Keita project, FAO/ITA, Photo R. Carucci).

 **Direction of water flow**

6) Rock catchments



Figure 4.8 - Rock catchment water scheme - a cemented dam collecting water in depression points (WFP-World Vision, Turkana, Kenya). A water collection system with pipes and taps is established downstream. (Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

7) Integrated approaches using water harvesting trenches

Figure 4.9 - Trenches on steep slopes collect runoff and protect the newly constructed feeder road as well as downstream orchards and crop fields (Ethiopia, S. Wollo zone, MOA-WFP, MERET programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).



Figure 4.10 - Detail of a portion of the area before and after treatment (1 year)

Trenches



The green arrows show micro-catchment areas generating runoff which is then stored inside the trench

8) Stone faced and trenched bunds with semi-circular basins for tree planting



Figure 4.11 - Semi-circular structures and stone-faced bunds using micro-catchments in a semi-arid area with degraded and shallow soils (Kambata zone, Ethiopia, MOA-WFP, MERET, Photos V. Carucci). Note the water collected in the micro-catchments.

Below the same area approximately 9 years later. The area is fully managed by the community for grass collection and temporary/controlled grazing.



Figure 4.12 – Eyebrow basins, trench bunds and small herring-bone basins ready for tree planting (left) and the same area a few years later (right) (Ethiopia - Doba district – MOA/WFP MERET programme, Photo Courtesy by Yonathan Ayalew).



b) Strategy 2:

Where: Mostly in semi-arid areas where rainfall is sufficient to meet minimum water requirements for low demanding crops (in most years), but where rainfall remains erratic in distribution over time and space. Hence, rainfall may not be sufficient to cover the agricultural needs during specific growing phases. In addition, a number of semi-arid areas have poorly structured, shallow and compacted soils, which often generate considerable runoff, reducing even more the available water.

What: FFA should support interventions focusing on maximum water retention, increase soil moisture storage capacity, and eventual evacuation or storage of excess water for subsequent use (if any).

Aim: Water harvesting and related fertility management strategies aim to manage water flows to enable the growth of trees, fodder and food crops

Strategy 2 applies to most of the cultivated lands in semi-arid areas. Although climatic risks may be high, farmers may not accept to leave part of their cropped fields to act as a runoff area. Consequently the strategy would focus on measures able to capture rainfall and make the best use of it – that is, to:

- **increase** and improve the storage capacity of the soil and infiltration rates (physical barriers, gully control, biological stabilization, moisture and fertility management measures, dry land agro-forestry, infiltration ponds and pits, etc.)
- **introduce** crop varieties that withstand periods between rains (e.g. WFP providing seasonal conditional transfers for the construction of *Zai* pits where FAO or other partners can introduce new crop varieties)
- **prevent** or reduce soil and water losses by runoff (e.g. water harvesting schemes, soil and stone bunds and terraces, low-cost irrigation schemes, diversion schemes and storage of runoff water)
- **reduce** evaporation and evapotranspiration (e.g. by mulching of crop residues, shading of micro-ponds, specific intercropping, etc.)

The main type of measures for FFA to be selected may include:

Most of the measures listed for **Strategy 1** will also apply for **Strategy 2** using slightly or significant design changes depending on specific/particular land uses, crop types and terrain conditions¹⁰⁷.

Activities that will strengthen the consolidation or expansion of irrigation systems, and actions to transform gullies or degraded lands into productive units with the support of land and water management techniques.

Overall, **in most semi-arid contexts a combination of Strategy 1 and Strategy 2 will be required.** For example, the use of run-on/runoff systems will be required to manage degraded hillsides (e.g. eyebrow basins) or upper plateaus (e.g. stone bunds with 1:1 catchment/cultivated area ration), while stone-faced soil bunds and tie-ridging will be required to control runoff flow on entire downstream cultivated areas.

¹⁰⁷ E.g. run-on/runoff systems will be possible but not at the expense of leaving a portion of the farmed plots to be used as an impluvium (runoff area) unless major cash crops that require considerable extra water are introduced. Overall runoff systems will largely use small or larger external catchment areas.

Examples of Strategy 2

1. Bench terraces and stabilization (semi-arid areas)

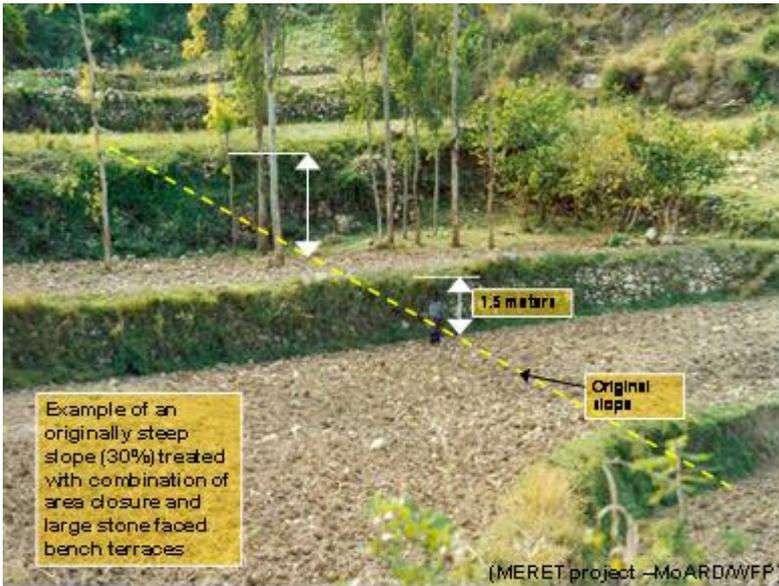


Figure 4.13 - Stone faced bunds upgraded to bench terraces for maximum rainfall retention, and tree planting and bund stabilization with grasses in a semi-arid area (Southern Wollo, Ethiopia, MOA-WFP, MERET programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

2. Bench terraces and tie-ridges (arid area)



Figure 4.14 - Tie-ridging used to harness water within terraces and maximize distribution (Dire Dawa, Ethiopia, MOA-WFP, MERET programme, Photo courtesy Lakew Desta).

3. Water pond and soil conservation + drought resistant crops



Figure 4.15 - Cultivated land treated with soil bunds and water pond for domestic uses. Constructed to collect excess runoff from stabilized gullies – the area is also planted with drought resistant varieties of Sorghum (Oromia, Ethiopia, MOA-WFP, MERET programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

4. Contour bunds on steep slopes



Figure 4.16 - Soil bunds precisely constructed along contour lines - water collected above the bunds can be noted – this creates a percolation effect that moisturizes the entire area, particularly the first few meters above the terrace (W.Hararghe zone, Ethiopia, MOA-WFP, MERET programme, Photo courtesy Lakew Desta).

5. Micro-pond used for small-scale supplementary irrigation



Figure 4.17 - Micro-ponds constructed around homesteads (lined with plastic geo-membranes) collect runoff water from micro-catchments (from road sides, grassed or rocky areas) that can be used for horticulture after the rainy season or to supplement additional water to vegetable and cash crops during and after the main rainy season (Eastern Tigray, Ethiopia, MOA-WFP, MERET programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

Annex 4a provides a rapid description of a number of key technologies that field staff may find important within the context of semi-arid and arid contexts.

A more detail description and technical specifications of these and other measures are also available and included in various guidance notes and links provided in this PGM.

Useful Technical references for both strategies 1 and 2

A number of Guidelines and Technical Notes on Water Harvesting and Dry Land Management – particularly in relation to Natural Resources Management are provided below.

Some of these guidelines have effectively supported FFA projects (see 1 and 2 below).

Most of the guidance provided is for semi-arid and arid zones, while others also apply to tropical/sub-tropical degraded environments (see 1 and partially 2 below).

1. Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development - Ethiopia. 2005. [Community Based Participatory Watershed Development Guidelines –Part 1 and 2.](#)¹⁰⁸
2. Ministry of Arid Lands in Kenya and WFP, 2009. [Rainwater Water Harvesting and Management Technologies for arid and semi-arid lands in Kenya](#)¹⁰⁹ - These guidelines include a number of technical design aspects related to specific water harvesting measures for dry zones. They are mostly suitable for agro-pastoral areas or around permanent pastoral settlements.
3. CRESA, 2006. [Impacts of Investments in Natural Resource Management \(NRM\) in Niger: Synthesis Report](#) (French) - These guidelines present an interesting outlook of different interventions and projects undertaken in the Sahel, including aspects of efficiency, costs and perceived impact/benefits.¹¹⁰
4. FAO, 2010. [Guidelines on Spate Irrigation.](#)¹¹¹
5. Retention, Reuse and Rainwater Storage, 2010. [Managing the Water Buffer for Development and Climate Change Adaptation Groundwater Recharge.](#)¹¹²
6. Netherlands Water Partnership et al, 2007. [Smart Water harvesting Solutions](#)¹¹³ - examples of innovative low-cost technologies for rain, fog, runoff water and groundwater. These guidelines include a number of additional complementary water harvesting techniques, some of which are of potential interest for FFA (e.g. construction of water cisterns, micro-ponds, infiltration pits, spate irrigation, etc.)
7. Ministry of Water Resources, Irrigation and Electricity - Sudan, 2015. [Community Watershed Management Guidelines.](#)¹¹⁴
8. Uganda, 2015. [Technical Design Manual for Labour Intensive Public Works.](#)¹¹⁵

¹⁰⁸ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp239381.pdf.

¹⁰⁹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/communications/wfp237792.pdf>

¹¹⁰ Available at: <http://www.cilss.bf/IMG/pdf/etudesahelrapportNE.pdf>

¹¹¹ Available at: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/i1680e/i1680e.pdf>

¹¹² Available at: http://bebuffered.com/downloads/3R_managing_the_water_buffer_2010.pdf

¹¹³ Available at: www.sswm.info/sites/default/files/reference_attachments/NWP%202007%20Smart%20Water%20Harvesting.pdf

¹¹⁴ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282745.pdf

¹¹⁵ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282916.pdf

1.3. Technical considerations of FFA in Pastoral Areas

1.3.1. Type of FFA interventions

A number of response mechanisms using a Drought Cycle Management approach suitable for pastoral areas are presented in **Table 4.2** below (see **Annex 3b**), and a collection of best practices and experience from projects developed in the Horn of Africa and various parts of the Sahel. They are described in general terms, and provide an important range of response options suitable for FFA interventions.

Table 4.2 - Potential interventions and the role of FFA in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas

| | Description of main intervention areas | Possible FFA | Remarks |
|--|---|---|---|
| A) Pre-drought (or normal/good years) | | | |
| 1 | Consultative and planning meetings with clan representatives, and run seasonal programming exercises (e.g. SLP) | a. Support regular training and workshops (e.g. through cash for training) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be undertaken with clan, gvt, NGO representatives Use SLP results - as platforms for major district planning/partnered efforts |
| 2 | Organization of inter-clan meetings or workshops to prevent possible conflict, plans for utilization of specific ranges, access to water points, etc. | a. Support conflict resolution workshops (e.g. through cash for training) for clan leaders and community members | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be undertaken with clan leaders, government and NGO representatives at regular intervals Institutionalize regular meetings between different clans and Government representatives |
| 3 | Provide skills training on Early Warning, livestock disease detection and certification, water harvesting techniques and mapping of pastoral assets, etc. | a. FFA for skills and on-the-job training at different levels | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires qualified technical partners (e.g. FAO, specialized NGOs and government departments) |
| 4 | Organize mapping of rangelands and other key assets (rivers, water points, drought reserves, 'wet patches', areas of inappropriate agricultural and bush encroachment, degraded lands, etc.) in each district | a. FFA for training and undertaking of main mapping exercises and reconnaissance surveys | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires support from specialized departments and/or NGO staff |
| 5 | Develop clan/sub-clan based community action plans for NRM and rangeland improvement and protection, enhancement of water points, livestock health improvement, etc. | a. FFA for training at community level b. FFA for planning work | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Partners' efforts required to establish viable animal health systems Government improves livestock marketing policies and directives |
| 6 | Prepare contingency plans and establish contingency funds for drought preparedness | None | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contingency plans include range of FFA that can be activated during shocks |
| 7 | Develop technical guidelines for pastoral regions, dissemination and training of pastoral leaders and community members, including women groups | Limited except for training in specific technical efforts | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure skills training supports women groups remaining behind in settlements while men move with livestock |

| | Description of main intervention areas | Possible FFA | Remarks |
|------------------------------------|--|---|--|
| B) Alarm and drought phases | | | |
| 9 | Drought Feeding – open drought reserves and establish supplementary feed fund to support drought feeding (concentrates/ bi-products) | <p>a. Some labour-based cut and carry and drying/storage of hay</p> <p>b. Molasses/grass mix preparation</p> <p>c. Transport of animal feed</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires pre-arrangements with riverine communities to provide grass • Requires that several areas are alternatively put to rest and open to grazing only during shocks • May require significant support for transport of grasses and by-products |
| 10 | Emergency Animal Health – build capacity to scale up animal health system to respond to additional demands during drought | a. Limited/none except training and deployment of pastoral households with the task of large scale vaccination campaigns (use of cash or vouchers for providing such service) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires adequate planning and production of vaccine and support measures to ensure outreach (e.g. by FAO, NGOs) • Vaccinations need to take place before animals are distressed (early stages of alarm phase) |
| 11 | Commercial destocking and slaughter destocking – support livestock marketing system to absorb increased off-take | <p>a. Limited/none except for specific training on improved drying meat and preservation methods</p> <p>b. Support to the construction of abattoirs</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Major arrangements for quality control and for organizing off-take (by traders) required |
| 12 | Livestock redistribution and restocking | a. Limited to specific FFA interventions related to improve animal feed through moisture conservation measures | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Build upon customary livestock redistribution systems |
| 13 | Labour based efforts around settlements and towns | <p>a. De-silting of water points, eradication or control of invaders</p> <p>b. Other labour-based safety nets (context specific)</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activities based on community plans and contingency plans • Requires that safety net programmes are in place and funded • Requires concomitant food assistance support to people unable to work |
| 14 | Collection of dyes and gums | a. FFA to kick start collection | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need partnership to identify market outlets and traders • Quality control required |

| | Description of main intervention areas | Possible FFA | Remarks |
|--|--|---|---|
| C) Post drought/shock recovery phases | | | |
| 15 | Labour-based safety nets integrated with skills training efforts (especially targeted to support pastoral drop outs) | <p>a. FFA to build community or HH assets</p> <p>b. Skills training</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific opportunities linked to trade and provision of services – requires technical support |
| 16 | Establishment of nurseries for fodder multiplication and dry land agro-forestry, including fruit trees | <p>a. FFA for nursery work, transport of seedlings</p> <p>b. Construction of run-on/runoff systems for planting dry land species</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires identification of suitable sites, provision of materials and adequate training • Can become important sources of income generation |
| 17 | Rehabilitation of irrigation schemes | <p>a. FFA for de-silting or constructing main canals, and flood control construction measures</p> <p>b. Diversion systems (spat irrigation, weirs construction etc.)</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technical support for design and water use essential – including user rights of most vulnerable • Major partnership for cropping methods and marketing (e.g. FAO, etc.) required |
| 18 | Major investment targeted to women and poorest households around homestead areas | <p>a. FFA for water harvesting systems</p> <p>b. Agro-forestry</p> <p>c. Skills training</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus around permanent settlements • Integrate these activities into productive safety net programmes |
| 19 | Reclamation of gully networks and marginal lands for water collection and fodder/food crop production | <p>a. FFA for various labour intensive Soil Sedimentation Dams, sand dams, weirs, etc.</p> <p>b. Run-on/runoff systems in degraded areas for crops and increased grass and pasture growth</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technical training required – including major arrangements on use of such lands (community planning) |
| 20 | Development of trade and market centres for livestock and other pastoral land products | <p>a. Limited role for FFA</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High priority as complementary effort from partners |

Note: This table is only indicative as several of the above listed interventions can also occur in other phases, or they can partially overlap. For most of these interventions a key aspect to consider is the need for robust partnerships between government stakeholders, communities and partners (NGOs, WFP, other UN agencies, private sector, etc.) on the ground.

1.3.2. Technical aspects related to FFA in pastoral areas

Technical principles for most of the FFA measures are similar to those for agrarian but adapted to arid land contexts and pastoral livelihood systems.

Table 4.3 (at the end of this section) **includes a brief technical description of different FFA activities**, including main purpose and the complementary interventions required to maximize these activities. New techniques will require significant testing before scaling up.

The example below shows how degraded lands have been developed:



Figure 4.18 - Development of degraded and crusted rangelands in arid areas, using water run-on/runoff systems (top).

Small stone bunds placed along the contours on a 1:8-10 ratio between runoff areas and the receiving (run-on) area protected by the stone bund (bottom).

(Niger – Keita Project, FAO/ITA, Photos R. Carucci).



Figure 4.19 - Semi-circular bund constructed in Chumvi Yare, Isiolo district of Kenya, WFP, Photo B. Tefera).



Figure 4.20 - Rock catchment water harvesting scheme (GoK/WFP/WVI, Kenya – WFP, Photo J. Kamunge)

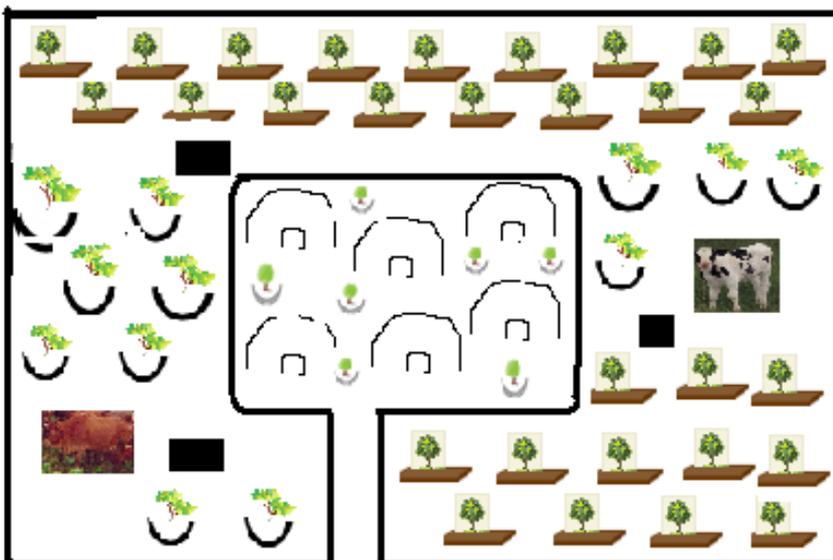


Figure 4.21 - Manyatta (homesteads) agro-forestry intensification plan.

This figure includes trenches and eyebrows for fruit and other multipurpose trees, compost pits, zero grazing for dairy purposes and backyard fodder production.



Figure 4.22 - An oasis basin threatened by siltation from surrounding active dunes (Diffa – Niger).



Figure 4.23 - A sandy area stabilized with *Leptadenia pyrotechnica* and control grazing (Diffa region – Niger, WFP).

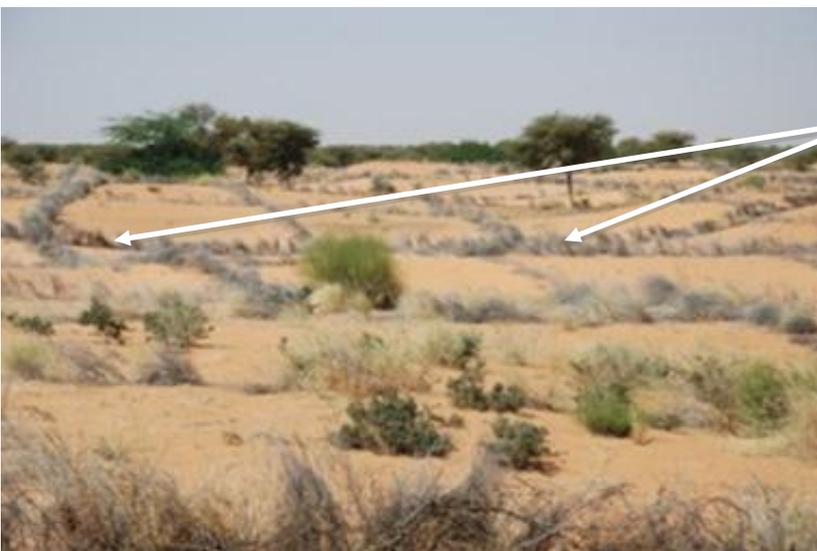


Figure 4.24 - Sand dunes stabilized with dry fences/grids and recently planted with trees (WFP-MOE, Diffa region – Niger, Photo WFP, V. Carucci, WFP).

Useful references for pastoral areas

1. The Horn of Africa Food Security Initiative, 2007. [Country Reports on Multi-Stakeholders Consultations \(Ethiopia, Djibouti, Uganda, Kenya, Somalia, and Eritrea; Summary Report English version; Summary Report French version\)](#)¹¹⁶. A number of these reports include relevant measures for pastoral (but also agrarian) livelihood systems. Field staff are encouraged to read excerpts from these reports as they include semi-detail explanations on specific initiatives for pastoral and agro-pastoral settings.
- 2-A. Ministry of Arid Lands/WFP – Kenya, 2009. [Rainwater Water Harvesting and Management Technologies for arid and semi-arid lands in Kenya](#)¹¹⁷. These include a number of technical design aspects related to specific water harvesting measures for dry zones - suitable for agro-pastoral areas or around permanent pastoral settlements.
- 2-B. Ministry of Arid Lands/WFP – Kenya, 2009. [Rainwater Harvesting and Management Project Planning format in arid and semi-arid lands of Kenya](#).¹¹⁸ This planning manual completes the guideline above and provides the tools necessary to complete a landscape based community plan.
3. Enable Project, 2008. [Pastoralist Livelihoods Initiative \(PLI\) Enabling Afar & Borana Livelihood Efforts](#)¹¹⁹. The PLI main objectives were: (1) to improve the resilience of Borana and Afar’s pastoralist households to predictable emergencies, and (2) to strengthen the local capacity of systems and partnerships among government and local/traditional institutions promoting the resilience of pastoralist livelihoods. The document offers a wide spectrum of possible interventions, many of which require complementary efforts.
4. Rain, 2001. [Guideline: Managing the Water Buffer for Development and Climate Change Adaptation: Groundwater Recharge, Retention, Reuse and Rainwater storage](#).¹²⁰
5. ODI, 2008. [The Pastoral Livelihood Initiative \(PLI\) - Improving drought response in pastoral areas of Ethiopia Somali and Afar Regions and Borana Zone of Oromiya Region](#).¹²¹ The report summarizes the overall experience of the PLI and how it complements other programmes in pastoral regions of Ethiopia.
6. IIED, 2009. [Recherche sur les stratégies d'adaptation des groupes pasteurs de la région de Diffa, Niger oriental](#).¹²² - is an excellent report on pastoral strategies, the mapping of transhumance routes, and outlining a set of response options.
7. [Annex 4a, Rapid technical reference & toolkit for FFA](#). A number of techniques summarized in **Annex 4a** are suitable for dry lands and pastoral/agro-pastoral areas – particularly run-on/runoff systems for agroforestry, fodder production, water harvesting, etc.
8. WOCAT, 2013. [Water Harvesting - Guidelines to Good Practice](#)¹²³- a manual that provides a number of water harvesting techniques applicable in dry lands.
9. IIRR. 2002. [Managing Dryland Resources – A manual for Eastern and Southern Africa](#).¹²⁴

¹¹⁶ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp237798.pdf.

¹¹⁷ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/communications/wfp237792.pdf>.

¹¹⁸ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp237992.pdf.

¹¹⁹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/communications/wfp237793.pdf>.

¹²⁰ Available at: http://bebuffered.com/downloads/3R_managing_the_water_buffer_2010.pdf.

¹²¹ Available at: www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/2043.pdf.

¹²² Available at: <http://pubs.iied.org/pdfs/G02725.pdf>.

¹²³ Available at: www.wocat.net/fileadmin/user_upload/documents/Books/WaterHarvesting_lowresolution.pdf.

¹²⁴ Available at: www.preventionweb.net/files/7981_DrylandResourcesbk.pdf.

TABLE 4.3 - Technical description of key FFA interventions in arid and semi-arid areas (across livelihood zones)

1. Rehabilitating arid/semi-arid lands - water harvesting and climate-proof soil conservation measures¹²⁵

| Measure | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|--|--|--|---|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Runoff farming using conduits and micro/macro catchments to convey runoff into productive cultivated units (e.g. using trapezoidal and circular bunds, soil and/or stone-faced structures with runoff plots, large half-moons, etc.) | Individual HH and/or groups (5-20 av.) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can be implemented in arid areas (with rainfall as low as 250-300 mm/year) and support cropping of food, fodder and tree crops Reduced crop failure risks and availability of fodder/residues for animal feed New income and opportunities for poorest HHs, including women groups Resilience building, environmental protection and adaptation to climate change | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need significant technical support Need control grazing arrangements (not possible in some pastoral and other areas) Not possible in highly transhumant systems unless solid clan and inter-clan arrangements are made (no control over rehabilitated areas) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved cropping methods & drought resistant varieties In some areas requires mechanized support (e.g. ripper) to break hard pans Hay making and cut and carry Tree/fodder and cash crops planting along structures Can be integrated with large scale catchment protection/rehab. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> High at initial stages Technical support needed from technical sectors' technicians (e.g. water experts, agriculture, forestry, livestock) Training in runoff farming required Training of NRM groups in management of rehabilitated areas, grazing arrangements, maintenance of specific assets and management of vegetative species, etc. | <p>Risks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Medium-low Design and construction problems may generate a chain reaction of consecutive breaches on terraces, soil bunds, etc.) <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Design standards matching max. rainfall intensities (10-20 years/return) Awareness training Staggered structures placement, attention to compaction and/or stone-facing/masonry Vegetative stabilization and setting up of NRM management groups Integration with specific upstream watershed treatment |

¹²⁵ These measures apply for the growth of food crops, rehabilitation and enhancements of pastures, tree planting for agro-forestry or stabilization purposes, etc.

1. Rehabilitating arid/semi-arid lands - water harvesting and climate-proof soil conservation measures¹²⁵

| Measure | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|---------------------------|---|--|--|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Soil & Sedimentation and overflow dams (SSD) across large gully networks Percolation ponds | Individual HHs and groups | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rehabilitation of large gullies for crops, horticulture and forestry development Replenishment of water tables Multipurpose uses Uses in-situ construction materials Resilience building, environmental protection and adaptation to climate change | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires thorough supervision and trained staff at initial stages of the technology SSD not suitable in sandy and sodic soils | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A variety of cash or fodder crops Construction of shallow wells Can create new jobs as trained HHs can be hired to construct such structures for others HHs Fertility management of rehabilitated plots | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sufficient technical expertise (e.g. agriculture and water engineers) <p style="text-align: center;">And</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training and supervision required until local capacity is sufficient General overview and support from the Chief Engineer (WFP Engineering unit) may be required | <p>Risks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> High-medium Can collapse if not properly designed and constructed <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Application of robust design standards Reinforced spillways Partial catchment protection and stabilization Frequent checks on structure stability after rains Group formation for management of SSD |

1. Rehabilitating arid/semi-arid lands - water harvesting and climate-proof soil conservation measures¹²⁵

| Measure | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|-------------------------------------|---|--|---|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Diversion weirs, spate irrigation, percolation structures . Sand dams | Individual HHs and groups/community | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Same as above and requires significant investment in construction materials | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Requires significant engineering technical expertise | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . A variety of cash or fodder crops . Environmental protection (e.g. flood control, replenishment of aquifers, etc.) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Trained engineers required in most cases unless traditional know-how is available (e.g. for spate irrigation) . General overview from the Chief Engineer (WFP Engineering unit) is required. | <p>Risks:</p> <p>High-medium</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . For spate irrigation if not designed to accommodate high peaks of runoff discharge from large catchment areas . Contamination & pollutants diverted into cropped areas <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . High Technical Engineering Standards & screening . Catchment protection . Management group formation for water use and mgt . Awareness training on protection and use |

1. Rehabilitating arid/semi-arid lands - water harvesting and climate-proof soil conservation measures¹²⁵

| Measure | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|--|--|---|---|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Run-on/runoff systems for silvo-pastoral sites development (e.g. narrow stone lines or semi-permeable structures along ranges with minimum disturbance, stone faced bunds with 1:5-10 run-on/runoff ratio in extreme dry areas, combinations of trenches-stone lines, etc.) | Groups and community (with individual benefits output) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reclaims degraded ranges and pasture environments using different measures based on slopes and type of soils New income and opportunities for poorest HHs Replenish water tables (especially trench systems) Creation of dyes and gums/resins sanctuaries Can empower large women groups Resilience building, environmental protection and adaptation to climate change | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In some areas requires mechanized support (e.g. ripper) to break hard pans Nursery development or supply of planting material required Adequate tools (e.g. crow bars, pick axes, etc.) for difficult terrains Can be complemented by infiltration pits and shallow wells along depression points / break (line) of slope Conditioning of planting pits required in very depleted soils | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training of staff in rainfall systems for arid land forestry Provision of adequate tools Establishment of nurseries or supply of seedlings Training in seedling handling and site management | <p>Risks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low – e.g. potential overgrazing of damage to rehabilitated areas <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Community and inter-community agreements Setting up of grazing periods by user committees represented by different user groups Cut and carry fodder collection practices Planting of high value dry land trees along contours for further stabilization and value addition Organization of tree user's groups (e.g. for fruits, dyes and gums) Yearly or seasonal growth quality checks and adjustment of users bylaws |

1. Rehabilitating arid/semi-arid lands - water harvesting and climate-proof soil conservation measures¹²⁵

| Measure | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|--|--|--|---|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low cost micro-ponds (90-120 cubic meters) | Individual HHs and/or small groups (max 5) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can be implemented within or adjacent to a homestead Enables to prolong the growing season of specific horticulture crops Access to water for small livestock kept near homes Can support most destitute HH and women HH Support IGA Resilience building at individual/HH level | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Water usually sufficient for small plots and as supplementary irrigation Cost per HH relatively high as requires UV resistant geo-membrane, excavation and coating (membrane welding) costs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Small scale irrigation and cash crops production (less/non-perishable crops) Low-cost drip irrigation Micro-enterprise development Livestock fattening Apiculture and bee-keeping Provision of mosquito nets – malaria control | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> High (technical support from water experts key) General overview and support from the Chief Engineer (WFP Engineering unit) may be required Cement or plastic lining required (including skilled masons for cement) Training on micro-ponds construction key | <p>Risks: Low (small structures) except health related issues (unsafe drinking if used for that purpose without filtering and boiling and possible malaria breeding)</p> <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shading (only circular micro-ponds) with mats required to reduce evaporation and malaria breeding Fencing to avoid accidents Awareness training on WASH and protection |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stone lined extraction wells (water 5-10 m depth) | Individual HHs and/or small group of HHs (max 5) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Near homesteads or in specific reclaimed areas under catchment protection Small scale irrigation (continuous) Major asset for women HH and poorest HH | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Suitable in locations with water table close to the surface May trigger conflict if not accessible to other HHs at times of water scarcity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Benefits from integrated approach (e.g. above measures) <p style="text-align: center;">And</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> same as above Stones required for lining (cement lining expensive) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training | <p>Risks: Low (same as above)</p> <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above although shading is easier compared to micro-ponds |

1. Rehabilitating arid/semi-arid lands - water harvesting and climate-proof soil conservation measures¹²⁵

| Measure | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|--|---|--|---|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Irrigation schemes (creation of new schemes or rehabilitation of damaged ones) | Groups and community (with individual benefits output) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exploit potential sites along main rivers Can provide significant food security to farming HHs and agro-pastoralists engaged in agriculture Can create food supply zones and grow fodder and provide crop residues and fodder to pastoralists at times of drought Resilience building and environmental protection when offsetting depletion of natural resources for meeting food needs and integrated with agroforestry Can be used for nursery development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technically complex Many potential areas could be at high risk of floods Some soils may not be suitable for cultivation (e.g. prone to salinization) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Agro-forestry sites development Large scale fodder production and preservation enterprises development Windbreaks Low-cost drip irrigation Large-scale apiculture Cooperatives formation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need significant technical support (water, soil and irrigation experts) Market analysis key Training of communities and group formation (water users associations) required Tenure aspects key General overview and support from the Chief Engineer (WFP Engineering unit) may be required (particularly for new and/or large scale schemes). | <p>Risks: High</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Flooding for sites located near major flooding prone areas/ rivers) Salinization Destruction of forest/vegetat. cover (e.g. command area) <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thorough technical appraisal (soil/water quality analysis, type of irrigation method, cropping system, and water use, etc.) and proper risk mitigation measures in place such as protection dykes, diversion structures. Awareness training on water mgt. and equitable sharing of plots (gender aspects) Correct selection of type of crops and rotations, as well as soil conditioning efforts as required (e.g. application of compost, lime, etc.) |

1. Rehabilitating arid/semi-arid lands - water harvesting and climate-proof soil conservation measures¹²⁵

| Measure | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|-------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sand dune stabilization and rehabilitation of depression areas (e.g. the oasis basins or 'cuvettes oasiennes') threatened by sand dunes encroachment and soil degradation | Community and HH groups | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Protect many of these small but essential production units (pastoral or agro-pastoral) from being destroyed Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technically complex and requiring multiple and well integrated, sequenced activities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> With collection and use of local species for dry fencing and tree planting on dunes Planting of outer tree belts to protect the basin from accumulation of sediments Buffer of windbreaks Management of planted areas and control grazing Horticulture and water lifting systems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Community planning essential Training in sand dune stabilization, sequencing and management aspects Group formation Tenure aspects between users of the basin and those cultivating outside | <p>Risks: Medium</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wrong selection of species for stabiliz. which can become invaders Salinization problems by over-extraction of water and poor irrigation techniques Poorly spaced tree planting that result in sand encroach. <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proper design and sequence of stabilization grids and planting of trees Soil and water analysis – including extraction volumes Selection of native species for stabiliz. or species with consolidated history of performing well in sand dune/oasis contexts Control of existing invaders Awareness training |

2: Arid land forestry development, including the establishment and management of nurseries

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establishment of community nurseries to support the activities listed above (water harvesting etc.) and NRM Establishment of individual and small group nurseries for multi-purpose tree, shrubs and cash crops production (focus on homesteads in permanent settlements) Nurseries developed around riverine areas to supply irrigation schemes with specific seedlings | <p>Individual HHs and/or small groups of HHs</p> <p>Highly suitable for women HHs</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased IGA opportunities Resilience building and environmental protection Support from forestry dept. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Availability of planting materials major obstacle for expansion | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nursery tools and nursery management training Fruit trees and other species seeds and planting materials handling (grafting, seeds scarification, soaking, pruning, etc.) Apiculture and small animal fattening from nursery residues Compost making | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training in nursery management, seeds and planting materials handling Provision of tools Training in other complementary activities | <p>Risks:</p> <p>None (except selection of species that may be unsuitable from an environmental perspective – e.g. alien trees or shrubs that may become invaders)</p> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seed and planting materials collection of specific plants for dry lands forestry, aerial pasture, stabilization, etc. | <p>Individual HHs and/or small groups of HHs</p> <p>Highly suitable for women HHs</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preservation of indigenous species Environmental conservation | N/A | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seed sorting and collection techniques Green fencing Seed preservation Seed markets | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training | <p>Risks:</p> <p>Low (e.g. care in handling thorny or toxic plants)</p> <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Awareness training |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area enclosure – limited periods until growth is ensured | Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Environmental protection Pasture availability Possibility to apply for carbon credits | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forms of controlled grazing required Community level agreements needed first | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tree planting using runoff systems (see sections 1 and 2 above) Cut and carry systems and fodder production / reserves | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training on fodder preservation and pasture enrichment | <p>Risks:</p> <p>Low (fire)</p> <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Firebreaks Awareness training |

2: Arid land forestry development, including the establishment and management of nurseries

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|---------------|--|---|---|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Dry and green fencing of individual portions of silvopastoral sites for groups and individual investment efforts using local species (euphorbia, sisal, etc.) | Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Improved tenure and investment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Complement area closure or groups' pasture areas under controlled grazing systems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Handling of vegetative materials · Community planning | <p>Risks: Low</p> <p>Mitigation: same as above</p> |

3: Control and exploitation of invaders

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|---|--|---|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Conservation based approach for controlling tree/shrubs invaders such as <i>Prosopis juliflora</i> · Pods collection and processing for animal feed (in mixes) · Pruning and selective charcoal making using <i>Prosopis sp.</i> | Individual HHs and/or small groups of HHs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Income generation · Control vs. eradication of species | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Difficult to harness thorny plants without proper tools | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Improvement of pastures · Availability of animal feed · Possible commercialization | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Training and provision of tools (hooks and machetes, eyes protection goggles) | <p>Risks: Medium</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Total removal may cause soil erosion if large areas are cleared without protection measures <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Removal followed by erosion control measures as required and tree planting (+/- structures) |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Control and eradication of invasive plants and weeds (e.g. <i>Sida cordifolia</i>) | Group of HHs and Communities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Free up areas lost for pasture · Increase animal feed · Lower pressure on other pastures | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Need two phases or more – require basic tools and strong community mobilization | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · As above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Awareness creation, organization and deals with land users | <p>Risks: Low</p> <p>Mitigation: same as above</p> |

4: Homestead & Settlements Development

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|--|---|---|--|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Dry land forestry (including fruit trees, dyes and gums trees and cash crops) using runoff systems around homesteads · Fodder belts (backyard plantations) · Multipurpose trenches for growth of fruit trees, fodder and valuable species · Zai and/or 'Tassa' moisture and soil conservation systems · Multi-layered agro-forestry · Strip cropping in tie ridges for home gardens · Medicinal plants (e.g. <i>Neem</i>, <i>Artemisia</i>, etc.) · Fuel saving stoves enterprises | <p>Individual HHs and/or small groups of HHs</p> <p>Highly suitable for women HH</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Direct impact at HH level · Reduction of hardships · Income generation and saving · Direct control and easier management of rehabilitated areas · Can be demonstrated to many households · Empowers women · Can be done as a form of solidarity effort targeted to destitute able to manage assets (as opposed to establish assets) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Need integrated approach which is not always possible in arid areas · Inter and intra household dynamics need to be addressed · Initial stages require considerable follow-up | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Complemented by water harvesting (e.g. micro-ponds, shallow wells, roof-water harvesting, drip irrigation, etc.) · Compost making key · Training in food storage and preservation · Apiculture · Establishment of small selling points | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Training required as 'basic packages' · In each community group formation and small group creation required (3-5 groups of 4-5 women or vulnerable HH each) · Training in basic saving, book keeping and micro-enterprise development (groups of women) | <p>Risks:</p> <p>Low- Medium</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Water borne diseases in stagnating water of ponds when implemented as complementary activity <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Shading (only circular micro-ponds) with mats to reduce evaporation and malaria breeding · Fencing to avoid accidents · Awareness training (e.g WASH) |

5: Productive skills enhancement

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training of community members in Community Conversation for HIV/AIDS mainstreaming and anti-stigma and sensitization | <p>Small groups of HHs with minimum literacy</p> <p>Highly suitable for women</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sustainability Livelihoods diversification Empowerment of marginalized groups | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires specialized trainers Cultural barriers in specific pastoral settings | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> With social advancement skills, gender training, participatory planning approaches, etc. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Specialized staff and training | N/A |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training in Water Harvesting & Conservation skills in dry lands, including on management of irrigation schemes (e.g. equitable sharing of plots and water use, land use rights and compensation aspects if any) | <p>Individual HHs and/or small groups of HHs</p> | Same as above | <p>Need specialized expertise from technical ministries and engagement with specific authorities (gvt and traditional) dealing with water and land use rights</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linked to all above activities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above | <p>Risks: Low-Medium</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Poor training may result in low quality standards and damage or lack of sense of ownership due to unequal land and water use rights <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> High quality staff required to produce modules/deliver training Regular follow-up budgeted Educational incentives and study tours Monitoring system embeds NRM indicators |

| 5: Productive skills enhancement | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training pastoralists in principles and modalities of range management, design, layout and construction of run-on/runoff systems | Groups of HHs | Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires specialized expertise | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linked to all above activities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above General overview and support from the Chief Engineer (WFP Engineering unit) may be required | <p>Risks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above |

5: Productive skills enhancement

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|--|--|---|---|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rangeland mapping and community action planning with customary pastoral institutions | <p>Groups of households</p> <p>Community</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved planning Assist in conflict resolution and resting of degraded pastures for regeneration | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supports conflict resolution efforts / plans Can be integrated with other SWC measures for pasture development Controlled grazing | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above | <p>Risks: Low-Medium</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Agreements may not be respected as not binding, or seen as not equitable by different groups, or unrealistic. This can result in overgrazing, competition over scarce resources and potential tensions (e.g. cattle raiding, etc.) <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adequate level of representation between groups (e.g. status of different groups involved, leaders, etc.) Setting of specific bylaws and clear mechanisms for enforcement of the agreements. Agree on measures able to offset tensions during periods of shocks and controlled grazing. |

5: Productive skills enhancement

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|---|---|---|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Training of women HH in gum arabic collection . Support replanting <i>acacia Senegal</i> and <i>acacia Seyal</i> and other gum producing trees | Women HH Youth and other vulnerable groups | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Income generation activities . Resilience building . Protection of dry land forest sanctuaries . Protection and sustainable management of rehabilitated plantation sites | N/A | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Arid land forestry using SWC measures . Setting up of IGAs . Commercialization opportunities (e.g. creation of gum producer associations and value chains) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Training on maximizing gum production . Selection of high yielding varieties . Training on specific SWC measures able to support tree planting in drier areas | <p>Risks: Low</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Trees management plans not adhered to and prevalence tree cutting <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Community awareness and group formation for improved storage and commercialization of gum arabic . Creation of women and youth associations . Contracts with private sector (e.g. food industries, etc.) |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Training in SLM/NRM for rehabilitated areas . Training on IGAs linked to NRM, e.g.: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fruit trees and other species seeds and planting materials handling and marketing - Grafting and management of high value trees (near homesteads where water is available) and produce marketing - Beekeeping and value chain development - Fodder production | Same as above | Same as above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . High skilled expertise required | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Same as above and with activities highlighted in point 4 above | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Requires technical expertise familiar with arid and semi-arid land management (largely related to a number of the above and previous sections) . Capacity to create IGA groups essential for this set of efforts | <p>Risks: Low</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Rehabilitated areas not able to generate benefits as per their potential (underutilization) <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Agreements developed at planning and implementation stages with cooperating partners or private sector to develop skills and provide equipment for IGA . Land/tree tenure arrangements |

6: 'Overhauling' of community assets for productive uses

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|--|--|--|---|---|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . De-silting and deepening of existing pans/ponds . Application of clay blankets at the bottom of ponds for seepage control . Construction of embankments protecting wells (water deflection) . Construction of silt traps before water ponds/pans . Fencing of water pan/pond area . Small vegetable production area adjacent pans/ponds . Apiculture around pans/ponds . Fish production in deeper water pans | <p>Women groups and vulnerable HH groups</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Converts communal assets into multipurpose and groups-managed assets . Resilience building . Environmental protection of water points . Limited contamination . Introduction of IGAs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Water pans far from settlements not suitable . Community agreements required . High level technical expertise required for specific activities (e.g. fish production) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Support from machinery . Integrated water points management . In aquaculture - need for fish nursery and fingerlings, provision of nets and materials, preservation techniques and follow-up . Fencing and protection . Community awareness | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Community awareness training regarding fencing and protection requirements, land use and water use rights, and specific training related to hygiene and safety . Setting of bylaws agreed by all groups | <p>Risks: Low</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Relate to poorly implemented works that may result in ineffective assets <p>Mitigation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Adherence to high quality standards and integration of different measures . Others include a number of measures related to the establishment of partnerships, including with the private sector . Establishment of specific tenure arrangements and training on water mgt. aspects (e.g. WASH) |

7: Low tech/low risk measures (support to other assets) (*)

| Measures | Target groups | Main advantages | Limitations | Complementarities | Capacity building requirements | Environmental risks & mitigation |
|---|---------------------------------------|--|------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|---|
| . Stone collection for feeder road repairs or other structures | Women groups and vulnerable HH groups | . Supplementary measures | . Limited impact at HH level | . Complementary to several activities (roads, water harvesting, etc.) | . N/A | N/A |
| . Stone shaping and/or brick making | Vulnerable groups | . IGA | . Specific tools required | . Same as above | . N/A | N/A |
| . Manure collection for Farm Yard Manure (FYM) applications and/or compost making | Same as above | . Complementary to zai pits . Activity that can become an entrepreneurship - i.e. compost makers as service providers | . Cultural barriers | . Organic farming in marginal areas . Reclamation of crusted soils using zai, tassa, etc. . Homestead development | . N/A | N/A |
| . Manuring of planting pits (forestry in degraded areas) | Same as above | . Support forestry and IGAs at homestead level | . Same as above | . Same as above | . N/A | N/A |
| . Others | - | - | - | - | - | - |

(*) These activities are also suitable during emergencies and early recovery stages and/or when local capacities are low or not available

2. Technical Design of FFA in Tropical, Sub-Tropical and Wet & Moist Highland Areas

2.1. Introduction

This section is applied to a number of countries or parts of countries with sub-tropical climate and/or receiving higher rainfall that may require food assistance through FFA – for example countries or regions as follows:

1. Countries with a significant past history of food insecurity and land degradation caused by conflict, high population rates, and/or with a significant proportion of mountainous or hilly and degraded topography. For example Rwanda, Burundi, Malawi, DRC, Nepal, Madagascar, Peru, Guatemala, Honduras, Sierra Leone, Liberia, parts of Ethiopia and Zimbabwe, Haiti, etc.
2. Some of the countries with the above characteristics with the aggravating factor of being affected by cyclones or hurricanes (e.g. Haiti, Madagascar, Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, the Philippines, etc.)
3. Countries or parts of countries with both wet and dry seasons and have one or more of the characteristics mentioned in 1 and 2.

With regards to livelihoods, increased population rates and fragmentation of landholdings push farmers to cope with stresses through selling timber, making charcoal and sometimes hunting wildlife. Increasingly smaller farm plots are insufficient to provide all year round produce and income, and forces poor farmers to encroach steeper slopes or areas unsuitable for cultivation. The deforestation problems that occur along entire mountain ranges are not only a major risk to local livelihoods but also bear potentially dire consequences to the downstream populations. **As a result, landslides are common in tropical and sub-tropical areas.**

A major point worth noting is that hunger and the deterioration of food security are less evident in some of these environments, **where the association of 'green and high rainfall areas' and hunger is not usually made.** It is also true that compared to arid and semi-arid zones, in tropical and subtropical areas there is a greater coexistence of people who make a decent or good living and many others who do not – therefore concealing these problems.

Finally, the loss of precious biodiversity in these contexts is a collective concern as tropical and subtropical environments are the major sanctuaries of biodiversity in the world. The fact that a number of these environments are currently food insecure and have significantly undernourished populations illustrates the rapid deterioration of their bio-physical potential, seriously undermining the current and future socio-economic fabric of these societies. This could affect entire countries and ecosystems in the longer term – leading to displacement, irreversible environmental damage and high exposure to rapid onset shocks (e.g. cyclones).

2.2 Recognizing Key Biophysical and Climatic Features

2.2.1. In terms of cropping seasons

Areas with higher agricultural production (with the exception in high altitudes) and can potentially recover much faster than in semi-arid lands after a climatic shock. Crop production can increase, with the possible use of irrigation, adequate land management techniques, double cropping, and the introduction of improved crop varieties. Aspects to consider will relate to cropping practices such as plough or hoe cultures, livestock (e.g. oxen) used for cropping, cropping patterns (single,

double or mixed cropping systems), soil fertility management practices, and the control of pests and diseases.

2.2.2. In terms of biophysical conditions

Tropical and sub-tropical areas usually have a higher content of organic matter than semi-arid lands, especially when well vegetated – soils have generally better infiltration rates, with aquifers at much deeper distances and with higher moisture retention capacities. However, local conditions such as warm temperatures, high rainfall and particular soil types (e.g. red soils rich in iron) can lead to a rapid acidification of local soils when vegetation is removed and organic matter is depleted during exploitative cultivation practices. For example, when crop residues are all removed or burnt, where there is limited or no application of manure/compost, and when there is a lack of proper crop management (e.g. shortening of crop rotation, and shifting to mono-cropping, etc.).

Moreover, when vegetation is removed soil erosion can become very severe, as deeper soils are dissected generating gullies. Poorly managed landscapes have a variety of patterns depending on their soil structure and the force of water runoff. This makes the rehabilitation of such lands a difficult as well as a costly exercise.

2.2.3. Implications for rehabilitation

The rehabilitation of steep and mountainous degraded tropical environments requires intensive vegetative support, well integrated with activities such as tree, shrubs and grass planting. Additionally, grass species need to be selected and planted based on the local agro-ecological system and people's preferences. In these environments, vegetation strips can be more effective and cheaper than physical barriers. However, physical measures (always integrated with biological and vegetative measures) may be also required and relevant to stabilize:

- Steep terrains (usually with a slope above 30%) to support the establishment of vegetative barriers during initial stages, when they are unable to slowdown runoff and soil erosion
- Steep terrains where control grazing is problematic and physical barriers integrated with tree planting are crucial to protect downstream fields and to divert excess runoff
- Areas where physical structures are needed for water-dependent crops (e.g. rice)
- Areas with steep and degraded slopes – e.g. those showing high disparity of soils and soil depth, limited fertility, etc. - need both physical structures and trees/shrubs planting, and controlled grazing of livestock
- In any other area where farmers decide that gully control measures across valley bottoms or protection dikes are required to reclaim degraded lands and protect their cultivated fields, homesteads or villages.

Note: Problems of hunger and associated ecosystem degradation are deceitful in these areas as portions of these areas (e.g. those that are not degraded) continue to produce sufficient crops. In reality, once erosion starts seriously affecting these environments it is often difficult to return to a satisfactory level of production as many red soils typically present in such contexts tend to become acidic and unproductive. Eroded landscapes can generate uncontrolled floods capable to destroy downstream areas. In some countries it may include threatening centuries of investments in downstream floodplains management (e.g. Sri Lanka).

2.3. Technical strategies for FFA in Tropical/Sub-Tropical Areas

Many of the key elements identified for the semi-arid and arid areas apply in tropical and sub-tropical environments (e.g. soil conservation, protection of infrastructure, integration, water and fertility management, etc.).

2.3.1. Main features

The type of FFA interventions will be selected for their capacity to improve the following aspects:

- i) Protection of existing vegetative cover:** Through the sound management of existing vegetation and/or through the reforestation and/or enrichment plantation with multipurpose trees, shrubs and grasses/legume along conservation structures, homesteads, crop fields, farm boundaries, gullies and degraded hillsides.
- ii) Management of water resources:** Through improved drainage, waterlogged areas and valley bottom¹²⁶ reclamation, protection and development of irrigation, water diversion for productive uses, water storage and utilization, etc.
- iii) Homestead productivity intensification:** Particularly for farmers that are landless or land poor but have the possibility to grow crops around their homes, and/or manage/become land-use sharers of rehabilitated or reclaimed areas.
- iv) Construction, maintenance and protection of community feeder roads:** More resistant and environmentally friendly feeder roads designed with sufficient capacity to evacuate excess runoff (outwards cross slope, lateral drains, scour checks, causeways, culverts, etc.) and measures such stabilizing sloping lands, placing retaining structures, gravelled pavement, etc.
- v) Biomass production and recycling:** Biomass production can be significantly enhanced – e.g. through tree nurseries and grass multiplication centres, introducing vegetative barriers or combination of hedgerows and physical structures, reforestation, and multi-storey agroforestry systems. Biomass recycling through composting and use of crop residues (mulching, etc.) offers considerable opportunities for increased fertility management and complement other activities such as terraces and irrigations schemes development. However, degraded and/or steep slopes in areas hit by high powered tropical storms and cyclones are difficult to stabilize and often need a combination of re-vegetation schemes backed by robust physical structures - e.g. eyebrow basins and trenches, and runoff diversion systems (i.e. cut-off drains).

In terms of specific interventions, the selection and design of FFA activities and their integration should be based on what problems need to be fixed and on key technical aspects that represent the key challenges faced in these areas, namely, the need to:

- i) Manage excess runoff** through watershed rehabilitation and measures such as cut-off drains and waterways, dikes, and reforestation. This is particularly important in highly degraded areas and those at high risk of being affected by tropical storms and cyclones.
- ii) Manage excess rainfall in waterlogging prone areas** through improved drainage techniques – e.g. establishing graded systems (e.g. graded bunds and terraces) complementary

¹²⁶ Specific permanent or seasonally valley bottom waterlogged areas are very important habitats for specific fauna or regulatory mechanisms for replenishment of aquifers and source of freshwater, or source of pasture during droughts for specific groups. The systematic conversion of valley bottoms and natural swamps into arable lands for specific commercial plantations, for example, can lead to disastrous consequences in terms of availability of fresh water for local populations and local farming (e.g. rice).

to the introduction of waterlogging tolerant crops and several other water management measures.

- iii) Invest in reforestation of degraded areas and around homesteads.** These activities play an important role in preventing negative coping strategies such as cutting down forest areas and the encroachment of steep slopes for cultivation. The need to have significant planting material available for reforestation and biological measures (seeds, cuttings, seedlings, etc.), demands that nurseries are established or expand their seedling/planting material production.
- iv) Utilize or develop irrigation potential** following an integrated area rehabilitation approach. Untapped resources can be used by capturing and storing excess runoff, improve water users' capacity to expand and diversify crops (e.g. support FAO in training programmes), etc.
- v) Ensure high standards of design, implementation and regular maintenance of community access roads and feeder roads (see also section 7.3).** To the extent possible these activities need to be well integrated with other land management works.

Overall, different biological and physical measures should be integrated to complement each other effectively to significantly reduce erosion and increase production levels. Participatory watershed planning and applying robust technical standards is often the key to enable the rehabilitation of these areas where increasing production can happen faster (when compared to dry lands).

2.3.2. Technical Strategies

Technical strategies need to consider the concomitance of:

- **Abundant and often excessive rainfall**, and
- **One or more of the negative factors that affect food security and access to food in particular.** Amongst these negative factors: severe erosion levels and deforested steep slopes, landslides, increased population pressure and small plots (fragmentation), and episodes of conflicts between communities (e.g. between those located downstream and are affected by floods, and those upstream which cause damage due to poor management of slopes and cutting of vegetation/overgrazing).

As a result, FFA interventions may contribute to:

- Improved water management and moisture storage capacity for crops, forage and trees, thus reducing risk of waterlogging in the rainy season and water shortage during the dry season(s)
- Control soil erosion using vegetative and/or a combination of physical and biological methods
- Safe evacuation of excess runoff through improved drainage and water collection systems
- Conserve soil, increase infiltration rates/moisture retention capacity, and improve soil fertility
- Preserve and augment biomass production (fodder, food and tree crops)
- Collect and store additional water for livestock and domestic uses
- New irrigation schemes in areas where high value crop cultivation/multiple cropping is possible
- Protect irrigation schemes and optimize use of water, particularly during the dry/lean season¹²⁷
- Enable farmers to adopt effective lean season livelihood enhancement strategies
- Protect forests and vegetation in fragile lands – alternatively, improvement of vegetation cover through reforestation and vegetative stabilization measures
- Support re-vegetating farm boundaries, homesteads, road sides, and stream banks to increase biomass production, and recycling of part of this biomass to improve soil fertility
- Establish nurseries and multiplication of planting materials (for crops, fodder, and trees)

¹²⁷ Subtropical environments can have an abundant rainy season followed by a relatively long dry spell or season, particularly in specific mountainous environments

- Protect valuable infrastructure such as roads, schools, health facilities and villages or dwellings exposed to landslides, mudflows and flash floods
- Ensure that community access/feeder roads and related infrastructure are built/rehabilitated to withstand long rainy seasons and rainstorms
- Stabilize and protect landslide prone areas with tree planting and other stabilization measures
- Stabilize active gullies and ravines with vegetative and/or biophysical measures.

There are four main contexts to consider – namely (i) Steep and/or Mountainous terrains, (ii) High Altitude Mountain Ranges with Snow Caps and Melting Cycles, and Long Dry Seasons, (iii) Dense forests, and (iv) Gently sloping terrains with flood plains. The following main technical strategies are a few of what is possible within these two contexts:

(i) Steep and/or Mountainous Terrains

Description: Mountainous and steep terrains which are degraded, in high rainfall areas (tropics and subtropics), with high population densities, severe or moderate deforestation and erosion, and frequent or occasional landslides. FFA activities can include:

- Plantation of steep slopes using direct planting or structures such as eyebrow basis and reinforced trenches (e.g. on stony and shallow soils)
- Semi-permeable stone bunds
- Landslide protection on steep slopes (inter-woven plugs and ravine head cut stabilization, etc.)
- Cut-off drains and waterways combined with gully control or storage of collected runoff
- Grass strips and hedgerows of multipurpose grass and legume shrubs along contours, or on graded bunds and terraces
- Re-modelling of deep soils (e.g. China loess plateau bench terraces, Rwanda *terraces radicales*, etc.) for bench terracing and cultivation of high value crops (e.g. rice, bananas, etc.)
- Homestead plantations using multi-storey agro-forestry systems, compost making, water cisterns, fuel efficient stoves
- Nursery establishment for cash crops and timber/fodder trees, planting material multiplication
- Feeder roads of lower width (e.g. 4 meters with side drainage) with a sufficient number of culverts and side drainage – to the extent possible feeder roads covered with gravel (e.g. *laterite* materials) and stone slabs (in portions of the road most exposed to potential excess runoff, reinforced stone shoulders on turns, etc.)
- Protection structures above roads prone to landslides (runoff breaks, gully plugs and check dams on small gullies, vegetative belts, grids, etc.)
- Integrated gully control with the possibility to convert gully lands into highly productive units (using Soil Sedimentation and Overflow dams, large gully check dams, re-vegetation, etc.)
- Water reservoirs, silt traps, fish ponds, irrigation schemes development and protection.

Highlights from this section: technical strategies in wet/moist areas are diverse, depending on rainfall, soils and topography - but largely apply to agrarian systems. Some of the world's most difficult landscapes to rehabilitate are in these environments (e.g. Nepal, Rwanda, Burundi, etc.).

Higher rainfall usually implies greater opportunities to increase vegetation cover and accumulate water for productive uses. Critical to building resilience against economic and climate shocks in these areas will be to stabilize community and market infrastructure, particularly in unstable terrains, and integrate biological and physical structures in de-vegetated and erosion prone slopes.

Complementary partners and community efforts are essential to strengthen, consolidate and upgrade FFA activities – e.g. the provision of specific inputs, plant varieties, technical training, value-chains development, and support to address land tenure issues.

Examples: FFA on steep slopes

(1) Agro-forestry systems on steep slopes



Figure 4.25 - Agro-forestry systems on steep slopes. Soil bunds are visible in between small plots of cultivated fields. On upper parts of the hillside scattered trees protect patches of less stable ground (Burundi – Photo WFP, V. Carucci, WFP). Small heaps of compost visible in lower parts of the fields.



(2) Community Forestry with Household Benefits



Figure 4.26 - Community forest managed using selective cutting and rotation. Community forest managed using selective cutting and rotation (Ethiopia, Chench district, MOA/WFP, MERET programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

Fields and road infrastructure downstream are protected from heavy rains.

(3) Deforested and cultivated steep slopes treated with terraces and vegetative stabilization (Haiti)



Figure 4.27 - Deforested and cultivated steep slopes treated.

Small stepped terracing on steep slopes stabilized with Napier grass (left) (World Bank Project – Haiti).

Stabilized terraces with dense plantation of grasses – worth noting the presence of scattered trees (below).

Note

It is important to avoid that more unstable slopes are deforested and then terraced for cultivation. These measures need to be carefully planned and support reforestation or agro-forestry as a transition to reforestation.



(4) Community forest rehabilitation on slopes and terraced fields downstream



Figure 4.28 - Mixed plantations and bench terraces (lower side of the watershed) after 20 years (Ethiopia, MOA/WFP, MERET programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

(5) Effective vegetative fences around homesteads



Figure 4.29 - Grevillea robusta trees, bananas, and fodder shrubs planted behind a thick fence of finger-euphorbia (Burundi – traditional system). Such systems can be replicated by supporting the establishment of community or groups’ nurseries – e.g. for the multiplication of vegetative cuttings, fruit trees and multipurpose tree species (Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

(6) Access roads in difficult escarpments



Figure 4.30 - Road protection systems – side drains and runoff control systems for major tree planting and stabilization built above the constructed road in high rainfall areas (high/medium altitude) – (MERET, Amhara region of Ethiopia, MOA/WFP, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

(7) Detail of paved road flooded by heavy rains



Figure 4.31 - Road temporarily flooded but remaining functional and not damaged (left) (Madagascar, WFP) **and feeder road and paved waterway** (dual function) in high rainfall and waterlogged prone areas (right) – noticeable is the entry point of the graded stone faced bunds (Ethiopia, MERET -MOA/WFP programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).



(8) Nurseries as income generation for farmers and women

Figure 4.32 - Project beneficiary trained in grafting of fruit trees and seasonally employed in seedling production (left) (Alaba, Ethiopia, MERET - MOA/WFP programme, Photo WFP, V. Carucci) **and detail of grass strips** along the contours along soil bunds (right); fruit trees also planted in between grass strips.



(9) Water harvesting

Figure 4.33 - Water pond (excavated) for domestic use and irrigation of a nursery – approx. 7000 m³ (Ethiopia, MERET – MOA/WFP, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).



Figure 4.34 - Micro-ponds (lined up with plastic membrane) for homestead horticulture (Ethiopia, MERET – MOA/WFP, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).



Figure 4.35 - Micro-ponds (left) (small sized micro-pond for individual users, approx. 60 m³), **and large micro-pond for group of households**, approx. 500 m³ (right) (Ethiopia, MERET - MOA/WFP, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).



Figure 4.36 - Paved waterway conveying excess runoff into stabilized gullies and water reservoirs (left) **and gully control with 'water harvesting check-dams'** (right) (Ethiopia – Photos Courtesy by Yonathan Ayalew).



(10) Reclamation of gully lands (see also specific section 5.3)

Figure 4.37 – The rehabilitation and transformation of a gully land into productive units by building soil sedimentation and overflow dams (SSD), gabions and weirs is possible across large gullies and in all agro-ecological conditions (Ethiopia, MERET - MOA/WFP, Photos courtesy by Yonathan Ayalew).



Figure 4.38 - Series of sedimentation dams in Myanmar (FAO) – a large gully network can be converted into a series of production units for cultivation of rice or other crops (e.g. see maize crops growing in the first plot recovered above the first SSD structure, Photo, V. Carucci).



(ii) High Altitude Mountain Ranges with Snow Caps, Melting Cycles, and Long Dry Seasons

Description: In such contexts there may be scope for FFA interventions to support much larger programmes related to integrated flood control and watershed management measures – e.g. programmes in areas such as the Andean region, cultivated mountain ranges of the Karakoram, Hindu Kush-Himalayan escarpments, and other high mountain ranges. These may include:

- **Soil conservation and management of runoff:** A number of measures described in 2.3.2 (i) above and adapted to suit higher altitudes are possible as part of integrated watershed management. Measures related to vegetative stabilization and reforestation will be, however, constrained by a reduced number of species that are possible to plant at higher altitudes, and with periods of strong and cold winds.
- **Landslide control measures:** they are integrated with watershed management measures indicated above. Landslide management is often a complex exercise that requires a very solid understanding of the geology and characteristics of the landslide process (formation, movements, etc.). If for example they are areas where the geomorphology is soil on top of compacted layers of clay or rock, then water (rain or snow melt) could make a slick film over which the top soil will slide off and generate landslides. If these are shallow soils, then the problem is even greater – generating large movements that can be very rapid and destructive. The latter can be handled by placing large areas under closure and reforestation programmes, and further coupled with multiple rows of brushwood checks interwoven together. If they are deeper soils, then a combination of multi-storey reforestation techniques, ensuring you have deep rooting trees at specific intervals to provide the basis of stabilization may be appropriate, combined with other species that will root at different depths to ensure the soil is well netted and meshed together.
- **Infrastructure such as roads and footpaths:** see **Section 4.3.1** for steep slopes (e.g. green roads, foot paths, etc.).
- **Avalanche control:** generally not an area for FFA interventions but there may be a few cases where specific assets such as schools and other dwellings may need protection by using fencing (permanent snow fences). These usually consist of poles set deeply into the ground with planks or heavy branches running across them. General overview of avalanche control techniques are found in: [Avalanche control](#)¹²⁸ and [Snow Fence Guide](#)¹²⁹.
- **Collection of snowmelt water:** a common and a main source of livelihoods in many countries (e.g. Pakistan, Nepal, Afghanistan, China, Ecuador, etc.). The relevance of glacier and snowmelt in the economies and agricultural sector of countries such as Pakistan, India and Afghanistan (amongst others) is large, including for downstream recharge of water tables, torrent and stream flow irrigation, spate-flood irrigation, and tube-well irrigation, etc.

For example, in Pakistan highlands, snowmelt is diverted to provide irrigation in foothills and mountain valleys, covering a command area of 10 to 250 ha. These schemes are in the thousands in the country. These measures include the construction of cut-off drains, channels and waterways, and the storage of water downstream behind dikes or in series of ponds. FFA can be used for building or clearing of such drains and waterways as well as for the construction of water ponds and dikes. A number of these techniques support indigenous practices and should be carefully designed together with land and water users.

¹²⁸ Explanation of Avalanche control is available at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Avalanche_control

¹²⁹ National Research Council, 1991. Snow fence Guide. Available at: http://www.extension.iastate.edu/forestry/publications/PDF_files/SHRP-H-320.pdf

FFA technical strategies: Mountain irrigation, for example, often need flexible designs that combine earthen and stone-reinforced structures as opposed to rigid cemented structures. Canals and drainage systems are often threatened by landslides and unexpected torrential downpours and consequent damage to the irrigation structures and their functioning. The **integration with landslide control** measures may be therefore required.

It is important to note that climate change has begun to drastically affect specific areas that depend on glaciers and snowmelt for irrigation – impacting negatively on water flows and ultimately reducing the water amounts/flow and the area that can be used for irrigation. This results in specific settlements seeking partial or entire relocation (e.g. in Nepal), adding pressure to scarce land resources elsewhere.

The dynamics of glaciers and snowmelt behaviour are extremely complex – with increased flows in some cases and reduced in others, depending on the size of the glaciers and snow cover. In simple terms - increased and earlier runoff releases during the spring or winter seasons, and reduced flows in summer and autumn seasons. Rising temperatures risk depleting ice deposits, declining to the extent that their ability to supply downstream needs for water and irrigation is compromised.

FFA can be important at the local level, whilst policy and strategic engagement on the overall effects of climate change and repercussions on livelihoods and ecosystems continues. FFA can play a major role in supporting local communities and partners for methods able to increase storage of available water and improve water utilization efficiency.

Specific FFA activities can include enhancement of the stability of the conveyance systems/conduits construction or repairs after landslides, building of cisterns and other storage structures, and provide support to partners' efforts (e.g. FAO, etc.) in training on enhancing the use of available water - from plant selection to practices reducing evapotranspiration and efficient irrigation techniques suited to the local context, among others. Partnerships for on-farm water management should be given high priority for diversion, distribution and application of water for high value crops, forestry and fodder (multi-cut species), including for tail end users that often receive less water than upper and middle users.

(iii) Dense Forests

Description: FFA activities are not common in such contexts but may be required in countries emerging from conflict (e.g. DRC, etc.) or in areas facing specific problems related to access to food. FFA may support programmes linked to forest preservation and protection, specific activities such as collection of tree seeds or specific products, the maintenance of community access/feeder roads, and special projects linked to the reintegration of marginal populations and support to forest management.

(iv) Gently Sloping Terrains with Flood Plains

Description: High rainfall areas, gentle sloping terrains ending in valley bottoms and/or flood plains. Often tropical or sub-tropical areas showing significant forest cover but with discontinuities. Flood hampers access to food during the rainy season – i.e. caused by lack of access to social and market infrastructure, and lack of seeds and planting materials (e.g. in post conflict areas).

FFA activities can include the measures listed in **Section 2.3.2** (for steep and mountainous terrains – except those for landslides). Furthermore, FFA interventions may be required to:

- Prevent and stop shifting cultivation (slash and burn)
- Support stakeholders' training (e.g. through FAO, MOA, etc.) on productivity intensification and low cost fertility enhancement measures (e.g. mulching of crop residues, compost making)
- Restoration of overgrown coffee, cocoa or other cash crop plantations
- Reclamation of swamplands for rice, horticulture or other cash crops cultivation (e.g. in Liberia, Sierra Leone, etc.)
- Reforestation of cleared spots and agro-forestry when full reforestation is not possible
- Rehabilitation of irrigation canals and irrigation schemes
- Water reservoirs construction or rehabilitation, fish ponds construction and aquaculture
- Application of feeder road construction standards for tropical environments (i.e. in high and continuous rainfall contexts)
- Culverts construction, bridges, etc.

Examples:

(1) Clearing of overgrown vegetation around coffee and cocoa plantations



Figure 4.39 - Clearing of overgrown vegetation in old cocoa plantations in Sierra Leone provides income generation opportunities and rebuilds livelihoods in former war-torn areas. In the country a GIZ project promotes organic cocoa production by ensuring long lasting user rights to the youth employed to rehabilitate the plantations (Sierra Leone, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).

(2) Reclamation of swamps and waterlogged valleys



Figure 4.40 - A good example of swamp land rehabilitation for maize and wheat production in Rwanda main canal and secondary canals built using FFA (WFP-MINAGRI, Photo S. Ronchini).

Main canal

(3) The need to work on prevention of fires and work on acceptable alternatives



Figure 4.41 - Widespread use of slash & burn cultivation observed in Madagascar destroys remnants of natural forests.

The soil remains exposed to rain showers, particularly after ploughing (severe erosion). Agreements with communities should include the removal of this practice and the protection of remaining forests while investing in reforestation or agro-forestry systems. (WFP, Photo S. Ronchini).

(4) Rehabilitation of rice fields



Figure 4.42 - Formerly abandoned irrigation schemes cleared from overgrown vegetation, with irrigation canals re-lined up and bunds reconstructed (Liberia, Livelihood Asset Rehabilitation programme - LAR, photos WFP, V. Carucci).

Useful references for tropical, sub-tropical, high rainfall, and high altitude areas

The following references complement some of the techniques explained for water harvesting and canal construction in earlier sections. **Annex 4a** provides a rapid description of a number of key technologies that field staff may consider suitable for these environments. The guidelines and references below offer a number of techniques relevant for FFA in tropical and sub-tropical areas:

1. Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development – Ethiopia, 2005. **Community Based Participatory Watershed Guidelines - Part 1**¹³⁰ (pages 81-91, 93-99,101-110, and others until page 165 context specific) – these guidelines apply to a wide range of contexts and specific interventions are explained in semi-detail as 'InfoTechs'.
2. **Annex 4a: Rapid technical reference & toolkit for FFA** - A number of techniques summarized in **Annex 4a** are suitable for sub-tropical/tropical areas – particularly soil and water conservation and safe disposal measures, agro-forestry and vegetative stabilization, etc.
3. Ministry of Rural Development – Cambodia, 1999. **Rural Road Maintenance Management**¹³¹ – a guideline focusing on practical steps to manage rural roads and ensuring their sustainability.
4. ILO, 2009. **A Team Based Rural Roads Maintenance**¹³²– A Conceptual Guide for Community Maintenance.
5. ILO, 2007. **Rural Road Maintenance**¹³³- A manual that emphasizes the fact that the rehabilitation of rural roads is justified only if equal attention is paid to the maintenance of these roads and, hence, to the sustainability of physical access.
6. ILO, 2005. **Integrated Rural Accessibility Planning in Nepal**¹³⁴– a manual of detail planning for rural roads construction and management – from community to district level.
7. FAO, 1998. **Growing good tropical trees for planting**¹³⁵- includes nurseries and related references – a significant number of links related to the establishment and management of tree nurseries and various references to a variety of planting materials and growth requirements.¹³⁶
8. Bo Tengnäs, 1994. **Agroforestry extension manual for Kenya**¹³⁷ Tree nurseries establishment for multipurpose tree planting– this handbook from Kenya developed for extension workers and farmers helps in guiding staff through the major steps required for the establishment of a nursery. Major principles apply to all contexts and need to take into consideration species selection, farmer's preferences, market issues and seasonal requirements.
9. Randhawa, H.A. **Water development for irrigated agriculture in Pakistan: past trends, returns and future requirements**¹³⁸ – Pakistan is heavily dependent on the inflows into the Indus River system derived mostly from snowmelt in the western Himalayas. This report highlights issues related to snowmelts and trends in water availability/future needs.
10. FAO, 2011. **Famer's Irrigation Systems Improvement (English and French)**¹³⁹. These guidelines and manuals offer a wide spectrum of technical references that cooperating partners and technical staff from technical ministries can use.

¹³⁰ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp239381.df

¹³¹ Available at: www.ruralworks.com/reports/maintenance/MaintenanceManual.pdf.

¹³² Available at: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-kathmandu/documents/publication/wcms_124806.pdf.

¹³³ Available at: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_100030.pdf.

¹³⁴ Available at: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_100030.pdf.

¹³⁵ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/006/AD228E/AD228E06.htm.

¹³⁶ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/006/AD228E/AD228E07.htm.

¹³⁷ Available at: www.worldagroforestry.org/downloads/Publications/PDFS/B06821.pdf.

¹³⁸ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/005/ac623e/ac623e0i.htm.

¹³⁹ Available at: http://www.fao.org/nr/water/docs/FAO_LandandWater_37.zip.

3. Technical Design of FFA in Flood Prone Areas

3.1. Introduction

This section is developed to place additional emphasis on where flooding occurs, recognizing the direct links with a number of contexts and FFA interventions already highlighted in earlier Sections 1 and 2, across all agro-climatic and livelihood zones.

Floods are often caused by sudden onset disasters – either localized or large scale destructive climatic events (e.g. tropical storms, cloud bursts, etc.). A number of areas are highly prone to floods due to their geographical position - e.g. located downstream of major river basins, some of which fall outside the control of the country or regions to regulate. Flooding becomes particularly dramatic when high powered downpours and tropical storms fall over large catchment areas. Mountainous terrains and deforestation increases the impact of torrential rains and floods into downstream areas (e.g. the Pakistan floods in 2010 submerged around one-fifth of the country, affecting over 20 million people of which 10 million needed immediate assistance, and damaged millions of hectares of cultivated land). Flooding is also frequently exacerbated by countries or regions forcing the opening of dams' gates upstream (e.g. in India which impact on Bangladesh) following particularly wet seasons and/or sudden surges of water flows into reservoirs.

There are also numerous flood control measures that naturally exploit the geography of particular ranges, rainfall patterns, and water flows, to use flooding waters for productive purposes – e.g. for rice cultivation, the cultivation of different crops in inundated areas following receding waters, and aquaculture. In a number of countries flooding is also essential to inundate pastures and grazing areas, and replenish water tables that will be used at later stage for domestic and irrigation purposes. This also assists in maintaining biodiversity and improving the hydrological circle.

This section also includes references to flooding that can occur following storm surges, tsunamis and tidal waves which can greatly affect coastal areas through the intrusion of saline water and destruction of assets.

To this effect, **FFA interventions are complementary to a number of disaster risk reduction measures which include investments such as the establishment of early warning systems, preparedness measures and rapid response mechanisms.** The following sections highlight a number of possible FFA activities that can support community based interventions linked to broader government and partners' DRR/DRM responses.

3.2. Recognizing Key Biophysical and Climatic Features

Factors influencing flooding levels: amongst the key factors are: i) the status of natural resources and levels of land degradation/deforestation of the catchment area; (ii) the magnitude, power and extension of the downpours and/or cyclonic events; (iii) the size of the catchment area and the topography of the terrain, including from relatively small size catchments that can generate devastating flash floods; and (iv) unregulated human interventions on the river bed and others.

The specific position and land features of countries and regions within countries also play a major role in determining exposure to flood risks – for example:

- In Bangladesh, flooding occurs in about 20% of the country on a yearly basis and may cover over 50-60% of the land during bad years.¹⁴⁰ Bangladesh illustrates well geographical exposure

¹⁴⁰ For more information see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Floods_in_Bangladesh.

to floods – e.g. has a flat topography crisscrossed by countless rivers, a high cyclonic activity, and is located at the outlet of a huge water basin starting in the Himalayan ranges. The risks that any variation of climate poses in terms of levels of flooding caused by the rising of seawater and the increased frequency of cyclones are huge. Bangladesh has for years embarked on massive investments to control flooding and mitigate the impact of floods, with mixed results. The work done in past decades (and continuing to date) on early warning, emergency preparedness and response, dikes construction, raising of ground levels, and the construction of cyclone proof shelters has had positive impacts in protecting local populations. However, these efforts need to expand and to adjust to a continuously evolving situation influenced by climate risks/change and socio-economic needs.

- In Mozambique flooding is also a recurrent phenomenon, depending on heavy rains and cyclones falling over the main river basins (e.g. Limpopo - and the regulation of water of major dams in Zimbabwe and/or South Africa).¹⁴¹

In tropical and subtropical areas: the effects of flooding may affect very large areas (e.g. Bangladesh, Pakistan, etc.) or just a few communities located in a valley below a degraded mountain range. At the community level, parts of the community could be more exposed than others, depending on the topography and the vicinity of homesteads to the areas at higher risk of flooding – e.g. where houses are located near river beds, drainage lines, and lower grounds. Destructive flooding affects the poorest households disproportionately as they often settle in areas most at risk, destroys crops, pollutes water, and limits people’s ability to access basic services and markets, sometimes for weeks and months at a time.

In many of these areas FFA needs to be linked to larger scale national programmes related to DRR and climate change adaptation which includes flood prevention measures, watershed rehabilitation and improving access to food during periods of recurrent or occasional seasonal flooding (e.g. interruption of access to markets).

In dry zones: in these areas, high intensity storms can generate floods over small or wide areas from the expanse of river flows. This phenomenon is critical for cropping on the valleys of many parts of the Sahel (also called also ‘*épandage*’ in West African Sahelian countries) which takes advantage of the moisture accumulated into the soil following the receding water.

However, many areas nowadays suffer from violent overflows resulting from destructive flooding which is the reflection of deforestation and depletion of the vegetative cover on major upstream catchments. Following high intensity rains, fast speed runoff drains into river beds that then flood over cropped fields with excessive force, damaging and lodging crops. In this case, FFA will focus largely on the same measures indicated for dry lands (including spate irrigation). A reduction of destructive flooding often requires large scale efforts which have rarely been pursued in the last three decades with the exception of parts of Niger, Ethiopia, India, China and a few other countries as localized efforts.

Occasional flooding and twinning of droughts-floods: There are countries or regions that witness episodes of flooding only every few years due to a combination of factors – e.g. when the progressive degradation of catchment areas (i.e. less vegetated/deforested) reaches the point that they generate significant runoff following heavy rainfall, and resulting in downstream floods. There are also episodes of floods following prolonged droughts – these are of limited duration but extremely destructive as large and less vegetated/bare catchment areas can release massive amount of runoff downstream into valleys and cultivated areas. Significant floods, for instance, occur in parts of Northern Kenya, South-Eastern Ethiopia and Northern Uganda after long periods of dryness followed by major rainfall downpours.

¹⁴¹ For more information see: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2000_Mozambique_flood.

3.3. Technical Strategies for Flood Control

3.3.1. Main features

Overall and depending on context, one or more of the following aspects need to be considered in FFA design and implementation

In tropical and subtropical areas:

- With the exception of small catchment areas (e.g. <200 ha) and small diversion schemes where local engineering expertise is available, there is a need to ensure adequate engineering capacity to build flood protection structures as a key precondition – either from government or cooperating partners and overview from WFP Engineering in HQ required (otherwise FFA is not advisable).
- The need to look at possible upstream watersheds treatment whenever it is possible to realistically programme such type of interventions and reduce flooding. Large scale watershed management depends on the availability of major rehabilitation programmes or productive safety nets with a strong focus on land and water management, DRR and adaptation to climate change. WFP can be a major stakeholder in such programmes by contributing to reducing vulnerability, offsetting seasonal hunger, and providing the means for labour-based efforts at scale (assuming resources and capacity is available for planning, implementation and M&E).
- Consider the utilization of regulated flooding to improve irrigation potential (as an integrated approach), and support the stabilization of embankments with vegetative material from nurseries and seed multiplication centres. Nurseries can employ most food insecure households (e.g. the ultra-poor in Bangladesh).
- The need to ensure high standards of design, implementation and regular maintenance of flood-resistant community access/feeder roads or of those embankment-roads to be raised above flooding levels. The need to comply with WFP’s Construction Manual, and a general overview from WFP Engineering.
- The possible support to programmes engaged in major reforestation and stabilization of coastal areas (e.g. mangroves) that cushion the devastating impacts of tsunamis and storm surges.

In dry zones and valley flooding in mountainous areas:

- Same as the last **point above** (yet adapted to these contexts); and
- The realization that flood control in dry lands requires a combination of large scale efforts over critical watershed areas to harness runoff through various water harvesting systems such as spate irrigation systems and other activities described in various sections of this Chapter and in **Annex 4a**.

WFPs contribution to support DRR and adaptation to climate change should remain a major priority in countries like Bangladesh, and other countries affected by flooding.

3.3.2. Technical strategies

FFA interventions will focus on supporting:

- Flood protection measures such as dikes and embankments and protection of coastal areas
- Stabilizing river flow in sections of the basin to reduce scour on river banks
- Reinforcing sections of river bends to avoid river banks erosion and clumping
- Building of cyclone proof shelters and homes (only when vetted by specialized engineers/procedures, see **Chapter 3: Section 7.3**)

- Supporting upstream watershed rehabilitation (previous sections) to prevent or reduce runoff
- Building community access/feeder roads and bridges able to withstand periods of flooding, or constructed above flooding levels (only when reviewed and vetted by specialized engineers, and following procedures based on the complexity of the access road. (**Chapter 3: Section 7.3**))

Complementary measures:

- Early warning and preparedness measures (e.g. mapping risk areas based on a flooding history, pre-positioning food stocks, identification of higher ground or locations where people can gather and wait for help, water and other essential items stock, training and awareness, provision of essential equipment to civil protection authorities, partners or specific communities, etc.)
- Capacity development of government institutions and partners on Disaster Preparedness and Management, including contingency planning and preparedness – see [OSE website \(OPweb\)](#)

The following relates to main flood proofing efforts where FFA may have a large support role as part of major land and water management, DRR and adaptation to climate change¹⁴² programmes. Other complementary watershed rehabilitation and management measures have been explained in previous sections. A number of the following strategies can also be integrated with fish farming and aquaculture (see **section 5.6**) and with coastal sand dune stabilization (**see section 5.7**).

1. Flood resistant community access and feeder roads

These can be divided into two types: The first can go underwater without being damaged, and would be an appropriate solution for temporarily flooded zones; the second stays above peak flooding levels, and is common in areas affected by prolonged flooding. Raising roads can be very demanding in terms of excavation needs which takes away land for cultivation.

2. Raising of homesteads and livestock paddocks

This activity need to be integrated with studies of the river bed conditions, projection of flood areas considering an adequate flood return period, and flood protection measures such as protection of embankments or construction of control dikes, etc.

3. Coastal line defences such as dikes, polders, and tidal flood protection systems

To avoid saline water intrusion, etc. These measures require major engineering capacity and resources. Past efforts did not always bear expected results, as communities were not always involved in these activities. Some of these schemes have hampered the natural flow of 'beneficial flooding' that some areas used to receive. These type of activities require support from engineering specialists and overview of WFP Engineering (see **Chapter 3: Section 7.3**).

4. Coastal line plantations

To control tidal flooding and storm surges (i.e. using mangrove plantations). To become effective, this activity needs to be implemented as a significant scale. Government or major partners' supported programmes will need to include the protection of coastal lines as a key activity to reduce the incidence of tropical storms and tidal flooding. This activity is also important as a protection of urban and peri-urban settlements.

A note on Mangrove areas rehabilitation or establishment: Mangrove forests are a key component of sub-tropical and tropical ecosystems, providing shelter for different species (i.e. fish, shellfish/molluscs) and function as buffer zones that reduce disaster risk - i.e. storm surge flooding and erosion. Mangroves also mitigate climate change effects through their carbon storage and improve the water quality through purification.

¹⁴² Recurrence of climate shocks is likely to increase in the longer term due to climate change effects. In a number of countries where WFP operates, there is evidence of increased frequency of climate shocks in the last few decades.

Deforestation of mangrove forests is a serious concern, particularly in South East Asia due to clearing for aquaculture, shrimp farming, and overharvesting for different uses (e.g. timber, poles, and fuelwood). In a number of countries (e.g. Vietnam in the past and more recently in the Philippines) FFA can contribute to the rehabilitation of mangrove forests to:

- Reduce disaster risk (mangrove belts protect coastlines to floods, winds, tidal waves, etc.)
- Promote IGAs - e.g. establish nurseries and raise seedlings from local seed sources, ecotourism, access to control and use of the forest products
- Improved food security and nutrition by providing a habitat for fish and shellfish to grow.

Key factors to consider in mangrove areas rehabilitation:

- Suitable for an environment where the coastline is shallow.
- Due to high risk of mortality of seedlings, adequate training and continuous support for a few years is required.

5. Coastal aquaculture to be practiced within or close to mangrove areas

Low-intensity coastal aquaculture could be practiced within or close to mangrove areas - e.g. aquaculture pens (i.e. cages to hold mangrove crabs). It is important to avoid harmful methods – e.g. constructing large aquaculture ponds in mangroves areas that remove trees, and large ponds are subject to specific high intensity cultivation practices (e.g. nitrogen and phosphorus rich feed, pesticides and antibiotics, etc.) that can affect the growth of mangroves.

Specific environmentally friendly aquaculture efforts include selection and size (small) of the ponds to have minimal effect on mangrove belts and avoid any interruption in their linear protection, reduction of the fish/shellfish population, and bio-certification for not using pollutants (see **section 5.6** below for more details on specific references).

6. Support to the construction of cyclone proofed houses and shelters

Requires specialized partners and engineers (e.g. UN HABITAT, specific NGOs, and government specialists) and the provision of adequate complementary resources and materials.

7. Stabilization of embankments using multipurpose fodder and tree species

Stabilization of irrigation embankments and dikes with trees and shrubs (e.g. legumes and species suitable for forage production to feed livestock during lean season, etc.). This activity needs to build upon a wide range of embankment stabilization efforts undertaken in countries like India, Indonesia, Philippines and Bangladesh, etc. Bangladesh, for example, in addition to commonly spaced trees planted on embankments could benefit from a large scale seasonal legume/shrubs stabilization of small and large structures. This could increase the production of pulses which are currently being supplanted by cereal cultivation.

8. Homestead development

Planting of fruit trees and robust vegetative fence on the top and sides of flood resistant dikes.

9. Sequence and integration of possible FFA interventions

The number and coverage of interventions required to control widespread flooding is mostly beyond a single country's capacity to plan and implement. Sequencing and integration requires considering local contexts and determining why and where water comes from, who is affected and for how long, what has already been done to address this problem, and on what scale and effectiveness. In other areas intermittently affected by floods, or where flooding is the result of the gradual deterioration of ecosystems, a greater focus on soil conservation, water harvesting and safe disposal of excess runoff, gully control and afforestation will need to be consistent part of the menu of activities to consider in these contexts.

Useful references for flood prone areas

The following guidelines offer a number of relevant techniques in these contexts

1. ISDR, 1998. [ISDR \(International Strategy for Disaster Management\) guidelines on flood management](#)¹⁴³– it includes background information on various aspects of flood management – which are useful to position possible FFA interventions as part of a wide set of preparedness, prevention and mitigation efforts.
2. MOARD - Ethiopia. 2005. [Community Based Participatory Watershed Guidelines](#)¹⁴⁴– these guidelines are not specific to flood prone environments but some of the techniques described apply to a wide range of contexts and can be relevant in flood prone areas with occasional seasonal flooding or intermittent flooding such as in parts of the Sahel and Eastern Africa.
3. Ministry of Rural Development - Cambodia. 1999. [Rural Road Maintenance Management](#).¹⁴⁵ A guideline that focuses on practical steps for managing rural roads and ensuring their sustainability.
4. IFAD, 2008. [Roads in flooded environments](#)¹⁴⁶– a number of experiences can be taken as reference. For instance flood resistant roads supported by IFAD in Bangladesh.
5. The Mekong River Commission Secretariat – Cambodia, 2009. [Best Practice Guidelines for Integrated Flood Risk Management Planning and Impact Evaluation](#)¹⁴⁷– these guidelines describe detail steps regarding community planning and impact evaluation in flood risk management.
6. USAID, 2000. [Mangrove plantations and nurseries](#)¹⁴⁸ and Chan, H.T.; Baba, S. 2009. [Manual on guidelines for rehabilitation of coastal forests damaged by natural hazards in the Asia-Pacific region](#)¹⁴⁹.
7. Mangrove Action Project, 2006. [Five 5 steps to successful Ecological Restoration of Mangroves](#)¹⁵⁰.
8. FAO, 2011. [Mud crab aquaculture Practical Guide](#)¹⁵¹– offers a comprehensive guide on how to practice crab aquaculture.
9. WWF et al. [Best Practice Guidelines on Restoration of Mangroves in Tsunami Affected Areas](#)¹⁵² –comprehensive guidance developed by WWF, IUCN, Wetlands International and Ends.
10. EU& Global Nature Fund, 2006. [Mangrove Rehabilitation Guidebook](#)¹⁵³ – case studies from the Asian region.

¹⁴³ Available at: www.un.org/esa/sustdev/publications/flood_guidelines.pdf.

¹⁴⁴ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp239381.pdf.

¹⁴⁵ Available at: www.ruralworks.com/reports/maintenance/MaintenanceManual.pdf.

¹⁴⁶ Available at: www.ifad.org/newsletter/pi/20.htm.

¹⁴⁷ Available at: http://ns1.mrcmekong.org/download/fmmp-reports/3B_BPG_IFRM_P&IE_21Dec09.pdf.

¹⁴⁸ Available at: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/Pnacm045.pdf.

¹⁴⁹ Available at: www.preventionweb.net/publications/view/13225.

¹⁵⁰ Available at: www.apfic.org/downloads/finish/38-mangrove-coral-mpa-wetlands/322-five-steps-to-successful-ecological-restoration-of-mangroves.html.

¹⁵¹ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/015/ba0110e/ba0110e.pdf.

¹⁵² Available at:

www.wetlands.org/Portals/0/Indonesia%20docs/Best%20practice%20Guidelines%20on%20Restoration%20of%20Mangroves%20in%20Tsunami%20Affected%20Areas.pdf

¹⁵³ Available at: www.globalnature.org/bausteine.net/file/showfile.aspx?downaid=6426&domid=1011&fd=2.

11. Spalding M, McIvor A, Tonnejck FH, Tol S and van Eijk P. [Mangroves for Coastal Defence](#)¹⁵⁴ - guidance for coastal managers and policy makers.
12. FAO, 2009. [Integrated mariculture -an overview developed](#)¹⁵⁵.
13. FAO, 2009. [Integrated marine and brackish aquaculture in tropical regions: research implementations and prospects](#)¹⁵⁶ – describes and discuss various aquasylvo-culture techniques.
14. Bo Tengnäs, 1994. [Agroforestry extension manual for Kenya](#)¹⁵⁷ Tree nurseries establishment for multipurpose tree planting– this handbook from Kenya developed for extension workers and farmers helps in guiding staff through the major steps required for the establishment of a nursery. Major principles apply to all contexts and need to take into consideration species selection, farmer’s preferences, market issues and seasonal requirements.
15. WFP Haiti, 2010. [Forestry and Agroforestry Development Interventions, Technical Note for Training of Trainers \(ToT\)](#)¹⁵⁸.

¹⁵⁴ Available at: www.nature.org/media/oceansandcoasts/mangroves-for-coastal-defence.pdf.

¹⁵⁵ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/012/i1092e/i1092e00.htm.

¹⁵⁶ Available at: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/012/i1092e/i1092e03a.pdf>.

¹⁵⁷ Available at: www.worldagroforestry.org/downloads/Publications/PDFS/B06821.pdf.

¹⁵⁸ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp237993.pdf.

Examples: Flood prone areas

(1) Flood resistant feeder road

Figure 4.43 - Flood-resistant roads in Bangladesh (example of IFAD-supported Sunamganj Community-Based Resource Management Project) – the road is paved with slabs made of concrete and sealed with cement. The road is about 2 meters top wide allowing the circulation of carts and light vehicles but not of trucks that can damage the road and dike.



(2) Drainage channels and protection of irrigated fields in Bangladesh



Figure 4.44 - Main excavation on drainage lines for protection against seasonal flooding of homesteads and of rice fields (Source WFP).

These major drainage canals have been built using FFA and regularly maintained to remove silt and raise additional ground in other parts of the area. However, additional stabilization of the middle slope of the embankments may be possible using legume shrubs on as seasonal basis (for example by using pigeon peas and other legumes planted in rows).





Figure 4.45 - Newly achieved high quality improved drainage canals for protection and rehabilitation of irrigation schemes helping 45 villages (85,000 people) cultivating over 4000 hectares of land (Source WFP Bangladesh, SS. Arefeen).



(3) Raising homesteads above flooding levels



Figure 4.46 - Raised ground with a homestead on top – this activity is not done on isolation but integrated within larger flood protection measures, often on top of existing raised grounds and embankments (Bangladesh, Photo V. Carucci).

(4) Raising feeder roads to ensure access to basic services



Figure 4.47 - Work on raising road levels (Bangladesh, WFP, Photo V. Carucci).

(5) Vegetative belts on stabilized embankments around homesteads



Figure 4.48 - Vegetative belt using bamboo, fodder shrubs, trees and cash crops (bananas, etc.) – (Bangladesh, traditional fencing, Photo V. Carucci).

(6) Embankment plantations (Bangladesh)

Figure 4.49 - Water pond and rice fields fenced with robust embankments and planted with trees – these plantations show, however, that ample space remains available between and below the trees for growing seasonal shrubs and/or legume crops (Bangladesh, community efforts, Photo V. Carucci).



(7) Tropical storm resistant houses

Figure 4.50 - Houses are designed to resist the impact of moderate cyclones and built with specific construction criteria and orientation based on wind direction (Madagascar, WFP, Photo V. Carucci).



(8) Flood mitigation using multipurpose dikes

Figure 4.51 - Flood mitigation using multipurpose dikes. The two pictures on top illustrate the shift from a precarious to a more stable access through a dike-feeder road (Philippines, WFP - Photo Courtesy by Alemu Mekonnen). The picture *below* shows section of embankment stabilized with grasses and fruit trees (Philippines, WFP - Photo Courtesy by Alemu Mekonnen).



Highlights from this section: the technical challenges for FFA in flood prone areas relate to both the type and scale of interventions necessary to reduce the risk of destructive floods, and to the possibility of building or strengthening assets able to withstand floods when they occur – hence to build resilience. These two strategies can occur in parallel although the second (assets able to withstand floods) are often the main priority in areas or countries where flooding problems are massively complex and of large scale.

Raising grounds, making roads flood-proof, and stabilizing embankments are some of the key measures complementary to building early warning, strong institutional preparedness, and rapid response mechanisms which are essential in flood prone contexts. However, several activities and approaches related to community based watershed rehabilitation should be considered as an integral part of flood control efforts in a number of situations, and as an integral part of countries policies and strategies for building long term resilience.

The same applies for a number of crosscutting interventions, particularly those related to coastal areas stabilization (e.g. mangrove plantations) and environmentally friendly fish farming and aquaculture.

4. Technical Design of FFA for Community Infrastructure

4.1. Introduction

The following FFA interventions are considered to be cross cutting for all contexts (although ample reference on feeder roads has already been made in previous sections). Overall, WFP food assistance may be required to assist partners in such types of interventions under specific circumstances and joint programmes.

4.2. Key biophysical features and climatic conditions

The type of FFA interventions will be influenced by a number of biophysical and climatic conditions from a number of perspectives:

- Type of soils and construction materials that influence the type of masonry and construction work
- The location of the asset in the landscape
- The type of climate which will require specific design to either cool and aerate the premise (in case of a building) or make it warmer
- The prevalent climatic conditions which impact on the resistance of a number of materials to exposure to winds, intense storms, and flooding etc.

4.3. Technical strategies for community infrastructure

Three main sets of FFA interventions are considered, namely:

1. Feeder or community access roads
2. Footpaths and tracks
3. Social and market infrastructure (excluding feeder roads)

A number of these may need the support of WFP, local or partners' certified engineers for their design and implementation. This is also an essential WFP requirement for community infrastructure that requires tendering procedures (such as Special Operations' Feeder Roads), and for the construction and repair of specific infrastructure - e.g. grain stores, school, and other buildings. An [Engineering Directive](#)¹⁵⁹ provides the framework for the provision of WFP engineering services for such type of activities – including to guarantee safety and quality requirements. Consequently, it is strongly advisable to engage with WFP Engineering at early stages of the project (see **Chapter 3: Section 7.3**).

WFP Engineering in HQ (RMMI) has developed the following documents that provide a wealth of information on construction standards and procedures for specific engineering construction works. The following links relate to specific guidance that need to be followed for such assets:

- [Book 1 - Project Management](#)¹⁶⁰
- [Book 2 - Procurement](#)¹⁶¹
- [Book 3 - Construction Management](#)¹⁶²

¹⁵⁹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/cd/wfp278801.pdf>

¹⁶⁰ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/reports/wfp272541.pdf>

¹⁶¹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/reports/wfp272542.pdf>

¹⁶² Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/reports/wfp272543.pdf>

It is essential that for activities such as: (i) feeder roads and bridges - especially those contracted through tendering processes; (ii) specific water structures such as retention or percolation dams; (iii) any community building construction; and (iv) warehouses requiring FFA for their construction, will need to be screened and approved by WFP's Engineering unit. In the case of simple feeder roads (also named community access roads) designed and implemented using local engineers, WFP Engineering can provide general overview during design and construction processes.

4.3.1. Feeder and Community Access Roads

WFP is largely involved in feeder roads maintenance, repair or construction in many countries. In most cases, WFP focuses on community based feeder roads, linking communities to main roads and towns.

Community access roads are defined as access roads that require simple design, cross short distances, and are not built for heavy traffic (< 2 tons). On the other hand feeder roads may allow for small trucks passage and necessitate adherence to much higher technical requirements.

Since rural community access roads are often a WFP supported FFA intervention, **it is key that sufficient engineering and planning skills are in place before any community access road is undertaken**. There are minimum standards that can be met using local engineers specialized in community access roads construction, and/or cooperating partners with the same competencies. This, however, requires adherence to high quality standards for construction and maintenance. It is also recommended that CO request support and technical assistance from the WFP Engineering unit even when local capacities are sufficient. Different guidelines and approaches for road construction, maintenance and management are indicated in the references of this section.

Feeder roads will require technical overview of WFP Engineering in HQ as in a number of contexts they belong to a much higher category that require considerable construction materials, mechanical support and engineering skills. Each CO will have to contact WFP Engineering for technical support and overview/approval of such projects.

A number of context specific technical aspects linked to feeder roads construction have been described in the previous sections. This section treats their rationale in broader terms, to underline their key role in promoting access to food and markets, and to complementary rehabilitation efforts such as local purchase, and access to education and health services.

Key aspects to consider

This activity is required to improve access to food, markets and essential social services. The construction of feeder roads is often seen as an ideal employment generation scheme in a number of rural rehabilitation and infrastructure restoration projects around the world. Feeder roads can be used either as:

- 1. An emergency activity:** To restore immediate access to food and emergency relief to isolated communities at times of shocks,
- 2. An early recovery intervention:** To rebuild access to food and restore trade and access to basic services (post conflict, post disaster)
- 3. An enabling development effort:** To free up new market potential areas, and complete a major rehabilitation effort providing access to markets for newly developed areas (e.g. irrigation schemes, support to P4P, etc.)

WFP support to feeder roads is usually labour intensive (e.g. approximately 70-80% of labour inputs) or labour-based (40-50% of labour inputs). However, the levels of vulnerability and the number of needed beneficiaries should not be the reason why feeder roads are selected as an activity. Feeder roads should be selected only when there is a robust justification for their construction or maintenance and when the minimum technical and capacity requirements are ensured (see **Chapter 3: section 7.3**).

Maintenance schemes are justified only for major restoration of these assets, for instance when feeder roads are impassable following years of neglect caused by conflict or because of sudden shocks such as landslides, excess runoff and floods, etc.

Design

Feeder/community access roads require specialized design and, to the extent possible, need to pass an environmental screening process before proceeding with their design and construction.

Feeder roads should be increasingly designed to have less impact on the land they cross and be of narrower width compared to all-weather trunk roads. Before considering feeder roads, alternatives such as mountain tracks and foot or mule paths (next section) should be considered as feeder roads may not be always required. There are experiences in Nepal, Pakistan, South Sudan, and Afghanistan that need to be tapped into to expand the scope of such type of FFA.

As many feeder roads tend to cross areas with (small or large) communities located along the way, or nearby (e.g. within a 5-10 km radius from the feeder road) specific arrangements could be made to complement this activity with community mobilization and self-employment efforts for the management of sections of the feeder roads. Private sector or the government may decide to allocate funds to specific communities engaged and equipped to maintain feeder roads on an on-going basis, thus avoiding expensive maintenance every few years.

There are opportunities for feeder roads not directly linked to highly vulnerable areas but to areas where there is untapped agriculture potential that is highly constrained by lack of market access. These areas are of high interest from the perspective of the potential increase of produce that could be purchased and transported in food insecure districts or counties. Although major attention should be placed to free up areas highly affected by seasonal hunger due to poor access, a number of feeder roads will need to be constructed in existing productive corridors.

An Example: Building the rationale for feeder roads - the case of South Sudan

Roads are the backbone of development, access to food, markets and inputs, and access to basic education and health services. Unfortunately South Sudan has a very small trunk road network. There exist only around 3,000 km gravel roads out of 5,000 km identified as key trunk roads. Over 7,000 km of feeder roads have been identified, but to date very little has been done for these key access roads to link up to food production centres.

The greater the isolation of communities the higher their risk of exposure to malnutrition, disease and hunger. Massive flooding further contributes to isolate entire counties and parts of several States during the rainy season. A significant increase of investments in the rehabilitation of the feeder road network needs to be perceived as a key food security imperative in South Sudan.

Access to food through feeder roads rehabilitation and community based maintenance will need to become a major component of any Food Security framework and of any safety net programme. Feeder roads will free up markets, encourage farmers to produce more and access inputs and technical support faster. They will increase the perception of State presence, as well as enable the use of a broader variety of transfers (food and cash-based) to support safety nets as markets and financial services develop. Feeder roads will also be important for pastoralists, particularly at times of shocks as commercial off-take of weak animals or enhancing the outreach of veterinary services will be essential to prevent the collapse of these livelihoods – which often triggers conflict over pastures and other resources. Anecdotal evidence appears to suggest the correlation between the lack of access roads and insecurity, as communities are isolated from protection.

The vastness and complex nature of the terrain in South Sudan (e.g. black cotton soils, flood prone areas, etc.) requires solid technical and organizational capabilities be put in place.

Useful references

The following are links related to technical standards and designs used in various contexts. Suggestion is made for field staff to refer to these experiences when developing proposals for feeder roads or providing partners with the required documentation needed to prepare FLAs.

1. ILO, 2004. [Contractor’s Handbook for Labour-Based Road Works](#).¹⁶³
2. TE Jones and JO Parry, 1993. [Design of Irish bridges and causeways in developing countries](#)¹⁶⁴
3. ILO, 2005. [Manual for the supervision of labour based road rehabilitation works](#)¹⁶⁵
4. ILO, 2007. [Road Maintenance Manual](#)¹⁶⁶
5. **Emergency road repair.** WFP South Sudan, 2008. [Framework for the implementation of Community Labour Based Road Maintenance in Emergency Road Repair Project](#)¹⁶⁷
6. **Green roads on steep mountains.** The experience from a few countries and Nepal in particular illustrates the need for roads that have a **low impact on the ecology** and that are implemented following a phased approach to allow stabilization and proper layout and construction of drainage measures. The following illustrate the concept of green roads developed by WFP and technical partners in Nepal (GIZ, NGOs, etc.) – a number of these approaches and designs have been adopted in large parts of remote areas of rural Nepal.
 - WFP, Nepal. [Small Rural Infrastructures - Technical Guidelines for Project Management and Design](#)¹⁶⁸
 - GTZ/SDC. 1999. [Green Roads in Nepal - Best Practices Report](#)¹⁶⁹
 - GTZ. 2006. [A Practitioner’s Guide. Method: Rural Roads Construction – Example: Construction of Green Roads through Community-based Organizations in Nepal](#)¹⁷⁰
 - D. Mulmi, Department of Roads, Nepal. 2009. [Green Road Approach in Rural Road Construction for the Sustainable Development of Nepal](#)¹⁷¹
 - H. R. Shrestha, SCAEF - Nepal. [Harmonizing Rural Road Development with Mountain Environment: Green Roads in Nepal](#)¹⁷²

¹⁶³ Available at: http://www.ilo.org/emppolicy/pubs/WCMS_ASIST_8075/lang--en/index.htm

¹⁶⁴ Available at: http://www.transport-links.org/transport_links/filearea/publications/1_471_PA1290_1993.pdf

¹⁶⁵ Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_policy/---invest/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms_asist_8051.pdf

¹⁶⁶ Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_bk_pb_226_en.pdf

¹⁶⁷ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp237994.pdf

¹⁶⁸ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/webfragments/wfp246290.pdf>

¹⁶⁹ Available at: <http://www.scribd.com/doc/23231563/Green-Road-in-Nepal-Best-Practices>

¹⁷⁰ Available at: http://www.methodfinder.net/example83_1.html

¹⁷¹ Available at: <http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/jsd/article/view/2605/3699>

¹⁷² Available at: <http://scaef.org.np/conference/pdf/Session-6/9.%20Hare%20Ram%20-%20Green%20Road%20-%20Theme.pdf>

Examples of feeder roads

(1) Feeder roads construction



Figure 4.52 - A portion of feeder road-dike strengthened with recycled bags (Philippines, WFP, Photo courtesy by Alemu Mekonnen).

(2) Feeder road maintenance



Figure 4.53 - Side drains dug and filled for better designed camber shaped road (Philippines, WFP – Photo courtesy by Alemu Mekonnen).

(3) Mountain roads



Figure 4.54 - Road construction in steep mountainous terrains – strong walling and reinforcements applied (Nepal, source WFP).

4.3.2. Footpaths, Tracks and Trails

These are important activities under several contexts where space is constrained by crowded housing or specific conditions of the terrain such as steep slopes.

A narrower footpath, track or trail may be preferred to wider roads to improve access between communities. The references below include a number of design, layout and implementation aspects for the construction and management of footpaths, tracks and trails, with practical and interesting examples applicable under different contexts.

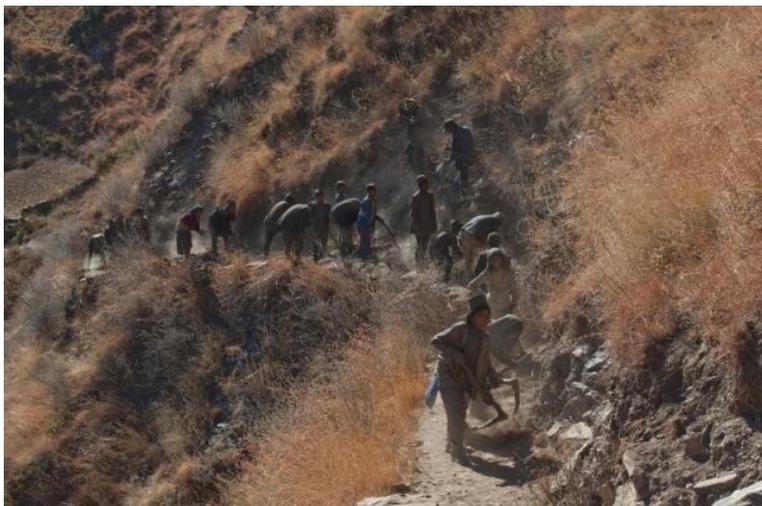


Figure 4.55 - Foot trail construction in Nepal, WFP – source WFP).

Useful references

1. I.T Transport Ltd. 2002. [Footpaths and Tracks - A Field Manual for their Construction and Improvement](#)¹⁷³
2. WFP, Nepal. 2011. [Small Rural Infrastructures - Technical Guidelines for Project Management and Design \(Foot Trails – Unit 10\)](#)¹⁷⁴

4.3.3. Social and market infrastructure (excluding feeder roads)

WFP supports the repair, rehabilitation and construction of various social assets such as school classrooms, construction of grain stores, improvement of market places, reduction of post-harvest losses, etc. Such types of interventions are often, albeit not exclusively, required after sudden onset disasters such as earthquakes, destructive storms, tsunamis, etc. Most commonly found activities supported through FFA under this category are the following:

1. Repair and/or Construction of classrooms
2. Repair and/or Construction of gender friendly sanitation devices in schools
3. Bricks making
4. Thatching and roofing
5. Construction of protection shelters
6. Construction of grain stores and small warehouses
7. Solar dryers

¹⁷³ Available at: <http://www.ittransport.co.uk/documents/Footpath%20manual.pdf>

¹⁷⁴ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/webfragments/wfp246289.pdf>

The design and construction of these assets, particularly classroom and sanitation devices **need to adhere to safety standards** provided through government technical protocols, available or developed in each country by qualified and delegated (by government) partners. Alternatively, internationally agreed standards (e.g. Sphere) need to be considered by WFP and the implementing partner with regards to the construction of classrooms and sanitation devices.

The design, complexity and costs of these structures can vary enormously depending on each of the country contexts, construction protocols, rules and standards, and of the materials used.

IMPORTANT NOTE: As indicated in **Chapter 3: Section 7.3** infrastructure such as school classrooms, warehouses, latrines and other health related premises need to be screened and vetted through the WFP Engineering Department¹⁷⁵ even when implemented following government protocols and engineering standards to guarantee the stability and safety of the public structure.

In terms of FFA, the role of WFP in supporting such type of assets is largely confined to complementing other partners' support and inputs, and to promote self-help efforts. The provision of food or cash-based transfers for a proportion of the labour provided by beneficiaries to build these assets is to offset the food security needs of participants (and a subset of what partners provide), as the objective of FFA is not to provide employment or a wage (see **Chapter 1: Section 1.4**).

Moreover, FFA is not become the substitute for funds that should be provided by government or other partners for such projects – thus, support to activities such as repair or construction of schools should be well justified, often as post conflict or after a major shock (e.g. cyclones), and as an exceptional measure.

Activities such as **establishing crop dryers and improved grain stores** using local materials or with minimum external inputs may provide an excellent contribution to reduce post-harvest losses. This activity would benefit from a number of partner's experience such as FAO, GIZ and other NGOs. FFA can provide support to the labour component and scaling up whilst partners contribute technical support, training and key materials as required.

To the extent possible, very low or no use of building materials that deplete local natural resources should be used to support the establishment of these assets - e.g. avoid the felling of valuable trees for construction purposes, ensure construction does not occur in unsuitable places such as on slide-prone hillsides, flood prone areas, and near gullies, etc.

Useful references

Specific references are difficult to find as technical standards are country and location specific – adherence to high quality standards is, however, a requirement, particularly for safety reasons, and should be captured in the FLA. The following illustrate a few useful references:

1. WFP, Nepal. 2011. [**Small Rural Infrastructures - Technical Guidelines for Project Management and Design \(School building – Unit 12.\)**](#)¹⁷⁶
2. ILO, Nepal. 2009. [**Community infrastructure development in urban areas: Creating jobs while improving low-income urban settlements**](#)¹⁷⁷

¹⁷⁵ Available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/field-engineering/1>

¹⁷⁶ Available at: www.ittransport.co.uk/documents/Footpath%20manual.pdf

¹⁷⁷ Available at: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-kathmandu/documents/publication/wcms_122175.pdf

Figure 4.56 - Construction of a school and warehouse
(Philippines, WFP and local Municipality - Photo courtesy by Alemu Mekonnen).



Figure 4.57 - A solar drier, including cemented floor and side drains
(Philippines, WFP - Photo courtesy by Alemu Mekonnen).



5. Other FFA Interventions (Complementary Measures)

5.1. Forestry and Agroforestry

(Applies to all Technical Sections 1-2-3-4-5)

FFA contributes to planting millions of trees each year, supporting governments and partners to promote forestry and agro-forestry in food insecure and degraded areas. Tree and vegetation planting activities complement many FFA interventions, in particular those related to natural resource development, DRR, and gender. This section will underline some precautionary measures in forestry and agroforestry in relation to species selection, and specific helpful references.

Selection of species: Whilst a number of water harvesting and soil conservation measures explained in previous Chapters will help the growth of trees in difficult and degraded environments, the choice of tree and other shrubs species needs to be undertaken with great care and concern for possible negative effects to the environment, and to other crops in general.

This is especially true for alien species introduced without sufficient research and testing in new agro-ecological systems. Some tree species have, for example, become invasive and disruptive of cultivated crops in South Africa. Species such as *Prosopis sp* introduced in the 1980's in some African countries have invaded ranges, cultivated lands, and rural towns, creating problems to local economies (e.g. parts of Kenya, Somalia, Ethiopia, etc.).

Any FFA support to forestry and agro-forestry needs to recognize these potential problems, especially when specific trees species and other vegetation (e.g. grasses, shrubs) are advocated for merits that have not yet been proven to be true. For example, a number of concerns exist around the introduction of *Jatropha curcas* as a drought resistant plant for bio-fuel production and erosion control, yet in several countries evidence shows that *jatropha* not only has detrimental impacts on people and the environment, but that it also is not always economically viable (see the brief "**Money doesn't grow on trees**"¹⁷⁸(FOE, 2011).

Some species considered excellent for nutrition, animal feed, or conservation and which may be performing well in one country or region can do poorly in others. For a number of reasons including food habits, the use of some species is well accepted in some countries and not in others – e.g. young twigs, leaves and buds of *Azadiracta sp* or *Neem* are boiled and eaten in Myanmar but not in Africa; *Moringa sp* is used as cabbage in Southern Ethiopia but rarely elsewhere in the country, etc. Years ago *Vetiver sp* was relentlessly promoted as a miraculous stabilizer grass and a very cost effective replacement of physical conservation structures by several organizations, yet these assumptions proved to be simplistic and detrimental.

FFA should support the planting of new species of interest only for those species which are already proven to be acceptable and only after thorough consultation with technical experts (e.g. FAO, GIZ, technical ministry staff, etc.). There is already a wealth of species, most of them indigenous or introduced a long time ago, that should be reproduced in community or household level nurseries. In this regard, the degraded lands offer a wide range of opportunities for more integrated efforts.

Key aspects to retain in forestry and agroforestry measures and FFA

1. Selection of tree/shrub species should include criteria such as people's preference, tree management and environmental gains, and the benefits (e.g. income) expected from the

¹⁷⁸ FOE. 2011. "Money doesn't grow on trees". Available at: http://www.foeurope.org/download/jatropha_FoEireport_Jan2011.pdf

plantations. A focus only on people's preference may be detrimental for the environment if, for example, a single tree species such as Eucalyptus is planted on steep slopes and in single stands (i.e. not mixed with other species). In the same way, the planting of very slow growing tree species may be beneficial for the environment but not accepted by the community as benefits are only longer term - eventually, the plantation site could be abandoned or used for other purposes if it is of no direct benefit to the local population. To the extent possible, short and longer term benefits need to be reconciled and the selection of tree species and planting material made accordingly.

2. Combination of tree (and other vegetation material) planting with moisture conservation and other fertility enhancement measures. These aspects are well illustrated in all the technical sections (of this Chapter). As WFP FFA will often deal with degraded areas, the need for support structures to back up the growth of vegetation is of major importance.
3. Support the combination of different tree species with those of a number of shrubs, grasses and legume species. This relates to point 1 above and to most if not all activities to be undertaken in degraded environments – e.g. as a support to degraded lands rehabilitation and regeneration (e.g. area closure, see **Annex 4a**), to the stabilization of soil and water conservation structures, to the re-vegetation of gullies and embankments, and to homestead fencing and productivity intensification. The use of single or few species may be possible but only when encompassing the multiple characteristics highlighted in point 1 and in particular for environmental benefits and income generation.
4. Prioritize forestry and agroforestry activities in relation to gender because: (i) in the medium-longer term plantations have the potential to reduce hardship of firewood collection by reducing walking hours; (ii) women appreciate the multiple benefits that a number of trees can provide (e.g. fodder, dyes and gums, beekeeping, bark, fruits, income, medicine, etc.) and; (iii) in areas where conservation and planting/re-vegetation of degraded lands has had a positive impact on raising water tables, women highly appreciate and understand the link between water harvesting and reforestation. Hence, women often become strong advocates of environmental protection and management of natural resources.
5. Secure tenure rights (either ownership or user rights; see **Chapter 3: Section 4.2.**) over trees, plantations, and re-vegetated areas. The application of the rule of law, the establishment of bylaws and of other specific agreements should be considered and applied based on the local context during planning, and monitored throughout the programme cycle.
6. Forestry and agroforestry, particularly when implemented at a significant scale and integrated with a number of soil and water conservation measures, can have major positive impact in reducing the risks of shocks. For example, by replenishing water tables and increasing moisture retention in the soil contributes to reducing the risks of localized droughts; replanting coastal areas with mangroves may bear significant benefits in terms of protection against storm surges (e.g. hurricanes) and tsunamis; and in stabilizing landslide prone areas and flood resistant embankments, trees and vegetation in general play an essential role in protection against climate disasters.

Useful references for forestry and agro-forestry measures

1. [FAO main portal on forestry activities](#)¹⁷⁹ – a main source of information and links regarding forestry
2. [FAO 2010 Global Forest Resources Assessment](#)¹⁸⁰ – states that globally, around 13 million hectares (ha) of forests were converted to other uses (including agriculture) or were lost through natural causes each year between 2000 and 2010.
3. WFP, Haiti. 2010 [Forestry and Agroforestry Development Interventions](#)¹⁸¹
4. WFP, Haiti. 2010. [Homestead Development Initiative and the Rehabilitation of Degraded Ecosystems in Haiti \(Technical Note for Training of Trainers - ToT\)](#)¹⁸²
5. Bo Tengnäs. 1994. [Agroforestry extension manual for Kenya](#)¹⁸³ Tree nurseries establishment for multipurpose tree planting – this handbook from Kenya developed for extension workers and farmers helps in guiding staff through the major steps required for the establishment of a nursery. Major principles apply to all contexts and need to take into consideration species selection, farmer's preferences, market issues and seasonal requirements.

Figure 4.58 - Multi-purpose tree nurseries and Agroforestry in Amhara and Oromya regions of Ethiopia (a. Fruit tree nursery; b. Apple mangoes; c. Stabilization of physical structures; and d. Apple trees planted around homesteads, Photos courtesy by Yonathan Ayelew, MERET, MOA/WFP).



¹⁷⁹ Available at: www.fao.org/forestry/en/

¹⁸⁰ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/013/i1757e/i1757e.pdf

¹⁸¹ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238005.pdf

¹⁸² Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238164.pdf

¹⁸³ Available at: www.worldagroforestry.org/downloads/Publications/PDFS/B06821.pdf

5.2. Collection, conservation and sustainable use of local varieties of tree, fodder and food crops' seeds

With increased land degradation and exposure to climate risks, important seed traits will need to include greater tolerance and resistance to heat, dry spells and frost, to pests and diseases, and increased input-use efficiency.

FFA activities can include the collection, conservation and sustainable use of local varieties of vegetables, fruits, trees, cereals, pulses, seeds. This is sometimes possible and required in the following environments:

1. Severely depleted biodiversity, reliance on a few tree, pasture and/or crop species
2. In areas affected by shocks or food crisis where there may be a pressing requirement for the timely availability of seeds to farmers who lost their stocks and need to replant
3. The above or other environments where specific species can be re-introduced, or other high value species can be introduced using different water harvesting and soil fertility enhancement practices
4. Where specific species can play a significant role in enhancing nutrition, improve water utilization, have a specific fertility enhancement role, and/or has major relevance for income generation.

Specific activities that can be supported using FFA:

1. Seed collection, preservation and storage of specific species

- This activity requires technical expertise from local agro-foresters, agronomists, and other plant specialists as required. It may need knowledgeable farmers and local people familiar with endangered indigenous varieties and on how to collect specific seeds. For example, indigenous/local varieties of tree species' seeds, or of palatable and rare grasses, local varieties of crops (e.g. sorghum and millet in the Sahel, pulses, etc.) and other vegetative materials useful for different purposes (e.g. bamboo cuttings)
- Seed collection requires specific work norms that are developed based on the time available to collect the seeds or prepare the planting materials, including extracting seeds from pods, husks, and other cases. Depending on the type of seeds and collection protocols, work norms can be set on a weight basis (e.g. XX Person days/Kg) or simply on a contract basis based on local and technical partners' experience
- Collected seeds need to be stored in a dry place and kept safe from insects
- Collection of local seeds from areas that are better endowed with tree species and network them for multiplication in areas with limited availability can improve biodiversity and promote new IGAs.

2. Crops seed banks

- Crop seed banks can be created for food and cash crops in farming areas, using various models that start with the collection of seeds (e.g. varieties resistant to dry spells and/or specific pests). These seeds are then multiplied by farmers' groups and constitute both a seed reserve and creation of sale and/or seed exchange points. This activity can be linked to the rehabilitation of degraded lands or of irrigation schemes
- This activity may also include links with local suppliers interested to supply local markets, or where local seed producers can supply farmers
- Establishing local community seed banks and community biodiversity registers may encourage the maintenance and distribution of local planting materials, and favour quality improvement

- This activity can be linked to the organization of seed fairs and farmers-to farmers' seed exchanges. A number of practices developed through the local ministry of agriculture, FAO, and specific NGOs promote seed fairs and exchanges.

3. Seed and vegetative materials multiplication

- This activity (linked to the above) is run principally by community associations/groups together with agriculture departments' services and/or specific partners with capacity to set up seed/vegetative material multiplication centres may require FFA for a number of tasks
- Typically this activity is similar to nursery development and can include a number of labour intensive activities – e.g. land preparation, planting material preparation and handling (especially for cuttings, etc.), weeding, watering, harvesting and drying
- Seed multiplication of new species in a specific area will need to be preceded by sufficient awareness raising and demonstration of their benefits

Example: The Seed Networking Initiative: the case of Ethiopia

In 2004, a seed networking initiative was launched by the National Service Unit of the Ministry of Agriculture and WFP through the MERET (Managing Environmental Resources to Enable Transitions) FFA programme. The main objective was to increase the number of tree and fodder species used in specific regions of the country. For example, one specific region forestry activities were depending for around 90% of the trees planted, on barely five tree species, of which a vast majority were Eucalyptus. The seed networking initiative was structured as follows:

1. A list of specific species available and/or suitable to be (re) introduced in a number of ecosystems
2. An estimate of the amount of seeds and planting material required
3. The identification of locations in other regions where mother trees or sanctuaries of specific species could be found
4. The actual identification of collection sites, organization and training of seed/planting material collection
5. Training of agriculture staff and farmers/nursery workers in a number of grafting techniques for specific high value tree species (e.g. mangoes, apples, etc.)
6. Transport and storage of planting materials and seeds to the new locations and organization of nurseries for their multiplication
7. Demonstration and awareness raising at community level

Results: several tons of seeds were collected during a two year period and several hundred nurseries started multiplying new tree and fodder species. The initiative allowed nurseries to move from growing few varieties of trees, fodder grasses, and legumes to double or triple the range of species multiplied. This initiative also allowed for millions of fruit tree seedlings to be produced and multiplied, generating a number of new IGAs.

4. Training

- Support FAO training sessions related to local seed protection, multiplication and preservation using the Farmer's Field Schools
- Promote, with specific partners, the establishment of associations and groups able to use local crops and varieties which can be certified as organic and/or Fairtrade products and promoted as natural products – which may lead to new and better marketing opportunities
- Link up with partners - e.g. Ministry/Department of Agriculture and FAO to promote the use of local species and varieties of crops

Key factors to consider:

- Link up with agriculture extension system, research centres, universities and/or national breeding programmes to help collect and safeguard genetic resources combined with participatory breeding training
- Promoting the establishment of associations and women’s groups able to create value chains to process and conserve specific wild or other fruits, greens and vegetables. Women and men might prioritize different species
- Supporting synergies with school feeding and nutrition programmes, education on the use and advantages of specific local species and crop varieties can be also envisaged
- Provision of training on seed production, processing and storage

Useful links:

1. FAO. 2012. [Seed production and Training Manual](#)¹⁸⁴- provide guidance for technical staff and seed producers with examples from Sierra Leone and the private sector.
2. FAO. 2011. [Seeds in Emergencies: a technical handbook](#)¹⁸⁵- guidelines to improve the quality and effectiveness of seeds provided in emergency operations.
3. FAO. 2014. [Community seed bank- Junior Farmer Field and Life School-Facilitator’s Guide](#)¹⁸⁶ -provides guidance on how to increase awareness concerning crop varieties and community seed banks during farmer field schools.
4. IRRI. 2014. [Establishing Community-based Seed Systems](#)¹⁸⁷ - include best practices from Philippines on rain fed rice production.
5. ICFRAF. 2006. [Tree seeds for farmers](#)¹⁸⁸ – toolkit (available in English and Spanish) on sustainable production of seeds and seedlings of agroforestry species.

¹⁸⁴ Available at:

http://coin.fao.org/coinstatic/cms/media/16/13666518481740/seed_enterprises_enhancement_and_development_project_in_sierra_leone_mission_1_report_.pdf

¹⁸⁵ Available at: <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i1816e.pdf>

¹⁸⁶ Available at: http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/fao_ilo/pdf/Other_docs/FAO/Community_Seed_Banks.pdf

¹⁸⁷ Available at: http://books.irri.org/CBSS_content.pdf

¹⁸⁸ Available at: http://www.worldagroforestry.org/research/tree_diversity_domestication/genetic-resources-unit/articles-documents/tree-seeds-for-farmers

5.3. Gully Control Measures

A number of gully control measures have been described in previous contexts but can be also defined as crosscutting and complementary to many other assets building activities. Gullies are the ultimate result of severe soil and water erosion, dissecting landscapes and cutting through productive cultivated or grazing lands. Gullies carry sediments into downstream areas, and are a major threat to water ponds, farm dams, terracing, irrigation schemes, dwellings and feeder roads. Gully control is essential to stabilize eroded catchments and to prevent the destruction of assets.

Main interventions in gully control would include (i) Rockfill check dams; (ii) Brushwood checks (vegetative measures); (iii) Soil Sedimentation and overflow dams (SSD); (iv) Gully reshaping and re-vegetation (often integrated with one of the above); and (v) Gabion checks.

These measures are integrated with other watershed development works. Their design needs to be related to the size of the catchment areas and runoff estimates, the gradient of the gully bed and type of soils, the gully width, rainfall patterns, and the potential use of the reclaimed gully area.

Rehabilitated gullies can become important assets for landless or land poor farmers who can use these areas for tree, fodder and food crops production. Some of these interventions are described in the technical info-techs of **Annex 4a**.

Useful references

1. FAO.1996. [FAO Watershed Management Field Manual Gully Control-Specific treatment measures](#)¹⁸⁹
2. MOA, Ethiopia. 2005. [Community based Participatory Watershed Development Guideline - Part 1](#)¹⁹⁰
3. WOCAT et al. 2013. [Water Harvesting - Guidelines to Good Practice](#)¹⁹¹- provides a number of water harvesting techniques applicable in dry lands.

Figure 4.59 - Soil Sedimentation and overflow dam across a large gully using dry masonry (Ethiopia, Dire Dawa region – MERET, MOA/WFP, Photo WFP, V. Carucci).



Figure 4.60 - A soil sedimentation and overflow dam filled up with soil and planted with forage shrubs (Ethiopia, SNNPR region – MERET, MOA/WFP - Photo WFP, V. Carucci).



¹⁸⁹ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/006/ad082e/AD082e03.htm

¹⁹⁰ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp239381.pdf

¹⁹¹ Available at: www.wocat.net/fileadmin/user_upload/documents/Books/WaterHarvesting_lowresolution.pdf

Figure 4.61 - Stone stepped & soil filled SSD planted with grasses and with stone paved spillway.



Figure 4.62 - SSD with reinforced spillway and drop structures in V-shaped gullies (Ethiopia, Amhara region–MERET, MOA/WFP - Photos Courtesy by Yonathan Ayalew).



Figure 4.63 – Head of gully with stepped stone riser and checkdams and grasses (MERET, MOA/WFP, Photos WFP, V. Carucci).



Figure 4.64 - Upstream side of SSD in large gullies (Myanmar, FAO, Photos V. Carucci).



SSD with water after rains



SSD with sunflower crops after water receded.



5.4. Cereal Banks

This activity is not commonly considered as an FFA intervention. However, it may be linked to a different range of FFA (e.g. integrated land rehabilitation, homestead development and irrigation), and become complementary to specific measures that include saving part of the food or cash transfers generated from FFA interventions. Cereal banks can provide additional opportunities for income generation while offsetting seasonal hunger.

There are positive and negative experiences regarding the establishment and management of cereal banks. Some studies suggest that the experience in the Sahel has been predominantly negative, with the main problems being misappropriation, disruption of local trade and traders-households traditional relationships, limited or no trading experience, poor storage facilities, etc.

Hence, the establishment of cereal banks is an activity that needs to be first carefully tested and evaluated before any scaling up. It requires competent partners, a careful market and seasonal analysis, training participants, and regular follow up. Overall, cereal banks may work better when integrated with a number of other development interventions, and not implemented in isolation.

Some examples on experience in West Africa (and elsewhere) are provided in the references below:

Useful references

1. Afrique Verte, Niger. 2006. [Niger: Study on the evaluation of cereal banks and Annexes that support the creation of cereal banks](#)¹⁹²
2. CILSS. 2011 CILSS – [A technical note on the performance of cereal banks in the Sahel and some of the issues that need to be considered for their establishment and proper management](#)¹⁹³
3. WFP, Cambodia. 2011. [Cambodia: WFP Rice Bank Guidelines](#)¹⁹⁴

5.5. Construction of Fuel Efficient Stoves

FFA may support fuel efficient stove construction in various contexts as an IGA, and to reduce firewood and charcoal consumption. For example, FFA can support the initial phases of work to build the stoves, and offset food consumption gaps until the stoves are sold and generate income.

This activity can also be promoted as a livelihood support measure, with major focus on reducing pressure on scarce natural resources and improving the environment. It is particularly effective if implemented at a significant scale, and integrated with reforestation measures and linked to offsetting carbon emissions and possible generation of carbon revenues at community level.

An initiative launched by [WFP – SAFE \(Safe Access to Firewood and alternative Energy in Humanitarian Settings\)](#)¹⁹⁵ has promoted the construction and distribution of fuel efficient stoves in selected countries. In the Darfur region of Sudan, SAFE has assisted conflict-affected women through training and FFA to construct fuel efficient stoves and establish woodlots. The stoves reduce firewood consumption by up to 50%, reduces risks (of abduction, rape, robbery) associated

¹⁹² Available at: <http://www.youscribe.com/catalogue/tous/savoirs/sciences-humaines-et-sociales/etude-sur-bc-rapport-principal-542835>

¹⁹³ Available at: http://www.cilss.bf/fondsitalie/download/download/NT_banques_cereales.pdf

¹⁹⁴ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp237997.pdf

¹⁹⁵ Available at: <http://www.wfp.org/stories/wfp-launches-safe-stoves-initiative>

with firewood collection far away from the camps, and generates income as stoves are sold on the market. This activity is integrated with the creation of woodlots and production of briquettes (made out of organic waste) as cooking fuel.

Useful references

1. [PYRO website-Eco Stove for Cooking on Rural Areas](#)¹⁹⁶
2. [Rocket Stoves and other technologies – State of the art in Malawi](#)¹⁹⁷
3. [Sustainable scaling up of the dissemination of the Mirt stove in Ethiopia](#)¹⁹⁸
4. WFP- Eco securities. 2009. [Carbon Credit Feasibility Study – Opportunities for WFP to Access Carbon Finance - Volume 1](#)¹⁹⁹ and [Volume 2](#)²⁰⁰

5.6. Fish Farming and Aquaculture

A number of COs engage in aquaculture activities, often as complementary activities to FAO and other cooperating partners. This activity is particularly suitable to provide income generation to vulnerable women groups and marginalized food insecure households.

FFA can support the construction of fish ponds or water ponds for multipurpose uses. There are a number of technical specifications regarding ponds construction included in previous sections and in [Annex 4a](#).

Technical considerations: this activity requires solid technical support from the implementing organization and sufficient training and follow-up provided to the fish farming activity, including:

- Creating an income generation and management group (preferably composed by women and most food insecure households)
- Design of fish pond(s) able to retain water during the entire fish production cycle (hence to calibrate other uses against the primary purpose of guaranteeing sufficient water for the fish)
- Ensuring the prevention of pollution and contamination of the water pond
- Training of IGA groups in fish farming, harvesting, preservation and marketing
- Undertaking of an environmental assessment on possible negative effects of fish ponds on natural resources, and of stagnating water (for water born or generated diseases) as well as the possible safeguards required
- On specific hazards, ensure that fish farming does not occur at the expense of natural forests.

Note that in past decades the indiscriminate expansion of aquaculture in coastal areas of many countries has destroyed mangrove forests and their role as natural barriers against shocks²⁰¹ - e.g. in parts of the Philippines and other South East Asia countries. In this regard, FFA for fish farming needs to ensure that no environmental damage is done to mangrove areas or other forested areas.

¹⁹⁶ Available at: www.pyroenergen.com/articles08/eco-rocket-stove.htm.

¹⁹⁷ Available at: [www.bioenergylists.org/stovesdoc/GTZ/Rocket Stoves ProBEC North am.pdf](http://www.bioenergylists.org/stovesdoc/GTZ/Rocket%20Stoves_ProBEC_North_am.pdf).

¹⁹⁸ Available at: www.hedon.info/docs/EthiopiaScalingUpApproach.pdf.

¹⁹⁹ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238000.pdf.

²⁰⁰ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp237999.pdf.

²⁰¹ In this regard WFP may contribute to the reforestation of mangrove depleted coastal areas in districts where food insecurity and recurrent shocks is a common problem.

Figure 4.65 - Example of fish farming in Nepal targeting marginalized groups of the Dalit communities – the ponds have become an important source of income and food (WFP, Nepal, Photos courtesy Fabio Bedini).



Figure 4.66 - Plantation of vegetables around fish ponds and harvests – (WFP, Nepal, Photos courtesy Fabio Bedini).



Useful references

1. FAO. 2009. [FAO -ADCP/REP/89/43 - Aquaculture Systems and Practices: A Selected Review](#)²⁰²
2. FAO. [Inland fish farming alternatives for Ghana: technical and economic aspects](#)²⁰³
3. FAO. 2000. [Farm ponds for water, fish and livelihoods](#)²⁰⁴
4. USAID. 2009. [Environmental Guidelines for Small-Scale Activities in Africa](#)²⁰⁵
5. WFP, Uganda. 2007. ["Sharing what works" information note – a best practice in Northern Uganda](#)²⁰⁶

5.7. Stabilization of coastal sand dunes

Coastal sand dunes occur along underdeveloped, sandy coastlines and are under constant small adjustments in response to changes in wind, waves, and sea level. Dunes supply sediments to the beach when it is needed in times of erosion, or store it when it is not. Erosion of sand dunes is a natural process over time but an increase of anthropogenic activities might exacerbate this process. A number of these sand dunes are naturally vegetated and subject to encroachment – mostly for settlements. In certain countries the removal of mangrove areas and coastal sand dunes results in high exposure to storm surges, tidal waves and tsunamis, including urban centres in coastal areas.

Using native species, stabilizing coastal sand dunes contributes to protecting assets (i.e. fisheries, agricultural land, infrastructure, etc.) along the coastline against storm surges, reduce the risks of coastal flooding, and increasing biodiversity as natural habitation is re-established.

Key factors to consider:

- Species (trees and shrubs) selected should be based on the natural vegetation
- Sustainable maintenance – e.g. transit by people or vehicles, and grazing of livestock should be eliminated on sand dunes and protected passages established.

Useful references

1. UNEP. 1998. [Manual for sand dune management in the wider Caribbean](#)²⁰⁷ - example from the Caribbean region developed by UNEP.
2. Coast Conservation Department, Sri Lanka. 2009. [Training Manual for Coastal Managers on Disaster Risk Reduction](#)²⁰⁸- country case
3. FAO. 1989. [Arid zone forestry: A guide for field technicians](#)²⁰⁹
4. IUCN. 2009. [Building Resilience to Climate Change](#)²¹⁰- lessons from the field i.e. on stabilization of sand dunes in Mali.

²⁰² Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/T8598E/t8598e00.htm

²⁰³ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/field/003/AC109E/AC109E00.htm

²⁰⁴ Available at: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/011/i0528e/i0528e.pdf>

²⁰⁵ Available at: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/Pnadc154.pdf

²⁰⁶ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238178.pdf

²⁰⁷ Available at: www.cep.unep.org/issues/sanddunes.PDF

²⁰⁸ Available at:

www.unep.org/disastersandconflicts/portals/155/disastersandconflicts/docs/drr_training/Sri_Lanka_Training_Manual.pdf

²⁰⁹ Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/t0122e/t0122e00.htm#Contents

²¹⁰ Available at: www.iucn.org/knowledge/publications_doc/publications/?6297/Building-resilience-to-climate-change--ecosystem-based-adaptation-and-lessons-from-the-field

5.8. Removal of Silt, Mud and Debris

There are three most common FFA activities which include:

(i) The Removal of Silt from Water Reservoirs such as Ponds

Community water ponds and small earth dams may regularly fill up with silt following heavy rain, or as a natural process when most of the runoff water is generated from eroded catchments or cultivated land. Excessive runoff, particularly generated from unprotected cultivated lands, results in heavy loads of sediments which quickly silt up the pond or reservoir, reducing its life span. Ponds or farm dams constructed to intercept runoff from catchment areas need to avoid areas at high risk of erosion, or have catchment areas treated to trap sediments through conservation measures.

Situations exist where ponds have silted due to design errors or the catchment area has not been treated, and sediments must be removed to restore or improve their function. Where sedimentation is due to a lack of catchment protection, specific treatment of the catchment area needs to be undertaken before or concomitantly with the de-silting of the pond. All water ponds need to have silt-traps constructed and regularly de-silted.

De-silting ponds and small dams needs to become a routine activity done by the community on a self-help basis – using FFA for this should be an exceptional event and not a regular maintenance activity that requires payment. Best practices exist, such as the removal of one wheelbarrow of soil (or equivalent of two stretchers or baskets/other containers, etc.) for each container filled with water. Around the pond area a few shovels or hoes are left for each beneficiary to dig out deposited silt near the collection point, and moving downwards when following the receding water.

Figure 4.67 - Beneficiaries removing silt on a self-help basis from water pond (Ethiopia, Katchema community – MERET, MOA/WFP – Photo WFP/Mario DiBari).



(ii) Clearing Canals and Drainage Lines after Shocks

Typically, this activity relates to removing sediments (including transport and disposal) from clogged irrigation canals/drainage lines, streets and dwellings following mudflows or flooding events that can occur after cyclones or tropical storms. High powered rainfall events can cause major flash floods, landslides and mudflows in all agro-climatic conditions. Major discharge of debris downstream can take place after heavy downpours occurring over degraded catchments, causing the violent discharge of accumulated sediments in riverbeds into downstream cultivated areas.

For example, in 2008 the town of Gonaives in Haiti was swamped by mudflows, with several millions tons of silt deposited across most of the town and the surrounding cultivated areas. As a result major joint (former) CFW and FFW activities took place to free up roads, schools, health centres, drainage lines and other key infrastructure from mud and debris.



Figure 4.68 - Main damage and clogging of the primary irrigation canal (Artibonite, 2008 – Haiti, source WFP, V. Carucci). Irrigation fields destroyed and in need of major rehabilitation.

Technical requirements:

Technical requirements are simple and related to the amount of hours worked (6-8 hours/day), volume of soil/mud to be removed (usually 1.5-3.5 m³ of soil/materials removed per person/per day - from inexperienced/partially experienced workers), availability of the right tools, and other factors related to local contexts (climate, organization, topography, etc.).

Basic equipment may include protection equipment in contaminated or polluted environments – e.g. providing workers with items such as plastic boots, working gloves and masks.

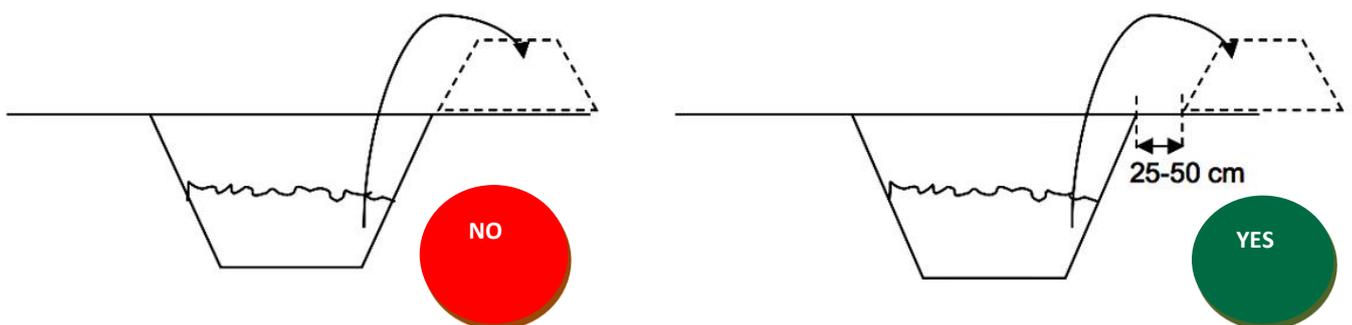


Figure 4.69 - Small plots of farmland cleared from stones and boulders after a devastating tropical storm provoked landslides and the violent discharge of riverbed sediments into the community cultivated area (Haiti, Chauffard community, 2009, source WFP, V. Carucci).

In rural settings it is important to ensure that the clearing of main irrigation canals, cultivated fields and other productive infrastructure is undertaken following basic but sound technical standards. It includes the accumulation and compacting of soil sufficiently far away from the main canal, shaped and compacted to retain stability and avoid the return of removed materials into the canals from subsequent rains.

For example:

Figure 4.70 - Clearing canals and drainage lines



(iii) Debris Removal following an Earthquake

This is a recommended FFA intervention following a major earthquake, but only when basic security requirements are in place and when there is no danger that damaged buildings may collapse near FFA working sites. Examples (e.g. Haiti in 2010) where labour-based efforts to clear debris were organized where partners were in a position to meet minimum security and safety standards.

When an earthquake occurs, WFP can support the preparation of a rubble or debris removal plan or, in earthquake prone areas where such plans may already exist, implementing such plans – note that this is always done jointly with government and other UN and NGO partners.

Key criteria for debris removal:

- The first priority is to clear debris from main access routes or waterways essential for the functioning of basic services (e.g. provide emergency road repairs to support immediate health and safety needs, and access to emergency food)
- The second priority is to remove debris that poses a significant threat to life and safety. This includes the threat of damage to public structures such as schools, clinics, etc. However, FFA in this case will be possible only when the essential safety standards for approaching and working at the site is in place, and permission granted by the designated WFP and UN official
- Following the first two priorities, debris removal from secondary roads, buildings and economic assets will done
- The last priority is debris removal from houses and private assets following set vulnerability criteria based on household status and extent of damage. This activity will need the agreement of the owner (of the private asset) and local authority.

Main elements to consider:

- Coordination and complementary efforts – the removal of rubble requires coordinated efforts and complementary resources. Partners are required to dedicate engineers able to organize and supervise the removal work, to provide machinery and organize transport facilities to move the rubble to temporary or permanent locations, and to support labour-based efforts. WFP FFA can support mainly the latter.
- A combination of mechanized and manual work is often required. Agreements (e.g. FLA) need to indicate the labour component (cash or food-based FFA), the essential equipment required (including protection gear such as gloves, safety kit, helmets, etc.), and the contribution provided by other partners – e.g. machinery for excavation and trucks, and technical support.
- Safety protocols procedures that partners should follow to ensure the safety of workers, particularly if there are risks that workers are exposed to toxic and contaminated materials (e.g. leakage of chemicals into drainage systems meant to be cleared, polluted environments, etc.).
- Adequate work norms need to be provided for the different tasks envisaged

Debris will need to be transported to a safe disposal site where specific recycling programmes may be organized by partners. This is an activity that requires particular care, particularly the separation of hazardous materials.

Technical requirements:

Technical requirements are specific to labour norms set by different countries and include excavation and digging, breaking and removing of slabs, transporting of debris using wheelbarrows or carts, and staging of debris at designated collection points for removal.



Figure 4.71 - Farmers clearing rubble chocked canals after the earthquake in 2005 (Photo: USAID/Kaukab Jhumra Smith).



Figure 4.72 - Youth clearing debris in Haiti, Port-au-Prince, after the earthquake in 2010 (WFP/World Vision, source WFP, V. Carucci).

5.9. Stone Collection and Stone Shaping

These two activities relate to interventions that require specific reinforcements – e.g. roadside consolidation work, the construction of culverts and bridges, the laying out of irrigation canals, and repairs of damaged buildings.

- 1. Stone collection:** often undertaken as a relay activity from the collection/extraction site to the construction site if the latter is located within a reasonable distance (e.g. maximum of 200 metres) - for longer distances, transportation with trucks need to be organized. Stones and slabs need to be carefully handled. Injuries during transport from falling stones may occur and hurt workers. The transport of heavy weights should not persist for long hours and proper resting periods need to be computed into the work norm.

As this activity requires a number of phases (i.e. extraction, lifting, transport, stacking at the construction site, etc.) working groups need to be organized to ensure that different people rotate tasks that require less effort with those that are more difficult. In each site, attention to the safety of workers is to be provided and discussed prior to the start of the work.

WFP should also provide cooperating partners the guidelines on how to ensure basic safety measures at the work site. The [leaflet Nr 6 of the PGM](#)²¹¹ provides recommendations that cooperating partners need to follow and that can be reflected in the FLAs.

2. **Stone shaping/cutting:** This activity requires particular attention to safety aspects as injuries such as crushing fingers or stone splinters ricocheting into workers' eyes are potentially frequent hazards. Clean water and first aid kits need to be provided at the working site. Protection gloves and items such as masks and plastic goggles are also required.

Stone shaping is an FFA activity that is often critical in mountainous terrains and that requires semi-skilled stone cutters for works such as culverts, bridges, reinforcements on shoulders, etc. A number of recommendations in the [ILO guidelines](#)²¹² can be considered in different contexts.

5.10. FFA for Skills Enhancement

FFA for skills enhancement can be linked to a number of activities that can complement WFP and partners' efforts in assets creation programming. The range of skills enhancement activities treated as FFA in this manual focuses on three type of activities:

1. **Skills enhancement in emergency preparedness at community level, for example:**
 - Training communities in basic early warning, mapping of safe zones and escape routes, etc.
 - Training on preparation of community based contingency plans
2. **Skills enhancement on resilience building and related FFA interventions, for example:**
 - Training on participatory watershed or area based planning for community members / planning teams, including gender aspects, synergies with nutrition, and the management of assets created
 - Training on specific design, layout and construction of FFA (soil and water conservation, feeder roads, water harvesting schemes, gully control, forestry, etc.)
 - Training and awareness creation on conflict resolution, area management planning, etc.
 - Awareness sessions on environmental safeguards and impacts
 - Experience sharing and inter-community study tours
3. **Skills enhancement linked to complementary efforts from partners and IGAs linked to the sustainable use of assets created (particularly focus on women/marginalized groups), for example:**
 - Support training sessions on IGAs linked to the management and development of natural resources, basic literacy and skills training (mostly to women groups)
 - Training on the establishment/management of cereal banks, small grain reserves, etc.
 - Training on forest management, fuel efficient stoves (construction and use), etc.
 - Training of farmers using the Farmer Field Schools approach (e.g. partnership with FAO and/or MOA)

Technical considerations

- **Targeting:** FFA can support marginalized groups affected by food insecurity. For example vulnerable women households and the youth living in culturally complex contexts or in post conflict situations.

²¹¹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/other/wfp042701.pdf#page=38>

²¹² Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---safework/documents/publication/wcms_190242.pdf

- **Timing:** As FFA for skills enhancement may not cover long periods of time, it should be considered as complementary to other FFA activities or to the provision of unconditional transfers. There are contexts where labour-based efforts cannot be undertaken because of the rainy season but where partners can deliver specific training to households indoors.
- **Capacity:** FFA for skills enhancement needs competent partners and personnel. For example, agencies such as FAO and GIZ, and qualified technical staff from line ministries and NGOs. WFP FFA skills enhancement programmes can support training on subjects such as conservation agriculture, integrated pest management, agroforestry, improved storage and prevention of post-harvest losses, management of saving and credit schemes, and basic book keeping, amongst others.
- **Complementarity:** FFA for skills enhancement is successful when it is attached to a partner programme that ensures the effective use of acquired skills and provides the complementary inputs necessary to translate these skills into practical action. For example, the training of women groups in establishing beekeeping into a reforested area or around vegetated water points may require FFT support. However, this training will not be effective unless inputs such as beehives and processing materials are provided.

6. FFA Activities - a gender perspective

Gender dynamics is a cross-cutting issue, with implications in all programmatic responses (School Feeding, Nutrition, FFA, P4P, etc.). Synergies between various WFP activities should be sought to maximize the impact of 'gender friendly' programming. For example, in communities with school feeding and FFA activities, the rehabilitation or creation of school rooms and separated latrines can facilitate access to education for girls.

Chapter 3: Section 4.1 helps build the case for gender focused FFA interventions. For example, in Sierra Leone the National Policy Framework for the Social Protection Policy addresses the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable populations, women and children in particular. The policy recognizes the reduction of hardships and access to productive opportunities - such as the provision of land - as key priorities.

The following FFA interventions can benefit vulnerable women, men, girls, boys alike and cut across all agro-ecological zones.

However, these FFA are thought to benefit women more as it often involves major investments made at their homestead, to optimize space and capacities, and promote IGAs that result from the proper maintenance, management and use of different assets promoted through FFA and partnerships.

The following actions will complement, from a gender perspective, a number of activities described earlier. Note that many more can be developed or linked to other FFA and complementary efforts.

From an FFA activity perspective, a 'gender lens' is important, particularly for women. Overall, each FFA activity or their integration can contribute to (amongst others):

1. Advance vulnerable households and women's empowerment – as FFA activities provide benefits and defines new roles for disadvantaged groups and for women and girls
2. Reduce hardships by improving access to water, markets, basic services, energy and other essential items
3. Improve access to land (e.g. through rehabilitation) and improve production and productivity, including for women and/or specific disadvantaged or marginalized groups
4. Increase skills and knowledge through specific training related to FFA or complementary FFT, particularly for women and the youth engaged in the management and use of natural and physical assets, leading to IGAs
5. Improved nutrition generated by the above in various combinations
6. Reduce risks of specific shocks and stressors that tend to disproportionately affect the most vulnerable, women, adolescent girls and children in particular.

Figure 4.73 - FFA participant in Bangladesh growing vegetables as part of productivity intensification programme integrated with raising embankments and improved drainage activities (source, WFP).



Table 4.4 - FFA activities with potential impact to strengthen gender equality and empowerment of women and girls.

| | Assets contributing to gender equality | Remarks |
|---|---|---|
|  <p>AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, FISHERIES and LIVESTOCK (+/- COMBINATION OF THE BELOW)</p> | <p>✓ Homestead level productivity intensification:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Home-gardening (fruits and vegetables) - Crop/livestock diversification - Conservation agriculture - Intercropping - Compost making - Planting of vegetative fences, stabilization of terraces with fruit trees and useful grasses +/- - Construction of simple water runoff collectors from foot paths, roof water harvesting and shallow wells construction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Techniques aimed at increasing the productivity of small spaces around homesteads and cultivated plots. - This activity reduces the hardships faced by women and girls and is closely linked to the establishment of nurseries which supplies planting materials. |
| | <p>✓ Rehabilitation of degraded lands used by women and vulnerable groups for mixed staple and cash crop production using innovative moisture and fertility enhancement.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Select staple and cash crops to be produced by women and that promote income generation whilst providing increased access to staple foods. |
| | <p>✓ Small-scale irrigation system such as runoff collectors (canals), low cost drip irrigation and roof water harvesting to collect water and increase productivity around the homestead.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Possible indirect positive impact on food security and nutrition. - Requires thorough negotiation on user rights, both on land and water aspects, including signing of agreements. - The introduction of drip irrigation needs accurate investigation, suitable choice of techniques and material used, and training. |
| | <p>✓ Agro-forestry systems: for improved food security and nutrition - e.g. fruits, medicines (bark/leaves), animal forage (dairy, meat), and beekeeping (honey), and improved soil fertility and moisture (access to more water).</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Planting of fruit trees (e.g. mangoes, avocados or bananas) in home gardens is a relatively low-input option of agroforestry which favours women that often face cash and credit constraints. - Requires dedicated training on specific species handling and different processing and conservation techniques. |

| | Assets contributing to gender equality | Remarks |
|---|---|---|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Improvement of value chains: from post-harvest drying to enhanced local storage and training on handling and Integrated Pest Management (e.g. with MOA, FAO, NGO). <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Includes improved handling of various crops (pulses, cereals, fruits, vegetables etc.) as well as milk, dairy and meat products. - Can be combined with cereal and seed banks for improved crop varieties. <li style="text-align: center;">+/- Construction of solar driers and other drying devices | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training and technical support in post-harvest techniques - i.e. in storage, drying and proper use of insecticides can help groups to reduce food losses. - Value-chain can be improved as the production, processing and marketing will be more efficient - women could benefit directly as their yields and income will increase. |
|  <p>ACCESS TO ENERGY</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Construction of fishponds: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Combined with training in drying, processing and packaging of fish and fish products. - Low input as the fish can feed from crop residues. - Silt from fish ponds can be used as fertilizer. ✓ Establishment of woodlots: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - For self-use or as an IGA (for private or community uses and productive use of rehabilitated lands). - Establish woodlots close to the households to minimize the need for women and girls to walk long distances (enhancing protection). - Involve communities and schools to establish multiple species woodlots (could be in synergy with other programmes). | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Supply equipment needed for maintenance and sustainability, combined with training in fish pond management. - Clear user arrangements needed and agreements signed. - Positive impact on the surrounding environment as the pressure on natural forests will decrease. - Consider the land tenure issues if communal woodlots are established as there may be a relative long time between planting and harvesting. Some by-products such as grasses can be collected every year and sold to support guarding. |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Supply households with a take-home solar 'Light' Ration to allow productive work to continue after sunset. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can be in synergy with WFP assisted schools so children will receive low-cost, solar powered light contingent on their year completion (i.e. an incentive to keep children in school). | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This activity brought to scale may provide an opportunity to access carbon market or specific environmental incentives. |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Fuel-efficient stoves: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identification of suitable fuel efficient stoves (e.g. fit to context, based on local materials, etc.). - Organization of producers' groups (if possible). - Creation of women's group to be sensitized on energy-saving practices, including cooking practices and techniques and start-up funds | <p>Fuel- efficient tools can have direct impacts on women and girls' health as they will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduce the heavy and time-consuming burden to collect firewood for cooking purposes. The risk that children are withdrawn from school may decrease. |

| | Assets contributing to gender equality | Remarks |
|---|--|---|
| | <p>needed to build and sell fuel-efficient stoves. * A condition for the grant may be that a percentage of the stoves made will be given to the local schools to be used as an attendance incentive for girls.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Could be interlinked with awareness and promotion of agro-forestry practices, as the dependency on collecting firewood will decrease. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduce the exposure to dangerous emissions while cooking (as fuel and charcoal are usually burnt in open fires or poorly functional stoves). - Women’s groups are organized and provided with the materials, training and start-up funds needed to build and sell fuel-efficient stoves. A condition of the grant will be that a percentage of the stoves made will be given to local schools to be used as an attendance incentive for girls. - Contributes to the safety of women and girls tasked to collect water |
|  <p>ACCESS TO WATER</p> | <p>✓ Construction or rehabilitation of water sources e.g. boreholes for domestic use (drinking water, sanitation and health).</p> <p><i>Note: important to involve both men and women in the participatory planning and decision making processes (including on the techniques and sites for the new water points. Ownership of the asset has shown to be essential for sustainability purposes).</i></p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - For boreholes and closed shallow wells: can improve food security and nutrition as more time can be spent on child care, education and income generating activities as a result of time saved from collecting safe water. - Less risk to water-borne diseases (e.g. diarrhoea and cholera). - For water ponds: can improve access to water for livestock as well as domestic use. However, careful design is required 1) separate human from livestock intakes, 2) fence the water pond area, 3) undertake awareness training on water management and WASH, and 4) organize pond management groups. |
|  <p>INCOME GENERATING ACTIVITIES(IGA) AND MARKET ACCESS</p> | <p>✓ Nursery development for green enterprise development:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Seedlings production for private or community use and land rehabilitation. - Suitable for women as the nurseries are safe, and the work is less labour intensive - i.e. pot filling and seedling care, transplanting, compost making, seed collection etc. - Selling points within the nursery could be established and open to the public during specific hours or market days as an outlet for selling | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training on crop management and agroforestry that can be used in the homestead. - Nursery can be used as ‘training centres’ for other partner’s - e.g. FAO Farmer Fields Schools. - This activity requires an inception period of about 6 months to ensure participant training, provision of essential nursery kits, start-up grants and the establishment of a partnership between the |

| | Assets contributing to gender equality | Remarks |
|--|--|--|
| | the items produced, including sales of quality seeds from trees and fodder species, medicinal plants, leaves, gums and dyes, and seedlings. | nursery and the household-based productivity intensification efforts that will need to be established. |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Handling of forest sanctuaries and rehabilitated areas: Ecotourism and management of forest areas, combined with beekeeping and other products collections (e.g. dyes and gums). | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Complement with other activities - e.g. packaging by local artisans and group formation. - Requires major partnership for ensuring access to collect specific produce from forest and rehabilitated areas, and bylaws on user rights. |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Compost making enterprises: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Group of households established as 'fertility enhancement service providers' to other farmers, from preparing the compost pits, turning compost, to distribution in the fields of other farmers. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Highly suitable for jobless households and groups - Can become a major business - FFA can be used to kick start the activity to dig the compost pits. |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Enhance processing and packaging capacities using local artisans: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Processing of fruits, vegetables, honey and nuts. - Packaging of cash crops - Handicraft production (e.g. baskets, jewellery, fabrics) with education in marketing and accounting. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This is an activity that FFA supports only indirectly through training and partnerships - Aims at increasing profitable businesses that supplies international markets with organic or Fairtrade products-improved value-chain. |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Development of community access roads to increase access to valuable services such as markets, healthcare and schools for women and children. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - FFA used to build to maintain the community access road. - Women and vulnerable groups organized to generate income by offering their service as repair and maintenance crews able to fix the road damages – and doing so 'between rain showers' as opposed to end of season maintenance. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The community members and local traders should agree to provide a payment to such crews for their maintenance service. - Specific awareness creation regarding the 'value' of the community access road may be required. |
|  <p>TRAINING</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Support FAO/MOA Farmer Field Schools established for youth, vulnerable women and men: to share experiences and gain training in good agricultural | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Complementary to a number of FFA interventions such as restoring productive capacity of arable lands, soil and water conservation, irrigation schemes |

| | Assets contributing to gender equality | Remarks |
|---|--|---|
| | <p>practices (e.g. new crop varieties, agroforestry, livestock rearing and integrated pest control management, conservation agriculture, etc.).</p> | <p>rehabilitation, etc.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The activity can increase youth interest when access to land is guaranteed, and specific services are linked to technology development, new green businesses (e.g. selling organic products, ecotourism over rehabilitated sites, etc.). |
| | <p>✓ Establish youth and women’s associations group and cooperatives: e.g. production cooperatives, savings associations and marketing groups that can promote production and help women to strategize and maintain control over the extra income they earn.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To include functional training in group formation, financial literacy (marketing and accounting) and leadership skills - FFA activities aimed at maximizing the use of rehabilitated sites can be linked to training and partners’ efforts in setting up women and youth associations - Link-up with P4P. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - See above, and reach new value chains and set higher prices with buyers. |
|  <p>ACCESS TO SAVINGS, CREDITS, INSURANCE, AND SOLIDARITY EFFORTS</p> | <p>✓ Access to micro credit to purchase inputs such as improved seeds, fertilizers and tools, access to extension workers (e.g. veterinarian services).</p> <p>✓ Access to credit and insurance and enable savings to reduce risks: - e.g. R4, promoting financial literacy, and livestock, pest and disease insurance as part of a safety net.</p> <p>✓ Solidarity efforts or social contracts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 10-20% of the community FFA activities are dedicated to invest - 5-10% of food or cash wages earned by FFA participants are pooled in a food fund to assist vulnerable households to meet their food gap. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Targeting of women’s traditional crops and markets, helping women to enter new value chains, supporting women’s organizations and providing training. - Insurance activity requires well established productive safety net programme with Insurance-for-Assets provided after filling the food gap. - Mechanisms for assisting land-poor and landless that are not eligible for insurance need to be ensured. |

| | Assets contributing to gender equality | Remarks |
|--|--|---|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ FLA’s and Women’s Rights to the Productive Assets they Create - Contracts stipulated between local authorities, local administration and women & vulnerable groups | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Local authorities/implementing partners ensure women acquire land use rights over the assets they create. Can be done with agreements with customary chiefs and with district/ward council representatives - Inclusion of a clause in FLA’s regarding gender and role of women, requiring detailed steps and arrangements to be made by partners on the rights of women over land use rights and tenure. |

Examples: 'Green Jobs'

1. Assisted Nurseries ('Green Factories')

Seedling production and supply orientation for private or community use and land rehabilitation. For women, the nursery environment is ideal for many reasons: it is safe and usually close to a main road or crossway and the type of works in nurseries, usually less labour-intensive than physical structures construction, is preferred by women (i.e. pot filling and seedling care, transplanting, compost making, seed collection, etc.).

Composing most of the nursery work force (above 70%), women are organized in groups of 5-10 people (usually each nursery has 20-30 workers) and may include one or more men as required.

Nursery workers:

- raise seedlings and planting material for the purposes indicated above
- raise seedlings for themselves (to sell, or for plantation, etc.); and
- use the extra unused land for income generation, by growing vegetables, cash crops, fruits or other species of interest.

Training on crop management and agro-forestry practices that can be used in homesteads is an additional benefit derived from participation in WFP-assisted nurseries. Nurseries can also be used by WFP and partners such as FAO and other NGOs to run practical training sessions on skills training and IGAs. Regarding FAO, of interest would be to establish a Farmers' Field School or Farmer Training Centre not far from the main nursery to provide additional training services to women groups. This is also an opportunity to approach overall community and farmers attending agricultural training to environmental aspects, agroforestry, tree planting and the role of women in agriculture and overall rural development.

Additionally, women's groups could be made 'shareholders' of the seedlings they grow (5-10% or more), enabling them to sell a percentage of the seedlings produced. As shareholders, they have an incentive to improve the level of care and attention provided to raising seedlings and planting material.

2. Eco-Tourism

This is an activity that can be promoted where FFA has generated significant changes in terms of land rehabilitation. FFA may eventually also be used for awareness creation and skills enhancement training for women and other vulnerable groups to support managing restored natural resources and related landscapes with tourism potential.

There are, for example, a number of income generation activities linked to eco-tourism that are possible in sites with breath-taking landscapes that have benefited from a FFA investment. This activity is largely for NGOs or private sector partners to support and will rarely require FFA as an investment, but as complementary resources and training. Women can benefit the most from these activities as there are a number of complementary efforts such as production of handicrafts, foods and specific products that can be promoted as part of this activity.

Examples of gender sensitive initiatives

1. Growing a future for girls

In a small village in India, a minimum of ten trees are planted to celebrate the birth of a girl. The traditional payment of a dowry by the bride's family can be a heavy burden on poor families. As a result, dowry deaths and female foeticide is a common occurrence in the region. The multi-generational tradition of 'birth trees' has ensured this is not the case for girls of this small village. The trees are seen as 'fixed deposits' as each year the fruit is sold and a portion of the funds raised are placed in a savings account opened in their daughter's names - Amarnath Tewary for BBC News.

2. Celebratory Birth Trees

Concept: In celebration of the birth of a girl, her family will receive fruit trees to plant on the homestead. (Drawn from the earlier example in India where the birth of a girl is celebrated by her family with the planting of a minimum of ten fruit trees).

The rationale is that by the time the girl has matured and reached marriageable age, the fruit trees will also have matured providing fruit that can be sold and used for her dowry. In a region where foeticide and dowry death is the highest in the country, the village is an oasis for the young girls who are born there.

Benefits

1. promotes gender equality and attributes value to girls
2. provides a productive asset to the family to assist with food security
3. can be linked to carbon credit programs

Implementation: in partnership with WFP assisted nurseries, families in the community where nurseries are located, will receive a start-up kit that includes 10 fruit tree seedlings for the birth of every girl. Families will be encouraged to plant the trees in their homestead as an investment in their future.

Useful references

1. WFP. 2011 [Homestead Development initiative and the Rehabilitation of Ecosystems in Haiti \(Technical Note for Training of Trainers - ToT\)](#)²¹³
2. WFP. Ethiopia. 2005 [Technical Note on Nurseries as "Green Factories"](#)²¹⁴
3. WFP. 2011. [Homestead Development Initiative and the Rehabilitation of Degraded Ecosystems in Haiti \(Technical Note for Training of Trainers - ToT\)](#)²¹⁵
4. [WFP Gender Policy \(2015\)](#)²¹⁶
5. The Rural Institute. [Women and Land - The Rural Development Institute.](#)²¹⁷
6. The Inter-Agency Committee. 2007. [Gender and Livelihoods in Emergencies - The IASC Handbook.](#)²¹⁸
7. FAO. 2010. [Women and Food Security series](#)²¹⁹
8. WFP/MOA Ethiopia. 2005. [Guidelines on MERET tourism and improved packaging within the context of promoting Income Generation Activities \(IGAs\)](#)²²⁰

²¹³ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238164.pdf

²¹⁴ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238002.pdf

²¹⁵ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238164.pdf

²¹⁶ Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/communications/wfp276754.pdf>

²¹⁷ Available at: www.landesa.org/women-and-land/

²¹⁸ Available at: <https://interagencystandingcommittee.org/gender-and-humanitarian-action-0/documents-public/gender-handbook-humanitarian-action-09-gender-and>

²¹⁹ Available at: <http://www.fao.org/SD/FSdirect/FBdirect/FSP001.htm>

²²⁰ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238003.pdf

7. A Note on type of FFA interventions in Emergencies

This section highlights certain FFA interventions that are likely to be more suitable during an emergency context, particularly but not exclusively during rapid onset shocks and as part of the set of FFA interventions that:

- Improve immediate access to food; and
- Start restoring basic assets following shocks (early stages of recovery)

Considering that during emergencies the main focus is ensuring access to food, saving lives and protecting livelihoods, FFA interventions will often have more modest objectives and unlikely to build long lasting resilience or enhance livelihoods. However, they can be entry points for starting resilience building efforts and begin restoring and building back better a number of livelihood assets.

Overall, a low tech-low risk approach is needed and focuses on assets relatively simple to design and implement at local level. These assets should be able to address some of the people's most immediate needs and priorities. Using FFA (food or cash-based) keeps the focus on 'assets' as opposed to 'work' and underlines the need to complete 'useful work' as opposed to 'make-up work'.

Low-tech does not mean low quality assets but a set of tasks that demand of less technical inputs. It is also important to underline that some of the low risk activities can also be high tech, particularly a number of **traditional measures** that can be very sophisticated in terms of technical standards and construction methods.

A simple guidance note on low-tech/low-risk activities can be developed in different contexts and rapid reference tool kits prepared based on the identification of what is possible to achieve at community level. These measures should be thought to suit different periods of the year, to require only limited technical support and to largely rely on local knowledge and skills. In other words, a number of possible low-tech/low risk interventions that require minimum external support.

In protracted crisis contexts – including with consecutive years of emergency assistance and recovery work, a mix of low-tech/low-risk and more complex set of FFA interventions becomes possible (most of which have been illustrated in previous sections).

Low-tech, low-risk FFA interventions may include the following

- Repair of feeder roads using adequate materials (e.g. stones and soil)
- Clearing of drainage and irrigation canals
- Clearing debris and safe disposal
- Separation of materials from debris
- Stone collection and piling for future use in construction
- Rough stone shaping (local know-how)
- Compost making (local know-how)
- Plastering of local stores using local materials impregnated with insect/pest and repellent natural products (local know-how)
- Bricks making with local materials for construction of various assets (local know how)
- De-siltation of silted water ponds and dams
- Dry fencing for control grazing + Vegetative fencing using local materials (local know how)
- Collection of indigenous seeds (e.g. specific species of interest to be then raised in local nurseries – based on local know how)
- Small gully checks
- Other works based on local knowledge (may include very context specific assets).

8. Complementary Measures (Partners/Communities)

A number of partners have resources, activities, capacities and experience that can effectively complement FFA interventions.

Two key processes provide the platform for complementary efforts. **The first** relates to the SLP (**Chapter 2**) and the ability to engage and understand various partners' comparative advantages from the perspective of their capacity, area coverage and complementarity. **The second** relates to the landscape and CBPP approach that provides information on what interventions are required to tackle food insecurity and address key priorities in any given community.

The convergence of a number of FFA and of other partners' efforts in the same geographical location and landscape unit can provide an effective layering of multiple and integrated assets, improving their effectiveness and impact on the ground.

For example, FAO can provide technical training and support to specific activities complementary to the rehabilitation of irrigation schemes, soil conservation and water harvesting works (e.g. post-harvest losses, aquaculture, integrated pest management, improved and drought resistant seeds, etc.) and organize agricultural enterprises for outputs markets development (livestock and crop based). IFAD can support financial packages for the construction solar powered boreholes, packages and support for nursery development, feeder roads and other efforts linked to income generation and value chains. WFP, FAO, and IFAD could also explore greater opportunities for local purchase from smallholder farmers, invest in landscape and/or watershed based development, livestock based initiatives and overall support to households' enhanced food security. The same applies to other NGOs, the World Bank and partners.

What it means in concrete terms:

1. There is a limit to what FFA can do and can do well;
2. That there is a need to verify whether specific NGO, UN or other partners from Government or at community level have the technical skills to design and implement FFA activities but also those that will reinforce or improve the sustainability of FFA interventions. For example a tree nursery supported through FFA will benefit from skills on how to graft specific fruit trees, and on how to establish a beekeeping micro-enterprise;
3. Complementarity is often the way to rapid handover to institutions and communities.

In each country there are a number of potential partnerships and complementary support measures that need to be explored more deliberately.

Table 4.5 outlines an example of potential complementary efforts and their applicability.

Table 4.5 - Menu of possible²²¹ FFA interventions by focus groups, complementary measures with partners (Example of Zimbabwe)

| MAIN FFA | Focus Group(s) | Complementary measures from partners (not for FFA) | Integration requirements |
|---|--|---|---|
| <p>Water harvesting (WH) measures such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Water Pans . Rock dams . Runoff-run-on systems for fodder production . Farm Dam Construction . Farm Pond Construction . Diversion Weir Construction . Cut-off Drains . Irrigation schemes rehabilitation and development (canals digging, repairs, etc.) . Dams and spillways repairs or rehabilitation . Silt traps construction . De-siltation and deepening of existing ponds . Establishment of clay blankets to reduce vertical percolation in ponds . River-bed sand dams (and shallow wells) . Training in irrigation management/user groups . Flood protection (including fencing and protection of schemes) <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u> most of the above around settlements, watering and transhumance routes. Small scale irrigation for fodder production is an opportunity to reduce walking distances and cope with droughts.</p> | <p>Community/cluster of communities and groups</p> | <p>Settled agriculture and agro-pastoralists in irrigation schemes:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Provision of part or all of the construction materials (pipes, cement, mesh wire, etc.) and supervision of rehabilitation or construction of WH and irrigation schemes 2. Conservation Agriculture (CA) within rehabilitated plots and improved tools for tillage 3. Provision of drought resistant seeds 4. Provision of planting materials for the re-vegetation of embankments 4. Training in farmers' business enterprises development 5. Market development and organization of seed fairs 6. Technical support and training <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Vaccinations and certification mechanisms 8. Commercial off take organized along rehabilitated schemes and water points 9. Promotion and commercialization of fodder in irrigation schemes | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. These activities may require a number of integration measures such as small-catchment protection, soil erosion control and conservation measures, and fencing to avoid rapid siltation of pans and ponds or damage to dams during high powered rainfall showers 2. Integration with self-help efforts and organization of user groups should be a key prerequisite for establishing such schemes 3. Some of the measures indicated such as sand dams need careful selection and may only be suitable in a few locations 4. Avoid pollution and contamination in schemes also used for domestic purposes 5. In pastoral areas, proper spatial distribution of water pans and development of grazing areas using WH methods required (can act as conflict resolution mechanisms) |

²²¹ This list is not exhaustive and focusing largely on what food or cash based FFA can support within the context of arid and semi-arid lands.

| MAIN FFA | Focus Group(s) | Complementary measures from partners (not for FFA) | Integration requirements |
|--|--|---|--|
| <p>Small scale WH measures such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Hand-dug shallow wells . Low cost micro-ponds . Spring Development . Percolation pits . Percolation Pond <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u> the above are more suitable around permanent settlements – they provide opportunities for ex-pastoralists to shift to more sustainable livelihoods</p> | <p>Mainly small groups of households (2-5) and individual households</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduce and test low cost drip irrigation systems 2. Low cost water lifting devices 3. Home gardens and conservation agriculture practices 4. Provision of improved horticulture seeds 5. For springs possible to construct overnight storage cistern/tank to collect overflow for subsequent use 6. Training in home gardens planning (rotation, IPM, species selection, utilization, etc.) <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u> same as above</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The small schemes are often enabled by the treatment of larger areas with a number of WH and conservation efforts 2. Low cost drip irrigation systems need to be re-introduced with adequate package of training, follow up and adjustments, including integration with home gardening skills, selection of crops, etc. 3. Training on management of the scheme and on small repairs needs to be undertaken 4. Maintenance responsibilities need to be agreed by beneficiaries, including the possible establishment of a pool fund for such maintenance |
| <p>WH and in situ moisture conservation such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . The Zai and Planting Pit System . Small stone or soil/stone faced bunds with run-on and runoff areas . Trapezoidal bunds . Support to mechanized half-moons/pits <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u> most of above, and specific run-on/runoff systems extensively implemented in larger areas to solely improve fodder production (ensures supply of forage during droughts)</p> | <p>Community/groups and/or individual households</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mainly training and provision of fodder or crop seeds 2. Assistance in organizing fodder production – pastoral groups linkages and agreements 3. Introduction of specific mechanized systems (e.g. dolphin plough) for large scale fodder production and planting of trees species | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Particularly effective in drier parts and only with sorghum and millet 2. Integration with contour soil and stone bunds placed at regular intervals between rows of Zai pits (e.g. every 15-20 metres) may be necessary to regulate water flows, avoid risks of breakages, and increase moisture 3. Trapezoidal bunds may benefit from additional water channelled through cut-off drains and diversion canals |

| MAIN FFA | Focus Group (s) | Complementary measures from partners (not for FFA) | Integration requirements |
|--|---|---|---|
| <p>Physical soil and water conservation measures (semi-arid areas) such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Level Soil and Stone Bund . Level Fanya Juu (in deeper and more stable soils –(see InfoTech for main technical specifications) . Training in SWC measures | <p>Mainly groups of households and individual households based on size and location of cultivated plots</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Conservation agriculture (CA) practices in between level bunds 2. Within CA promote improved selection of crops (e.g. shift from maize to sorghum, pigeon peas, oil crops, etc.) 3. Within CA promote compost applications – particularly 2-4 meters above bunds where soil is deeper and moisture higher 4. Promotion of intercropping of drought resistant deep rooted legumes (e.g. pigeon peas) every 5-8 lines of cereals, possibly along ripped lines if any – training and technical support 5. Controlled grazing, fencing, livestock management training 7. Others as required | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Physical structures need to be integrated with stabilization of embankments with legumes and shrubs (see Annex 4a for main specifications). They can increase the effectiveness of CA, particularly in sloping terrains and soils with low water retention capacity. The whole system requires agreements on controlled grazing for at least the first year to avoid trampling and damage of contour level structures 2. Run-on-runoff systems are suitable to grow crops in lower rainfall ranges, require accurate layout and testing on the ratio micro-catchment/cropping area (usually 3-5:1) |
| <p>Selected homestead development measures such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Compost making . Stabilization of physical structures and farm boundaries . Vegetative Fencing . Multi-storey gardening . Seed collection . Training on the above measures <p>Pastoral areas specific: most of the above around homesteads, and stabilization using dry land species and windbreaks</p> | <p>Household and small groups of households</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mainly CA measures and water harvesting 2. Small nursery development and provision of planting materials 3. Provision of training on seed collection, storage and preparation for planting (e.g. possible scarification, soaking, etc.) 4. Others as required | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. These measures are selected as they may require FFA support for the collection of planting materials (for fencing), excavation of double pits (8-12 m³ each) for compost 2. Compost making entrepreneurship can become a business at village level, with groups of unemployed or poor households undertaking compost preparation at significant scale for others and become service providers for farmers with land. 3. These measures integrate with a number of previously listed activities |

| MAIN FFA | Focus Group (s) | Complementary measures from partners (not for FFA) | Integration requirements |
|--|--|--|--|
| <p>Physical, planting and protection measures for agroforestry in dry lands (arid and semi-arid areas):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Area Closure . Micro-basins (MBs) . Eyebrow Basins (EBs) . Herring bones (HBs) . Micro-trenches (MTRs) . Trenches . Improved Pits (IP) . Control and use of invaders (e.g. <i>Prosopis sp.</i>) <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u> activities such as enclosure are rather conceived as 'areas put at rest' through agreements between groups of pastoralists. FFA can assist in supporting workshops and enhancing regeneration through WH systems</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Household focus (within homestead) . Group focus (within groups gardens, small catchments) . Village or community focus (small catchments, WH schemes protection, SWC in degraded spots) . Large ranges controlled by pastoral groups | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tree/cash crops planting – seed provision 2. Provision of fruit trees, including improved grafted varieties for plantations around homesteads 3. Training on grafting techniques 4. Use of grasses and forage for livestock rearing 5. Improved animal husbandry associated to development of backyards 6. Fodder baling 7. Organization of collection groups and processing of <i>Prosopis sp</i> nutritious pods | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Area closure safeguards specific areas from livestock and people's interference by reaching agreements with villages or the community. Area closure can protect settlements, water reservoirs, etc. 2. Trenches, eyebrows and other structures allow the growth of tree species using small micro-catchments – effective in using small spaces, including within homesteads areas (see Annex 4a) |
| <p>Nursery establishment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Fencing, seedbed preparation, composting, pot filling, transplanting, weeding, watering, etc. . Seed collection, preservation and storage . Grass and legume seeds multiplication centres <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u> the above are suitable around permanent water points, irrigation or where shallow wells or boreholes enable seedling production</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Small groups of HH . Village . Community | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Provision of materials, equipment, reels of polythene tubes, etc. 2. Provision of training on specific planting and nursery management techniques 3. Establishment of selling points for seedlings or cash crops, fruits, etc. 4. Livestock integrated packages 5. Beekeeping and commercialization 6. Boreholes (e.g. the Lifelink system) that can provide water both for domestic, livestock and production uses (e.g. nurseries, etc.) | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The establishment of nurseries is closely linked to water harvesting measures and the enabling effect that these measures have on water availability 2. Nurseries organized by women can become major production centres, including integration with small livestock fattening, small dairy development, beekeeping, etc. 3. Seed multiplication can also be linked to major animal feed enhancement programmes |

| MAIN FFA | Focus Group (s) | Complementary measures from partners (not for FFA) | Integration requirements |
|---|-------------------------------|---|---|
| <p>Gully control measures such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Stone Check dams . Brushwood Check dams . Gully Reshaping, filling and re-vegetation . Sediment Storage and Overflow Earth Dams (SS Dams) for productive gully control . Training on the above <p><u>Pastoral areas specific:</u> relevant below escarpments and to provide cropping opportunities to dropouts. Key to protect irrigation schemes, watersheds and roads.</p> | Groups/village /community | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Provision of technical expertise and planting materials as required 2. Provision of gabions (only if required) 3. Transport means for construction materials (e.g. stones) 4. Others as required | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The rehabilitation of gullies is key to protect fields from soil erosion and improve water harvesting 2. Soil Sedimentation Dams (SSD) are structures placed on large gully networks to retain water and convert gullies into productive fields (Annex 4a) – series of SSD raise water tables and enable shallow wells to be constructed below structures |
| <p>Access feeder roads (arid and semi-arid lands):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Gravelled road on flat and rolling terrain (sandy or weak soils) . Gravelled road on mountainous terrain (weak soils) . Feeder roads on unstable soils . Typical pipe culvert using concrete rings . Standard drift . Bridge construction . Training on design and layout/construction | Community and inter-community | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Technical support and provision of tools to enhance standards adapted to withstand high intensity rains 2. Provision of materials (cement and mesh wire for culverts, etc.) and equipment for compaction (low cost) 3. Transport of construction materials (e.g. stones, etc.) 4. Training of user groups | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Feeder road activity is integrated with market development and the outputs from the enhanced production enabled by WH activities 2. Feeder roads in unstable terrains should not be wide (maximum 4 metres) 3. Gully control and attention to side drainage is key 4. Training at community (all villages) and inter-community levels (e.g. if feeder road crosses two or more wards) on how to establish local road repair management groups |

Chapter 5

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



FFA in Urban and Displacement Settings



World Food Programme

wfp.org

Contextualization

Why a dedicated Chapter on FFA in Urban and Displacement settings?

While the content of the present PGM is largely relevant to all contexts where FFA can be implemented – including the urban and displacement ones – its core guidelines presented in **Chapter 2** (*Understanding the context and using the 3PA*), **Chapter 3** (*Planning FFA*) and **Chapter 4** (*Implementing FFA*) have been primarily designed for the planning and implementation of FFA in support to non-displaced rural communities relying mainly on agrarian and/or pastoralist livelihoods, where to date most of WFP’s FFA programming has taken place and from which the experiences of the country offices has been drawn.

The purpose of the present Chapter is to complement the manual by presenting **challenges and considerations that are specific to carrying out FFA for communities that are either living in urban areas or are displaced from their place of origin**²²². It provides guidance as to under which conditions and how to use FFA as an appropriate response tool for providing food assistance in such settings. Of key importance is that **FFA should only be used as a tool in a given urban or displacement situation when a number of highly desirable preconditions are met and when proper attention is given to a set of specific considerations during the planning phase.**

²²² Note that guidelines on FFA for Urban and Displacement settings are presented in this stand-alone Chapter because they are a recent add-on to the FFA PGM and are yet to be strengthened on the basis of (i) a thorough stock-taking exercise of existing field practices and (ii) forthcoming updates on corporate policies and strategies pertaining to refugees/IDPs and urban food insecurity. Once adjusted as per the new WFP policies and strategies for refugees/IDPs and urban food insecurity, the content of this Chapter will be mainstreamed into other parts of the manual.

1. PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING FFA IN URBAN SETTINGS

1.1. General considerations

1.1.1. Positioning FFA in urban settings

Defining urban:

The urban/rural dichotomy is largely artificial and often hides a wide variety of different built-up areas and livelihood settings. **For the purpose of FFA, “urban” can be understood as any built-up area where livelihoods are not primarily based on the utilization of the natural resource base.** In urban areas, pastoralist and agrarian livelihoods are less present – or simply absent – whereas the secondary and tertiary sectors are more prominent (cash-based economy). Urban income is primarily based on employment rather than food production.

Defining urban FFA:

The standard definition of FFA provided in Chapter 1 applies equally to rural and urban settings. As such, in order to be qualified as FFA an intervention should (i) respond to an immediate food gap through a food or cash-based transfer, while (ii) strengthening livelihoods and/or livelihood resilience through the creation or rehabilitation of tangible assets (physical or natural) at the household or community level. Urban FFA can also contribute to strengthening livelihoods through the provision of trainings when these pertain to the creation, management, and maintenance of the tangible assets created or rehabilitated, to natural resource management (NRM) or to soil and water conservation (SWC).

As per this definition, a range of different FFA interventions may be implemented in urban areas:

- In post-emergency recovery phases, FFA may be used to remove and safely dispose debris, clear and repair roads and other access infrastructure, clear canals and obstructed drainage lines, or repair damaged embankments.
- In semi/peri-urban contexts, FFA activities may focus on the creation of and/or training on backyard and rooftop gardens, horticulture plots, nursery development and tree planting (urban greening), aquaponics, market and accessibility infrastructure, peri-urban grazing land, or windbreaks and shelterbelts.
- In urban areas highly exposed to disasters (mainly floods and tidal waves), FFA may include the reforestation of a degraded catchment area above a built-up area with associated training on fuel efficient stoves, the rehabilitation of drainage infrastructure, the raising of river embankments, the rehabilitation of mangroves, as well as training on natural asset management and conservation.
- In contexts of high household-level economic vulnerability, FFA may be used to create or rehabilitate small WATSAN infrastructure, small roads/pathways, small market infrastructure, or backyard and rooftop gardens.

Note on FFA vs. FFT:

The analysis of the key constraints to sustainable livelihoods in a given urban context may reveal that resilience-building efforts should focus on strengthening intangible capital (e.g. human, social, and/or financial capital rather than physical or natural capital). This may for example be achieved through vocational training, small business management or IGA training, or literacy/language courses. However, because these trainings do not relate to tangible assets nor to NRM or SWC, they should not be considered as FFA but as FFT, and in turn are not covered in the FFA PGM.

Where such vocational skills training is linked to another programmatic area of WFP (e.g. nutrition, market linkages, savings and credits, etc.) then guidance for these FFT activities should be sought from the respective responsible units (e.g. Nutrition, P4P, R4 etc.). Where such vocational skills training is resulting from the opportunities provided by a specific partnership, they should be seen as one-off FFT activities – and not as FFA; refer to **Chapter 1: Section 1**.

Note on FFA vs. Public Works' employment schemes:

Urban contexts are environments highly suitable for employment generation schemes through Public Works from a variety of partners. **FFA – whether implemented in rural or urban settings – should however not be understood as an activity providing employment and a salary for work.** FFA should rather be seen and designed as an activity that is required to restore some of the basic functions of the community and households' assets disrupted by a shock, reduce the risk of future shocks, or strengthen livelihood resilience whilst meeting an immediate ascertained food gap.²²³

Part of a Public Works scheme may be considered as FFA, but only when (i) it qualifies as a community-based asset creation scheme (whereby communities themselves are an integral part of the identification, selection, planning, construction, use, maintenance, and ownership of the assets that are created or rehabilitated), (ii) is aimed at achieving a food security objective which can be reached through seasonal/temporary employment, and (iii) targets food insecure populations. Such conditions may exceptionally be met when WFP engages in partnership-building efforts in large cities where Public Works are under the leadership of other agencies (UNDP, the World Bank, etc.). Note however that it should be avoided to use prolonged FFA activities in support of such programmes, as this may raise the risks associated with increased beneficiary dependency and with the absence of a clear exit strategy (FFA interventions should always be time-bound and be used to meet a temporary food gap).

WFP policy on urban food insecurity:

Two complementary strategic documents guide WFP's programming in urban areas. The first – **Urban Food Insecurity: Strategy for WFP**²²⁴ (2002) – sets the policy rationale for WFP to intervene in urban areas, while the second – **Programming food aid in urban areas: operational guidance**²²⁵ (2004) – provides more practical guidelines for such interventions. Yet both documents are expected to be significantly updated "*into a policy that draws on the latest research and WFP's experience in recent urban disasters*"²²⁶ (an update that is scheduled after the HABITAT III conference in October 2016). WFP's new urban policy will provide supplementary guidance on the scope of the agency's mandate and added value in urban areas, as well as on how its operational toolkit shall be used in cities and towns. This will clarify to what extent and under which conditions FFA may be used as a relevant modality to tackle urban food insecurity.

Meanwhile, both the 2002 and 2004 strategic documents highlight the urgency to tackle the ongoing massive urbanization of food insecurity and malnutrition, indicating that "*by 2015 more poor and undernourished people will live in the cities of developing countries than in rural areas*". They also acknowledge the high level of geographical correlation between urban poverty and exposure to natural disasters, as well as the adverse impact that man-made conflicts are having in

²²³ For more details on the differences between FFA and employment schemes, refer to **Chapter 1**, and for more information on how FFA relates to the "Decent Work Agenda", refer to **Chapter 3**.

²²⁴ WFP, 2002. Urban Food Insecurity: Strategy for WFP. Available at: www.wfp.org/content/urban-food-insecurity-strategies-wfp-food-assistance-urban-areas.

²²⁵ WFP, 2004. Programming food aid in urban areas: operational guidance. Available at: <http://fscluster.org/sites/default/files/documents/Programming%20Food%20Aid%20in%20Urban%20Areas%20-%20WFP%20Operational%20Guidance%202004.pdf>

²²⁶ WFP, 2015. Compendium of WFP policies relating to the strategic plan. Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp277488.pdf>.

urban areas, in terms of attracting more food insecure people from the rural inland to the cities but also of aggravating the vulnerability of those already there.

The above-mentioned operational guidance paper makes reference to FFA²²⁷ as one possible type of intervention in the predominantly cash economies of urban areas, but it spells out a number of key limitations leading to the conclusion that “*finding appropriate [FFA] activities that will benefit participants directly is particularly difficult in urban areas*”.²²⁸

The presented limitations are related to the fact that:

- Inequalities, mobility and socioeconomic fragmentation makes urban targeting difficult, particularly geographical and community-based targeting;
- Local preferences in urban areas lean towards transfer values that exceed food requirements, because food is not the only demand on urban dwellers’ income but also because targeted households will tend to benchmark the transfer value against remuneration rates of wage employees;
- Only few urban assets are actually community-owned (most are owned and managed either at the household or at the public level).

Positioning FFA in urban settings:

As previously indicated, it remains at this stage impossible to provide a clear-cut definition of whether, when and how FFA should be used to tackle food insecurity and strengthen livelihoods’ resilience in urban settings, as this is yet to be informed by WFP’s forthcoming urban policy. A number of useful learnings can however be extracted from recent field experience.

While WFP has a proven track record of implementing effective FFA projects in rural areas, FFA interventions in urban settings remain marginal and less documented. This is primarily because the implementation of urban FFA faces a set of specific constrains, including but not limited to those already identified in the 2004 operational guidance paper (see above: targeting; demand for transfer values exceeding food requirements; and lack of community-owned assets).

One of the key challenges to urban FFA is that most areas where the urban poor and food insecure live remain unrecognized (if not unwanted) and lack legal tenure status, thus considerably limiting the ability to (i) identify asset building or rehabilitation activities that would be supported by local authorities, and (ii) set-up arrangements that can secure the asset built or rehabilitated. Therefore urban FFA is commonly associated to short-term responses following rapid onset shocks and aimed at filling a short-term food gap while rehabilitating damaged infrastructure.

The ability to implement urban FFA is equally constrained by the difficulty in identifying assets that are at scale (i.e. not too small nor too fragmented) to ensure the intended short but also mid- to long-term objectives of supporting recovery, reducing risk and strengthening livelihoods can be met.

Similarly, engaging in robust participatory planning and household targeting processes in contexts that are often characterized by high population density, mobility and socioeconomic fragmentation (including livelihood fragmentation) has proven extremely challenging. The presence of a stable “community base” is essential for the purpose of FFA planning and implementation, but is an aspect that is not easily found or identifiable in urban settings.

Last but not least, the population mobility that characterizes urban areas implies that FFA – when implemented at scale – may inadvertently influence urbanization dynamics in a way that ultimately results in the exclusion of the poor. For example, the construction of protective assets in a shock

²²⁷ Referred to as FFW since the document precedes the conceptual shift from FFW to FFA.

²²⁸ Note that the operational guidance paper also identifies “Food for vocational training” (particularly for women) as a relevant type of intervention in urban areas. However, “food for vocational training” does not fall under the FFA definition which, as far as training is concerned, is limited to the management, maintenance and utilization of the tangible (physical and/or natural) asset created or rehabilitated, or to Natural Resource Management (NRM) and Soil and Water Conservation measures (see **Chapter 1**). Food for vocational training therefore is not considered as FFA but as Food-For-Training (FFT).

prone neighbourhood may once completed result in an unintended increase in property values, thus pushing rents beyond levels that the poor can afford; or the improvement of livelihoods in a rural town may unintentionally generate further incentives for agrarian or pastoral households to migrate towards towns and cities.

The utilization of FFA in urban settings should therefore be considered carefully, only in situations where the set of stringent highly desirable preconditions listed in Section 1.1.2 below are met. When such preconditions are not met, the relevance of FFA should be looked at carefully and balanced against other types of food assistance mechanisms that do not imply the creation of community assets (GFD, school feeding, conditional nutritional or unconditional social safety-nets, etc.).

1.1.2. Preconditions to urban FFA

As per the above, the implementation of any FFA intervention in urban settings should be considered carefully, ensuring that the following highly desirable preconditions are met:

1. **Presence of a pre-identified food gap** (shock based, seasonal or chronic). All WFP food assistance activities have a common entry - the presence of an identified food gap. Therefore FFA can only be implemented in communities or neighbourhoods that have been identified as food insecure, and for the duration of the food gap. This requires urban vulnerability mappings and assessments with a sufficient level of disaggregation to ensure that the food insecure prone areas/neighbourhoods can be identified.²²⁹
2. **Presence of shock(s) affecting food security and nutrition, or high level of vulnerability to an expected shock which compounds on existing food insecurity and undernutrition.** FFA should be used as a mechanism to offset food consumption gaps, and depending on the type of shock to reduce risk or build resilience. In urban areas, shocks may be covariate (at the collective level) or idiosyncratic (at the household level). The following classification of shocks could apply in urban conditions, although it should be recognized that FFA will not always be the most appropriate programme to address/build resilience to these shocks:
 - **Health shock** (can be idiosyncratic or covariate; can affect income and/or expenditure). Examples include outbreaks of water borne diseases, or HIV/AIDS infection.
 - **Economic shock** (can be idiosyncratic or covariate; can affect income and/or expenditure). Examples include surges in global food prices or losses of employment / productive assets.
 - **Conflict** (primarily covariate; can affect income and/or expenditure). Examples include the influx of refugees whom are not equipped with the necessary skillset to secure urban employment, or violence resulting in losses of productive assets.
 - **Sudden onset natural disaster** (covariate; can affect income and/or expenditure). Examples include flash-floods/mud-flows, landslides, cyclones and storm-surges that impact coastal urban areas, tsunamis, and earthquakes.
3. **Presence of a community organizational structure** on which robust and inclusive participatory planning can rely. In most urban settlements – formal or informal – dwellers tend to autonomously group themselves in small “committees” to ensure the functioning of minimal amenities and arrange the delivery of services that are not provided by the local authorities. Such low-level community organizational structures constitute the foundation

²²⁹ Because existing tools may only provide a partial picture of food insecurity and shock trends in urban settings, a mapping of food insecurity and shock trends at the municipality level may be useful to identify areas/ neighbourhoods that should be given priority for WFP assistance, and if appropriate for FFA work. Similarly, specific analysis of the linkages between the urban areas and the rural inland on which they rely for food security will often be required.

on which effective participatory planning (and in turn effective FFA) can be carried out. Participatory planning cannot be undertaken in disorganized or highly fragmented socio-cultural configurations.²³⁰ This approach is in line with the WFP document [Programming food aid in urban areas: operational guidance](#)²³¹, which states that “most urban communities have some form of organization, but it takes time to understand communities and build their trust” and that “most successful interventions [in urban areas] are community-based”.

4. **Buy-in from local authorities (district government, municipality, ward administration, etc.).** Although support from – and ideally ownership by – local authorities may be difficult to secure when the objective is to intervene in informally or illegally built-up areas, it remains an absolute pre-requisite to ensuring the sustainability (and legality) of the intervention. Local authorities’ support is indeed crucial to protect the FFA investment and avoid that long-term benefits are wiped out because the asset creation or rehabilitation contradicts the government’s plans for the area. Note that WFP is not an Agency specialized in urban planning (understood here as the technical and political process concerned with the use of land, as well as the protection and use of the urban environment), hence it is not part of its mandate to advocate for a change in zoning and urban planning strategies.²³² If local authorities refuse that (even small-scale) physical infrastructure is built in a given neighbourhood, then WFP could partner with urban planners to find the most appropriate entry point to build or rehabilitate the necessary physical assets and/or should look into means other than FFA to tackle food insecurity and malnutrition in that area.
5. **Buy-in or acceptance from informal power holders.** Most urban informal areas are characterized by the presence of non-official power holders (community or religious leader, informal neighbourhood representative, and in some instances “slumlords”, gangs, etc.). Designing an FFA programme in this context requires that informal power dynamics are understood and taken into account in the planning phase. Acceptance and – whenever necessary/desirable – support from these informal power holders should be sought. This may be a lengthy process that involves trust building and requires the involvement of partners that have deep local roots and can mobilize extended support networks.
6. **Whenever appropriate and required, ensure that the FFA intervention is planned and implemented at scale.** Reducing exposure to covariate risk in urban areas will often imply large-scale construction or rehabilitation works that may fall beyond the capacity of a locally planned FFA response. This may sometimes be tackled through the mobilization of a cluster of communities, each consulted separately for the purpose of participatory planning and each carrying out a complementary part of an overall coherent asset building effort. Consultations may also occur jointly through specific representatives or planning teams selected by each community.
7. **Ensure that FFA is not substituting itself to regular municipal or community maintenance works on existing infrastructure.** Regular repair and maintenance activities should not be undertaken using FFA. One-off repair or maintenance works may however be exceptionally considered after a sudden onset disaster, if such activities fall beyond the capacity of local authorities.
8. **Ensure that FFA interventions are time-bound and do not create expectations of regular employment and/or dependency.**

²³⁰ Note that a community can be self-structured despite being economically, culturally, socially or ethnically diverse.

²³¹ WFP, 2004. Programming food aid in urban areas: operational guidance. Available at: <http://fcluster.org/sites/default/files/documents/Programming%20Food%20Aid%20in%20Urban%20Areas%20-%20WFP%20Operational%20Guidance%202004.pdf>

²³² WFP can however, if and when required, play a supportive role with partners and local authorities through its food security and markets assessment work in urban settings.

- 9. Ensure that the FFA intervention – if implemented at scale – will not generate unintended effects that may ultimately result in the exclusion of the food insecure population, in a worsening of its food security status or in an aggravation of rural/urban migration dynamics.** This may happen if the FFA intervention results in an increase in property values or if it significantly increases the perception that more economic opportunities can be found in urban as opposed to rural areas.

The “urban” concept covers a wide variety of different settings, of which only some will meet the above preconditions and be conducive to FFA. This will more often be the case for small rural towns (including pastoral centres) or for the outskirts of larger cities where rural and urban livelihoods remain heavily interlinked (the urban/rural nexus).

Note that whenever some or all of the above preconditions cannot be met, the implementation of FFA activities should be considered carefully and their relevance should be balanced against other types of WFP responses. Meeting the above preconditions will often require anticipated efforts from the CO in engaging with the government, local authorities, partners and other stakeholders in order to lay the ground for a possible FFA intervention.

Overall, WFP’s entry point for engaging in FFA activities should be clearly identified in each specific urban context. FFA should only be considered when it can provide a clear added value vis-à-vis other food assistance tools and other humanitarian or development actors, and when a clear dual objective of improving food security over the short and longer term is expected out of the intervention.

1.1.3. Generic planning considerations for urban FFA

Once the preconditions are met and the relevance of implementing FFA in a given urban context is confirmed, the following elements should be carefully considered during the planning phase:

- **Ensuring a high level of coordination.** Urban settings are often characterized by a multiplicity of actors, be it administrative (district, municipality, urban area authority, etc.), other UN Agencies (HABITAT, UNDP, UNICEF, etc.), NGOs or Community-Based Organisations. Coordination is therefore crucial during the planning phase to assess how WFP should fit in – particularly in light of other existing schemes serving the target population (often cash for work programmes or unconditional safety-nets).
- **Ensuring that the creation or rehabilitation of physical assets does not contradict municipal plans for the area.** Whenever required, WFP should partner with urban planners to identify the best entry point for creating or rehabilitating physical assets in a given area.
- **Reaching out to the marginalized groups.** The most marginalized groups tend to be more vulnerable and less visible in urban areas. In this regard it is important that the “community” on which FFA planning and implementation is based is selected at a sufficiently low level, and that – except for early recovery interventions – enough time is allotted to the participatory planning phase. Note that to the extent possible, urban FFA should engage with and mobilize non-registered and isolated population groups (recent migrants, “pavement dwellers”, homeless, refugees, etc.).
- **Adopting a gender- and protection-sensitive approach.** The high population densities and lack of basic services often compound gender inequalities and other risks in urban areas. The absence of privacy due to the sharing of private and public spaces, the poor hygiene resulting from the absence of latrines/toilets, and the aggravated threats of gender-based violence are only a few examples of these accrued risks that need to be understood and taken into account in any urban FFA planning exercise; refer to **Chapter 3: Section 4.1 and 4.3.**

- **Security and access conditions** are often degraded and volatile in urban areas. Security assessments and mitigation measures (both for the staff and the assets themselves) may sometimes be required to ensure the feasibility of FFA in unsecure locations. Particular attention should be given to mitigate the reputational risks associated with the collective frustration or unrests that may arise in case of failure or misinterpretation of urban FFA interventions (a risk that is higher in densely populated areas that are subject to stark political, ethnic or socioeconomic divides).
- **Engineering planning.** The rehabilitation or construction of infrastructure that require specific engineering expertise should only be implemented if approved and screened through the standard engineering works planning and approval procedures; refer to **Chapter 3: Section 7.3**²³³.
- **Supervision planning and safety.** As for any standard FFA, the working sites should be supervised by a qualified government or cooperating partner trained staff attentive to safety measures and to the adherence to the proper technical standards, including safety measures and precautions against injury at the work sites. Note that delays in FFA implementation and pipeline breaks are likely to trigger larger scale backlashes in urban environments as compared to rural settings.
- Other key aspects to consider in urban settings relate to **local authorities' capacity**, to **specific monitoring requirements**, and to the **phasing out strategy** (all FFA should be time-bound, even when grafted onto larger programmes).

1.1.4. Targeting aspects

The set of risks associated with targeting (risk of inclusion and exclusion errors, risk of aggravated social tension) are compounded in urban areas with high population densities and high level of inequalities. Given the diversity of urban livelihood types and strategies, identifying commonly agreed and accepted proxies for poverty and food insecurity is also often more difficult than in rural settings (where indicators such as land ownership or cattle ownership can more easily guide intra-community targeting). The planning phase of FFA in urban settings should therefore carefully look into the options available for targeting, keeping in mind that no single methodology can be applied across the board.

Step 1 – geographical targeting

As stated in the existing WFP policy documents, *“the heterogeneity of urban neighbourhoods presents unique challenges for targeting poor urban households”*, primarily because *“urban neighbourhoods often encompass households with highly disparate income levels, diverse livelihood strategies and different compositions”*. However, due to the physical nature of the assets created/rehabilitated, identifying geographic locations that are characterized by **both food insecurity and high risk exposure** is an inevitable step of the urban FFA planning process²³⁴.

A number of countries and cities have developed historical mappings or datasets (i) on urban areas that have effectively been hit by a disaster (through a PDNA²³⁵ for instance), (ii) on urban areas likely to be exposed to future disasters (sometimes as part of a DRR strategy), and (iii) on urban areas with the highest prevalence of poverty and food insecurity (likely to be the worst affected in case of economic shock). When available, these maps/datasets should be overlaid and complemented by trend analyses to identify specific locations where the short- and long-term

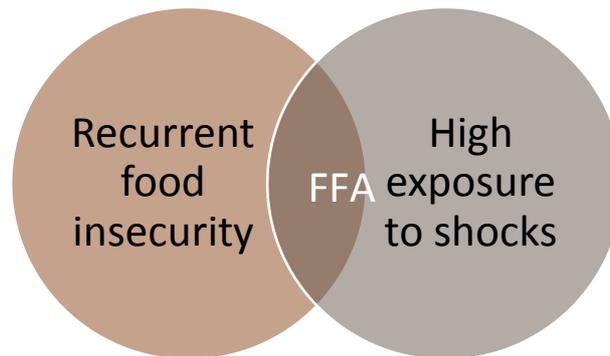
²³³ Note that major infrastructure works such as schools and other public buildings construction/rehabilitation is not recommended for FFA. Other specific Special Operations may require WFP to establish or rebuild warehouses or other food access related infrastructure in urban areas – however those are not considered part of FFA.

²³⁴ FFA interventions providing training on asset creation, management and maintenance, as well as on Natural Resource Management (NRM) and Soil and Water Conservation (SWC) measures are also likely to require geographical targeting.

²³⁵ Post Disaster Needs Assessment.

effects of FFA can be maximized i.e. areas that combine recurrent food insecurity and high exposure to shocks or risk of shocks.

Figure 5.1 - Areas where effects of FFA can be maximized



Step 2 – household-level targeting

Once the area of intervention has been identified, the planning process must carefully consider if and how household-level targeting should be undertaken. A set of simple and straightforward household targeting criteria may be *identified* on the basis of food security analyses/surveys, and then be *validated* through the participatory planning phase. These could for instance be related to the family members’ employment status or to their housing conditions, and could be either simple (only a few easily observable criteria) or more complex (proxy-means testing formula for instance).

FFA practitioners should however be aware that in many contexts, engaging in the process of refining targeting criteria using community-based participatory planning will require a lengthy process of trust building. In this regard it is important to mobilize locally recognized and accepted cooperating partners, and to **identify effective “community entry persons”** such as a local political representative or the leader of a well-established and known group.

If community-based validation is deemed impossible²³⁶, then participation to the asset creation/rehabilitation effort may either be (i) extended to all households in the community (if all can be considered as food insecure and if the FFA works can absorb the manpower) or (ii) aligned with national safety net targeting approaches (so long as their “Public Works” element qualifies as FFA – refer to **Chapter 1: Section 1.4**).

What is important overall is to ensure that the most food insecure are prioritized first, not only to participate in FFA but also to benefit from the assets created.

1.2. Understanding the urban context

1.2.1. Typology of urban settings for FFA purposes

The table below presents a **basic classification of the various urban contexts (or urban profiles) in which FFA interventions may be considered**. Each have distinct implications in terms of FFA planning and FFA implementation approaches. This classification is voluntarily simplified and should not be considered as rigid. In some instances, the context in which FFA is to be implemented may correspond to a combination of several urban profiles, in which case the FFA practitioner should look into the specific implications of each of the relevant profiles in terms of FFA planning and implementation.

²³⁶ For instance if no collectively relevant targeting proxies can be identified, or if the risk of disrupting social cohesion is too high.

Note that, in most countries, the range of possible urban FFA interventions will be limited to where WFP’s food assistance is called upon to meet food and nutritional needs in response to rapid onset natural or man-made disasters. This corresponds to profile A as per the below classification.

Table 5.1 - Typology of urban settings for FFA purposes

| | | Programming phase | |
|----------------|--|---------------------------|---|
| | | Relief and early recovery | Risk mitigation and resilience building |
| Urban typology | Semi/peri-urban (agrarian or pastoral livelihoods remain influential) | Profile A | Profile B |
| | Urban with high exposure to natural or man-made disasters (covariate risk) | | Profile C |
| | Urban with high household-level vulnerabilities (low covariate risk) | | Profile D |

Profile A – post-disaster response

The range of asset creation possible in urban contexts is often limited to the early recovery phase following events such as flash-floods with related mud-flows, major landslides, cyclones and storm-surges that impact coastal urban areas, tsunamis, earthquakes and other man-made shocks such as violence and conflict. Given high population densities and low levels of preparedness – particularly in areas where the poor reside – disasters often have massive disruptive effects on livelihoods, on social and physical infrastructure, and in turn on food security and nutrition. Note that this “profile A” may apply to any type of urban settings: small town, megacity, refugee camp, etc.

Implementing FFA during early recovery phases serves the dual objective of meeting an immediate – often temporary or temporarily aggravated – food gap while rehabilitating or repairing pre-existing assets, thus ensuring that access to humanitarian assistance is secured (short-term), that livelihoods can resume (mid-term) and that the ability to absorb future shocks is restored (mid/long-term). **The main intention is therefore not to create new assets but to restore the functionality of pre-existing ones.** FFA activities in this context may range from removal and safe disposal of debris, mud cleaning, clearance and repair of roads and other access infrastructure, clearing of canals, drainage of obstructed lines, and repair of embankments.

To this effect, FFA in early recovery urban contexts should be planned for **short duration interventions** (1 to 6 months maximum depending on contexts). These should be phased out once the rehabilitation or repair of the most critically needed assets is completed, with other schemes then kicking-in to provide longer-term assistance to the urban poor and chronically food insecure: government and/or partner-led safety-net or employment generation schemes, or other forms of support that may still require food assistance (e.g. school meals, nutrition, HIVAIDS).

Planning urban FFA in an early recovery phase will depend on:

- **Decisions from the government to adopt labour based conditional transfers** intended to tackle food insecurity and restore damaged/dysfunctional assets as a result of the shock. Note that setting a work conditionality may not always be appropriate in the immediate aftermath of a disaster, particularly if households are still coping with the shock

themselves and are unable to dedicate time and efforts to the FFA works (in such situation, temporary unconditional GFDs or cash-based distributions may be more appropriate).

- **The existence of a Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA)** or equivalent assessment that identifies (i) the population(s) whose food security and nutrition has severely deteriorated as a result of the shock and (ii) the area(s) most directly hit by the shock and in need of asset repair/rehabilitation.
- **The existence of a set of “off-the-shelf low tech/low risk” projects** prepared in advance by the local municipality and/or partners as part of a preventative planning exercise with cooperating partners²³⁷. These plans may be available in urban areas prone to recurrent shocks and ready to be activated as post disasters plans.

Planning approaches should remain rapid and simple. Early recovery contexts require quick decisions regarding planning and implementation arrangements, hence applying the standard 3PA approach – requiring sufficient time and resources to identify sustainable / long-term responses to food insecurity – after a sudden shock cannot apply. However, elements of the 3PA and in particular the ICA can be useful if previously undertaken – an ICA or ICA ‘Plus’ (multi-layered) exercise may provide interesting directions for geographical concentration of efforts, particularly areas highly susceptible to being affected by the shock, and entry points for partnerships building. Below are the essential planning steps to be followed as part of a fast-tracked approach aimed at implementing urban FFA during an early recovery phase:

1. Assess the availability of PDNA reports and identify areas with high food insecurity prevalence and in need for asset rehabilitation.
2. Assess the availability of low tech – low risk off-the-shelf plans to be carried out during the early recovery phase.
3. Using government (Municipality, DRR bodies, Civil Protection departments, etc.) and local coordination mechanisms (e.g. Food Security and other relevant Clusters, UN agencies’ and NGO specific programmes) select specific areas (wards, sub-locations, etc.) and range of activities that would require a WFP FFA response. Ensure that the intervention is time-bound and that the exit strategy is clear.
4. Together with government and partners, set up/ engage with relief and recovery committees at the local level, and organize a light and rapid planning session²³⁸ to:
 - Ensure the best possible level of coordination at the local level (i.e. who is doing what *in practice* rather than at a macro level).
 - Define the number of people in need (refer to **Chapter 2: Section 3.1** on targeting) and registration processes, by location;
 - Confirm the specific activities and identify the related work norms and self-help element through a rapid reconnaissance visit and discussion with key informants (e.g. local wardens, authorities and affected people, etc.);
 - Define the transfer modality and set the transfer value (refer to **Chapter 6**), as well as the work/transfer duration;
 - Identify the mitigating actions for the risks associated with FFA work (e.g. removal of debris from collapsed buildings only if cleared/marked by engineers); and assess whether the FFA interventions requires an engineering and/or environmental review beforehand.

²³⁷ This includes plans prepared in advance by municipalities and various ministries or authorities and other partners such as the Civil Protection, Ministry of Public Works, etc. They are developed in areas prone to recurrent disasters and include a number of activities that can be activated as early recovery efforts.

²³⁸ This may not be possible during acute emergencies, in which case the FFA element can be grafted on a Public Work scheme so long as (i) it provides only for the share of the transfer that corresponds to food requirements and (ii) the objective is to rehabilitate or repair assets that can meaningfully contribute to reducing the risk of future shock and allow livelihood activities to resume.

- Define the safety procedures and the set of amenities to be provided to the workers (e.g. equipment, transportation, water, first aid kit) – see **Chapter 4: Section 4.3**.
- Review all the above elements through a protection and gender lens (e.g. women may need to work in small groups or separate from men, etc.).
- Together with partners, agree on reporting requirements/attendance sheets, on Field Level Agreements (in shock prone areas standby agreements may exist), organize and monitor the work groups and the distribution of tools, the respect of technical standards and safety rules, and the transfer of food or cash-based assistance (refer to **Chapter 6** and **Chapter 7**).

Profile B – semi/peri-urban context

This context applies to **urban areas where livelihoods continue to rely (at least partially) on agrarian or pastoral practices**. It can correspond to small towns located in predominantly rural regions, to the fringes of larger cities that remain integrated with the rural inland or to small urban centres composed of pastoralists dropping out of (either temporarily or permanently) their traditional livelihoods. Semi-urban economies are not purely cash-based, and remain to a large extent characterized by livelihoods and food security patterns that are influenced by local food production. They are the types of urban contexts that will most often meet the preconditions presented in Section 1.1.2.

Semi-urban settings can be characterized by some or all of the features below:

- **Regular movement or migration between the rural and urban environments**. Such movements can be on a daily or seasonal basis (traders accessing markets; pastoralists or farmers temporarily migrating away from their land to look for complementary income sources during the lean season; urban herders taking their cattle to peri-urban grazing land; etc.);
- **Persistence of small agricultural and pastoral activities within the urban environment itself**, such as backyard / rooftop gardens or small livestock / poultry production activities. This can be seen particularly in low density sprawling cities and towns.
- **Peri-urban areas occupied by ex-pastoralists** (also referred to as people dropping out of pastoralism) **or by small-holder vulnerable farmers** supplying produce to town using sewage water or ad-hoc irrigation systems from drainage.

Given the fact that urban dwellers may not have permanently settled in the city or town, FFA interventions in semi-urban contexts should be designed in a way that **accounts for potential unintended effects on urban/rural migratory dynamics**. This point should be discussed together with the Government to ensure the FFA approach is in line with the national strategy i.e. either to promote or discourage urbanization.

Note that given the presence of agrarian and pastoral livelihoods, the existing SLP and CBPP tools are relevant and can be applied (ensuring that sufficient attention is given to the “cash” dimension of livelihoods).

The following set of FFA interventions could be considered in peri-urban contexts:

- If the intention is to support food production, then the focus can be on backyard and rooftop gardens, horticulture plots, aquaponics, market infrastructure and accessibility, or on the rehabilitation of peri-urban grazing land. However, the planning of such FFA interventions should “*avoid exaggerating the potential role of urban agriculture in meeting the food needs of urban people*” (see WFP *Programming food aid in urban areas: operational guidance*).

- A number of FFA activities suitable for former pastoralists can include nursery development and tree planting/urban greening programmes, the removal of specific water and recycling for organic composting, plantation of windbreaks and shelterbelts, among others.
- Peri-urban farmers in areas particularly exposed to shocks may be supported through FFA to improve flood protection embankments (an intervention that will often require engineering and environmental reviews), expand on agroforestry measures, and trained in value chains development (e.g. via Farmers Field Schools) together with FAO.

Profile C – high exposure to environmental or man-made disaster

This corresponds to areas of high food insecurity prevalence which, due to their construction pattern, population composition, location or topography are **known to be exposed to a significant threat of environmental or man-made disaster**. In many instances, exposure to the shock may have been aggravated by environmental degradation following years of increasing demographic and urban pressure, e.g. mangroves destroyed as a result of real estate pressure on coastal land, deforested hillsides as a result of continuous wood chopping, etc.

In such contexts, the FFA planning phase should focus on the identification of assets that are of a **protective nature**, and are **at scale** to achieve the intended risk reduction objectives. The latter is a considerable challenge, as hazard prone areas are often of considerable size and may contain large urban areas as well as a multiplicity of heterogeneous neighbourhoods – sometimes comprising hundreds of thousand people. In such situation a “cluster” approach may be followed, whereby parallel CBPPs are undertaken with each community exposed to the risk and whereby the FFA work is undertaken by each community in a complementary with each other.

When planning FFA in urban areas highly exposed to environmental and man-made disasters, it is recommended to identify both (i) FFA interventions having a protective / resilience function to be implemented prior to the shock’s occurrence (these will often require preliminary environmental and engineering assessments), and (ii) a set of low risk – low tech FFA interventions that could potentially be implemented should the shock occur (see profile A).

Similarly, FFA practitioners should consider the possibility of combining several FFA interventions that complement each other (e.g. reforestation, fuel-efficient stoves, and resource management training).

On the implementation front, carrying-out large-scale FFA in urban settings requires that utilization and maintenance arrangements are as simple as possible, are reconfirmed with each community, and are secured through local authorities.

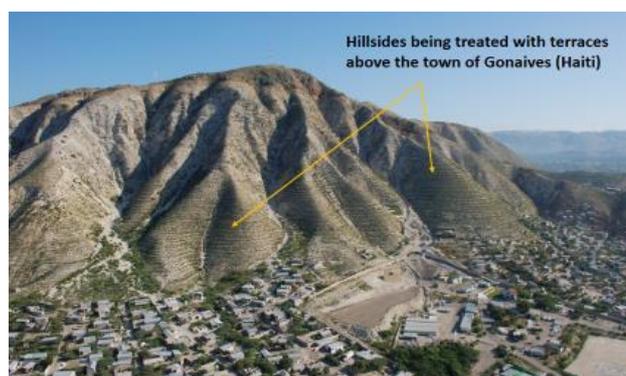
Possible FFA interventions in urban areas highly exposed to disaster include the rehabilitation of a degraded catchment area above a built-up area (reforestation, replantation of grazing plants, etc.), the rehabilitation of drainage infrastructure in flood prone localities, the raising of river embankments, the rehabilitation of mangroves, training on the construction of fuel efficient stoves, training on natural asset management and conservation, etc.

Zoom on urban watershed rehabilitation:

FFA may be required when the exposed urban area is part of a watershed that is degraded and prone to landslides, with depleted upstream catchments that need complex rehabilitation efforts.

Plans developed by the local authorities may require the stabilization of these areas with the support from different partners. WFP may step in and support such efforts through FFA when the plans include a food security objective, pending that such plans have been discussed with the

Figure 5.2 - Example of rehabilitation in Gonaïves, Haiti



local population and intend to have the most vulnerable benefiting from both the transfer and the assets created.

However, these activities will have different implementation arrangements compared to participatory watershed development in rural areas in the sense that the land does not, in most cases, belong to the food insecure populations exposed to the risk of floods and landslides. Such areas may indeed be owned by the municipality or privately, may be eligible for construction, may be of religious significance, or face other major impediments making their rehabilitation difficult.

Watershed rehabilitation activities may include reforestation programmes supported by the municipality and associated with secured user rights for women or other disadvantaged groups (wood chopping), and linked to fuel efficient stove development projects.

Zoom on urban centres situated along coastal areas:

The urban area can correspond to a densely populated portion of the town exposed to storm surges and tidal waves. This is very common in parts of Asia and central America where coastal areas have been severely encroached for construction purposes, with vegetation removed from sand dunes (or the sand dunes removed altogether), and mangrove belts and other protective vegetation stripped for housing or fish/shrimp farming. This often translates into severe damages from cyclones, storms, river flooding, and tsunamis when they occur.

The type of planning approach required for replanting mangrove areas, rehabilitating dykes or stabilizing sand dunes is often technically very demanding and mobilizes technical expertise from multiple sectors²³⁹. These efforts normally require a number of long-term investments that WFP may support during initial stages using FFA, or throughout a longer period as part of a coalition of partners so long as the WFP transfer only corresponds to the food security element of an overall integrated package (e.g. using a multi-stakeholder cash/voucher platform).

Occasionally, these programmes may extend to cover long tracts of coastal lines along rural areas with irrigation fields and other productive assets. Hence the rehabilitation effort may become more of a multi-year rural-urban plan where WFP is part of a coalition of partners that agree on a major rehabilitation endeavour. WFP has, for example, played a major role in the rehabilitation of mangrove forests in the Casamance region of Senegal (particularly in areas around Ziguinchor).

Profile D – high household-level vulnerability

This urban profile corresponds to areas where food insecurity and poor nutrition is prevalent due to high household-level vulnerabilities and repeated idiosyncratic shocks affecting households' livelihoods, yet where exposure to a covariate shock remains limited. In such situations, food insecurity and poor nutrition are mainly the result of factors constraining access to the labour market (lack of education, poor transportation networks, stigma, etc.) and repeated household-level shocks over time (loss of employment, damage to productive assets, disease, theft, death of the family's main breadwinner, etc.). The focus should therefore be on building assets that either:

Figure 5.3 - Rehabilitation of dykes in Bangladesh



²³⁹ See FAO, 2007. Coastal area planning and management with a focus on disaster management and the protective role of coastal forests and trees. Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/010/ag127e/AG127E10.htm.

(i) improve access to the labour market or (ii) improve livelihoods' resilience to household-level shocks.

However, FFA will only rarely be considered as appropriate in such urban contexts, primarily because livelihoods' heterogeneity often prevents the identification of assets that can strengthen livelihoods and resilience at a collective level, but also because the positioning and calibration of FFA is extremely difficult when the intent is to tackle idiosyncratic shocks.

In such contexts, planning requires a fine understanding of the household level determinants of food insecurity and malnutrition, particularly of:

- The factors that may constrain access to the labour market;
- The non-economic factors that may interact with food security and nutrition (WASH, etc.);
- The shocks most frequently affecting livelihoods in the area.

Possible FFA interventions in urban contexts of high household-level vulnerability may include small WATSAN infrastructure, small road/pathway infrastructure, small market infrastructure, backyard and rooftop gardens, one-off collection of recyclable waste to initiate a waste recycling business, etc.

1.2.2. Urban analytical grid

Any FFA planning phase in an urban environment should – in addition to the key elements already described in the above sections – be analysed through the lens of the 12 key analytical elements presented in the grid below.

Table 5.2 - Urban analytical grid

| Key analytical element | Options | Potential implications on FFA planning |
|--------------------------|--|--|
| 1. Settlement profile | Rural town | The settlement type will likely be connected to the livelihood profiles encountered (e.g. the smaller the city the higher the probability of integration with the rural inland), to the level of local authorities' planning capacity, and to the expected scale of impact of covariate shocks. The settlement profile shall also influence the level at which participatory planning is carried out. |
| | Small or medium city | |
| | Primate or mega-city | |
| 2. Tenure status | Informal (encroached/unrecognized) | The tenure status is a key aspect to be taken into account at time of planning. In informal/illegal land tenure situations, the ability to engage with local authorities will often be challenging and arrangements to secure ownership of and access to the assets created will be difficult to secure. The feasibility of FFA in such a context should be carefully assessed. Neighborhoods with "de facto" tenure recognition offer a better ground for FFA, although securing ownership and access to the assets created may remain impossible in legal terms. |
| | De facto recognition | |
| | Formal (recognized officially or de facto) | |
| 3. Consolidation level | Low (plastic or iron shacks) | A low level of housing consolidation may be a symptom of the scale/recurrence of past shocks, but may also constitute a significant vulnerability factor in terms of exposure to future shocks (except perhaps for earthquakes which may have a more adverse impact on consolidated neighborhoods than on "shanty towns"). |
| | High (bricks, concrete blocks) | |
| 4. Density level | Low/medium | Covariate shocks will likely have a more destructive and disruptive impact in densely populated areas. FFA planning and asset management arrangements will also be more difficult to set up in high density contexts. |
| | High | |
| 5. Sanitation conditions | Acceptable | Poor water and sanitation is often a key determinant of nutritional conditions in urban areas, hence a detailed WATSAN understanding is often necessary to ensure FFA interventions are nutrition-sensitive. |
| | Deteriorated | |

| | | |
|--|---|--|
| 6. Dwellers' status | Residents | Each of the possible dwelling statuses are attached to specific vulnerabilities. IDPs and refugees may have incurred significant losses of assets at time of displacement and be left with very little or no livelihood options. Migrants may come from a rural background and not have the necessary knowledge and skillset to enter the urban labor force. Migrants, IDPs and refugees may all be subject to stigma and be discriminated against on the labor market. For more information on the approach to be adopted when planning and implementing FFA for refugees and IDPs, refer to the second part of this Chapter. |
| | Migrants (one-off) | |
| | Seasonal migrants | |
| | IDPs | |
| | Refugees | |
| 7. Sociocultural consistency | Low (fragmented languages, place of origin, religion) | The ability to plan and safely implement FFA interventions may be negatively impacted by the lack of sociocultural consistency within the targeted area. Complex FFA interventions may only be doable in areas where sociocultural cohesion is high. |
| | High (dominant language, place of origin, religion) | |
| 8. Demographic dynamic | Rapid growth (migration or displacement) | Rapidly growing urban areas may not be conducive to FFA planning and implementation (low-tech low-risk assets at best), while areas characterized by seasonal migration may require specific understanding of the "push" and "pull" factors that the city is exerting on the rural population (with particular attention being given to the impact of the assets on the rural/urban balance i.e. to the risk of aggravating the urbanization rate through urban FFA). |
| | Stabilized (demographic growth only) | |
| | Seasonal migration (in/out from rural areas) | |
| 9. Livelihood profile | Mainly urban (secondary and tertiary sectors) | The livelihood profile will considerably influence the planning approach as well as the type of FFA interventions selected. In areas characterized by a mix of urban and rural livelihoods – such as small rural town or fringes of larger cities – the traditional seasonal planning approach may be applied, but particular attention should be given to the impact of the assets on the rural/urban migratory balance (FFA interventions may involuntarily "anchor" previously rural populations in the city). In areas where livelihoods are largely disrupted – for instance as a result of a recent shock or of a massive displacement – FFA planning should focus on low-tech low-risk interventions, often of a recovery or protective nature. |
| | Mix urban / rural (primary sector remains significant) | |
| | Largely disrupted | |
| 10. Livelihood consistency | Low (scattered employment patterns) | The more consistent the livelihoods in a given area the higher the exposure to covariate shocks, but the easier the identification of assets that can bring about widespread collective benefits. FFA interventions in areas characterized by high livelihood fragmentation will often be limited to low tech-low risk interventions, often of a recovery or protective nature. |
| | High (consistent or clustered employment patterns) | |
| 11. Security and access | Satisfactory | Security conditions will influence the type of FFA asset(s) that can be built (the safer the conditions, the more complex the asset can be). Highly deteriorated security conditions may even prevent the implementation of FFA altogether (acute community tensions, absence of rule of law, etc.) |
| | Of concern | |
| | Highly deteriorated and volatile | |
| 12. Local authorities' capacity | Low | Local capacity will influence the type of planning methodology, the type of asset to be built/rehabilitated (only low-tech low-risk if local capacity is too low), as well as the type of arrangement set to secure the access to and functioning of the asset(s) once completed. An element of capacity building will often need to be associated to the asset creation/rehabilitation effort. See Chapter 3 . |
| | Moderate | |
| | High | |

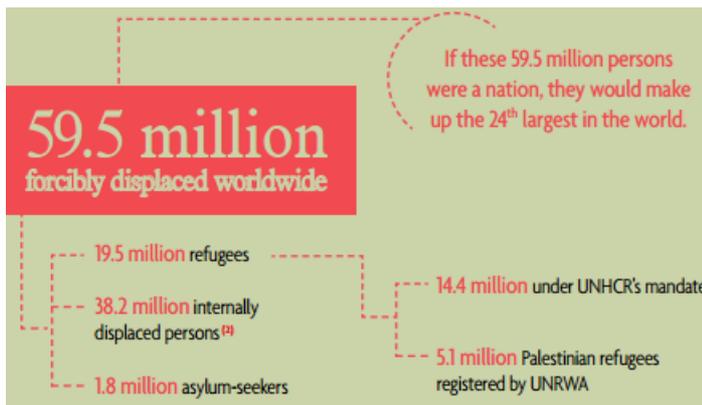
2. PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING FFA IN DISPLACEMENT SETTINGS

2.1. Overall context

In 2014, UNHCR announced that worldwide forced displacement numbers had reached 51.2 million, a level not previously seen in the post-World War II era. In 2015, this figure had grown to a staggering **59.5 million people**²⁴⁰.

In addition to conflict/persecution-induced displacement, an average of **26 million people each year are being displaced from their homes by natural disasters**, including floods, storms, earthquakes and droughts. While the number and scale of disasters fluctuates year to year, the trends of total number of people displaced in the last decades is on the rise²⁴¹.

Figure 5.2 - Global forced displacement figures



Source: UNHCR (2015) Forced displacements in 2014. Available at: <http://unhcr.org/556725e69.html>.

Note: Refugees from Syria, Afghanistan and Somalia made up more than half of all refugees under UNHCR's responsibility. Top 5 refugees-hosting countries include Turkey, Pakistan, Lebanon, Iran and Ethiopia.

Key definitions

Refugees include individuals recognized under the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, its 1967 Protocol, the 1969 Organization of African Unity (OAU) Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, those recognized in accordance with the UNHCR Statute, individuals granted complementary forms of protection, and those enjoying temporary protection. The refugee population also includes persons in refugee-like situations.

Asylum-seekers (with 'pending cases') are individuals who have sought international protection and whose claims for refugee status have not yet been determined.

Returned refugees (returnees) are former refugees who have returned to their country of origin, either spontaneously or in an organized fashion, but are yet to be fully integrated. Such returns would normally take place only under conditions of safety and dignity.

Internally displaced persons (IDPs) are persons or groups of persons who have been forced to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights, or natural or man-made disasters, and who have not crossed an international border.

Returned IDPs refers to those IDPs who were beneficiaries of UNHCR's protection and assistance activities, and who returned to their area of origin or habitual residence.

Source: UNHCR, 2015. Forced displacements in 2014. Available at: <http://unhcr.org/556725e69.html>.

²⁴⁰ This figure does not include displacement induced by natural disasters. Source: UNHCR, 2015. Forced displacements in 2014. Available at: <http://unhcr.org/556725e69.html>.

²⁴¹ Considering figures from 2008 onwards. Source: IDMC, 2015. People displaced by disasters - Global Estimates 2015. Available at: www.internal-displacement.org/assets/library/Media/201507-globalEstimates-2015/20150713-global-estimates-2015-en-v1.pdf.

Most displacement crises persist for many years and are referred to as 'protracted displacement' situations²⁴². Historically, there have been relatively few short-term refugee displacements, as most refugee crises last for decades rather than years. Today more than half of refugees in the world are caught up in protracted situations. Estimating the numbers of situations of protracted displacement is more complicated²⁴³, yet all the signs exist that these trends will intensify in years to come, with protracted displacement situations worldwide increasing in length and number. In most of these situations, prospects for solutions (or 'durable solutions' in the case of refugees) remain bleak, with refugees and IDPs remaining heavily reliant on international humanitarian assistance.

Durable solutions for refugees, according to UNHCR

While UNHCR's primary purpose is to safeguard the rights and well-being of refugees, its ultimate goal is to help find durable solutions that will allow them to rebuild their lives in dignity and peace. UNHCR considers three solutions open to refugees: (i) **voluntary repatriation** (refugees return home on a voluntary basis); (ii) **local integration** (integration of refugees in the host community); or (iii) **resettlement** to a third country in situations where it is impossible for a person to go back home or remain in the host country.

Displacement is increasingly an urban and dispersed phenomenon, with settled camps becoming less prevalent. At least 59% of all refugees are living in urban settings, a proportion that UNHCR says is increasing annually. Most IDPs are found outside identifiable camps or settlements, and instead live dispersed in urban, rural or remote settings – a factor that contributes to their 'invisibility' when it comes to efforts to assist and protect them. It is only in Sub-Saharan Africa that there is a clear majority of the refugee caseload in rural settings. Furthermore, the bulk (56%) of all refugees are in private accommodation as opposed to planned camps²⁴⁴.

There is a sense of urgency in the humanitarian and development system to find new ways of working with refugees and displaced populations – in particular on how to promote self-reliance and livelihoods in protracted displacement. Aid agencies seeking to promote this have progressed from models of assistance largely focused on care and maintenance (with indirect but potentially important outcomes for livelihood protection) towards a more holistic response to the challenges and opportunities available to displaced people. However many challenges still need to be overcome to progress towards self-reliance, including aid agencies' limited capacities, limited integration and coordination mechanisms, and funding barriers.

Definition of self-reliance

The ability of individuals, households or communities to meet their essential needs and enjoy social and economic rights in a sustainable manner and with dignity. In: UNHCR 2014, Global Strategy for Livelihoods 2014-2015. Available at: www.unhcr.org/530f107b6.pdf.

²⁴² Definitions of protracted displacement vary across organisations and depend on the purpose and context in which the term is applied.

²⁴³ Little is also known about protracted displacement situations following disasters: they are poorly monitored and little reported on. Climate change, in tandem with people's increasing exposure and vulnerability, is expected to magnify this trend, as extreme weather events become more frequent/ intense.

²⁴⁴ Source: ODI (2015) Protracted displacement: uncertain paths to self-reliance in exile. Available at: www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/9851.pdf.

2.2. WFP's work and the potential role for FFA

A set of WFP corporate policies outlines specific orientations for programming in support of displaced populations, including [From Crisis to Recovery](#)²⁴⁵ (1998); [Food Aid and Livelihoods in Emergencies Strategies for WFP](#)²⁴⁶ (2003); [Targeting in Emergencies](#)²⁴⁷ (2006); and the [WFP Humanitarian Protection Policy](#)²⁴⁸ (2012).

Whilst not a policy, WFP has also ascribed to the five [Commitments on Accountability to Affected People/Populations \(CAAPs\)](#)²⁴⁹ of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). Although applicable throughout WFP's work, the CAAPs are particularly relevant for displacement contexts. WFP is also intending to develop a strategy on Accountability to Affected People/Populations (AAP) and programming guidelines in refugee settings.

Since its creation, WFP has played a major role in delivering programmes and interventions for displaced populations in various man-made and natural crises throughout the world. The numbers of displaced people benefiting from WFP assistance has increased substantially in recent years, mainly as a consequence of man-made crises in Syria/Iraq, South Sudan, CAR, DRC and Nigeria. In 2014, WFP assisted 80 million people in 82 countries, out of which 22.3 million (or 28%) were displaced people – including 6.7 million refugees, 14.8 million IDPs, and 800,000 returnees.

A significant proportion of WFP's work with refugees and IDPs is focused on providing food assistance to (i) save lives; (ii) ensure that the food and nutrition needs of these populations are met; (iii) to protect their livelihood assets; and (iv) to prevent them resorting to negative coping strategies. This approach is sometimes referred to as the '**care and maintenance approach**' - even though it has the potential to quicken the recovery process and generate indirect but potentially important outcomes for long-term health, well-being and livelihoods.

WFP and partners have also explored and implemented projects to strengthen the self-reliance and livelihoods among refugees and IDPs populations. In 2011 and 2012, WFP and UNHCR undertook [joint impact evaluations](#)²⁵⁰ in Chad, Ethiopia, Rwanda and Bangladesh to assess the contribution of food assistance to self-reliance in protracted refugee situations. These evaluations showed that while the care and maintenance model has had positive effects on immediate food security, the desired evolution towards greater self-reliance has not occurred.

Following this evaluation, WFP and UNHCR strengthened collaboration on self-reliance programming in refugee settings. In the frame of this collaboration, both agencies are collaborating in three sites – Chad, Uganda and South Sudan – to pilot alternative approaches to 'perpetual care and maintenance' with the aim of increasing the dignity, integrity and self-reliance of displaced populations. In this regard, WFP and UNHCR are also developing a joint strategy - [Enhancing Self-Reliance in Protracted Refugee Situations](#)²⁵¹.

²⁴⁵ WFP, 1998. From Crisis to Recovery. Available at: www.wfp.org/content/crisis-recovery.

²⁴⁶ WFP, 2003. Food Aid and Livelihoods in Emergencies Strategies for WFP. Available at: www.wfp.org/content/food-aid-and-livelihoods-emergencies-strategies-wfp.

²⁴⁷ WFP, 2006. Targeting in Emergencies. Available at: www.wfp.org/content/targeting-emergencies.

²⁴⁸ WFP, 2012. Humanitarian Protection Policy. Available at: www.wfp.org/content/wfp-humanitarian-protection-policy.

²⁴⁹ See: <https://interagencystandingcommittee.org/accountability-affected-people>.

²⁵⁰ WFP and UNHCR, 2012. Synthesis of Mixed Method Impact Evaluations of the Contribution of Food Assistance to Durable Solutions in Protracted Refugee Situations. Available at: www.wfp.org/node/383882.

²⁵¹ WFP and UNHCR, 2016. Joint Strategy entitled Enhancing Self-Reliance in Protracted Refugee Situations. Forthcoming.

Extracts from the draft joint strategy 'Enhancing self-reliance in protracted refugee situations'

This joint Strategy sets out two objectives that will be pursued concurrently by UNHCR and WFP in order to promote the self-reliance of refugees in protracted situations:

1. Strengthen livelihoods while ensuring basic food and nutrition needs are met

At this level, UNHCR and WFP will work, in a coordinated manner, to reappraise protracted refugee situations through a self-reliance lens, re-orient themselves more directly towards self-reliance goals and dovetail into markets and other development programmes for greater sustainability.

2. Encourage an enabling environment for increased self-reliance for refugees

At this level, UNHCR and WFP will work, in a coordinated manner, with governments of countries of asylum to expand opportunities for refugees, engage more strategically with the wider UN system and other development actors and encourage host communities to be part of the solution.

Does FFA have a role to play in displacement settings? While potentially suitable, FFA has not been widely used in this context. Several challenges to FFA in displacements settings can be:

- **The temporary and unstable/unpredictable nature of displacement** can limit the ability to engage displaced populations in asset creation activities, which are designed to deliver long-term benefits in situ (in complement to short-term gains).
- **Tenure arrangements and limited access to physical capital** can severely limit the range of FFA interventions that can be carried out in displacement settings. For instance, displaced populations often lack access to land and other resources required for crop and livestock production and other livelihood options.
- **Threats or protection-related risks** (e.g. being attacked or looted) as a result of owning or accessing specific assets can exist in some contexts. Access to land, natural resources and other assets can be a major cause and driver of conflicts in man-made crises contexts (e.g. land-related disputes among pastoralists and farmers).
- **The heterogeneity of displaced populations**, who have diverse aspirations, origins, mobility and socio-economic profiles, and without a stable 'community base' is challenge to FFA planning and implementation, which requires community-based approaches and participatory processes.
- **Relationships between host communities and displaced populations** can sometimes be tense and for various reasons (e.g. over the use of natural resources, access to humanitarian assistance, etc.) thus complicating any arrangements required to implement FFA.
- **Authorities of countries of asylum** might not favour programmes and interventions that go beyond the care and maintenance approach for refugees – including livelihood support and asset creation interventions. The legal and policy framework might also prohibit or discourage the involvement of refugees in alternative livelihood options, for instance by not permitting refugees to work or move freely.²⁵²
- **Funding opportunities** are often restrictive, short-term and insufficient to enable aid stakeholders to go beyond a care and maintenance approach and invest in livelihood programming.

²⁵² It is worth noting that FFA programmes – because they do not constitute employment scheme – can possibly be relevant in situations where refugees' access to work is legally restricted.

Thus, using FFA in displacement settings must be considered carefully and only in situations where a set of preconditions (**Section 2.3**) are met. When these are not met, the relevance of FFA *vis-a-vis* other types of food assistance (GFD, school feeding, conditional nutritional or unconditional social safety-nets, etc.) should be considered.

Potential pathways through which FFA could promote food security, nutrition and livelihoods in (protracted) displacement settings are presented below, and can benefit either displaced populations, or both displaced and host communities.

Provided that a series of preconditions are met, FFA (and complementary interventions) could promote food security, nutrition and livelihoods in (protracted) displacement settings by:

- 1. Enhancing food consumption** through the provision of food and cash transfers.
- 2. Enhancing and diversifying local food production and livelihood options**, and improving local food storage through agricultural land rehabilitation, small irrigation schemes rehabilitation or development, small-scale agriculture/horticulture/animal production support, agroforestry, grain reserves building, etc. This applies only if agreements are reached between host governments and the displaced population to participate in such efforts and/or benefit from the created assets.
- 3. Reducing hardships, threats and protection-related risks pertaining to specific activities** such as water, firewood and fodder collection, by creating water points, planting fodder, forestry, and alternative energy development, etc.
- 4. Protecting displaced populations' settlements, assets and livelihoods** against specific natural shocks in risk-prone areas (refer to the Integrated Context Analysis, whenever available) through flood control, land rehabilitation measures, etc.
- 5. Maintaining, rehabilitating and improving the natural resource base** (soils, water, and vegetation) and landscapes in displacement impacted areas through land rehabilitation, soil and water conservation measures, agroforestry and forestry schemes, etc.
- 6. Rehabilitating or developing specific community and social infrastructure** such as community access roads, schools, health centres, and other community infrastructure (which may have been damaged by conflict and/or natural disasters, or may not be present in the area).
- 7. Strengthening people' capacities** on the creation, management and maintenance of tangible assets developed through FFA interventions.
- 8. Strengthening capacities** of implementing partners and local and/or governmental institutions.

It is emphasized that in protracted displacement contexts, FFA alone cannot ensure self-sufficiency and needs to be complemented by other livelihoods support interventions and advocacy measures.

2.3. Preconditions to implementing FFA

The implementation of any FFA programme or intervention in displacement settings should be considered carefully, ensuring that the following preconditions that follow are met²⁵³:

1. **The willingness of displaced populations to engage in FFA:** This will largely depend on people's aspirations, skills and, socio-economic profiles. For instance, displaced people who intend to return home or to migrate elsewhere may not be willing to invest in the effort required to build assets that may only begin to deliver benefits in the medium- to long-term; or those that are highly skilled might not necessarily be willing to engage in asset creation activities.
2. **Food insecurity and undernutrition:** The entry point for WFP food assistance is food or nutrition insecurity. This also applies to FFA, and in displacement settings.
3. **Relative security and stability of displaced populations:** FFA should be implemented in situations with acceptable security situations and where the displaced populations are relatively 'stable'. A high mobility of refugees/IDPs can hamper asset creation activities.
4. **Commitment from host governments and conducive institutional environments:** Promoting refugee livelihood options is seldom considered a priority by host governments and, in many countries, the legal and policy framework is not supportive of this agenda. The possibility to undertake FFA depends on the level of operational independence WFP and UNHCR have on the ground, the level of receptiveness within the host governments to support the re-orientation of operations, and their willingness to engage in constructive policy dialogue on this subject²⁵⁴.
5. **Adequate investment and flexibility from donors:** FFA can enhance displaced populations' food security and livelihood options and progressively reduce the level of dependency on humanitarian assistance in the medium-term, provided there are additional investments over and above the usual care and maintenance costs, at least for a certain period of time. Ideally, these investments shall be predictable and multi-year²⁵⁵.
6. **Sequencing and exit strategy:** In the immediate aftermath of crises, focus must be on providing emergency assistance and ensuring basic needs are met. FFA is more commonly implemented in support of (early) recovery, such as repairs of roads or rehabilitating essential infrastructure. In refugee settings, FFA can be implemented after the emergency and before durable solutions for refugees have been identified. Similarly to other programming contexts, FFA interventions shall be time-bound and shall not create expectations of regular employment and/or dependency.

Fully or at least partially meeting these preconditions will require CO efforts in engaging government, local authorities, partners and other stakeholders to lay the ground for possible FFA interventions.

Overall, WFP's entry point for engaging in FFA activities should be clearly identified in each specific displacement context. FFA should only be considered when it can provide a clear added value vis-à-vis other food assistance tools and other humanitarian or development actors.

²⁵³ Based on WFP and UNHCR, 2015. Joint Strategy - Enhancing Self-Reliance in Protracted Refugee Situations (draft).

²⁵⁴ Adapted from: WFP and UNHCR, 2015. Joint Strategy - Enhancing Self-Reliance in Protracted Refugee Situations (draft).

²⁵⁵ According to WFP/UNHCR Joint Evaluation (2013) www.wfp.org/node/383882, "long-term support for protracted refugees fits uneasily with conventional donor funding modalities, which differentiate between humanitarian and development assistance. This resulted in serious funding shortfalls and inadequate support for progress towards self-reliance".

2.4. Planning considerations of FFA for refugees/IDPs

Once the preconditions are met and the relevance of implementing FFA in a given displacement context is confirmed, the following elements should be carefully considered during the planning phase:

- 1. Legal status of refugees and collaboration with UNHCR:** Refugees have a special legal status under humanitarian law, including aspects associated with work. WFP should collaborate with UNHCR and the host government before planning and implementing FFA for refugees and IDP's. A global MoU sets out the overall objectives and scope of collaboration between WFP and UNHCR, and establishes the division of responsibilities and arrangements between the two agencies²⁵⁶.
- 2. Respecting the commitments on Accountability to Affected Populations (AAP):** WFP focuses on three areas core to these commitments - i.e. information provision, participation, and Complaints and Feedback Mechanisms (CFMs). Information provision requires providing accurate, timely and accessible information to affected people about WFP programmes, including FFA; Participation enables affected people, including the most marginalised, to have an active role in the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of a project; and the CFM provides them the means to voice complaints and provide feedback on areas relevant to WFP operations in a safe and dignified manner²⁵⁷. Refer to the [WFP and Accountability to Affected Populations Brief](#)²⁵⁸.
- 3. Context-sensitivity:** Develop FFA in ways that are sensitive to the possibilities and constraints specific to the local and national contexts which can vary widely – e.g. on displacement status (refugees or IDPs); settlement types (encamped or out-of-camp situations); rural and urban contexts, etc. **Section 2.5** suggests displacement typologies and potentially related measures.
- 4. Local contexts and livelihoods of displaced and host populations:** Displacement situations are not static but dynamic, and continuously change. Assessments should consider both displaced and host populations and include livelihood-related components. In refugee settings, it essential to understand the legal framework and protection environment (e.g. refugees' rights to work, access to land and other resources, movements, etc.). Such assessments can be carried out as a Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) and involve other participatory livelihood-based approaches and tools.

Important context and livelihood-related components to include in assessments

Aspirations of displaced populations; profiling of displaced and host populations, and their social relationships including arrangements and socio-economic dynamics between them; pre-displacement and existing livelihoods/coping strategies; the skills, availability, and access to assets (including land and other natural resources) of displaced/host populations; prevailing hardships and stresses (e.g. conflicts, threats, shocks, seasonality); legal, policies, institutional factors, and other processes that impact livelihood strategies and asset tenure; existing services/infrastructure, market-related information and value chains; landscapes where the displaced live – both rural and urban; existing opportunities, hindering factors and future threats to enhance and diversify livelihoods.

²⁵⁶ The MoU between WFP and UNHCR (dated January 2011) is available at: www.unhcr.org/53465c929.html.

²⁵⁷ A formal CFM system must include established procedures for recording, investigating, taking action and providing feedback to the complainant.

²⁵⁸ WFP and AAP brief: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/forms/wfp271928.pdf>.

5. Include displaced and host populations in planning and promote 'win-win' activities:

In displacement settings, humanitarian assistance has traditionally largely benefited displaced populations, whilst engagement with host communities has been limited leading to missed opportunities for synergies. Whenever possible, use an integrated approach that includes host populations in programming encouraging them to be part of the solution. Inclusion is essential, as:

- (i) host populations may also be food insecure and are likely to be impacted by the displacement;
- (ii) host populations generally have to share resources and opportunities with the displaced (e.g. land, water, firewood, job opportunities, etc.) which may be a source of tension and conflict;
- (iii) there are significant opportunities to develop mutually reinforcing FFA and complementary projects for displaced and host populations that generate 'win-win' situations. For example, it may be possible to provide trainings to mixed groups or share skills among groups, increase access to irrigation water for refugees and host communities, rehabilitate critical infrastructure, or increase access to local markets. Positive relationships can also be established if refugees and/or IDPs and members of the host community work side by side on projects.

Two illustrations of approaches that integrate host communities in programming:

1. Working in an integrated manner across refugee and host communities in Uganda.

For over five decades, Uganda has been hosting refugees and asylum seekers. In 2014, UNHCR and WFP jointly launched a new programme whose purpose was to enable refugee farmers to engage more actively and profitably in the thriving agricultural economy that is to be found outside the refugee camps. Having already been provided with land for cultivation by the host government, refugees are now being provided with training in post-harvest handling and storage equipment. However, farmers from the host community are also being provided with the same assistance.

Through this more inclusive approach, UNHCR and WFP are building social capital and reducing tension across the two communities and ensuring that the benefits are shared equally.

2. Piloting Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) in a protracted refugees' context.

In September 2014, WFP, UNHCR and other partners piloted an SLP at a workshop in Koukou-Angara (Eastern Chad), which has hosted refugees from Darfur since 2003. It showed the SLP to be a promising tool to support programming (including but not exclusively FFA) in protracted refugees contexts. The SLP contributed to getting a better understanding of shocks, seasonality and livelihoods, and in identifying a multi-sectorial set of programme responses required in both host and displaced populations. These responses were related to peaceful cohabitation, infrastructure development, agriculture and livestock support, natural resources management, income generation, markets, education, vocational training, health and nutrition and institutional capacity development.

Note that (i) it was the first time since refugees had arrived 10 years earlier that a workshop brought together host communities and refugee representatives; and (ii) the priority programme responses identified by host communities converged with those identified by refugees.

- 6. Participatory planning:** Participation is one of the five 'Accountability to Affected Populations (AAP) commitments. Participation – or the lack of participation – can influence the success or failure of an FFA activity. Whenever possible and in agreement with government, UNHCR and other stakeholders/partners, WFP should promote participatory planning. Plans can be

developed for specific camps and their surrounding areas, providing displaced and host populations an active role in the formulation and design of FFA and complementary interventions. Planning should ensure the participation of all groups (displaced/host, different livelihood groups, women, youth and the most vulnerable, etc.), and include the coping strategies and steps being taken to improve lives and livelihoods so that action plans can build upon these strategies. These community-based action plans should complement the Joint Plan of Action (JPA) carried out by UNHCR/WFP assessment missions (JAM), or other plans used in displacement settings.

Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP) in displacement settings

CBPP can be adapted and adjusted to displacement settings. If relationships between displaced and host populations are complex or tense, it might be preferable to initiate the CBPP process with each group separately, and bring people together at a later stage. This enables the understanding of issues faced by each group beforehand, and to build trust progressively - e.g. through meetings between representatives of the two groups, and sharing ideas emerging from the planning process.

7. **Conflict-sensitivity and protection lenses:** Ownership of and access to land, natural resources, and other assets can be a source of conflict between displaced and host communities. Planning should be sensitive to this and identify conflict drivers that may be present, and avoid fuelling existing or triggering new tensions, nor expose refugees, IDPs and host communities to (further) harm, violence, and other threats through FFA – indeed, programming should be planned in ways that contribute to their protection, for example by creating water points or developing woodlots close to homesteads to decrease exposure of girls and women when collecting these resources in remote locations. To better understand and address existing threats and risks, consult displaced and host population representatives (women, men and youth), local and traditional authorities, and other stakeholders who play important roles to prevent conflicts and settle disputes²⁵⁹. Refer to **Chapter 3: Section 4.3** and **[WFP Programme Guidance on Protection](#)**²⁶⁰ for more details.
8. **Gender- and nutrition-sensitive approach:** Displacement settings pose significant protection-related risks specific to girls and women. Substantial opportunities exist to plan, design and implement FFA interventions and programmes in ways that deliberately contribute to girls and women's protection, women's empowerment, gender equality and good nutrition. Planning should identify such opportunities and plan for leveraging gender- and nutrition-sensitive efforts. Refer to **Chapter 3: Sections 4.1 and 5** and **Chapter 4: Section 6** for more details.
9. **Tackle environmental degradation:** Displaced populations tend to trigger additional pressures and deteriorate natural resources (e.g. soils, water, vegetation etc.). This negatively affects their livelihood and those of host populations, and trigger tensions and conflict between them. Making environmental aspects central to FFA planning and programming is essential, particularly in landscapes that are already fragile and experiencing large influxes of refugees/IDPs. Whenever possible, FFA shall help to maintain, rehabilitate, and enrich landscapes and natural resources in displacement areas, and avoid exacerbating environmental risks. Refer to **Chapter 3: Section 4.4** for detailed guidance on how to minimize/avoid environmental risks in FFA programming.

²⁵⁹ Note that in urban contexts, the sources of tension between displaced and host populations – and potential solutions – are likely to differ and therefore context-appropriate measures will have to be identified and put in place.

²⁶⁰ WFP, 2016. WFP's guidance on protection (draft). Forthcoming.

10. Authorities' buy-in, and tenure-related issues and arrangements: 'Buy-in' from local and traditional authorities is needed to protect the FFA investment in the medium to long-term, and planning should give full consideration of prevailing tenure-related issues²⁶¹ - relating to the legal and policy frameworks (particularly in refugees contexts); tenure-related arrangements and dynamics that exist between displaced and host populations; threats and tensions pertaining to the ownership of or access to specific assets; and decision-making over and management of assets in displacement settings, etc. **Refer to Chapter 3: Section 4.2.**

Key tenure-related questions to consider in displacement settings

- How to mitigate any conflict/protection-related risks pertaining to specific assets/FFA activities?
- Who benefits from the asset developed through FFA among the displaced and host communities?
- How to enhance the control/benefit from assets created by women and most vulnerable groups?
- What agreements shall be developed to secure access of displaced families and other groups (women, the most vulnerable, etc.) to specific assets developed through FFA?
- How long will such agreements last, and what will happen to created assets afterwards?
- Who will be in charge of maintaining specific assets?

11. Partnerships, complementarities and coordination: Cooperating partners need to be selected carefully, based on their experiences and on their familiarity with points that have been presented above. In view of the multiplicity of actors, programming and partnerships in displacement settings requires a spirit of collaboration, complementarities and coordination among national and local authorities, community-based institutions, WFP/ UNHCR/ UNICEF/ other UN agencies, NGOs and the private sector. SLP's can be a powerful tool in helping to achieve this in displacement settings.

Synergies between SAFE and FFA programming in displacement settings

concern in many displacement settings) and can expose girls and women to sexual and other forms of violence, and lack of firewood, along with specific cooking practices, can jeopardize nutrition and health. The challenges related to cooking-fuel requires an integrated set of solutions related to livelihoods, natural resource management, and protection. WFP and partners now implement the Safe Access to Fuel and Energy (SAFE) initiative in many displacement contexts. SAFE combines a set of activities, including the provision or production by beneficiaries of fuel-efficient stoves; natural resource management activities (e.g. nursery management tree planting; climate change mitigation projects) supporting alternative livelihood programmes; and sensitization and training on gender-based violence. FFA and SAFE can be mutually supportive, and possibilities to use this in displacement setting should be explored. Information on SAFE is available at: www.wfp.org/safe.

12. Be realistic: In protracted refugee contexts, the potential of FFA is limited compared to the major impact of specific 'game changers' taken by countries of asylum (e.g. freedom of movement, access to employment opportunities in defined sectors, specific arrangements for land use, etc.), and peace building processes.

²⁶¹ As a reminder, tenure refer to ownership and access modalities to resources; refer to **Chapter 3: Section 4.2.**

2.5. Typology of displacement settings for FFA purposes

The table on the following page suggests a general typology of displacement settings, along with potential pathways through which FFA could promote food security, nutrition and livelihoods and with specific programming considerations for each 'displacement profile' (characterized as A, B, C or D).

Notes to consider when reviewing the table:

- (i) All programming orientations in the table (on the following page) are indicative only and need to be contextualized (refer to earlier **Section 2.3** and **Section 2.4**).
- (ii) All programming orientations provided in **Section 1** (Planning and Implementing FFA in Urban Settings) apply to displacement profiles C and D.
- (iii) IDP/refugees camps in rural areas (displacement profile A) might rapidly become 'urbanized', thus creating a new 'urban centre' in a rural settings. In such context, programming orientations provided in **Section 1** (Planning and Implementing FFA in Urban Settings) apply.
- (iv) Refugees have special legal status under humanitarian law, and a number of aspects associated with refugee work do not apply to IDPs. Ensure a close collaboration with UNHCR and the host government when planning and implementing FFA programmes and interventions for refugees and other forced displaced populations.

The Table 5.3 below suggests a general typology of displacement settings, along with potential pathways through which FFA could promote food security, nutrition and livelihoods and with specific programming considerations for each “displacement profile” (A, B, C or D):

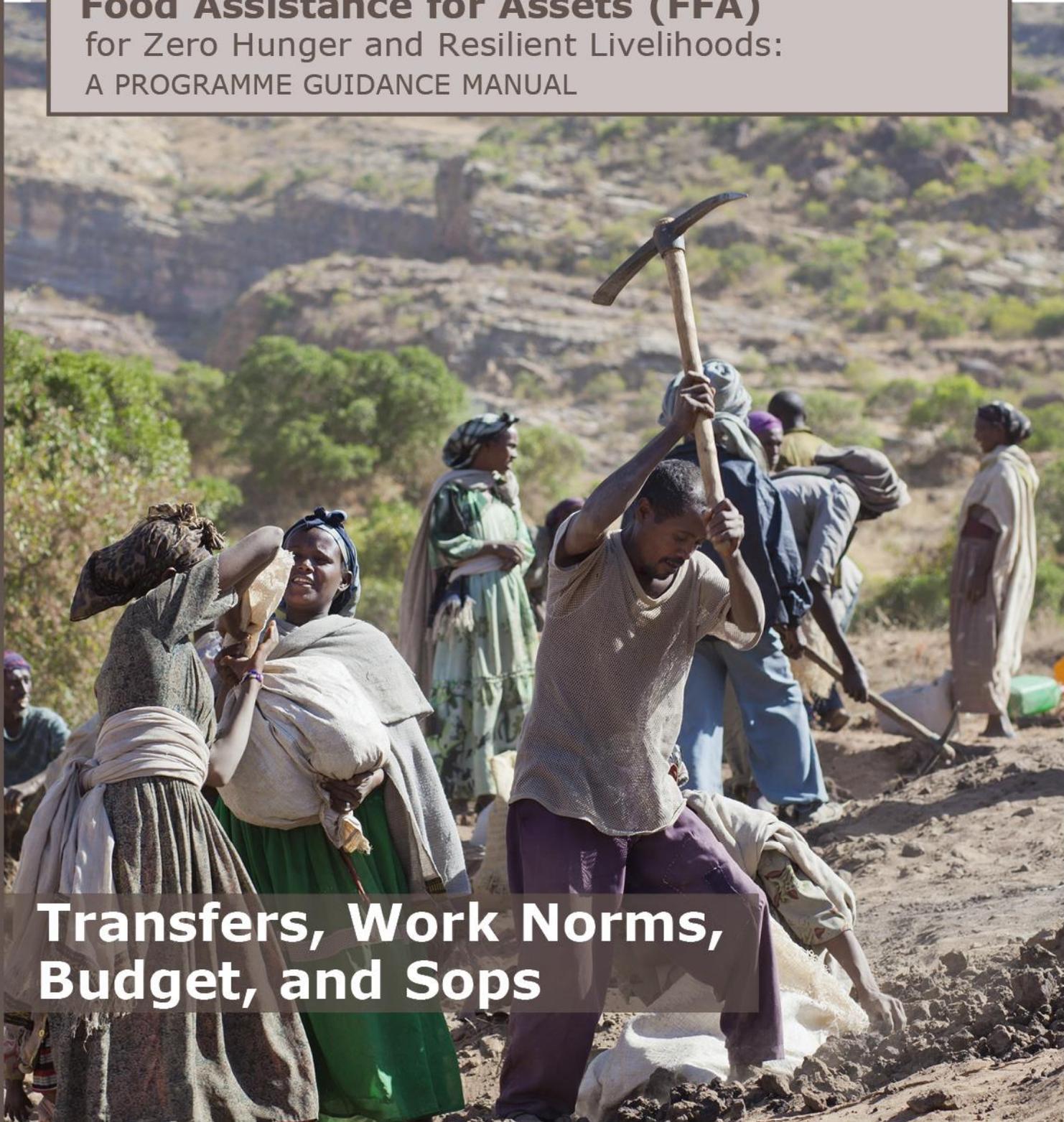
Table 5.3 - Typology of displacement settings for FFA purposes

| | | Location of the displacement | | Predominantly rural | | Predominantly urban | |
|---|--|------------------------------|--|---------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------|
| | | Encamped vs. dispersed | | Encamped | Dispersed | Encamped | Dispersed |
| | | Displacement profile | | A | B | C | D |
| Potential pathways through which FFA could promote food security, nutrition and livelihoods | 1. Enhancing food consumption through the provision of food and cash transfers. | | | ++ | ++ | ++ | ++ |
| | 2. Enhancing and diversifying local food production and livelihood options, and improving local food storage through agricultural land rehabilitation, small irrigation schemes rehabilitation or development, small-scale agriculture/horticulture/animal production support, agroforestry, grain reserves building, etc. | | | ++ | ++ | +/- | - |
| | 3. Reducing hardships, threats and protection-related risks pertaining to specific activities such as water, firewood and fodder collection through water point creation, fodder planting and forestry activities, alternative energy development, etc. | | | ++ | ++ | - | NA |
| | 4. Protecting displaced populations’ settlements, assets and livelihoods against specific natural shocks in risk-prone areas (refer to the Integrated Context Analysis, whenever available) through flood control, land rehabilitation measures, etc. | | | ++ | + | + | NA |
| | 5. Maintaining, rehabilitating and improving the natural resource base (soils, water, vegetation) and landscapes in displacement areas through land rehabilitation/ soil and water conservation measures, agroforestry and forestry schemes, etc. | | | + | + | +/- | NA |
| | 6. Rehabilitating or developing specific community and social infrastructures, such as community access roads, schools, health centers, other community infrastructures (such infrastructure might have been damaged by conflict and/or natural disasters, or are not present in the area). | | | ++ | + | + | +/- |
| | 7. Strengthening people’ capacities on the creation, management and maintenance of the tangible assets developed through all FFA interventions above. | | | ++ | ++ | +/- | +/- |
| | 8. Strengthening capacities of implementing partners and local and/or governmental institutions involved in displacement settings. | | | + | + | NA | NA |

Legend: ++ = highly relevant; + = relevant; +/- = sometimes relevant; - = not relevant; NA = not applicable

Chapter 6

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Transfers, Work Norms, Budget, and Sops



World Food Programme

wfp.org

1. TIMING OF FFA INTERVENTIONS

The timing of FFA works is important as it can affect the impact of the FFA intervention itself and/or create barriers to participation for women, men, and vulnerable groups. Thus, all decisions on the timing of FFA must take into account the point of view of these groups. This can be done through focus group discussions with communities and consultations with partners and technical services (for instance through the SLP and CBPP approaches). Once a decision has been reached based on clear criteria, it should be reflected within the FFA Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) and explained to technical services, partners and the communities/FFA participants.

Three different dimensions should be considered when determining the timing of FFA interventions:

1.1. Multi-year plans that consider typical and bad years

Based on a timeline of typical and bad years, COs should develop a multi-year FFA plan of work showing the sequencing of FFA activities within and across the years. This provides a visual timeline of the long-term FFA plan of work by the community, and facilitates local level planning and coordination of activities not only by WFP, but also local authorities, partners and communities. The SLP and CBPP helps to determine the best timing for FFA implementation in typical and bad years.

1.2. Seasonality and phased interventions

For technical reasons related to **climatic and soil conditions**, assets need to be built during the most appropriate season. Some examples include, but are not limited to:

- water harvesting assets should be built before the rainy season
- certain assets (e.g. half-moons, trenches, etc.) are difficult to build when the soil is hard (i.e. too far in time from the end of the rainy season)
- other FFA activities such as nurseries and compost making should be undertaken at least six months before the start of the rainy season so seedlings and compost will be ready for use

A compendium (manual) of work norms and technical standards should be developed at country level, indicating the best/possible periods in the year to undertake the works and build each asset.

FFA activities should **take into account the busiest periods/seasons** of the year when men and women are involved in other livelihood activities (e.g. field preparation for cropping, harvesting, etc.) to avoid the risk of FFA works diverting labour away from these tasks. FFA activities should also be reconciled against the **timing and the type of work** that can be implemented, with the **period of food need** that the transfer (food or cash-based) is meant to fill. For example:

- the post-harvest (or harvest) period does not usually require a transfer to fill a food gap, although it may be the best time to conduct specific works (e.g. zai, water harvesting etc.). This would require agreements with communities to receive the transfer either at a different time than the works is being implemented, or in advance of the food gap;
- the lean season is typically when a transfer is required to fill a food gap, but may not be the best period to create certain assets (e.g. those that require construction if this period corresponds to the rainy season). Thus, other FFA activities that can be done during a rainy period (e.g. stone collection and shaping; compost making in preparation of the following rainy season; in-between showers road repair; live fencing; etc.) should be done instead.

The CO needs to identify the trade-off between these different constraints and opportunities, and reconcile the timing and type of work through participatory approaches (e.g. with SLP and CBPP).

1.3. Other daily priorities of targeted households

In some FFA projects, households targeted through FFA are allocated a certain number of work units to be created within a certain period of time. Each household can designate one or more participants by household to undertake the works to complete these units, within the established time.

Pending that the FFA rations and work norms are well defined, the transfer (food or cash-based) provided for the work is done in proportion to the quantity and quality of work completed, regardless of the number of participants by household. In this case each participant can decide on the best time during the day and week to work. This has some advantages (e.g. households can decide when to work based on their on-going livelihood and domestic activities; etc.) and drawbacks (e.g. participating households need to be able to conduct the works with little technical supervision; lack of control over the list of actual FFA workers leading to higher risk of abuse; etc.).

However, in most FFA projects, works are organized and supervised in a way that FFA participants are often required to follow specific working days during the week, and specific hours or period during the day. FFA participants need to sign participation forms to prove that they have actually participated in FFA works during specific days in order to calculate their transfer allocation accordingly.

In this case the FFA project needs to pay particular attention to the following aspects:

- Ensure that the work norms (number of units to be built per day or week) clearly indicate the expected number of working hours each day or number of working days per week;
- FFA works should be undertaken during the most suitable period of the day (e.g. based on temperature, other household daily tasks, security aspects, etc.);
- If morning and afternoon shifts are organized (e.g. due to high numbers of participants involved), ensure that each participant has the opportunity to be involved in different shifts during the week so that each participant is treated in a fair and equitable manner);
- The project may account for less working hours for women and/or other specific vulnerable groups, and subsequently less units to be built per day and week. Working hours may also be adjusted to reflect the period of the day that is preferred by women, given that they often also need to accommodate other key domestic and productive tasks – often 2-3 hours in the morning and 1-2 hours in the late afternoon. Refer to **Chapter 3: Section 5** on how to strengthen the nutrition focus of FFA programming;
- Working hours per day also need to take safety aspects for women and vulnerable groups into account (e.g. to walk in and out of the project site), for example to avoid danger of abduction and theft.

Note on working hours:

For obvious FFA programme management reasons, it is difficult to have specific working hours per day and week customised by community. Therefore the CBPP should not be used to establish customized working hours by community.

The CBPP process can however be an opportunity to sensitise communities on established working hours (predefined through a consultative process).

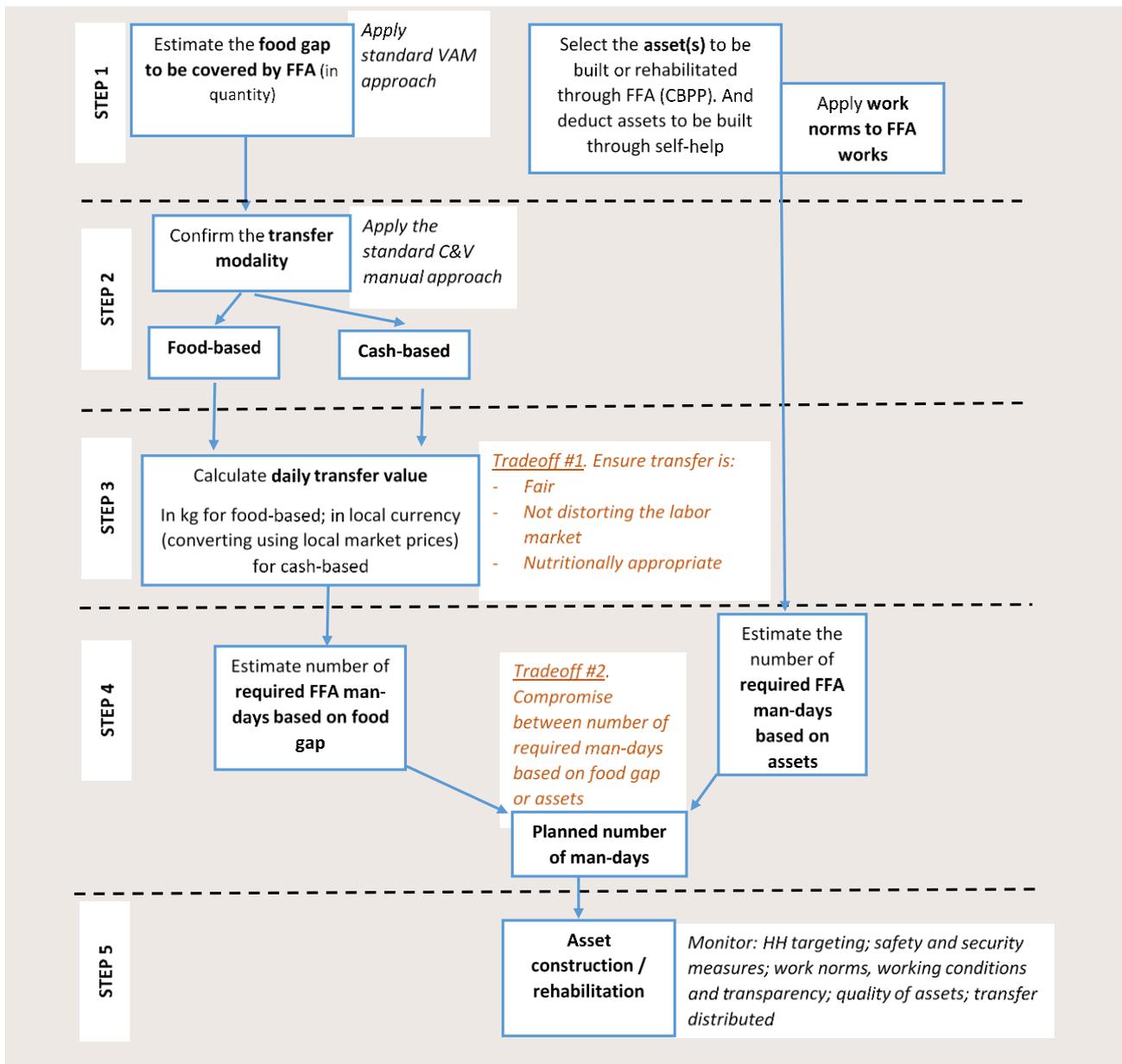
If clear constraints are identified during the CBPP process in a large number of communities or monitoring visits then it can be used as a signal to reconsider and adjust the working hours in a concerted way at project level.

2. FFA TRANSFER MODALITY AND VALUE

2.1. Pathway to selecting the transfer modality and value

The choice of the transfer modality and its value constitute an important element of the FFA planning phase. The logical flow presented in the **Figure 6.1** - below provides the thinking pathway leading to the definition of the relevant transfer modalities and transfer values (both the daily value, and the total value). This thinking pathway is theoretical, as in reality practitioners will be faced with a set of context-specific trade-offs which, once considered, may lead to adjustments away from the 'ideal' transfer value as recommended through WFP standard approaches.

Figure 6.1 - Thinking pathway for the selection of the transfer modality and value for FFA



2.2. Defining and standardizing the food and nutrient gap

The precondition for implementing any FFA intervention is the presence of a pre-identified seasonal or chronic food access or consumption gap²⁶². While the presence of a gap may be evidenced through national- or district-level assessments, the estimation of its absolute value (in calorie, nutritional, or monetary terms) and its duration are often less straightforward.

Determining the food gap is typically undertaken by the VAM Officer on the basis of pre-existing assessments. These may correspond to a wide range of different assessments and survey methodologies (CFSVA, EFSA, HEA, etc.). The **EFSA handbook**²⁶³ provides a simple five-step method for estimating the food gap in contexts where little pre-existing information is available.

Depending on the methodology used, the food gap can be expressed in absolute terms (currency, kcal, kg, months per year) or as a percentage of the minimum requirements (for certain food items, kcal, macro and micro nutrients) that are not met by the consumption at the household level, on a daily, weekly, monthly or annual basis.

Estimating and standardizing the food gap:

The food gap should be expressed in absolute rather than relative terms to determine the value and duration of the FFA transfer. For example, a cereal equivalent of 150 kg per month covers 100% of food needs. A 33% food deficit is equivalent to a 50 kg cereal monthly food gap.

The food gap should be expressed in cumulative terms for the entire period it occurs. For instance, if the assessment indicates that the monthly household food gap is 50 kg of cereal and last approximately two months, the food gap expressed in cumulative terms is 100 kg.

When the analysis is sufficiently refined, a breakdown of the food deficit by nutrient and/or food item can, together with the local preferences, inform the composition of the food ration (for in-kind transfers). For FFA planning, it is necessary to **ensure that the measurement unit of the food gap is standardized on the basis of a single food item** (e.g. kilograms of cereal).

It is equally important to **ensure that the gap is expressed in household rather than in individual terms** (a conversion that is done using the average household size in the targeted area). This is because the FFA transfer (although handed over to the family member participating in the work) is intended to meet all or part of the food and nutrient needs of the entire household.

Determining the share of the food gap to be covered through the FFA transfer:

Once the food (and nutrient) gap is identified, the context analysis and coordination with government and partners should inform WFP's strategy in meeting the needs - i.e. **how much of the overall food gap should be covered through the FFA transfer**. In this regard, consider the following elements:

- **WFP's positioning vis-à-vis other partners and existing programmes.** Coordination discussions may reveal that part of the food gap is already covered or expected to be covered through another project or scheme (e.g. a national safety-net).
- **FFA positioning vis-à-vis other WFP tools.** WFP's strategy to meet the food gap may involve a combination of different activities (e.g. a mix of GFD and FFA) – particularly if the continuation of food assistance is required at times when FFA work cannot be undertaken.

²⁶² The EFSA handbook differentiates three types of food gaps, of which only the last two are relevant for the purpose of FFA:

- The food availability gap, which is the shortfall between a region's aggregate food needs and its aggregate food availability;
- The food access gap, which is the shortfall at the household level; and
- The food consumption gap, which is the shortfall between nutrition needs and actual food consumption.

²⁶³ WFP, 2009. EFSA handbook, second edition (Part IV, section 4.4.1). Available at:

http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp203246.pdf

2.3. Confirming the FFA transfer modality

While the choice (and value) of transfer is important to the question of whether FFA enables participants from food insecure households to meet their households' short-term food and nutrient needs, the question of what FFA intends to achieve in the medium-/long-terms is fundamental.

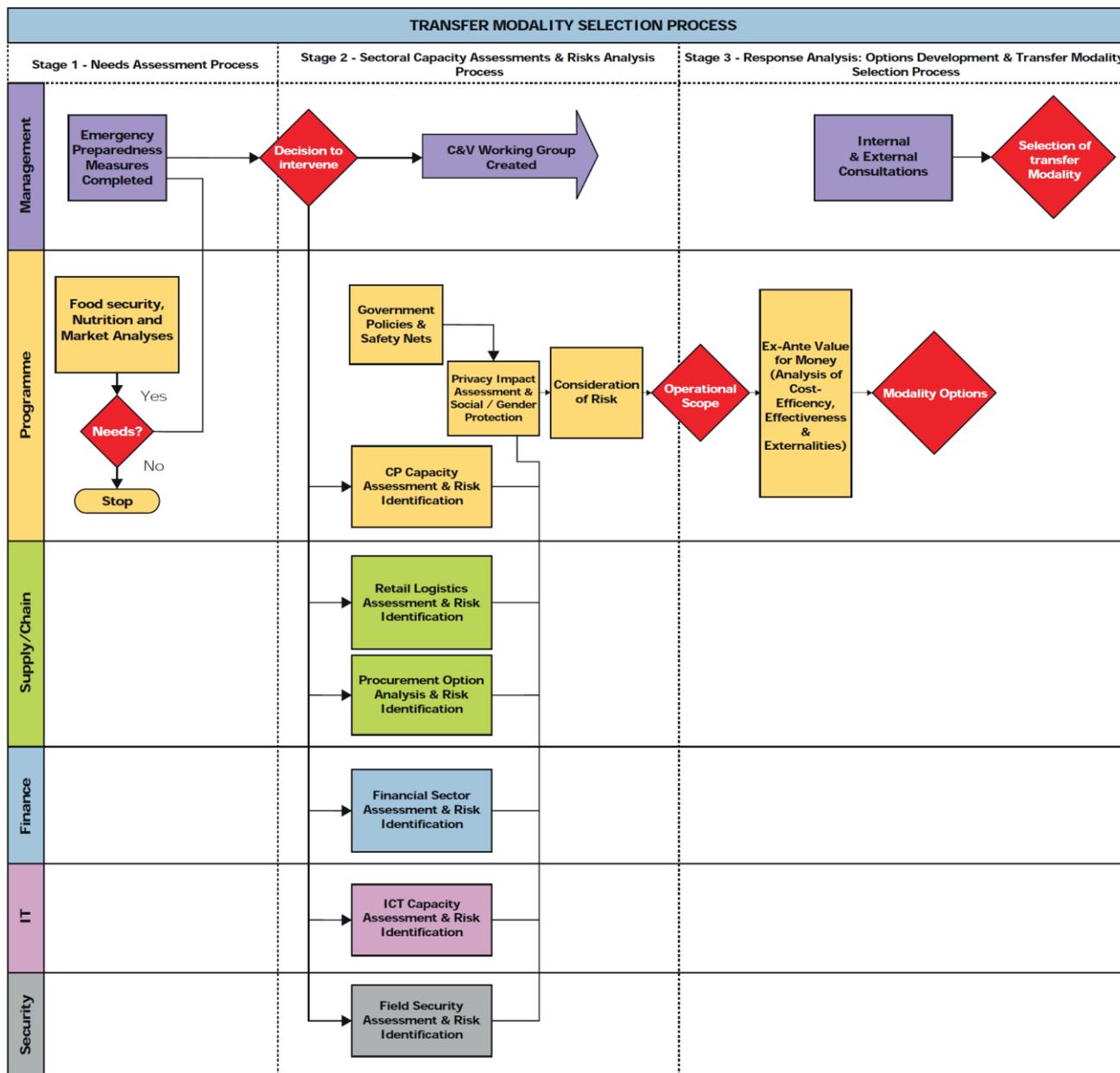
FFA can use either food, cash-based transfers (including vouchers) or a combination of both. The process of selecting the adequate transfer modality should reflect the approach developed in the [Cash and Vouchers \(C&V\) guidelines manual](#)²⁶⁴. To a large extent, the analysis informing the choice of the transfer modality should also rely on the FFA programming and planning process (i.e. 3PA), where the preferences of local communities are discussed with partners, officials and community representatives, using gender, seasonal and livelihood lenses, through both the SLP and the CBPP exercises.

As per the C&V guidelines, the decision-making process on whether to use food, cash-based transfers or a combination of both relates to a comprehensive analysis that is best described in **Figure 6.2** on the following page. Such an approach is based on a three-step analysis:

- 1. Needs assessment process.** This corresponds to the food security and nutrition assessment that identifies if there is a need for a WFP response, and quantifies the necessary scale of a response (for FFA this partly overlaps with the earlier Section 2.2 - estimation of the food gap). This phase also entails a market assessment component, which evaluates the functioning and trends of food and labour markets including their regional integration, supply chains, capacity to respond to increase in demand, the availability and quality of the food accessible at reasonable and stable prices, and the opportunities for beneficiaries to access them safely. Government policies, as well as beneficiaries' gender and protection considerations and preferences should also be taken into account. This phase should ultimately determine the suitability of a market-based (i.e. cash-based) response option. If such an option is confirmed, a 'C&V working group' should be set-up at CO level.
- 2. Sectoral capacity assessment and risk analysis process.** During this phase the 'C&V working group' should coordinate the sectoral assessments and draw conclusions. Sectoral capacity assessments shall cover: cooperating partners' capacity; financial sector capacity; logistics retail assessment and procurement option analysis; ICT sector capacity; and field security risk assessment. At this stage, information on context suitability according to government policies and safety-net analyses, beneficiaries' acceptance of the cash-based modality, and private/social protection considerations should be factored in.
- 3. Response analysis.** This phase shall include (i) the development of several transfer modality options; (ii) the comparison of these options in terms of cost-efficiency, effectiveness, externalities and risks; and with (iii) the selection of the most appropriate transfer modality/modalities through a consultative process and based on a clearly documented rationale.

²⁶⁴ WFP, 2014. Cash and vouchers manual, second edition 2014. Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/newsroom/wfp274576.pdf>

Figure 6.2 - Transfer Modality Selection Process



2.4. Determining the FFA transfer value

When planning an FFA intervention, the objective should be to set the **total value of the FFA transfer** received by any participating household at a level that **offsets the share of the food (including the nutrient) gap intended to be covered through FFA**. Hence, the intention is not for the FFA transfer to meet the food gap on a day-by-day basis (i.e. on each day for which the transfer is provided), but rather for the whole period for which the gap has been identified.

The recommended practice is to set the daily FFA transfer at a level that corresponds to the household’s full daily food requirements (in turn using the number of days worked as the main adjustment variable, and not the daily transfer value) because households participating in FFA may not have the possibility to secure additional food or income during the FFA working period, and to ensure that a sufficient food/nutritional intake is maintained during the periods of demanding physical work during FFA. Setting the daily ration at the level of the daily food requirements also has the advantage of it being simple to explain to FFA participants.

Note that this is the preferred approach regardless of the transfer modality (whether food or cash-based). If the transfer is to be provided through cash or value-based voucher, then its daily value should be estimated using the cost equivalent of the household's full daily food requirements at current local market prices.

The intended FFA transfer should however be reviewed, and may need to be fine-tuned, in light of the following considerations:

1. Ensuring nutritional appropriateness. Whilst FFA is not a nutrition-specific intervention, it can still contribute significantly to nutrition through different channels related to: (i) the transfer: (ii) the planning, design and implementation modalities: and (iii) the intended outcomes and impacts. To the extent possible, the FFA ration will seek to address nutritional priorities - e.g. by providing multi-fortified products and by taking into account the nutrient gap when calculating the total value of the ration. Nutritional and dietary considerations are critical when beneficiaries are expected to consume the ration and do not have access to other nutrient-rich foods. This is likely to be the case when there is little or no food available on the local market and the beneficiaries are not receiving food from GFD or other sources (refer to WFP's [General Food Distribution](#)²⁶⁵ or [Food and Nutrition](#)²⁶⁶ manuals). Note that when provided in-kind, the FFA ration is often limited to a few long-life items that can be transported and distributed with minimal logistical constraints, and can be stored by the family. Depending on the context, this may or may not be nutritionally appropriate – meaning that the ration may be basic but still allows the household to reallocate some of its income to purchase other more diverse food items; or households may not consume certain food items in the WFP rations due to local food habits). Nutritional appropriateness should also be looked at when using cash-based modalities: some nutritionally important food items may not be locally available in sufficient quantity, at an affordable price, or local habits may not be in line with nutritional considerations.

Note on the inclusion of high value nutritious products in FFA rations:

When integrating and establishing synergies between FFA and Nutrition-specific activities, it is possible that FFA distribution channels be used for the distribution of other 'high value nutritious products'. However, the latter should not be considered as an FFA activity and as being part of the FFA ration. The distribution of such products should remain under the umbrella and supervision of WFP nutrition teams and be related to the nutrition-specific objectives it was planned for.

2. Ensuring fairness. The transfer should be perceived as a fair compensation for the effort provided by the participants to build/rehabilitate the asset as per the work norms. If the transfer is too low it may be perceived as not 'attractive' enough and sometimes even exploitative – and may need to be adjusted upwards; if it is too high it may distort the labour market, increase dependency and jeopardize the credibility of the project.

The perception of fairness may also be affected by other programmes in the area of intervention. If the FFA transfer (based on daily food requirement) is seen as profoundly unfair because other agencies are providing higher transfers, then FFA may not be an appropriate response tool in that area.

Note on skilled workers:

Skilled workers are to (i) benefit from the FFA transfer if they belong to the food insecure target group; or (ii) be hired and paid by WFP/CP if the necessary skills cannot be found among the target group (such modalities should be explained in the FLA).

²⁶⁵ WFP. Programme Guidance Manual for General Food Distribution. Available at: http://pam.wfp.org/index.php/Project_activities:Food_distribution#Defining_rations_for_GFD

²⁶⁶ WFP. Food and Nutrition Handbook. Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/other/wfp003927.pdf>

The perception of unfairness may also result from the transfer value being considerably lower than the unskilled labour wage rates in the area. In situations where an in-kind (food) transfer may need to be increased to make it more in line with local wage rates, then the CO should rather adjust the number of working days to ensure that the daily food ration does not exceed the daily HH food requirements, while ensuring that the monthly ration is not above the monthly food requirements. The CO may also consider re-assessing what the right transfer modality is in the area, as this type of situation is more likely to happen in countries where cash is a more appropriate transfer modality.

It is important to remember that FFA programmes cannot offer the benefits that are associated with regular employment schemes, and the transfer provided through FFA should not be considered a salary but rather a transfer dedicated to cover a specific household food gap. Whilst FFA aims to adhere to decent work related criteria, it does not fall within ILO employment categories and standards. A description of the difference between FFA and Public Works (PW) programmes is found in **Chapter 1: Section 1.4**.

- 3. Not distorting the labour market.** A transfer which, in monetary terms, equals or exceeds the wage rates normally provided for unskilled labour in the FFA targeted area may divert workers away from the private sector – a situation that can happen, for instance, when depressed local wages are combined with high food prices (some urban areas may correspond to this description). This ‘substitution effect’ may cause non-desirable labour shortages or wage inflation in the private sector. If the transfer value identified through the standard FFA methodology risks to be perceived as distorting the local labour market, the recommended approach is to adjust the transfer value (in monetary terms) to approximately 80 to 90% of the local daily average wage for unskilled workers (refer to the [C&V manual](#)²⁶⁷). WFP should however be cautious when setting the FFA transfer below the local wage, particularly to avoid situations where FFA may reinforce labour conditions that are already largely ‘exploitative’.

Adjusting the FFA daily transfer value based on the above considerations will imply offsetting changes in the number of working days for asset creation, but overall will have no effect on the ability of the FFA transfer to cover the planned share of the food gap.

2.5. Determining the number of working days for FFA

The number of **required working days based on the food gap** (including the nutrient gap) for any participating household can be easily obtained by dividing the share of the food gap to be covered through FFA by the daily transfer value:

$$\text{Required FFA working days based on the food gap} = \text{food gap to be covered through FFA} \div \text{daily FFA transfer}$$

For example, if the share of the food gap of a household to be covered through FFA is estimated at 200 kg of cereals, and the daily household ration is estimated at 5 kg, then the number of required working days based on the food gap is 40 (i.e. **200 ÷ 5**).

²⁶⁷ WFP. 2014. Cash and vouchers manual, second edition 2014. Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/newsroom/wfp274576.pdf>

2.6. Determining the number of FFA man-days

The total number of **required FFA man-days based on the food gap** can be calculated by multiplying the number of required working days based on the food gap by the number of households targeted by the FFA project in the targeted community.

Required man-days based on the food gap = required working days based on the food gap X number of targeted households

For example, an intervention targeting 50 food insecure households each requiring 30 work-days to meet their identified food gap will correspond to an aggregated 150 man-days required for FFA work to meet the identified food gap.

The type and number of assets to be built (as per the CBPP) should also be translated into a total number of **required FFA man-days based on the assets**.

This is to be done on the basis of the work norms for each type of asset.

It is assumed that part of the assets identified through the CBPP will be built through self-help and not FFA. This amount of assets should not be included in the calculation of the required FFA man-days based on the assets.



Determining the **planned number of FFA man-days** to be mobilized for FFA work implies an iterative process aimed at determining the best compromise between the numbers of man-days required **based on the food gap** and man-days required **based on the assets** to be built. This can be achieved by applying the following principles:

1. Firstly, the planned number of FFA man-days should be determined in a way that (i) covers the identified share of the food gap (i.e. all or partially); and (ii) allows to build the minimum scale and integration of assets required to ensure their functionality and produce the intended outcome and impact through FFA activities.
2. If the planned number of required FFA man-days based on the **food gap exceeds by 10-15%** (NB: threshold to be determined based on the context) the planned number of required FFA man-days based on the **assets**: alignment can be obtained by revising upward the number of asset units to be built (e.g. based on the CBPP) and in turn increasing the related planned number of required man-days based on **assets**. It is expected that this 'minor' adjustment will not be constrained by funding (i.e. the funding already available to implement the CBPP), seasonality, and absorption capacity (partners) related aspects.
3. If the planned number of required FFA man-days based on the **food gap is inferior by 10-15%** (NB: threshold to be determined based on the context) to the planned number of required FFA man-days based on the **assets**: it is suggested to apply the planned number of required FFA man-days based on the **assets** (and thus increase the number of work/transfer days slightly above the number FFA man-days based on the **food gap**) as it can then be considered that the additional transfer provided is acceptable.
4. If the difference between the two is **above a 10-15% margin** (NB: threshold to be determined based on the context) then the work programme needs to be reconsidered taking into account funding, seasonality, absorption capacity and asset integration, functionality, and impact related aspects.

3. Productivity Work Norms

3.1. Definition

FFA participants receiving a transfer for their actual productivity (work-based) generally tend to produce more in a given period of time than participants receiving a transfer on the basis of their simple attendance (time-based) on the FFA project site. Work-based FFA projects are more easily managed in comparison to time-based projects, and therefore project scheduling, food rationing and food projections are more accurate.

Work-based FFA projects require so-called 'productivity work norms' so that the planned number of assets can be built/rehabilitated within the duration of the project and in line with the relevant technical standards.

Note: Unless indicated otherwise, 'work norms' refers to 'productivity work norms' in the sections below:

Work norms:

- Are useful tool to plan the project;
- Are an effective way to organize work on site;
- Help to monitor progress of work; and
- Help to raise participants' productivity, in line with technical standards and taking into account the local context, the 'decent work' agenda' (**Chapter 1: Section 1.4**), and gender-related and other aspects developed in the FFA PGM.

Definition of Productivity work norms:

Each asset that is to be created through FFA must be associated with clear productivity work norms which indicate the number of outputs or work units, by FFA intervention (or sub-intervention), expected from an FFA participant (or a defined number of FFA participants), within a required timeframe (e.g. per day), in line with the required qualitative technical standards, and depending on the FFA project and context.

Work norms are an integral part of planning, implementation and M&E of FFA activities. They are required to provide the basis for the provision of food or cash-based transfers to targeted beneficiaries in exchange of a given unit of work achieved within a required timeframe, in line with the required qualitative technical standards.

3.2. Inclusive and Integrated productivity work norms

1. **Inclusive:** Work norms are considered as 'inclusive' when only one norm corresponds to one asset, or one asset type. Inclusive work norms are established by taking into account the different tasks associated with each step or stage required to complete a given asset.

FFA activities such as stone bunds, micro-basins, trenches, tree planting, volume of canal and earth dam construction, etc. should possibly have one work norm each.

2. **Integrated:** Work norms are considered as 'integrated' when several work norms are necessary to complete one asset, or one asset type. Each integrated work norm corresponds to one task or stage required to complete a given asset. Integrated work norms are relevant for FFA assets that imply some degree of implementation complexity and phasing (e.g. road construction and earth dam construction, etc.).

Example of Inclusive work norms:

While planting a tree may imply several tasks (digging, planting, watering, etc.) only one inclusive work norm is associated with tree planting i.e. each FFA participant is expected to plant 150 trees a day.

Integrated norms should not become a combination of a dozen or more different interventions, or too complicated to measure and control. There is a need to ensure that while all aspects of design are in line with technical standards, there is flexibility in the way field work is organized and assigned workers can operate in shifts, sharing lighter and heavier duties.

For practical reasons, the less complicated the work norms the easier the monitoring. What is ultimately key in developing sound work norms is that they are based on high safety and quality technical standards.

Example of work norm compendium: Mali²⁶⁸

Examples of Integrated work norms:

FFA interventions such as road construction need to be unpacked and based on a set of work norms to include different sub-interventions such as: i) stone collection, ii) excavation and filling, iii) compaction, iv) stone masonry work and v) others.

3.3. Planning the work: correct work norms are important

Work norms are necessary to determine the planned number of man-days required to build the planned number and type of assets as per the CBPP.

Work norms are not directly used to determine the total transfer to be provided. However based on the CBPP and work norms, the FFA officer will be able to justify the trade-off between the 'planned number of man-days based on the food gap' versus the 'planned number of man-days based on the assets' (as per CBPP action plan) and propose a compromise. To establish this compromise the FFA officer will be able to adjust the number of assets to be built - i.e. adjust the CBPP action plan.

Note: Work norms, transfer modality, daily ration and planned number of targeted households are expected to be determined based on the context and should not be modified during this adjustment (see previous **Sections 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6**).

3.4. How to establish work norms?

There are several ways to establish or refine the work norms for WFP's FFA project:

- Refer to existing national work norms (by context) - if they already exist;
- Refer to existing manuals and guides;
- Find data from similar projects completed by the public and/or private sector in the project area, in the country or from other countries with similar conditions;
- Interview local workers, contractors, construction enterprises, site supervisors etc.; and
- Conduct site trials.

Work norms often vary depending on the type of soils and climate: One specific activity (for example a stone bund/terrace along the contours) may have different work requirements based on the different type of soils and climate where they are planned to be implemented. Such work norms need to represent an acceptable average between different bio-physical and climatic conditions. In order to come up with an average work norm that fits different contexts, an exercise of testing the construction of any given activity needs to be undertaken – for example in 5-6 representative locations. When results are analysed, normally the two outliers (highest and lowest norms) are

²⁶⁸ Ministère du Développement rural, Mali, 2015. Recueil national des normes et spécifications techniques. Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282734.pdf

removed and the rest is averaged to come up with the standard work norm for the selected activity. In this case, work norms are developed for each FFA intervention based on averages but also on experiences from various locations. When the differences for a single intervention are quite significant, national norms for a single activity should be specified differently (e.g. stone bunds for dry areas and stone bunds for moist areas). However, for reporting purposes one national work norm is preferred.

Many of the work norms in official manuals and guides are productivity work norms **under ideal circumstances i.e. assuming that the workforce is in good health, well organized, supervised and understands the work to be done, and that the correct hand tools are available and in good condition.** Poor supervision or poor quality tools can halve participant productivity or double the length of time it takes to complete a project.

Work norms also assume participants are healthy, work appropriate hours, have good access to food and water, and receive the transfer in a timely manner. **Therefore these aspects need to be taken into account when establishing work norms and when planning the work/food assistance** - for example, FFA projects could include the provision of an extra number of work/transfer days in case the work duration expands beyond the plan. For a unitary asset, the whole investment would be lost if the last 10% of the works are not completed (e.g. a flood protection embankment).

Most FFA projects are community-based, with participants living nearby the project site and having **other responsibilities during the day, at home or in the fields.** This needs to be taken into account when establishing the FFA productivity work-norms (i.e. quantity of outputs per day), the timing of interventions during the day, and the transfer value per day.

Productivity work norms could be more flexible **in crisis and emergency situations** where participants or certain groups of participants are weaker or do not have optimum health, or where all conditions are not met to adhere to 'ideal' standard work norms. However safety and technical standards should remain of high quality in all circumstances - for example if conditions are not met to build high tech assets, the project should focus on low-tech assets instead.

Work norms also need to be established with a **gender, nutrition and safety lens.** There is ample reference in WFP, ILO, IFAD and other organizations' guidelines in terms of work norms that can be used as a reference. Key aspects to consider relate to:

IMPORTANT: Productivity - and consequently productivity work norms - can be influenced positively or negatively by several factors. The below factors need to be taken into account when setting work norms:

- Motivation of participants for FFA projects
- Experience of participants to undertake the required works
- Transfer value
- Level of supervision, organization and training, clarity of the works to be undertaken
- Fitness, strength, health and age of participants
- Quality and type of small tools and equipment
- Number of working hours per day, and period of work during the day, and seasonality
- Working conditions
- When the project is done, e.g. crisis, recovery or development focus.

Risk: Work norms defined as 'easy' or 'generous' are to be avoided. A work norm considered easy by beneficiaries tend to create dependency, lack of dedication to the activity, low efficiency, and waste of food assistance resources (as too much is being provided for a given unit of work).

On the other hand, 'difficult' work norms affect the credibility of the project and can appear exploitative, blindly adding to the heavy burden of communities without taking into account their constraints and legitimate requests.

- **Working hours** - the project may make provision for less hours to be worked by women and specific vulnerable groups than for men (refer to **Section 1.3**) and subsequently for less units to be built per day.
- **Type of works** - women and specific vulnerable groups, including household with less labour capacities, may focus on lighter works (e.g. nursery activities, tree seed collection, tree planting, soil compaction, water harvesting works construction, etc.) while men focus on a combination of light and more heavy duty works. Child care systems could be put in place for mothers who do not have sufficient support (e.g. a tent or shelter, operated by volunteers from the less able beneficiaries receiving free transfers but willing to provide a social service; etc.).
- **Control mechanisms** - that ensure that (i) women carry out tasks designed for women and men carry out tasks designed for men; (ii) men and women are remunerated equally for their contribution; and (iii) a safe working environment and conditions are ensured for all workers.

Options to consider for households with less or no labour capacity:

(i) Specific work norms could be established for households with less labour capacity (provided some labour capacity is available in the household) - e.g. less work units to be created for the same daily transfer

(ii) Specific but very light tasks for households with limited labour capacity – e.g. a tent or shelter, operated by volunteers from the less able beneficiaries receiving free transfers but willing to provide a social service such as child caring for mothers involved in FFA activities, distributing water to FFA participants while they work, etc.

(iii) It is usually acceptable to have within an FFA programme a smaller a component that provides unconditional assistance for those highly vulnerable and food insecure households that do not have any labour capacity to ensure they are neither excluded from receiving needed food assistance. This is very much context specific.

3.5. Work norms in supervision and monitoring

The work programme is a statement of the planned amount of work that has to be done and is described on plans, bills of quantities or a work measurement sheet. Based on the work volume, available participants and appropriate work norms, a work schedule is estimated.



IMPORTANT: The work programme allows sufficient lead time for the mobilisation of labour; the delivery of construction materials, supplies, hand tools etc.; and the monitoring and measuring of actual against planned work output.

If the participants receive food assistance on the basis of their daily (or weekly) work outputs, then outputs have to be measured at certain times to see whether they compare with the project plan. If the ration for FFA is well defined and work norms are respected, the transfer provided should overall be proportional to the quantity of work completed.



IMPORTANT: Effective supervision and monitoring at the work site is very important. The training of supervisors is necessary for any large-scale project or a large number of small-scale projects (where trained supervisors can train work group leaders).

3.6. Work norms and the need for clarity and transparency

Work norms need to be communicated and explained to all FFA participants to ensure:

- i) greater transparency and understanding of what is expected in terms of number of tasks and units to be completed by FFA participant per day, in line with high quality technical standards, and other arrangements; and
- ii) satisfactory supervision from work leaders/foremen, extension workers from government technical services, and cooperating partners' staff.

In this regard, work norms need to be provided in the form of guidelines developed for participants, supervisory staff from the targeted community, technical services extension workers and WFP FFA cooperating partners (e.g. NGO's).

Extension workers, cooperating partners and supervisory staff from the community involved in the FFA project have the responsibility to explain FFA participants each work norm (and related technical and safety standards) as well as other aspects related to the division of labour, entitlements, verification procedures, gender considerations, number of hours to work per participant per day, and starting and closing dates of projects, etc.

A general community meeting or assembly should be used to discuss work norms and related implementation arrangements. Signboards or pamphlets can be prepared to illustrate the different arrangements.

Useful references

- [Introduction to labour-based approaches and labour-based work for the Food for Assets and Sustainable Employment project.](#)²⁶⁹
- [Report on the establishment of Work Norms in Ethiopia.](#)²⁷⁰
- [Community-based Participatory Watershed Development Guidelines in Ethiopia.](#)²⁷¹
- [WFP-FAO-EU, 2010. Technical report on work norms for FFW and FFT \(Guatemala\).](#)²⁷²

²⁶⁹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/other/wfp042701.pdf>

²⁷⁰ WFP/MOARD, 2002. Revised soil and water conservation work norms. Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238161.pdf

²⁷¹ MOARD, 2005. Community-based Participatory Watershed Development Guidelines. Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp239381.pdf

²⁷² Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238004.pdf

4. FFA Budget Planning

IMPORTANT: FFA budgets – which are part of initial project documents, subsequent budget revisions, or specific funding proposals – are often made without sufficient consultation with the FFA Officer, sometimes leading to inappropriate FFA budgeting by cost component. CO management must ensure that the FFA Officer is involved in all stages of the FFA budgeting process so that the critical elements of a successful FFA project can be adequately taken into account and the prioritization process done in an appropriate manner, while remaining realistic and pragmatic.

4.1. Cost components

Overall, a standard budget planning for FFA interventions needs to consider the following cost components (extracted from the [Standard Project Structure](#)²⁷³):

Direct Support Cost (DSC): A cost which can be directly linked to the provision of support by operation and which would not be incurred should that activity cease.

Some DSC costs are established for the whole operation (e.g. support units and vehicles cost-shared by all components of the PRRO), and others by component (e.g. dedicated FFA staff budgeted in FFA component).

For example, any FFA programme component needs to have a number of programme staff and related operating costs budgeted - i.e. for FFA project management, programming and planning, supervision and M&E. The number of dedicated FFA staff and recurring costs at CO and Sub-Office levels vary with the size of the FFA component and its complexity in terms of objective, technical aspects, coordination and partnerships. However, minimum requirements need to be ensured, and several scenarios based on different level of funding should be established.

| Food tool and related cost components | C&V tool and related cost components | Capacity Development |
|---|---|---|
| <p>Food Transfer: Food transfer to beneficiaries.</p> <p>The costs related to the food transfer required for implementation: relates to what it takes to cover the intended food gap and to implement the community action plan (e.g. CBPP).</p> | <p>C&V transfer: Cash and vouchers are transfer modalities that provide beneficiaries with an economic value that enables direct access or access through a cooperating partner, host government and/or a service provider, to food and/or non-food items (e.g. insurance) from the marketplace.</p> | <p>CD transfer: All activities that seek to strengthen national capacities with the aim to eventually transition ownership of the WFP-assisted programme to national partners, or to enhance a government programme that is already entirely nationally managed.</p> |
| <p>External transport: Any transport undertaken between the countries where WFP takes possession of donated or purchased commodities and the recipient country or a recipient's neighbouring country.</p> | <p>C&V delivery: Costs directly related to the delivery mechanism adopted to transfer cash and vouchers from WFP to the beneficiaries.</p> <p>Description: Includes costs incurred to set-up and operate the cash and/or voucher delivery mechanism e.g. system hardware,</p> | <p>Example: building national capacity in FFA programming and planning (e.g. 3PA); FFA programme design, implementation and</p> |
| <p>Landside Transport, Storage and Handling (LTSH) comprise</p> | | |

²⁷³ WFP. Standard Project Financial Structure. Available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/financial-framework-review/project-financial-structure>

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| <p>the costs required to care for and physically deliver food commodities from the completion of external transport through to final destination.</p> | <p>software and ICT services for corporate electronic vouchers, voucher printing, consumables (log-books, debit cards, etc.); commercial service providers such as IT/telecommunications, banks, cash agents, retailers and security companies; and equipment.</p> | <p>monitoring; productive safety net development including FFA.</p> |
| <p>Other Direct Operational Costs (ODOC food): Costs of all activity inputs provided to beneficiaries in conjunction with food activities or utilized by host governments or cooperating partners to implement food-based activities, but not costs which are for transport, storage, handling or delivery of food.</p> <p>Costs incurred by implementing partners or incurred by WFP on behalf of implementing partners for their planning, training, management, administration, monitoring and reporting; travel reimbursed to beneficiaries; non-food items provided to beneficiaries or implementing partners (e.g. tools, construction materials, surveying equipment and other materials required to support FFA design, planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation); quality and quantity surveys; supervision; food transformation.</p> | <p>C&V Other: Costs of all activity inputs provided to beneficiaries in conjunction with cash and voucher activities or utilized by host governments, cooperating partners or service providers to implement cash and voucher activities, but not costs which are for the cash and voucher delivery mechanism.</p> <p>Description: Costs incurred by implementing partners, service providers or incurred by WFP on behalf of implementing partners for their planning, training, management, administration, monitoring and planning; travel reimbursed to beneficiaries; non-food items provided to beneficiaries or implementing partners.</p> | <p>Even if not specifically related to FFA, it is worth noting that Capacity Development also incorporates any technical assistance for non-WFP projects, such as technical advisory services to a national government which are intended to enhance or improve implementation capacity of government’s food and nutrition security; emergency preparedness and response; and other related activities that will have deliberate impact on reducing hunger through government own action.</p> |

Separating Capacity Development from ‘ODOC Food’ and ‘C&V Other’

Previously, Capacity Development activities were a part of the ODOC cost component and therefore funding had to be generated in accordance to the ODOC rate for the project in line with the food tonnage that was delivered for food-based activities. With the implementation of the new project financial structure, Capacity Development activities can be separately budgeted through the third tool of the financial framework.

What is considered Capacity Development for FFA budgeting?

Any expenditure incurred to transform national partners into owners of the programme belongs to the Capacity Development element of the budget (for instance, an expert who works with national counterparts to help design national systems to eventually take over full responsibility for CBPP or FFA). The process of enhancing capacity is complex and usually implies not only changes at the individual level (human competencies) but also at the infrastructure and institutional levels (structure and processes of organisations). Some country offices provide capacity development assistance to facilitate the transition to national ownership of WFP supported programmes, as well

as some help intended to strengthen national programmes and safety nets which are totally government owned and managed.

What is not Capacity Development for FFA budgeting?

Not all capacity strengthening activities should be included in the Capacity Development element of the budget. Rather, some capacity strengthening costs are still to be resourced through ODOC (food) associated with the food tonnage of the activity that they belong to – i.e. technical training to improve implementation of a food transfer activity. Any expenditure that has to be incurred to improve the programme, regardless of who owns the programme, belongs to the ODOC (food) or C&V Related Costs - for instance the training of register keepers, which is an activity that has to be undertaken regardless of who (WFP or the government) owns and manages the programme).

Most WFP country offices provide some form of technical training to government counterparts to improve the implementation of programmes to which WFP provides food resources. Examples include warehouse management, nutrition, school feeding, FFA beneficiary registration and targeting, and general food distribution. This kind of incidental training cannot be called capacity development for the purpose of FFA budgeting.

For more information on FFA capacity development refer to **Section 4.6** of the present chapter and to **Chapter 10** of the FFA PGM.

4.2. Context, objective and intervention-specific budget plan

Budget planning for FFA is context-, objective- and intervention-specific but will include both transfer and other costs as described in the previous section.

In case of joint programmes or complementary efforts, these budget plans may include other non-WFP costs that will be met by the partner(s). Moreover, confirmed or predicted government and communities' contribution should always be included in the WFP budget planning.

Of relevance is to think budget planning in relation to the outcomes and impacts that FFA is supposed to generate or contribute to - for example by looking at what it takes to achieve resilience at community or area level.

More specifically, FFA Budget will have to include the following main components:

- **DSC:** WFP Staffing (e.g. FFA technical staff; M&E staff; potential contribution to the cost of other staff to ensure that crosscutting expertise such as gender, nutrition, HIV/TB, protection and partnerships are covered); WFP recurring costs (e.g. vehicles and equipment, office premises and warehouses, etc.) including for analysis, programming/planning, design, coordination and M&E)
- **Food and C&V transfer** to be provided through FFA (including for asset creation and transfer-based training falling under the FFA terminology (**Chapter 1: Section 1.1**))
- **External transport and LTSH** and/or **C&V delivery**

- **ODOC food or C&V Other:** Tools, materials and equipment needed for planning, design, implementation, and monitoring (e.g. agricultural tools; measurement equipment; etc.); specific technical requirements/assessments/surveys related to assets that require engineering screening (**refer to Chapter 3: Section 7.3**); training of cooperating partners; cooperating partners staffing and recurring costs related to the implementation of the FFA project (to be developed in the FLA budget).
- **Capacity Development:** Capacity development efforts for government and local partners necessary to support FFA investments, consolidate outcomes and impacts, increase scale, and strengthen their sustainability.

Note on FFA funding scenarios: Needs-based FFA projects are rarely fully funded. Moreover, evaluations have demonstrated that using a scattered approach in FFA in case of limited funding compromises the ability to reach sustainable impact. Thus, realistic FFA funding forecasts and funding scenarios should be taken into account when developing FFA budgets.

EXAMPLE: Estimating an investment for 'change' in terms of building resilience for an average food insecure community:

The following is an estimate of food transfer and ODOC (food) costs based on average costs per community, from experience by the Ministry of Agriculture & Rural Development and WFP supported MERET²⁷⁴ project in Ethiopia.

Assumption: Community sites to be treated include an area of approximately 500-1000 hectares and a population of 1,200 to 1,800 people. The level and range of investment/site assumes at least 60-70% of the total area is in need of significant support in terms of establishment of various bio-physical and infrastructure assets.

Furthermore, the 'investment' includes minimum requirements for capacity building of counterparts and beneficiaries, which include critical aspects of participatory planning, empowerment and management activities. These aspects are covered by ODOC food (or C&V Other) budget.

Table 6.1 on the following page offers a hypothetical example of a breakdown for the food transfer (or cash-based) and non-food requirements needed to induce long lasting enhanced resilience in a given community. This breakdown is an estimate for a five year period investment plan. When estimated for one hundred communities, approximately six million USD/year is required – although probably less as economies of scale can induce enhanced efficiencies in terms of costs/unit area. Costs also increase or reduce significantly based on levels of food insecurity (e.g. duration of the transfer) and severity of land degradation.

Note that the food quantities (in mt) coupled with self-help support indicated below are estimated on the basis of 'standard requirements'²⁷⁵ that are needed to induce significant changes in terms of rehabilitation, food security and livelihoods enhancement. The non-transfer budget, however, is estimated only on the basis of 'minimum requirements' (as related to ODOC only). This should increase based on local conditions and partnerships.

²⁷⁴ MERET is a WFP supported participatory rural land rehabilitation programme operational in some 400 communities

²⁷⁵ These costs are only estimates, based on the Ethiopia experience (referenced to a five years food commodities costs), and may be revised upwards or downwards depending on food prices and the use of cash or a mix of cash and food transfers for FFA.

Table 6.1 - Level of investment in FFA per average community (hypothetical example)

| A) | Food requirements by type of FFA intervention (over a 5 year period) | Land use/unit | Food costs (MTs then in USD) |
|--|--|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. | Upper watershed treatment with trenches and eyebrow basins in communal areas (10% self-help) | 100 ha | 150 |
| 2. | Middle steep slopes cultivated area treatment with conservation measures (25% self-help) | 80 ha | 50 |
| 3. | Lower cultivated land treatment with various conservation measures (50% self-help) | 150 ha | 70 |
| 4. | Vegetative stabilization of conservation structures, fertility management and agroforestry (80% self-help) | 250 km | 8 |
| 5. | Water collections ponds (6-7000 m ³ each) / (20% self-help) | 2 | 50 |
| 6. | Spring development (30% self-help) and irrigation | 2 | 5 |
| 7. | Nursery establishment (100,000 seedlings/year) / (20% self-help) | 1 | 15 |
| 8. | Shallow wells on individual/groups basis (50% self-help) | 50 | 7 |
| 9. | Feeder & rural roads (average 5 km/community) / (10% self-help) | 5 km | 45 |
| 10. | Sedimentation & overflow dams and checks in gullies (10% self-help) | 15,000 m ³ | 60 |
| Total (5 years) | | | 460 MTs |
| Total USD - value approx. 600 USD/Ton (DSC included) | | | USD 276,000 |
| B) | Minimum non-wage requirements (for 5 years) | Units | USD |
| 1. | Agricultural tools | 250 sets (5 tools each) | 2,500 |
| 2. | Surveying and layout equipment | 15 sets | 150 |
| 3. | Transport means | 1 | 2,000 |
| 4. | Running costs | NA | 1,250 |
| 5. | Training of farmers | 50 persons | 3,500 |
| 6. | On the job training for professionals and educational incentives | 2 | 4,000 |
| 7. | Construction materials such as cement, gabions, iron mesh | NA | 5,000 |
| 8. | Revolving fund to support use of improved technologies (IGA) | 300HH | 15,000 |
| Total additional non-wage requirement costs for a 5 year period (ODOC food) | | | USD 33,400 |
| GRAND TOTAL A)+B) for 5 YEARS (USD) | | | USD 309,400 |
| GRAND TOTAL/YEAR (USD) | | | USD 61,880 |

4.3. Tools, Construction Materials and Equipment

A well planned project (e.g. well designed and in line with local priorities) may be poorly implemented just because of the late arrival or poor quality of tools, construction materials and equipment.

Planning the correct set of tools is important. There are examples of poorly performing feeder roads simply because the tools used have been inadequate (e.g. only hoes, shovels and pick axes – but no crow bars and sledge hammers) which forced the compromising of the layout of the road, such as non-removal of large stones and the excavation of side drains, consolidation of shoulders around curves, and carving steeper tracts at the correct angle. There are similar examples for other works – for instance shallower and poorly performing water ponds or the lack of stone rip-rap and aprons in waterways, simply because of the lack of adequate tools to dig hard pans, shape or break stones.

In other instances, a minimum of construction materials should necessarily be pre-positioned before beginning a given FFA project. These items should be provided either through WFP (ODOC food or C&V Other), or through partners especially if WFP resources are not sufficient to cover these costs. For example, mesh wire for gabion making, iron bars and concrete slabs for specific road sections, moulds for bricks or cement rings for shallow wells, logs and culverts for bridges, cement for full concrete surround structures for culverts (i.e. construction of masonry head and wing wall) to cross drainage lines, polythene tubes for seedling production, etc. Regarding equipment, these range from manual rollers for compaction to rented trucks for transport of sand, stones, or other construction material, irrigation pumps, etc.

For tendered FFA activities that require engineering specifications (**Chapter 3: Section 7.3**) the WFP Engineering Unit should be consulted on the tools and materials to be budgeted in the FFA project.

The following aspects are critical to plan the needs for tools, materials and equipment:

1. Type of interventions implemented (e.g. feeder road, pond, bridge, terraces, other)
2. A sufficiently accurate understanding of the physical contexts (e.g. soil type, rockiness, etc.)
3. Cultural factors (some tools not used in specific contexts; local tools may be more effective)
4. An approximate understanding of the availability of local tools (taking advantage of existing tools and abilities)
5. Timing and availability are also important criteria when deciding between local versus international procurement (e.g. how to synchronize start-up of the intended project activities with purchase and provision of items)

Note on the quality of tools, equipment and handover modalities:

Necessary attention should be given to the quality and durability of tools and equipment during the procurement phase. This does not mean that all tools and equipment should always be of the highest quality, but rather that their level of quality should be in line with the project requirements (type of work; FFA tools and equipment handover modalities; funding; timing and availability; etc.).

Modalities for ownership and handover of FFA tools and equipment should be clarified in the FLA with the cooperating partners (see Section 5 on FFA SOP) and explained to the beneficiaries. Handover modalities are context-specific. Many options are possible including hand over to the beneficiaries, transfer to other FFA sites, or handed over to local partners or authorities, etc.

Table 6.2 - Example of planning hand tools

A community has decided that extending a pond would increase its capacity to cater for the water consumption needs of the entire community during the dry season. The major task to be completed is the excavation of 300m³ of medium soil, removing the soil to a distance of 150m, and spreading it out to a new area away from the pond.

| Intervention | Quantity (m ³) | Work norm (m ³ /day) | Total Number of days | No. of persons per day for 10 days | Hand tools required |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| Excavation | 300 | 2 | 150 | 15 | 15 hoes and shovels (+3 as buffer) |
| Loading wheelbarrows | 300 | 6 | 50 | 5 | 5 shovels (+2 as buffer) |
| Transporting by wheelbarrow | 300 | 4.5 | 67 | 7 | Minimum 7 wheelbarrows Optimally 14 |
| Spreading | 300 | 10 | 30 | 3 | 3 hoes and 3 rakes |
| Sub-total | | | 297 | 30 | |
| 10% Contingency | | | 30 | | |
| Total | | | 327 | | |

If 15 people are excavating, then 5 people are needed for loading, 7 people for transporting the soil with wheelbarrows, and 3 people for spreading. In all, 30 people could achieve this activity over a period of 10 days. It is always recommended to allow 10% extra during planning as often it takes a little time to organize the activity and to reach the required productivity levels. This means that any small number of extra days, required to complete the asset, are covered in the planned food allocation. About 300-330 daily rations of food incentives would be required for the physical asset creation. This plan anticipates that the correct type and number of good quality tools and equipment will be available for each operation, and that the haulage route for the wheelbarrows will be at a reasonable gradient and relatively smooth.

Similar to the tools, some budget for construction materials such as cement, mesh wire, gabions, culverts, skilled manpower (e.g. masons), etc., can be estimated and part of items purchased and stored prior to the implementation season and the finalization of FLAs. This allows for the kick-starting of priority projects in specific areas, but also to overcome the delay that some cooperating partners may face in the preparation and submission of FLAs. Indeed, slow procurement of such items often compromises the possibility to undertake FFA works during the best season. Therefore a rough conservative estimate of such materials may be considered by the country office for advance procurement and storage at Sub-office level.

Caution is required for items like cement that need to be stored under good and dry conditions and for limited number of months prior to their planned utilization.

4.4. Items for Technical Surveys, Planning, and M&E

Items needed for technical surveys, participatory planning and, subsequently, for monitoring and evaluation should be planned for and budgeted.

Basic surveying equipment is necessary for FFA, including for a number of relatively simple works. For example, ropes, nylon strings, wooden poles, graduated poles, meter tape, line levels, water levels, A-Frame level, direction compass, topographic maps, clinometers (to measure slope gradients) etc. More sophisticated measuring equipment may include optic levels (to measure points of same elevation), stereoscopes (to interpret aerial photos and delineate watershed boundaries), and other equipment that relate to measurements or layout of specific structures.

Table 6.3 provides some common key surveying equipment needed by main intervention areas that are required for staff:

Table 6.3 - Key surveying and layout equipment for main FFA interventions

| SR | Type of Intervention | Surveying & layout equipment |
|----|---|---|
| 1 | Soil conservation works (contour terraces, graded structures, gully control measures, etc.) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Line levels (hooked levels on 5-10 m string) . Water levels (alternative to the above) . A-frames (allows to check top level of soil or stone bunds, and layout of small structures for tree planting along the contours) . Graduated poles and pegs to mark contour lines . Measuring tape (50-100 m) . Clinometers (from portable instruments to basic 'paper' clinometers) . Topomaps, aerial photos, enlarged google-earth maps, etc. |
| 2 | Water harvesting works (ponds, farm dams, reservoirs, spring development) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Soil texture chart (to classify main soil materials – e.g. for use for core of embankment, clay blankets for seepage control, etc.) . Water quality control kit (specific measures only) . Line levels – as above . Topomaps, aerial photos, stereoscope, etc. |
| 3 | Forestry interventions (particularly in dry zones) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . A-frame (layout of trenches & other structures along complex slopes, etc.) . Clinometers . Measuring tapes, etc. . Topomaps and aerial photos (as required). |
| 4 | Feeder roads construction and rehabilitation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Optic levels (e.g. Abney level), line levels . T-pegs, rope . Graduated poles/rods, measuring tape . Clinometer, topomaps, etc. |
| 5 | Removal of debris | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Aerial photos or satellite images of areas impacted by shocks (for example Haiti after the earthquake) to classify priority areas, access problems and priority efforts, etc. . Pegs, poles, warning cordons, etc. - as required |

Example of specific surveying equipment requirements: the case of feeder or 'green' roads in Nepal

'Green' roads are generally constructed by people where sophisticated survey and detailed design works are not so essential. Green roads emphasize only minimal survey and design essential for technical and official purposes. To guide technicians in the field, typical designs for retaining structures as well as water management structures prepared beforehand are used. Most important is that the road follows a smooth longitudinal gradient with an average of 7% and a maximum of 12%. The horizontal alignment generally follows the natural contour, but can be gradually improved in major rehabilitation works later on.

The basic surveying equipment and layout needs are listed below:

After selecting the optimum alignment, the minimum requirement for a technical survey works is the following:

- Longitudinal alignment setting is done with an 'Abney level' or levelling instrument, staff and measuring tapes.
- Road Centre-line Pegs are fixed at intervals of 25 m and the cross slope at each peg point is measured.
- Bench Marks are established at intervals of 500 m, and Reference Points are located at the rates of 4 per km.
- A more detailed survey by using Theodolite is carried out only at critical sections, such as gullies, hairpin bends (switchbacks) etc. which could include contour mapping.
- A local plant availability survey is conducted at certain intervals to identify suitable plants, which could be used later for bioengineering purposes.
- A land-use survey (forest, agricultural land, pasture land, rock cliffs, etc.) and a soil survey (earth, gravel, rock, conglomerate, etc.) are carried out.

Simple and robust survey instruments are to be used for survey and construction supervision works. Some of the most essential instruments are listed here as follows:

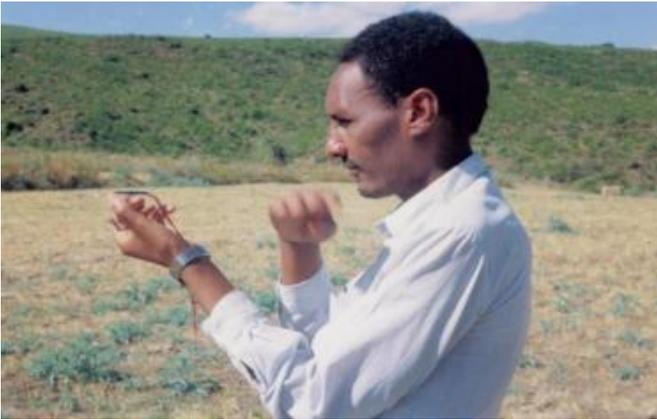
- Measurement tapes of different lengths (5 m, 30 m, 50 m, 100 m, etc.)
- Ranging Rods
- Abney Level
- Magnetic Compass
- Clinometer
- Camera
- Binocular
- Engineering Level with horizontal compass and circle
- Cross Staffs
- Plumb bobs
- Theodolite for specialized survey works at critical sites such as at switchbacks, landslide prone zones, steep rocky portions, gullies, and settlement areas
- Pipe water level (5 m transparent pipe)
- Wooden triangle frames to fix the road surface (camber, slopes, cross section of drainage, etc.)

A typical Design Report would consist of the following:

- Longitudinal Profile of the road alignment (1:1000 Horizontal and 1:100 Vertical)
- Horizontal plan of the road on an existing topographical map (1:25000 or 1:50000)
- Cross Sections at given intervals and typical cross sections of varying mountain slopes
- Detailed Cross Sections at critical areas including layout plan in contour maps, if necessary, especially at switchbacks
- Typical design types of structural works, such as retaining walls and water management structures
- Estimate of quantity and cost of different work items, preferably for each construction phase, and finally the number of skilled and unskilled labour person days required
- Quantity and cost of construction materials to be procured from the outside (cement, gabion wires, etc.)
- Quantity of tools and equipment to be procured from the outside (wheelbarrows, shovels, crowbars, etc.)

The photos below and next page show a set of simple instruments being used for layout, design and measurement of different interventions.

Figure 6.3 - Simple instruments being used for layout, design and measurement of different interventions



Delineating community maps using a direction compass



Using a topomap for delineating sub-watersheds and community boundaries



Checking of soil texture and properties



Using A-frame for layout and design of trenches



Using aerial photos & stereoscopes for mapping



Using line level for layout of soil bunds



Checking top level of soil bund using A-frame



Measuring gully width for major rehabilitation

4.5. Other planning and implementation costs

Training and other costs related to FFA planning and implementation should be budgeted. Training of cooperating partners, government technical services, and beneficiaries on FFA standard operating procedures (SOP) should be budgeted under the ODOC food or C&V Other cost components. It is of paramount importance that all parties involved are trained and briefed on the key steps related to FFA implementation e.g. CBPP, targeting, work norms, quality and safety, asset supervision process, transfer value, transfer distribution modalities, asset management, etc.

Note: these trainings differ from the transfer-based trainings for beneficiaries related to asset management, soil and water conservation technics, natural resource management, etc. which are all part of the FFA activities (and should also be budgeted under ODOC or C&V other cost).

Below are examples of other planning and implementation costs which should be budgeted for:

- Government technical services staff are often poorly equipped and unable to go to the project sites due to lack of transport, or running costs such as fuel. The CO and each SO may undertake an assessment of basic requirements, in consultation with other partners, needed in a number of areas where FFA and related CBPP are envisaged to take place. Depending on context, motorbikes and essential spares may be considered, particularly in areas with difficult access to sites. This equipment will complement the support package provided for planning, design and implementation outlined in earlier sections. These items described are not exhaustive and other costs (communication, computer equipment, per diem and fuel, etc.) also need to be considered.
- Example of package to support FFA cooperating partners engaging in CBPP at community level. For each step/task a specific budget needs to be allocated:
 - Training of CBPP trainers (e.g. WFP, technical services staff, CP staff) – can be done through an 'on-the-job' approach in one of the communities selected for planning FFA
 - Staff trained on CBPP would then train more CP staff (cascade training)
 - Trained CP staff undertake CBPP's. Each CBPP requires 3 days of planning (more days also possible depending on context and capacity)
 - Compiling output targets and budget plans from multiple CBPP's
 - Specific staffing costs for activities requiring additional time and skills for detail design
 - Surveying equipment – stationery (district and ward levels)
 - Minimum support costs for planning, design and supervision

The list is not exhaustive. Field Level Agreements (FLA) signed with CP's should reflect all the costs incurred by the CP to implement the FFA activity.

4.6. Capacity Development costs

FFA is not only about providing conditional transfers, creating assets, and related planning and implementation activities - long-term sustainability and scale needs to be ensured by developing the capacities of government line ministries, technical services, local authorities (e.g. municipalities) and partners (especially local partners).

For FFA budgeting, Capacity Development specifically includes the following elements:

- Training government institutions and local partners on FFA programmatic guidance - including analysis, positioning, programming, planning, design, implementation, M&E
- Support coordination including through innovative programming tools
- Support research and lessons learning efforts for FFA
- Support the integration of FFA in national food security and nutrition related policies, strategies, programmes and budgets (e.g. Social protection and safety net; disaster risk reduction, resilience, climate change adaptation; public works; etc.)

Through FFA-related Capacity Development activities WFP aims to address the following intermediate outcomes (refer to the [FFA Theory of Change \(TOC\)](#)²⁷⁶ in **Annex 7a**):

- Better quality support provided by government institutions (e.g. technical services at sub-national level) and local partners to the communities, beyond the duration and scope of the specific FFA project;
- FFA included and better coordinated within government and/or coalitions of partners' multi-sectorial Food Security and Nutrition programmes bringing FFA and complementary interventions to scale
- FFA gradually handed-over to the Government or a government-led coalition of partners

Capacity Development activities need to be thought carefully in the framework of the strategic review in consultation with the government, and budgeted accordingly.

²⁷⁶ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282732.pdf

5. FFA Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) or Country Office FFA Operational Guidelines

FFA Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) - also called Country Office FFA Operational Guidelines - are a good practice and a very important context specific reference which aims to ensure that FFA activities are implemented in line with the intended objectives and expected standards, and where key steps and the roles of each party are described.

FFA SOP should provide the following key information:

1. What the FFA activity intends to achieve in the targeted area (i.e. overall objectives and main intended results)
2. How the FFA activity needs to be implemented in terms of programming and planning, geographical and household targeting, design, implementation and supervision, monitoring (including outcome and output indicators; but also context, input and process indicators) and periodic reporting, etc. The SOP needs to include all the relevant forms and templates and describe the main processes and timelines that need to be followed
3. Responsibilities and tasks of WFP, CP, technical services, targeted communities and other stakeholders throughout the FFA processes
4. CP and technical services training aspects
5. Coordination and partnerships.

FFA SOP (or Country Office FFA operational guidelines) is a critical annex of the FLA's signed with the FFA cooperating partners. The FFA SOP must be context specific and as detailed and clear as possible in order to avoid misunderstanding and disputes between parties, implementation delays and unexpected implementation costs.

Periodic trainings and consultations should be organized with CP's and Government counterparts to ensure that each section of the SOP is well understood by the concerned parties, and to review the SOP's and enhance them over time, making it self-explanatory and comprehensive as possible.

In the FFA SOP's, specific attention needs to be dedicated to crosscutting programmatic priorities. The FFA activity needs to be planned, designed, implemented and monitored with a livelihood, environmental, seasonal, gender, nutrition, HIV/TB and protection lenses through a people-centred participatory approach (see **Chapter 3**)– all this should be reflected in the FFA SOP's.

Chapter 7

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Monitoring, Evaluation, and Review



World Food Programme

wfp.org

1. FFA THEORY OF CHANGE (ToC)

The intended impact of FFA is to directly contribute to achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2: “End Hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture”; and to contribute to SDG’s 1, 5, 6, 12, 13 and 15 (see **Chapter 1: Section 2.1**).

The **FFA Theory of Change (TOC)**²⁷⁷ (in **Annex 7a**) outlines four different inter-connected pathways (i.e. physical and natural asset creation; community training and capacity development; transfer provision; and government and partner capacity development in FFA approaches) and their related inputs and activities required to reach specific FFA outputs and immediate outcomes (i.e. the short-term changes). It further shows how these interlink to attain intermediate outcomes (i.e. the medium-term changes) which, when combined, can reach the final impact (i.e. the long-term changes) that contribute to achieving SDG 2 (and SDG’s 1, 5, 6, 12, 13, and 15).

In summary, the FFA ToC is a strategic picture of the multiple interventions required to produce the short and intermediate outcomes that are the preconditions of reaching the ultimate goal – i.e. FFA’s contribution, together with partners, to SDG 2 (and others).

The ToC is composed of a visual diagram and a narrative part which elaborates on the causal linkages, underlying assumptions and risks, and strength of the available evidence.

The corporate FFA ToC may be used by CO’s to develop their own FFA ToC (or a ToC of their operation, including an FFA programme) tailored to the country context. Overall, the ToC can be used for different purposes, for example:

Table 7.1 - Different potential uses of the TOC

| Possible use of the FFA ToC | |
|---|----------|
| Funding proposals | CO/RB/HQ |
| Country Strategy Paper (CSP) | CO |
| Joint programmes (e.g. UNDAF) | CO |
| Partnership agreements | CO/RB/HQ |
| Project development proposals | CO/RB/HQ |
| Communication purposes | CO/RB/HQ |
| Evaluation purposes | CO/RB/HQ |
| Foundation for the Corporate Results Framework (CRF) | HQ |
| Foundation to develop country level logframes, M&E systems and project-specific indicators | CO |
| Learning purposes | CO/RB/CO |

2. MONITORING OF FFA ACTIVITIES

Important Notes: The purpose of Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) is to first and foremost inform project design and management, as well as reporting. This principle should guide the way monitoring systems are built, implemented and used.

M&E roles and tasks should be a shared responsibility between WFP, government and cooperating partners based on the country context and M&E system. Within WFP, the M&E unit plays a leading role while ensuring that the FFA Officer is systematically involved in key M&E steps pertaining to the FFA programme. The FFA Officer should also play a proactive role in proposing relevant contributions and solutions to the M&E unit.

²⁷⁷ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282732.pdf

2.1. Corporate Monitoring Guidance

Project monitoring and evaluation serves two main purposes:

1. To provide regular information on project performance, in turn promoting efficient and effective implementation and operation of projects (accountability); and
2. To provide lessons for the planning and design of future projects.

Monitoring is a continuous function involving the regular collection and analysis of indicator data to gauge the extent of operational progress and the achievement of results. It is a day-to-day managerial function including the collection and review of information to know how an operation is proceeding and what aspects, if any, require adjustment. The Performance Management and Monitoring Division (RMP) leads WFP's corporate efforts to monitor and review its operations.

M&E systems are to be aligned with the corporate monitoring guidance. A comprehensive set of monitoring guidance has indeed been designed to assist country offices in:

1. Integrating monitoring functions and tasks throughout their work streams;
2. Supporting learning through the collection and analysis of data for performance monitoring;
3. Facilitating reporting, sharing of lessons learned and enhancing decision-making through use of monitoring findings.

The corporate monitoring guidance is a step by step approach to designing a monitoring system for WFP programmes, including FFA, based on:

- Project logical framework
- Country office monitoring strategy
- Data collection, processing and analysis
- Process monitoring
- Output monitoring
- Outcome monitoring
- Performance reporting

Refer to the [corporate monitoring guidance](#)²⁷⁸ and the [monitoring page on WFPGo](#)²⁷⁹ for further complementary information.

Key messages

- A **clearly outlined M&E strategy** is essential to a comprehensive M&E system
- Effective and sustainable M&E systems are **participatory** and have **strong government involvement**
- M&E systems should be **as simple and user-friendly as possible**

2.2. 2014-2017 Strategic Results Framework

The [2014-2017 Strategic Results Framework \(SRF\)](#)²⁸⁰ is the basis of WFP's measurement of its performance against the 2014-2017 Strategic Plan. The SRF provides the basis for aligning country-level monitoring and reporting in relation to the Strategic Objectives (SO), allowing WFP to track outcomes and outputs at project level and aggregate these to show corporate level achievements.

²⁷⁸ WFP, 2014. Corporate Monitoring Guidance. Available at: http://pgm.wfp.org/index.php/General_guidance:Monitoring

²⁷⁹ Available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/mande/home>

²⁸⁰ WFP. Strategic Results Framework 2014-2017. Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/forms/wfp261465.pdf>

In this way, it provides the basis for accountability of actual country-level activities against planned activities aligned with the Strategic Plan. Guidance on how to use the SRF for Monitoring and Evaluation of FFA is found in this Chapter.

Note: To align with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), a new Strategic Plan 2017-2021 with related Strategic Objectives will be advanced by one year and be presented for approval at the November 2016 Executive Board. Once approved, the FFA PGM will be updated accordingly following the new Strategic Plan 2017-2021 and its Strategic Objectives. In November 2016 the SRF will also change into the Corporate Results Framework (CRF) to align with Strategic Plan 2017-2021. The CRF will differ from the current SRF in several ways: first, it will be a single, comprehensive framework providing a complete picture of WFP's expected results and metrics for the 2017-2021 period; secondly, the CRF will, for the first time, include impact level statements and indicators; thirdly, the top of the CRF results hierarchy will be aligned with those SDG goals and targets of relevance to WFP's vision of zero hunger (especially SDG 2); and finally, the CRF will be a key instrument to help guide planning, budgeting, monitoring, performance management and reporting at HQ-, Regional-, and Country Level.

2.3. Defining the Objectives, Outcomes and related Indicators and Targets of FFA Programmes including Data collection and Quality check methodologies

Only certain FFA-specific monitoring aspects will be developed in the following sections (more details can be found in the corporate monitoring guidelines).

2.3.1. Formulating FFA Objectives

Formulating objectives entails identifying the results WFP is trying to contribute to achieve within the FFA programme. The basis for all programme design and corresponding M&E strategy should flow from these clearly defined objectives, which are appropriate, rational, and correspond to the national context and policy frameworks. When objectives are clearly outlined they are easier to evaluate. The FFA ToC can be instrumental in this regard.

The objectives of your FFA activities should be stated in terms of support to national and regional policies and frameworks, such as the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP). They should also be linked to the Strategic Objectives (SOs) of [WFP's Strategic Plan](#)²⁸¹, in most cases SO2 (Support or restore food security and nutrition and establish or rebuild livelihoods in fragile settings and following emergencies) and SO3 (Reduce risk and enable people, communities and countries to meet their own food and nutrition needs); however in some cases also SO1 (Save lives and protect livelihoods in emergencies) and SO4 (Reduce undernutrition and break the intergenerational cycle of hunger).

The type of operation (i.e. EMOP, PRRO, DEV/CP) will influence the objective of WFP's FFA intervention. For example, an emergency operation may have improved food consumption as the primary objective with FFA activities used as a conditional transfer in line with WFP's SO1: 'Save lives and protect livelihoods in emergencies'. In comparison, a PRRO may focus on the longer term objective of enhanced resiliency to shocks and re-established livelihoods through asset creation (SO2 and SO3 respectively). For more information on the link between the programme categories (type of operation) and defining objectives, refer to the [Programme Category review](#).²⁸²

²⁸¹ WFP. Strategic Plan (SP) 2014-2017. Available at:

<http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc062522.pdf>

²⁸² WFP, 2010. Programm Category Review. Available at: <http://one.wfp.org/eb/docs/2010/wfp220540~2.pdf>

The objective of the FFA activity depends on the context and the specific needs and priorities in a country or region, as well as the capacity and technical skills of the cooperating partners. Different results or outcomes can be expected when asset creation is used in different contexts, with different objectives in mind. Complementary activities and enabling factors are critical – the scale and complexity of a FFA intervention depends on the capacity and expertise of cooperating partners and the ability to procure non-food items - such as tools and equipment - in a timely manner. The lack of these essential items could mean that low-tech asset creation (e.g. desilting of a water pond or compost making) may be more appropriate - with the primary objective of the FFA activity being a conditional transfer and increased food consumption, and the secondary objective being the asset created. For more information on the process to define the FFA objective, refer to the document '[Introducing WFP's programme design framework](#)'.²⁸³

2.3.2. Identifying Intended Outcomes (immediate and intermediate)

Immediate outcomes are short-term results or changes that the FFA activity is supposed to bring about, usually within the course of the project. Based on clear causal linkages, assumptions and risks to be addressed, immediate outcomes lead to intermediate outcomes in the medium-term.

Outcomes must contribute to achieving the intervention's objective, and each outcome must address the causes of a specific problem identified in the problem analysis.²⁸⁴ Properly defined outcomes are a key feature of good design. There must be a logical link between the problem, inputs, activities, intervention outputs, immediate and intermediate outcomes, and the objectives. Outcomes should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time bound (SMART). Outcomes that have all five of these criteria can be more easily evaluated at the end of the project.

FFA outcomes are to be aligned with WFP's SRF and its corporate outcomes. COs select intended outcomes and outputs from the **corporate outcomes and outputs outlined in the SRF** under the relevant SO. The corporate outcomes are intentionally 'generic' and should be used as the basis for the development of project outcomes which will meet the SMART criteria.

Note: In the 2014-2017 SRF, the focus is on immediate outcomes. WFP is exploring the most realistic way to also reflect intermediate outcomes in the new CRF.

2.3.3. Selecting Outcome Indicators

Outcomes are medium-term results that are generated within the life-cycle of a program or project by a combination of achieved outputs.

All outcomes listed in an M&E plan need to be aligned with at least one indicator, the first choice being a corporate indicator (i.e. those stated in the SRF and aligned with the corporate outcomes and outputs to be achieved under specific SOs). The corporate indicators for FFA activities are:

- **Food Consumption Score (FCS)**
- **Daily average dietary diversity Score (DDS)**
- **Coping strategy index (CSI) / food strategies**
- **Coping strategy index (CSI) / livelihood strategies**
- **Community Asset Score (CAS)**

²⁸³ WFP. Introducing WFP's programme design framework. Available at:

http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp253408.pdf

²⁸⁴ A sound problem analysis helps ensuring that WFP interventions address the underlying causes of food insecurity, and so make a permanent improvement in the lives and livelihoods of food insecure people.

Food Consumption Score (FCS)

The household FCS is an indicator that is used as a proxy for household food security. Food Consumption indicators are designed to reflect the quantity and quality of people's diets, and is a measure of dietary diversity, food frequency and the relative nutritional importance of the food consumed. A high FCS increases the possibility that a household is able to meet its nutritional needs. The FCS classifies households into one of three food consumption groups that display poor, borderline or acceptable food consumption patterns. To further an understanding of household intake of key nutrient-rich foods (containing, inter alia, vitamin A, iron, etc.), a longer version of the FCS module can be used. The information generated facilitates an enhanced assessment of specific nutrient (micronutrient) gaps and risks of deficiency. The FCS is a sensitive indicator that can be included during regular monitoring activities, though it is subject to seasonal biases. The timing of data collection and subsequent trend analyses needs to take this into consideration.

Dietary Diversity Score (DDS)

The DDS captures the number of different food groups a household consumes in a given period of time. It specifically reflects the quality of the household's diet and is a good complement to, and component of the FCS, such that it can help provide a better understanding of a household's diet – e.g. a household could have an acceptable FCS by only consuming two food groups though it would have poor dietary diversity, whilst another could have an acceptable FCS by consuming seven food groups and would be considered as having good dietary diversity. In addition, the DDS is a very sensitive indicator and is effective in monitoring changes in household diets e.g. such as when households add a new food group to their diet after an intervention. DDS data is extracted from the FCS module and during the analysis households are grouped into categories of low, medium and good dietary diversity. The DDS is a sensitive indicator that can be included during regular monitoring activities, though like the FCS, is also subject to seasonal biases. The timing of data collection and subsequent trend analyses needs to take this into consideration.

Consumption-based Coping Strategies index ('reduced CSI'/rCSI)

The rCSI is used as a proxy indicator for household food security. It measures behaviours adopted by households when faced with difficulties in meeting food needs and assesses whether these result in changes in their consumption patterns. A higher score indicates that households have engaged in more frequent and/or more severe coping strategies. The rCSI is a sensitive indicator that can be included in regular monitoring activities, but is also subject to seasonal biases. The timing of data collection and subsequent trend analyses needs to take this into consideration.

Livelihood Coping Strategies Index (livelihood CSI)

The livelihood CSI is used to better understand the longer-term coping capacity of households. In broad terms, household livelihood and economic status is determined through information gathered on income, expenditures and assets. Identifying the households behaviour when adapting to recent crises, such as selling productive assets, can help gain a better understanding of how difficult their current situation is and how likely it is that they are able to meet future challenges. Similar to the rCSI, a higher score for the livelihoods CSI indicates more severe coping strategies have been adopted in, and/or coping strategies have been adopted more frequently than usual. Again, the livelihood CSI is a sensitive indicator that can be included during regular monitoring activities but is subject to seasonal biases. The timing of data collection and subsequent trend analyses needs to take this into consideration.

Community asset score (CAS)

The CAS measures the number of functioning assets that enable a community and the households living within it to be more resilient, or less negatively impacted by shocks. The CAS can be used to evaluate change during the programme cycle. A higher score at the end of the project compared to the baseline from the same communities (panel data) indicates an increase in functional community assets which may (ideally) benefit, and be used by, a significant number of community members, including the most vulnerable, and thus contribute to greater resilience to shocks. The set of additional questions asked during a CAS data collection (e.g. 'are all community members benefiting from the asset?') are not used to calculate the CAS but will help in the analysis process.

Also relevant to FFA is the **Proportion of targeted communities where there is evidence of improved capacity to manage climatic shocks and risk supported by WFP** (corporate Outcome Indicator 3.3.2 in the 2014-2017 SRF), based on capacity development interventions and other assets that reduce risks and impacts of disasters and shocks through FFA. More information on the corporate FFA outcome indicators methodology is found in the [Indicator Compendium](#).²⁸⁵

The following table provides an overview of corporate outcomes relevant to FFA activities as described in the 2014-2017 SRF:

Table 7.2 - Overview of corporate outcomes relevant to FFA activities as described in the 2014-2017 SRF

| Strategic Objectives | Programme Category | Corporate Outcomes | Corporate Outcome Indicators for FFA |
|---|--------------------|--|---|
| Indicators highlighted in bold are mandatory for the selected Strategic Objective | | | |
| SO1: Save Lives and Protect Livelihoods in Emergencies | EMOP and PRRO | Outcome 1.2: Stabilized or improved food consumption over assistance period for targeted households and/or individuals | FCS, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | | DDS, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | CSI/food, disaggregated by sex of HH head | |
| | | Outcome 1.3: Restored or stabilized access to basic services and community assets | CAS (focusing on <u>critical</u> assets) ²⁸⁶ |
| SO2: Support or restore food security and nutrition and establish or rebuild livelihoods in fragile settings and following emergencies | PRRO and CP/Dev | Outcome 2.1: Adequate food consumption reached or maintained over assistance period for targeted households | FCS, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | | DDS, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | CSI/food, disaggregated by sex of HH head | |
| | | Outcome 2.2: Improved access to assets and/or basic services including community and market infrastructure | CAS |
| SO3: Reduce risk and enable people, communities and countries to meet their own food and nutrition needs | PRRO and CP/Dev | Outcome 3.1: Improved access to livelihood assets has contributed to enhanced resilience and reduced risks from disaster and shocks faced by targeted food-insecure communities and households | FCS, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | | DDS, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | | CSI/food, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | | CSI/livelihoods, disaggregated by sex of HH head |
| | | CAS | |
| | | Outcome 3.3: Risk reduction capacity of countries, communities and institutions strengthened | Proportion of targeted communities where there is evidence of improved capacity to manage climatic shocks and risks supported by WFP ²⁸⁷ |

²⁸⁵ WFP. M&E Indicator Compendium. Available at: http://wiki.wfp.org/M_and_E/index.php/Introduction2014-2017

²⁸⁶ Outputs related to FFA addressing this outcome refer to the urgent repair or maintenance of critical physical and natural assets that enable targeted communities to: access humanitarian assistance; critical infrastructures and services (e.g. roads to access markets and basic social services; emergency water supply and sanitation); and reduce additional risk to lives e.g. health and critical livelihood assets (e.g. immediate drainage of canals/clearing of debris before or during the rainy season to reduce the risk of flood, etc.). The CAS measured under SO1 Outcome 1.3 will focus on **critical** assets.

²⁸⁷ This corporate Outcome indicator is based on capacity development interventions at community level (social and human capitals) and on other assets (natural, physical and financial capitals) that reduce risks of disasters and shocks, including the assets built, restored or maintained through FFA activities, hence its inclusion in this table.

Note: SO4 – ‘Reduce undernutrition and break the intergenerational cycle of hunger’- is also important for FFA, although corporate indicators specific to asset building are not included in the SRF under SO4. FFA can contribute to SO4 Outcome 4.1 ‘Reduced or stabilized undernutrition, including micronutrient deficiencies’ and Outcome 4.2 ‘Increased equitable access to and utilization of education’ through asset creation/restoration that contribute to enhanced nutrition and education (e.g. access roads, health centres, schools, vegetable gardens, increased incomes and access to food, etc.). Refer to **Chapter 3: Section 5** for more information on FFA’s contribution to nutrition.

Project-specific outcome indicators: adding one to three optional project-specific outcome indicators to the corporate outcome indicators can greatly increase measurement capabilities, but also increase monitoring costs and burdens on beneficiaries providing the data and the staff that need to process it. The selection of outcome indicators should reflect a minimum set of required information, based on the consideration of the cost and time needed to collect and analyse the data.

Project-specific indicators are available in the corporate monitoring guidance, yet should they not provide suitable indicators that fit the local context (e.g. specific donor request or integral host government strategy and priority), other indicators can be developed by the CO. These new project-specific outcome indicators must be reviewed and approved by the Monitoring and relevant technical teams at regional bureaus and HQ (e.g. OSZPR unit in the case of FFA indicators). COs should be ready to justify the inclusion of new indicators into the project level logframe and provide sufficient evidence of its viability. For other areas of the results chain, such as process monitoring or activity logframes, COs are free to use any indicators necessary, without consultation. Regardless of hierarchical level, all new indicators should meet the WFP standards for defining methodology as well as the SMART criteria set forth later in this Chapter.

Approval of new project-specific indicators:

The Indicator Compendium and COMET contain all the pre-approved project level output and outcome indicators for use by WFP operations. It is recommended to try to capture each activity's objectives with the existing indicators. However, should this prove not viable, the Regional M&E Advisor is available for assistance in developing new indicators, as per the corporate monitoring guidance. Once an indicator is designed, it will then be submitted to the headquarters Monitoring Branch (RMPM), who will work with the appropriate programmatic or crosscutting technical team (e.g. OSZPR for FFA indicators) for approval and eventual inclusion in COMET. Process indicators do not need to be approved, as they are not reported upon in corporate systems.

List of **FFA project-specific Outcome indicators** currently logged in DACOTA/COMET²⁸⁸:

- HAS (Household Asset Score): Percentage of households with an increased asset score
- Number of households reporting increased income from the asset/s created
- Number of households with increased employment opportunities
- Number of households who have re-established their livelihood post-crisis
- Number of households with improved access to clean and safe water
- Number of households reporting increased income as a result of improved or rehabilitated agricultural lands/rangelands
- Number of assisted communities protected from flooding and mudslides
- Number of assisted communities with increased access to markets due to road construction/rehabilitation
- Percentage of assets created through FFA managed and maintained on a regular basis by communities
- Percentage of assisted communities with increased access to social services (e.g. schools, clinics) due to road construction/rehabilitation

²⁸⁸ DACOTA: Data Collection in a Tele Communication Application (i.e. Data collection for WFP reports); COMET: Country Office Monitoring and Evaluation Tool

2.3.4. Selecting Output Indicators

Outputs are the actual deliverables (products, capital goods and services) which the operation is expected to produce, the number of participants and beneficiaries reached, and volume of food or cash-based transfers distributed to which the operation is held accountable for. Outputs should lead to one or more of the intended outcomes.

Information on FFA output indicators, including methodology, is in the [Indicator Compendium](#)²⁸⁹ on WFPGo and COMET.

'Number of assets built restored or maintained by targeted households and communities, by type and unit of measure' is a corporate output indicator under SO1 'Save lives and protect livelihoods in emergencies'; SO2 'Support or restore food security and nutrition and establish or rebuild livelihoods in fragile settings and following emergencies'; and SO3 'Reduce risk and enable people, communities and countries to meet their own food and nutrition needs'. This indicator needs to be unpacked by type of assets.

Below is the list of output indicators as currently found in COMET:

- Hectares (ha) of agricultural land benefiting from new/rehabilitated irrigation schemes (including irrigation canal construction, specific protection measures, embankments, etc.)
- Hectares (ha) of coastal line protection with shelterbelts and windbreaks
- Hectares (ha) of community woodlots
- Hectares (ha) of crops planted
- Hectares (ha) of cultivated land treated and conserved with physical soil and water conservation measures only
- Hectares (ha) of cultivated land treated with biological stabilization or agro forestry techniques only (including multi-storey gardening, green fences, and various tree belts)
- Hectares (ha) of cultivated land treated with both physical soil and water conservation measures and biological stabilization or agro forestry techniques
- Hectares (ha) of degraded hillsides and marginal areas rehabilitated with physical and biological soil and water conservation measures, planted with trees and protected (e.g. closure, etc.)
- Hectares (ha) of fodder banks planted
- Hectares (ha) of forest planted and established/forests restored
- Hectares (ha) of fruit trees planted
- Hectares (ha) of gully land reclaimed as a result of check dams and gully rehabilitation structures
- Hectares (ha) of land cleared
- Hectares (ha) of land cleared of garbage
- Hectares (ha) of land spread with forage seeds
- Hectares (ha) of staple food planted
- Hectares (ha) of vegetables planted
- Hectares (ha) of contour bunds created
- Hectares (ha) of old woodlots maintained
- Hectares (ha) of zai pits dug
- Kilometres (km) of live fencing created
- Kilometres(km) of firewall cultivated around forest areas
- Kilometres (km) of previous live fences maintained
- Kilometres (km) of feeder roads built/rehabilitated (FFA) and maintained (self-help) or feeder roads raised above flooding levels
- Kilometres (km) of gullies reclaimed
- Kilometres (km) of mountain trails constructed/rehabilitated

²⁸⁹ WFP. M&E Indicator Compendium. Available at: http://wiki.wfp.org/M_and_E/index.php/Introduction2014-2017

- Number of assets built, restored or maintained by targeted communities and individuals
- Number of assisted communities with improved physical infrastructures to mitigate the impact of shocks, in place as a result of project assistance
- Number of bales of hay produced
- Number of bridges constructed/rehabilitated
- Number of cereal banks established and functioning
- Number of composite pits created
- Number of classrooms constructed / rehabilitated
- Number of community managed post-harvest structures built
- Number of excavated community water ponds for domestic/livestock uses constructed (3000-15,000 cubic meters)
- Number of fish ponds constructed (FFA) and maintained (self-help)
- Number of health centres constructed/rehabilitated
- Number of hives distributed
- Number of homestead level micro-ponds constructed (usually 60-250 cubic meters)
- Number of homesteads raised above flooding levels
- Number of households who received fuel efficient stoves
- Number of kitchens or food storage rooms rehabilitated or constructed
- Number of latrines constructed/rehabilitated
- Number of literacy centres constructed/rehabilitated
- Number of people trained (Skills: Engineering/Environmental protection/ Livelihood technologies/ Project management)
- Number of people trained in hygiene promotion
- Number of *prosopis* trees cleared
- Number of refugee/returnee houses constructed/rehabilitated
- Number of sacks cultivated (rooftop/urban agriculture)
- Number of schools assisted by WFP
- Number of shallow wells constructed
- Number of sub-surface dams built/repared
- Number of tree seedlings produced
- Number of water springs developed
- Quantity of tree seedlings produced provided to individual households
- Quantity of tree seedlings produced used for afforestation, reforestation and vegetative stabilization
- Volume (m³) of irrigation canals constructed/rehabilitated
- Volume (m³) of check dams and gully rehabilitation structures (e.g. soil sedimentation dams) constructed
- Volume (m³) of debris/mud from flooded/disaster stricken settlements (roads, channels, schools, etc.)
- Volume (m³) of earth dams and flood protection dikes constructed
- Volume (m³) of rock catchments constructed
- Volume (m³) of sand dams constructed
- Volume (m³) of soil excavated from newly constructed waterways and drainage lines (not including irrigation canals)
- Volume (m³) of soil excavated from rehabilitated waterways and drainage lines (not including irrigation canals)

Note: This list will be cleaned to remove duplications and irrelevant indicators logged prior to the clearance process.

2.3.5. Selecting Context, Input and Process Indicators

Other indicators are useful to improve and strengthen the design, implementation, adjustment of FFA activities, and further inform the reasons behind successes or under-achievements:

Table 7.3 - Other indicators are useful to improve and strengthen the design, implementation, adjustment of FFA activities

| Indicators | Purpose | Examples |
|----------------|---|---|
| Context | Inform on the context of the operation. These indicators may not be specific to FFA activities but to the country context in general or the targeted area. Context indicators can be linked to the risks and assumptions outlined in your logframe and/or theory of change. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> rainfall patterns (do not change significantly) number of qualified government staff available and willing to be trained and to remain in targeted technical services etc. |
| Input | Measure resources, both human and financial, devoted to FFA programmes or activities. Input indicators can also include measures of characteristics of target populations. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> number of field monitors employed and involved in FFA activities available funding for the FFA programme number of beneficiaries eligible for the FFA programme etc. |
| Process | Measure ways in which programme services and goods are provided. They inform on the quality of the intervention as it relates to timeliness and efficiency. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> % of food/cash-based transfers distributed to FFA participants in a timely manner appropriate period of implementation of the FFA programme (e.g. seasonal, technical, food gap and gender issues) work norms developed and implemented with a nutrition and gender lens AAP tools (e.g. SLP and CBPP) used Number of CBPP developed with (or by) partners and technical services Existence of a detailed FFA SOP FLA signed in a timely manner, etc. |

2.3.6. Conducting Baselines and Setting Targets

To measure progress, the situation at the outset of all operations must be understood, and this should be done by establishing a baseline. If circumstances prevent the collection of baseline data before the project starts, then a specific point in time should be selected against which to assess future change or comparisons made in follow-up studies. The SRF mandates that baselines for all outcome indicators in a project must be established no more than three months prior to, and no later than three months after, the start of any operation. Follow-up studies measuring progress should typically be done at the same time of the year that baseline assessments were conducted.

Targets are the desired level of performance to be accomplished, are used to measure values or trends of specific indicators, and are required for each outcome and output in the project logframe. For outcomes, knowing the baseline for a certain measure will help establish the target - should a baseline not be available, trend analyses determining typical yearly change can also be used. WFP has set targets for all of its corporate outcome indicators in the SRF. These are not country-specific however, and may be either too rigorous or lenient for certain local contexts. It is recommended that COs set their own targets to the best of their ability, to reflect the specificities of their context.

Refer to the [Indicator Compendium](#)²⁹⁰ for information on baselines, targets, and FFA indicators.

²⁹⁰ WFP. Indicator compendium. Available at: http://wiki.wfp.org/M_and_E/index.php/Introduction2014-2017

2.3.7. Assumptions and Risks

Each hierarchical level in the project logframe necessitates its own assumption statement - i.e. assumptions must be made for each outcome and output. Assumptions are external considerations, events or factors that must exist for the operation to provide the desired outputs and outcomes.

For example, WFP may successfully target food assistance to a vulnerable group of households, who may undertake sound FFA activities that increase local agricultural production. However, a breakdown of local law and order may still prevent the achievement of the expected outcome, which is improved food security. A key assumption for the success of the intervention in this case is that the region remains stable. Some county-specific examples are:

- **Bangladesh:** one assumption for enhanced resiliency activity was that a '*Supportive government policy for comprehensive risk reduction strategy continues*'.
- **Zimbabwe:** assumptions for resilience-focused FFA activities included: '*Partners available with requisite technical expertise to provide clients with sustainable livelihood programming opportunities; Partners available with complementary financial resources for asset creation/rehabilitation work; Government commitment to empower, equip and, where necessary re-establish, district food and nutrition and development committees.*'

Good planning requires the recognition of major assumptions, and enough flexibility to permit design changes in response to changes in conditions.

Risks are about uncertainty that can result in positive or negative outcomes. An example of a risk is lack of donor funding for the FFA intervention.

2.3.8. Data collection

Corporate monitoring guidance includes information on the different types of data (qualitative and quantitative) needed, data collection tools, and methodologies. The purpose of the present Chapter is not to repeat them, however the following should be underlined:

Measuring the performance of FFA requires data collection from panel communities, meaning that the same communities are visited at baseline and during follow-up surveys to highlight change over time. For example, calculating the CAS in different communities at baseline and follow-up, and reporting an average, is not adequate since this does not reflect change in the same communities.

Data must be collected on a regular basis, and the same period of the year to avoid seasonal bias. A seasonal calendar is useful to determine the frequency and timing for data collection. COs can make use of SLP calendars (if available) for the FFA areas, or alternatively consult national seasonal hazard calendars compiled by WFP's Emergency Preparedness division for general guidance.

It is generally recommended to collect household-level food security data (e.g. FCS, DDS, and CSI) at least twice a year during critical times of the year (e.g. main lean season and post-harvest). It is recommended that collection of CAS data (community-level indicator) should be done once a year, either post rainy season or post-harvest as the quality and performance of many assets will have to withstand the rainy season and be given an opportunity to contribute to generating additional produce, preventing specific risks, or generating specific results (e.g. harvested/collected water).

The decision on the number of data collection points per year will further depend on the programming cycle and resources available for monitoring purposes.

Considering resources constraints, the CO needs to identify the most appropriate period of data collection, number of data collection points per year, and type of survey to collect FFA indicators. COs should also explore all pragmatic options to ensure that the FFA activity is monitored and that results are reported. To this effect, the FFA, M&E and VAM teams in country should aim to identify synergies and economy of scale between their different processes and tools, for example:

- Depending on the period of the year, the collection of baseline data for FFA and the CBPP could possibly be done during the same mission by the same WFP team (e.g. a light household survey could be undertaken right after the completion of the CBPP)
- The CBPP itself could be the opportunity to collect community level indicators (e.g. CAS baseline collected during the CBPP, and follow up CAS collected during the update of the CBPP). In addition, the CBPP exercise can be an opportunity to measure the baseline for other project-specific outcome indicators e.g. on empowerment, reduction of time spent on specific tasks, GIS tracking of changes over time (e.g. vegetation), etc.
- Food Security Monitoring Systems (FSMS) may include sentinel sites/households also targeted through FFA and serve for the data collection of FFA indicators. The selection of sentinel sites could also take the geographical targeting of FFA programmes into account.

Note on collecting monitoring data related to SO3-focused FFA programmes during and beyond the project cycle:

Traditional M&E guidance states that household level outcome indicators should typically be collected during post-distribution monitoring (PDM). However, data collection on food assistance programmes (including FFA) during and around distribution periods reflects more the impact of the (food) assistance than that of the benefits of the assets created on household food consumption.

Most WFP FFA programmes do not cover a five-year period - or if they do, rarely more than two-three years in the same sites. This makes it difficult to continue collecting data (monitoring) once FFA activities have ended. However, COs where resilience building through FFA is a priority should invest the resources to continue monitoring FFA sites even after the FFA programme has ended.

Indeed, monitoring the progress made through FFA to longer term resilience requires historical household and community data, extending a few years beyond the completion of the FFA project itself. Certain key assets take several years to have an impact and yield benefits, thus in many cases the benefits and full impact of an SO3-focused FFA project will not be visible before its completion - i.e. will not be detected through the regular monitoring system. To effectively take this issue into consideration, COs should continue visiting and collecting data from the same sampled communities and households for as many years as it takes for assets to mature and even beyond, and the total period covered should also include several typical and shock years (during which households/communities with resilient livelihoods should cope better). The timeframe that enables realizing robust evidence on both food security indicators and impact of the assets created is normally considered to be around five years. Continuous monitoring for this period of time should therefore be possible through a Country Programme project cycle or through two consecutive PRRO periods (common in most contexts). This should (i) allow for the trend analysis to be completed and for effective comparisons between baseline values and the data collected later on (as described above); (ii) enable WFP to measure the sustainability of the assets developed through the programmes implemented; and (iii) report on the extent to which resilience may have been strengthened through access to and use of the assets in question.

If more resources can be secured for this trend analysis, then ideally data should be collected at least twice a year (e.g. during the lean and post-harvest seasons to account for external factors such as seasonality). Moreover, project-specific outcome indicators may be used to strengthen the analysis depending on the country context and capacity to measure project specific outcome indicators such as the HAS (household asset score); number of income sources; food sources;

reduced time of hardships (e.g. time spent in collecting water and firewood) and early outmigration, etc. Other indicators of relevance that may be collected at impact level during evaluations but relevant to feature in baselines are those related to ecosystems, such as biomass indexes (e.g. through estimates of vegetation cover), erosion rates, and depth of water table.

A sample of sites where CBPPs have been carried out should be selected. As per good practice it is recommended that 80% of all FFA sites²⁹¹ are selected for longitudinal M&E follow-up (in COs with relatively limited FFA operations), and increasing to 30 sites for COs with larger FFA operations (i.e. with 50 FFA sites or more) - depending on countries, contexts, and M&E resources available. These communities should remain under close monitoring during the timeframe defined earlier.

2.3.9. Data Quality Assurance and Troubleshooting

Quality assurance mechanisms are an essential part of any M&E system as way to assess both the quality of the data being reported and the quality of services delivered, and routine quality assurance checks allows programme staff and management to be responsive to issues that arise in order to ensure that proper corrective action is taken.

Data quality at all stages (data collection, transfer, compilation, analysis and storage) is a key requirement for quality M&E systems, and is particular relevant for routine program monitoring data collected by many different partners, with different capacities, and at different levels.

In regard to the above, CO M&E focal points and programme staff need to ensure that indicators are well understood by enumerators and partner staff tasked to collect data – e.g. for the CAS, enumerators need to understand the basics of what different community assets mean to people and how to ask specific questions related to the ‘functionality’ of the asset created or established.

Troubleshooting implies the correction of errors that may occur during data collection and analysis.

For example, a country with a CAS indicator that does appear to have remained the same or changed very little over time may mean that one or more of the following problems occurred:

- The enumerator did not explain clearly to the key informants the questions related to assets and their functionality
- The community members did not understand the question and perceive assets as a given, not an acquisition
- The community response is left to individuals that might not be from the part of the community (in case of wider units) that benefit from the asset(s) built and/or established
- Other reasons related to translation or lack of communication skills, and or intent to manipulate answers

The solution to the above largely resides on the **provision of sufficient training to enumerators or surveyors**, using also examples.

²⁹¹ “FFA sites” refers to locations where an integrated FFA package has been implemented following a CBPP exercise. Isolated and scattered locations where one-off FFA works were carried out should consider every isolated FFA work as an FFA site.

Data quality should be considered along the following five dimensions:

Table 7.4 - Data quality dimensions

| DATA QUALITY | | | | |
|---|---|--|--|--|
| <p>Reliability: Data is generated based on protocols and procedures that do not change according to the user, when, and how often they are used. The data is reliable because they are collected consistently.</p> | <p>Accuracy: How well does the data derived from a database or registry reflect the reality it is supposed to measure.</p> | <p>Timeliness: How current and up-to-date the data is at the time of release. In this respect there might be a gap between the reference period of the data and the date on which the data becomes available.</p> | <p>Completeness: Is the information in the system capturing all that it should?</p> | <p>Integrity: When data generated by the information system at all analysis levels is protected from deliberate manipulation or bias for political or personal reasons.</p> |

Source: WFP RMPM Unit

Data quality assurance requires adequate human resources and technical capacity (training and equipment) to implement. Examples of data quality assurance mechanisms are random supervision visits at FFA sites and systematic checks on data entry. Feedback mechanisms should be put in place to address identified data quality issues.

It is recommended to triangulate (compare) WFP monitoring and survey data with other available data to ensure it is consistent. This work can help to identify data collection issues in WFP, or issues with secondary data sources.

2.3.10. Use of Information

Each piece of data must be collected for a reason, and with a practical plan for its use by the CO.

The submission of timely and accurate reports is essential for management follow-up at the **country office level** in order to **timely identify and implement corrective measures, expand or build upon what works, document best practices, etc.**

For example, there are cases where the CAS is showing no change or even negative changes because of one or more of the following reasons:

- Quality of data collection: (see above)
- Lack of or limited community participation: in the design, implementation and benefits of the assets created – hence no interest, limited or no impact and sense of ownership
- FFA activity not implemented at a sufficient scale: scattered and small scale nature of some FFA programmes, when compared to the magnitude of the community area and problems, could not generate any significant impact, hence no change
- Poor quality of the assets: may generate problems or seen not to be performing as required
- Poor targeting: the benefits being perceived by only a few people and not from the majority of the community members, particularly the most needy and food insecure
- FFA Objectives: the emphasis is on projects (e.g. for some large public works) that do not directly benefit the community and are considered as working sites. Hence people just access food and/or some income but without a perception of the impact from assets created
- Local context not adequately taken into account: the assets have triggered social tensions or conflict – not shared benefits, etc.
- Other context specific reasons (lack of partners' commitment, etc.)

Solutions to the above problems largely lie on the **application of the tools that are at the basis of good design, planning and implementation of FFA**. Mainly **participatory planning, quality assets (technical specifications, etc.), integration, scale, and proper capacity building at community and partner’s level to manage assets and ensure these assets benefit the poorest** (and others community members to the extent possible).

Therefore, negative results or the absence of change observed on FFA indicators should immediately trigger corrective measures to one or more of the causes identified above.

The submission of timely and accurate reports is also essential for **management follow-up at the regional bureau and/or headquarters**, particularly when prompt corrective action needs to be taken. Regular, authoritative reports help maintain donor confidence and support resource mobilisation efforts: they form the basis of WFP's accountability to its donors and the international community. COs annually report on each operation in the form of a **Standard Project Report (SPR)**. Other reports can include executive briefs, country office situation reports, and external reporting requirements for donors and governments.

2.3.11. Example of FFA Programme quality monitoring

The following section provides a series of general and specific questions for FFA programme quality monitoring with an associated proposed timeline:

| | General Questions | Specific Questions |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|
| Middle of the project implementation | X | |
| After the project implementation | X | X |
| Two to three years after the project implementation | X | X |

1. General Questions for FFA Programme Quality Monitoring

The FFA programme officers or the team in charge of FFA at CO and SO levels should ensure that programme quality monitoring is undertaken regularly on a sample of FFA sites (i.e. 80% of all FFA sites as per good practice; 30 sites for COs with large FFA operations). The FFA programme quality monitoring should be implemented during three key periods: (1) in the middle of the project implementation; (2) at the end of the project implementation; and (3) two to three years after the project completion. FFA programme quality monitoring should be based on direct observations of selected FFA sites and discussions with community members (including women and vulnerable households), government technical services, and partners. The rationale for FFA programme quality monitoring is to learn new lessons, to follow-up on the quality of FFA activities done, to strengthen FFA programming and finally to make sure that this learning informs on-going and future FFA interventions and programmes.

The checklist below provides a series of essential issues which should be covered when conducting FFA programme quality monitoring in any specific FFA site (including one or several communities). This checklist builds on the **FFA Five Keys to Success (see Chapter 1: Section 1.5)** and the **FFA Theory of Change (TOC)**²⁹² (**Annex 7a**). As FFA programmes are implemented across different livelihood types, geographical contexts and countries, the proposed assessment categories are broad, based on open-ended questions that are suitable for different contexts. Certain additional context-specific questions can be added to this (non-exhaustive) checklist, as required:

²⁹² Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282732.pdf

a) Putting communities and people at the centre:

- Did the cooperating partner carry out a CBPP in the community before implementing FFA?
- Does the CBPP involve/reflect the concerns and priorities of women and vulnerable groups?

b) An understanding of the local context, landscape and livelihoods:

- Does the cooperating partner have a good understanding of the local context, in particular on food insecurity, livelihoods, hardships, seasonality, risks and land degradation issues?
- Were the government technical services involved in the development of the CBPP?
- Were crosscutting priority aspects on gender, nutrition and protection taken into account?
- Is the FFA implementation period relevant and appropriate to the context?
- Did the FFA transfer target the food insecure and vulnerable households?
- Are selected assets relevant in view of prevailing situations and major issues experienced in the community? Do they follow an adequate technical logic?
- Are assets created or rehabilitated according to existing work norms?

c) Making sure that quality standards for assets are met, and that assets deliver sustainable benefits, with inclusion of women and vulnerable groups:

- How did the implementing partner guarantee that the assets being created/rehabilitated are of good quality? Are assets created/rehabilitated according to existing technical standards?
- Did the cooperating partners, government technical services or other organisations provide relevant training and technical support to implement asset creation activities?
- What are existing tenure arrangements for developed assets (ownership, access rights)? Do/will women and vulnerable groups also have access to and benefit from key productive assets (e.g. irrigated land, water points, etc.)? For how long?
- What are the existing maintenance arrangements for developed assets? Are community-based management committees and other targeted households trained on asset maintenance? What is the level of maintenance of key assets to date?
- Are women and vulnerable groups involved in decisions regarding asset management?
- Are there any tensions over assets developed by WFP and partners? If so, between whom? Are these conflicts and disputes being settled / how will they be settled?

d) Strengthening of local and government institutions' capacities:

- How are government authorities and technical services involved in FFA planning, design, implementation and follow-up?
- Have community-based management committees and other targeted households been trained on the creation, use and maintenance of natural and physical assets?
- Have local and government institutions been trained on various aspects related to FFA planning, CBPP, design, implementation, monitoring, work norms, asset management?
- Have government authorities and technical services been provided with financial resources or equipment by WFP or partners to support FFA and complementary activities?

e) Integrating and scaling up:

- Were FFA and complementary interventions carried out over a minimum duration commitment that ensures the root causes of vulnerability can be addressed?
- Is there an integrated package of asset creation and complementary interventions concurrently implemented in the FFA site? Which operational partnerships and alliances were developed or strengthened to ensure this?
- Are asset creation and complementary interventions implemented at meaningful scale to address problems affecting communities?
- Are natural resource management (NRM) including soil and water conservation (SWC) techniques replicated by community members through a self-help approach?

2. Specific Questions for FFA Programme Quality Monitoring

On top of programme quality monitoring issues described above, WFP FFA team and implementing partners might also assess a complementary set of themes. These themes are particularly relevant to be assessed (1) at the end of the FFA programme period; and/or (2) two to three years after completion of the programme. The same as the preceding section, FFA programme quality monitoring should be based on direct observations of selected FFA sites and on discussions with community members (including women and vulnerable households), government technical services and other partners. The rationale of FFA programme quality monitoring is to learn new lessons, to follow-up on the quality of FFA work done and to strengthen FFA programming and finally to make sure that this learning informs on-going and future FFA interventions and programmes.

a) Questions targeted to government technical services and other partners:

- What were the main achievements of the FFA programme in the selected sites? What has changed in these communities?
- What went well in the FFA programme? Report on any best practices and success stories.
- What were the main difficulties and barriers encountered? How were these addressed?

b) Questions targeted to community members including women/vulnerable groups:

- Did you observe any change in your community over the past 3-5 years regarding agricultural production? Other livelihood activities? Specific hardships (e.g. water or firewood collection)? The natural resources and the environment? The markets? The access to services? Other? What has changed, and why?
- Do you feel more resilient, better equipped or better able to cope with specific shocks that usually occur in your community (e.g. droughts, floods)? Did and important shock/s occur in the past 3-5 years? If yes, could households in the community better cope and recover from this/these shocks?
- Do you think assets created from the FFA programme contributed to these changes? How?
- What do you feel are the main achievements of the FFA programme in your community? What were the main strengths of the FFA programmes? Its main weaknesses? Any recommendations to share to WFP and its partners?

2.4. Trend analysis to measure the contribution of SO3 FFA programmes to building long-term resilience

Given the relatively recent emergence of the concept of resilience within the wider humanitarian and development community, there is an understandable scarcity of robust, verifiable evidence on the impact of programmes seeking to build resilience.

WFP recognises that building resilience at household and community level depends on the strengthening of a set of capacities (absorptive, adaptive and transformative), and promoting a multi-level and multi-systems, multi-stakeholder, multi-sector and context-specific approach. Any resilience measurement method must recognise this complexity.

Measuring resilience is critical to building an evidence-based learning approach to resilience programming across different contexts. WFP is part of the Food Security Information Network (FSIN), led by FAO/IFPRI/WFP, and supports the development and harmonization of resilience measurement methods. A technical working group (TWG) is established within the FSIN to lead the identification of resilience measurement principles and the development of a common analytical framework and technical guidelines for measurement.

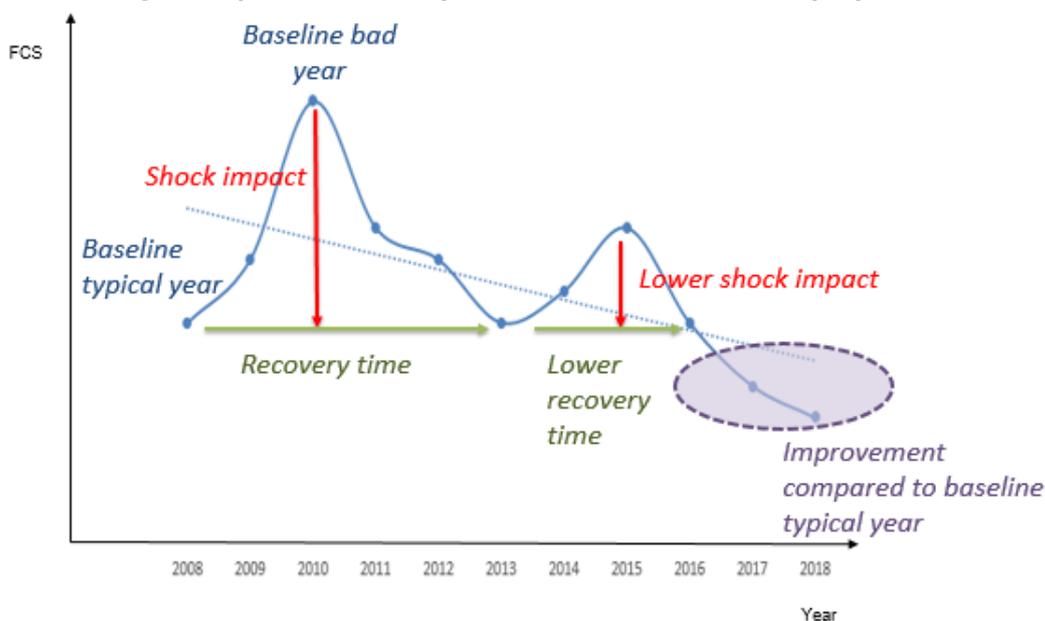
Contributing to the work of the TWG, WFP developed a paper aiming to provide guidance to COs on how a trend analysis of the five ²⁹³ compulsory 2014-2017 Strategic Results Framework outcome²⁹⁴ indicators for SO3 can be used to measure the contribution of SO3 FFA programmes to building long-term resilience. The trend analysis should encompass an extended period of time, sufficient to measure food security outcomes and the longer term impact that will take a few years to materialize, often beyond the duration of common WFP programmes. This methodology is purposely simple (until a more sophisticated methodology is proposed by the TWG) and aims to show how the five existing compulsory outcome indicators collected by WFP in SO3 FFA can measure the contribution made (by FFA programmes) to building long-term resilience.

The trend analysis will allow COs to assess the extent to which resilience has been strengthened amongst WFP beneficiaries of SO3 FFA programmes (and complementary interventions) as these work to reduce the impact of shocks and stresses on beneficiaries and reduce their recovery times. The trend analysis will also generate pertinent information for multiple purposes, including: resilience measurement; monitoring and evaluation; strategy and policy development at national, regional and global levels; programming of FFA and complementary interventions; reporting, advocacy and resource mobilisation efforts.

The trend analysis focuses on assessing recovery from shocks or stressors as a function of both their **impact**, and the **time required to recover**. Impact is assessed in terms of the depth of degradation of these five indicators, whilst recovery time is measured in terms of how long (in months/years) it takes for the indicator values to return to pre-shock levels.

A lower shock/stress impact for WFP beneficiaries would mean that they are likely to remain more food secure over time, whilst a shorter recovery time means they are likely to return more quickly to (or exceed) the level of food security they had prior to the shock or stress. The figure below demonstrates how to measure the impact and recovery from shocks and stresses on people (note that the vertical axis reflects the % of HH with poor or borderline FCS):

Figure 7.1 - Measuring the impact and recovery from shocks and stresses on people



Refer to [Trend analysis to measure the contribution of SO3 FFA programmes to building long-term resilience](#)²⁹⁵ for further guidance.

²⁹³ Food Consumption Score, Dietary Diversity Score, Coping Strategy Index/consumption based coping strategies, Coping Strategy Index/livelihood coping strategies and the Community Assets Score

²⁹⁴ SO3-Outcome 3.1 –“Improved access to livelihood assets has contributed to the enhancement of resilience and reduced risks from disaster and shocks faced by targeted food-insecure communities and households” (2014-2017 SRF).

²⁹⁵ WFP, 2015. Trend analysis to measure the contribution of SO3 FFA programmes to building long-term resilience. Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp277048.pdf

3. EVALUATION AND REVIEW OF FFA ACTIVITIES

3.1. Evaluation

Definition: WFP adheres to the United Nations definition of evaluation, as: 'An assessment, as systematic and impartial as possible, of an activity, project, programme, strategy, policy, topic, theme, sector, operational area, institutional performance, etc. It focuses on expected and achieved accomplishments, examining the results chain, processes, contextual factors and causality, in order to understand achievements or the lack thereof. It considers the relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact, and sustainability of the interventions and contributions of the organizations of the UN system. An evaluation should provide evidence-based information that is credible, reliable and useful, enabling the timely incorporation of findings, recommendations and lessons into the decision-making processes of the UN system and its members'.

There are two categories of evaluation in WFP (Source: WFP Draft Evaluation Policy 2016-2021):

1. **Centralized evaluations** are commissioned and managed by the Office of Evaluation (OEV) and presented to the Board. They focus on corporate strategy, policies or global programmes, strategic issues or themes, portfolios, operations and activities at the national, regional or global level.
2. **Decentralized evaluations** are commissioned and managed by country offices, regional bureaux or Headquarters-based divisions other than OEV. They are not presented to the Board. They cover operations, activities, pilots, themes, transfer modalities or any other area of action at the sub-national, national or multi-country level. They follow OEV's guidance – including impartiality safeguards – and quality assurance system.

3.2. Review

A review²⁹⁶ is a periodic or ad hoc assessment of the performance (or a specific aspect) of a programmatic intervention, intended to inform operational decision-making and/or learning. A review tends to focus on operational issues, and is typically managed internally to enable timely decision making and potential adjustments to an on-going programme. More specifically:

- All reviews (planned or ad hoc) should provide useful information for decision-making
- Reviews may occur at the early stage of an emergency, mid-term or end of operations/activities/pilot initiatives, transfer modalities or may cover thematic areas
- Reviews are primarily for internal users, and can be conducted internally
- Reviews do not have to conform to specified external reporting or publication requirements; or to the international standards applicable to evaluation, but must address the UNSWAP standard on gender.

3.3. Decentralised Evaluations versus Reviews

Decentralized evaluations and reviews, each with different purposes and uses during the WFP programmatic cycle, are a valuable part of WFP's toolkit to support evidence-based decision-making. [Guidance on WFP Decentralised Evaluations](#)²⁹⁷ and [Guidance on WFP Review](#)²⁹⁸ will help staff decide which exercise is best suited for their needs.

²⁹⁶ For more information on the key features of the Reviews, contact RMPM in HQ.

²⁹⁷ More information available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/evaluation/decentralized-evaluations>

²⁹⁸ More information available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/mande/reviews>

3.4 Lessons learned from past FFA Evaluations in WFP

Several CO undertake periodic evaluations of their operations that often include specific or extended evaluations of their FFA component(s).

Past evaluations of Country Programmes and PRROs, and current Country Portfolio evaluations offer a number of lessons learned for FFA which influence programme design: countries such as Nepal, Ethiopia, Bangladesh, Sierra Leone, Madagascar, Kenya, and Haiti have been through important evaluations that provided relevant information regarding the performance of FFA, and recommendations for improvements. These documents are often discussed and shared with stakeholders (donors, governments, etc.) to identify what works, to adjust objectives and strategies, and to improve technical aspects and enhance the dissemination of best practices.

Evaluations also help to identify areas on which to focus research and specific studies – for example, an impact evaluation undertaken in 2012 for the MERET project in Ethiopia led to a specific research study (by the University of Bern, Switzerland) on ecosystems' change resulting from the project activities in 2013. Other evaluations of key importance to FFA are:

1. [Evaluation on Food Assistance and Natural Resources](#)²⁹⁹ (WFP, 1998. WFP/EB.1/98/5/1)

The findings of this evaluation (presented to the Executive Board in 1998) are of particular importance to FFA. It is a good example of how an evaluation can help COs reshape, adjust or design a FFA intervention. The main findings were related to (excerpt from the Evaluation report):

- (i) More solid knowledge about people's hunger and food security needs to guide planning and implementation of food assistance activities aimed at natural resource problems of the hungry poor
- (ii) Project solutions need to take beneficiaries' needs as a point of departure: hunger and poverty are the intervention triggers for food assistance
- (iii) The role of food aid in natural resource management needs to be more sharply defined, not only in the design process but also during implementation in order to ensure that there is 'food for work' rather than 'work for food' - i.e. the danger of 'make-work' programmes
- (iv) Many assumptions underlying government programmes for natural resource development are not necessarily conducive to the optimal use of food assistance
- (v) Targeting food assistance and the resulting benefits needs to be a dynamic and location-specific process that raises the critical questions - Who receives the food? Who receives the project benefits? Are they the same people? Are the poorest reached?
- (vi) Sustainability requires a holistic approach to planning and implementing food assistance for hungry and resource-poor populations
- (vii) Food assistance can contribute most effectively to resource problems of the hungry poor if it is integrated with other programmes
- (viii) Using food for solving natural resources problems of the poor requires continuous technical back-stopping at all stages and levels
- (ix) Lip-service to the participatory approach might lead to the achievement of physical targets but is not enough to reach the hungry poor
- (x) The impact of food assistance on natural resources is more pronounced in 'silent emergencies' than in rapidly evolving man-made emergencies

The key lessons from this evaluation have already been incorporated throughout the relevant policies that deal either with planning and/or natural resources directly (e.g. Enabling Development, Environment, etc.), or through specific thematic policies (e.g. Participatory Approaches, Gender, Partnerships, Co-ordination, etc.). These lessons learned have also been incorporated into previous and current FFA programme guidance.

²⁹⁹ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp001233.pdf>.

2. Cost-benefit analysis and impact evaluation of soil and water conservation and forestry measures (MERET – WFP, 2005)³⁰⁰

Additional aspects that evaluations can provide are in-depth cost benefit analyses and the way impact, effectiveness, and efficiency are determined. The Ethiopia MERET Country Programme Activity commissioned such a study in 2005.

3. Synthesis Report of the Evaluation Series on the Impact of Food for Assets (2002 – 2011) (WFP, 2014. WFP/EB.A/2014/7-B*)³⁰¹

External evaluations of FFAs' short, medium, and long-term impact on food security and livelihoods were conducted in five countries (with an additional 6th voluntary country) between 2013 and 2014. These evaluations assessed activities carried out between 2002 to 2011 which were designed and implemented under different guidance and objectives – i.e. under the previous FFW guidance (and prior to the first version of this current FFA guidance released in 2011) and WFP's previous Strategic Plans (the latest being 2008-2013).

These evaluations addressed the following key questions, as well as analysing critical factors affecting outcomes and impact:

1. What positive or negative impacts have FFA activities had on individuals within participating households and communities and on the natural resource base?
2. How could FFA activities be improved to increase or sustain impact?

These evaluations thus provided an evidence-based opportunity to understand what could be achieved with FFA if the previous approach to the activity was retained, which in turn would inform what would need to be done differently to have even greater impacts.

Broadly, a synthesis of these evaluations found that the FFA activities appraised had an empowering effect enhancing women's social network support, freedom of movement and influence on household budget decisions, although potential trade-offs between women's participation in FFA and their other responsibilities must be taken into account, and further attention is needed on women's protection (particularly when working in areas remote from their homes) and the nutritional effects of physically demanding labour on already food-insecure women, especially during pregnancy and breastfeeding.

On food security, livelihoods and resilience, it was found that FFA provided excellent short-term benefits by filling a household's immediate food gaps through the transfer (food, cash, or voucher) in all of the programmes evaluated. Medium-term impacts were also positive and substantial, with more than 50 percent of assets still functional several years after their construction, with some assets delivering multiple benefits to livelihoods or resilience. In terms of long-term impact, plausible evidence of FFA contribution to improvements in livelihoods, social cohesion, disaster preparedness, and increased access to land and output markets - all important dimensions of resilience.

Whilst these findings show that FFA can have a significant contributions to livelihoods and resilience, longer-term changes in food security were less evident. There were three key factors affecting and limiting the impact, namely: (i) funding constraints (regular, predictable, and multi-year) and limited technical capacities; (ii) FFA implementation was often fragmented and carried out in isolation from other activities both within WFP and with those of partners; and (ii) targeting,

³⁰⁰ WFP, 2005. Report on the cost-benefit analysis and impact evaluation of soil and water conservation and forestry measures. Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238167.pdf

³⁰¹ WFP, 2014. Synthesis Report of the Evaluation Series on the Impact of Food for Assets (2002-2011). Available at: <https://www.wfp.org/content/synthesis-evaluation-impact-food-assets-2002-2011-and-lessons-building-livelihoods-resilienc>

particularly in early recovery situations whereby broad geographic targeting is commonly applied to assist as many people as possible through short interventions over very wide areas. Thus, whilst this approach may suit short-term food security objectives it limits the impact on livelihoods and resilience which requires a longer-term and concentrated approach.

Moving forward, the evaluation made five recommendations for FFA to improve its impacts on long-term food security, livelihoods, and resilience. These recommendations were agreed to by WFP at the Executive Board in June 2014 (WFP, 2014.WFP/EB.A/2014/7-B*):

- **Recommendation 1:** WFP CO's, supported by RB's and HQ, should commit to bringing FFA programmes into line with current policy and guidance, to maximize the opportunities for FFA to contribute to protecting and strengthening livelihoods and resilience. Dedicated funding will be needed to ensure adequate support to country offices. Specific areas for action and funding are discussed in the following recommendations.
- **Recommendation 2:** More attention should be paid to the strategic positioning of FFA in country offices where FFA can appropriately be used as an approach to improve livelihoods and resilience; building on WFP comparative advantages complemented by those of partners; ensuring sustainability of efforts; and building partners' commitments for financial and other resources.
- **Recommendation 3:** WFP should strengthen its efforts to support and provide guidance to RB's and CO's by ensuring that the FFA guidance manual is updated to address issues raised in the evaluations and then rolling it out more completely. This should include providing training and technical assistance to country offices.
- **Recommendation 4:** WFP should carry out two special studies to further explore issues raised by the evaluation: impacts of FFA activities on women, particularly their nutrition and health and on opportunities for additional linkages with nutrition generated by a focus on gender issues; and in-depth analyses of the food security of FFA participants to increase understanding of how FFA activities could make a greater contribution.
- **Recommendation 5:** WFP should review the lessons that arose from the evaluations related to FFA baselines and monitoring; update corporate monitoring and reporting systems as needed; and ensure funding and staffing are available to meet M&E requirements.

NB: A study titled "*An assessment of the gender contribution of FFA: Focus on women socioeconomic empowerment and women nutrition*" is being launched (February 2016). The report will be shared as soon as available and the key findings will be taken into account in the FFA PGM in its next iteration.

To conclude, and in support of CO and RB efforts to improve the impacts of FFA:

- This FFA manual guidance includes the updates required and reflects the corporate guidance for FFA, against which FFA programmes should be brought into line (**Recommendation 1 & 3**).
- Tools for strategic positioning and aligning of FFA for complementarities partner programmes is the three-pronged approach (3PA) and reflected in this guidance (**Recommendation 3**).
- This FFA guidance should be regarded as a living document, meaning that as lessons are learnt and best practices are identified they will be included through regular updates (**Recommendations 4 & 5**).

Chapter 8

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Corporate Reporting and Project Document Review



World Food Programme

wfp.org

1. STANDARD PROJECT REPORT (SPR)

1.1. What is the SPR and why do we do it?

The Standard Project Report (SPR) is an annual project performance report that serves as a repository of institutional knowledge of the project, contributes to WFP's annual corporate statistics and Annual Performance Report (APR), and is a reflection of management results, while fulfilling a key contractual agreement with donors. Measures are continuously being identified to improve both the process and the content of SPRs, and to make them relevant for both donors and host governments, and internally as a management tool.

Full SPRs have two parts: an operational section, drafted by COs and reviewed by RBs; and a financial section, prepared by finance in HQ.

The SPRs serve two main purposes:

- (i) Accountability to donors, host governments senior managers, country office teams: Are we doing what we said we would do? Have we used the funds received to make a difference?
- (ii) Learning and improvement: The SPR period is also a time to evaluate project performance over the past year, in order to make changes to improve WFP projects, and to review strategies to assess whether WFP offices are doing the right things.

1.2. Tips for SPR focal points and reviewers (for FFA)

The following section is about what **Strategic Objectives (SO)** FFA activities relate to and how the different activities have contributed or continue to contribute to the specific SOs and related national priorities. It is necessary to check if SOs are consistent with the project document and relevant budget revisions for the year under review.

The below information (based on the 2015 SPR guidance and template) can be found in the SPR guidance modules. The following is a set of tips for the SPR focal points and reviewers:

1.2.1. Targeting, planning and beneficiaries

- **Highlight community participation:** Community participation is the backbone of any solid asset creation program that builds resilience. The CO should highlight if participatory community based planning was used and what type (e.g. CBPP). The description of how the community was organized and how participatory planning was accomplished is an important aspect to report on. So is the reflection of the gender perspective of FFA planning - i.e. what WFP has done to overcome gender barriers (e.g. women's limited mobility) to attract both women and men as active participants. Consider inserting inspiring stories that highlight the role of leaders and/or planning teams that have played a major role in mobilizing the community to build assets for the most vulnerable groups. Any particular element of Natural Resource Management (NRM) - for example participatory watershed management that linked NRM with people planning - should be reported.
- **Participants or beneficiaries?** Participants are those who do the activities while beneficiaries are those benefiting from the transfer that is received for the assets built. Usually this means one participant per household and five beneficiaries (from the same household) - in some countries this may be up to six or seven beneficiaries (context-specific). If the number of FFA participants appears exaggerated, check that it is not being mistaken with the number of

beneficiaries (i.e. FFA beneficiaries are reported as participants in the table, or vice-versa). When the CO reports on participants, attention should be placed on whether some numbers are inadvertently duplicated – e.g. 400 participants on a soil bund and 405 on excavating a pond may largely be the same participants doing two activities or more. The CO needs to be made aware of these problems well in advance of the SPR work.

1.2.2. Story worth telling

It is suggested that – to the extent possible – the selection of the story takes into account the overall focus of the project. For instance, if the project focuses on resilience building the story should focus on the same thematic area, especially during the last year of project implementation when impacts become more visible.

The story worth telling should be about people and how the community dealt with a shock as a result of their built up resilience. It should consider what would have happened had the assets not been built and maintained. If possible, it should show the impact of the assets with specific examples of what the participants witnessed in the past. Furthermore, it should include all the components of a solid asset creation program: Understanding of the context and livelihoods; partnerships on the ground; quality and scale of the intervention; participatory community planning; and strengthened capacity of local institutions.

1.2.3. Progress towards gender equality

Given the limit of the SPR word count, the focus of the narrative related to this SPR section is on the following three indicators:

- Proportion of assisted women, men or both women and men who make decisions over the use of cash, vouchers and food within the household
- Proportion of women beneficiaries in leadership positions of project management committees
- Proportion of women project management committee members trained on modalities of food, cash and voucher distribution

This should not prevent the CO from capturing asset creation activities that contribute towards gender equality in other SPR sections such as 'story worth telling', 'outputs', 'outcomes', and 'lessons learned' sections. The following aspects are of particular interest: reduce hardships (e.g. reducing hours on water and firewood collection); increase income (e.g. more production for sale by women and diversified livelihoods of women); socio-economic empowerment of women (e.g. greater participation in participatory planning, increased role in the management of assets; etc.).

1.2.4. Protection and Accountability to Affected Populations

Specify the degree to which accessing WFP's FFA sites exposes people to safety problems, and related mitigations measures.

Indicate what methods and avenues were used to inform people of the project – e.g. with posters, leaflets, through community leaders, radio programmes, mobile phones etc. For those COs that are using SLP and CBPP tools, these can be mentioned as good examples of programming/planning tools incorporating Accountability to Affected Populations (AAP) principles.

1.2.5. Outputs

- **Report on Output indicator B.1** – “Number of assets built, restored or maintained by targeted households and communities, by type and unit of measure”. Reporting by type means to use corporate and specific indicators available in the indicator compendium, DACOTA, and COMET to report on outputs.
- **Verify proper use of measurement units** (e.g. hectares, acres, number, etc.) and check for errors created by using commas and periods when entering numbers. For instance, if you enter 40,500 ha, it would be interpreted as 40 thousand five hundred hectares, not 40 and a half hectares. This is a common error!
- **It is important to maintain comparability between assets of the same type.** For this reason, generic outputs such as ‘water development’ and ‘volume of water available to households’ should not be reported. Instead, it is useful to report on data related to specific assets. In the case of water assets, ‘ponds, dams, wells and cisterns’ would be reported separately along with their estimated volume (m³). In addition, a distinction needs to be made between the assets built, restored and maintained – i.e. classrooms repaired and constructed are different from each other, so grouping them together as ‘constructed’ would amount to an overestimation of achievements while ‘repaired’ would be an underestimation.
- **Counting assets:** Check possible double counting of assets created – e.g. 100 hectares of hillside terraces and trenches, and 100 ha of degraded hillsides planted with trees may end up becoming 200 ha of land rehabilitated; or only just 100 ha if the trees are planted on the same terraces and trenches of the first 100 ha of hillsides. Another common error is to assume trees growing in nurseries as planted trees (the latter is often much less). For a number of assets it is important to indicate the area treated – e.g. irrigation schemes are often reported as km of canals, instead of how much land has been brought back to production under irrigation and whether the schemes are functional and maintained.
- **Narrative:** This section should answer the question: ‘Are we doing what we committed to do?’
 - Describe the efforts you have undertaken through your activities. In doing so, provide a review of project outputs including reasons for over/under-achievements of planned figures.
 - While avoiding to repeat the indicator figures, place them in the context of the SPR narrative, and tell a story of what the quantitative figures mean. For instance, if you already inserted data for output indicators for ‘number of counterpart staff trained’ or ‘number of national programmes receiving WFP technical assistance’, it is important to describe the kind of technical assistance/training provided and link this to the capacity needs of the government.
 - The narrative is also an opportunity to capture unique information for different activities beyond just food or cash-based distributions. For example, explain the reasons for over- or underachievement, differentiating between funding (shortfall), partners (lack of), technical capacities (lack of – especially for high tech assets), and other reasons. Make sure reasons are consistent with those provided in the other sections (e.g. on beneficiaries, distributions and outcomes).
 - Discuss WFP’s and partners’ efforts, if any, in closing the **gender** gap. Try to unpack the word ‘gender’ whenever possible. For example, you can highlight the assets that have been prioritized by women through a participatory process (focus on assets that reduce environmental hardships and increase income are of particular interest such as reducing walking hours to collect water and firewood; more production for sale; diversified livelihoods, etc.). If you mention ‘gender sensitization’, explain what exactly has been sensitized, and to whom.

1.2.6. Outcomes

Outcomes are medium-term results that are generated within the life-cycle of a program or project by some combination of achieved outputs. In the outcome section, enter the indicators as found in your logframe. Note that unlike the previous Outcome Measurement Strategy, the current requirement is that all projects should report on all outcomes indicators included in the project logframe - i.e. those entered in the COMET design module.

- **Analysis of the figures (outcome indicators):** The narrative text should be an analysis of the figures you have entered, and should not contradict the numbers! Major discrepancies between planned and actual should also be analysed, while major achievements should be highlighted. Do not repeat the numbers in the table.
- **Donors:** Donors reading your report have already contributed to your particular project, and are looking to both justify their 'investment' to their taxpayers, as well as looking into possible further contribution to the project. As such, it would be discouraging to expand on what you haven't done due to the lack of funds; rather, describe what you have achieved with the limited funds available!
- **Impact on the community at large:** Explain how the assets created had an impact on the community at large. If possible, also provide an approximate number of people positively impacted, beyond our standard beneficiaries (e.g. 'Tier 2' beneficiaries). See **Annex 8a** for further details on how to estimate the number of Tier-2 beneficiaries.
- **Emerging patterns:** What are some of the emerging patterns or trends you can see from the data, compared to the previous year? Is the information showing what you expected to see (intended results) and is the target being met? If not, why? You may wish to note the timeframe for your target as well. For example, if you are in the first year of a five-year project, assess whether gradual progress has been made towards achieving the project target.
 - Use CAS to show increased access to functioning assets. COs should report on the CAS, and on other project-specific indicators when possible. CAS will only be useful if reported in connection with an analytical lens on asset creation. If the CAS shows that the community and households are performing well, the amount of assets should also demonstrate how it has reduced vulnerability to shocks. Look at indicators that point to a reduction of the negative impacts of shocks – e.g. if trees are planted at a specific scale, gully networks are rehabilitated, and flood prevention measures are completed, they should all be highlighted as reaching a particular goal, which is reducing the vulnerability to a given shock(s). Check whether the type of assets, the area covered and the outcome indicators reported can qualify a project as to being able to reduce the impact of shocks (and hence potentially contributing to increase resilience). When mentioning resilience, the document should always emphasize what the type of shocks are in those livelihood areas, and to which extent asset creation has contributed to reducing the impact of these shocks. Make sure the document shows clearly which livelihoods are discussed and how building and maintaining assets through this intervention have helped livelihoods bounce back better after shocks.
 - Use a combined analysis of CAS, FCS, DDS, CSI/food and CSI/livelihoods and other indicators (e.g. FFA-related project specific indicators; nutrition indicators; etc.) to show increased resilience to shocks: The trend analysis of these indicators can help determine how specific sub-groups of the population typically react and recover from shocks. Some of these indicators can be unpacked to see which context specific ones can be applied – e.g. nutrition indicators, reduction of hardships (i.e. time spent collecting water and firewood), crop yields or fodder production compared to control areas without assets, etc. Trend

analyses of these indicators can provide good indications on whether resilience is being built and what needs to be done to enhance these efforts (**see Chapter 7: Section 2.4**).

- **Scale of intervention:** Related to reducing the impact of shocks, make sure the project's outputs and outcomes highlight the scale of the intervention, particularly in terms of the scale and integration of the interventions at the community level (i.e. not just the sum of scattered achievements). If for example X amount of hectares have been rehabilitated, reforested, and treated with soil and water conservation mechanisms, what does that mean in terms of resilience for how many people/communities? Projects that build scattered or a few soil and water conservation structures cannot claim to be building meaningful resilience.
- **Natural Resource Management:** FFA indicators should be related to improving access to food, disaster risk reduction, and resilience building - including if specifically able to foster climate change adaptation. RBs should assist COs with a greater focus on NRM projects to prominently display the role these activities had in reducing vulnerability to shock(s).
- **Attribution:** Consider the attribution of the achievements i.e. were the outcomes reached as a result of WFP's activities, and were there other things that could explain the outcome results? This is particularly important if you find that strong output performance has not led to expected outcomes, or if outcome achievement is high despite problems with delivering project outputs:
 - Your project logframe includes assumptions regarding the conditions in which the defined outputs are expected to lead to desired outcomes and the risks that may hinder this from occurring. What are some of the changes in assumptions/risks over the course of the year?
 - While it is important to highlight your achievements, you should also recognize that sometimes not all changes are positive, and that some interventions can work against (rather than complement) others. Sometimes unexpected events such as security issues or limited resources are faced due to a sudden onset disaster, which may have affected the original targeted outcome. Describe this change in the context.
 - It is important to recognize that there are often a number of different stakeholders involved who also contribute to a change, including the beneficiaries themselves and it is important to acknowledge this. While there is no need for a detailed description of the partnerships (that comes later in the partnership section), describe how complementary activities contributed to either a positive or a negative result in your project outcomes. Describe how all these interactions (or lack thereof) have contributed to the outcome.
- **Gender:** Particular attention needs to be paid to capture what asset creation does for women and for other marginalized groups. Assets that reduce environmental hardships and increase income are of particular interest.
- **Comparison:** Review the previous year's SPR for the same project (or any other previous version of the same project) to show the progress (or lack of) made over time. Ensure that you measure annual outcome values from the same geographical area of the project for comparability. If the geography differs for inevitable reasons, mention this in the footnotes.

In summary, for the outcome narrative, consider the following questions in the SPR:

- Has there been any change?
- How significant was the change?
- What were the effects of the change?
- Who benefited from the change?
- Was the change intended or not?
- How has the change resulted into improvement of people's lives?
- How do changes compare to planned achievements?
- Was any change attributable to the work of WFP or partners?

1.2.7. Sustainability, Capacity Development and Handover

Successful FFA programmes, especially resilience-focused ones, dedicate particular attention to the following aspects:

- a better understanding of context to identify how FFA and complementary activities fit in
- participatory planning with communities (including women and vulnerable groups) to prioritise assets and ensure ownership. This discussion is also the entry point to address other critical aspects such as land tenure and access to assets, and maintenance issues
- the quality of assets, which meet technical standards adapted to the agro-ecological context and type of shocks experienced
- integration of assets and scale that is commensurate to the level of degradation of natural resources and the magnitude of shocks, to achieve impact
- strengthening local capacities (communities, communes, technical services, partners, etc.) on the above aspects, to ensure greater sustainability and handover

It works like a multiplication: if one of the above aspects is zero, the total result of the intervention will also be zero. In addition to the policy dialogue at national level, the CO should indicate the efforts made to build the above five capacities.

1.2.8. Inputs

Under inputs, there are no specific tips to be shared for the SPR (i.e. requires standard information).

1.2.9. Partnerships

Demonstrate what makes the partnerships important, unusual, or unique (the 3PA tools help to answer this question). The narrative may either focus on one successful partnership, or describe collaboration with the partners as a whole. The aim is to demonstrate the benefits gained from working together against the following questions: (i) what are the benefits of working with the selected partner(s); (ii) how does the partnership complement our work and improve the lives of our beneficiaries; and (iii) what kind of challenges have you overcome together?

Particular reference should be made to any collaboration with FAO and IFAD.

1.2.10. Lessons learned

Demonstrate how you were able to implement actions stemming from lessons that CO had learned in previous years, including action points identified from in-country discussions with stakeholders (e.g. government, donors, UN and NGO partners, cooperating partners, communities, etc.), from the FFA PGM or specialized workshops, and from any internal/external reports and evaluations, from your country or other countries.

For countries using the 3PA, share lessons learned about it; for the others, share plans to improve their programming/planning process through strengthened coordination and partnerships, especially where resilience building is a clear objective of the WFP project.

Indicate what the key success factors of the project were (e.g. good planning through a CBPP process; partner's contributions; etc.). You may also wish to describe some of the actions taken in more detail in other results sections of the SPR.

You may also wish to detail the following points:

- How did the office invest in staff capability and performance related to FFA?
- What efforts did we make to be a preferred and trusted FFA partner for beneficiaries, communities, governments, the UN, NGOs, and the private sector?
- How did we make sure our FFA programmes were delivered efficiently and effectively?
- Describe the efficiencies of our processes and systems, such as better supply chain management, online tools such as COMET and SCOPE, more efficient support services with optimal project design and implementation (e.g. use of 3PA tools to improve programming, planning and partnerships; improved M&E system for FFA; etc.).
- Describe how we ensure transparency as well as providing value for money and accountability for all of our resources
- What actions did you undertake to mitigate some of the risks you have identified, through the annual performance planning and review?

2. FFA PROJECT DOCUMENT REVIEW

2.1. Project and Country Strategy review process

Project and Country Strategy documents are reviewed by all units in RBs and HQ prior to finalization and submission for approval. The revised programme review process includes a technical review of the project document by means of an electronic programme review process (e-PRP). The Asset Creation & Livelihoods Unit (OSZPR) is responsible to provide technical comments related to assets creation & livelihoods in the System for Project Approval (SPA).

Details about the strategic programme review process (s-PRP) and e-PRP can be found in the [ED circular on "Programme and country strategy review and approval process"](#).³⁰²

2.2. e-PRP: OSZPR tips for reviewers

The review of FFA components and livelihoods aspects in project documents by the OSZPR unit through the e-PRP focuses on the following:

Is the context analysis and rationale for Early Recovery/Recovery and/or DRR and/or Safety Net and/or Resilience and/or Climate Change Adaptation components well developed and sufficiently robust in the document?

1. Are FFA activities and types of assets consistent with the intended impact and objectives?
2. Are FFA activities designed and programmed with an understanding of seasonality and gender, and the type/s of livelihood system (e.g. agrarian, pastoral) they intend to support?
3. Is the justification and description of FFA modalities (e.g. caseload, working days, period of implementation, technical services and cooperating partners' capacities, work-norms etc.) and complementary activities (e.g. for resilience components) sufficiently developed in the document and consistent with the intended impact and objectives?
4. Are the FFA activities, complementary interventions (e.g. FAO and other partners) and synergy with other sectors (e.g. nutrition, health, WASH, education, market, etc.) well developed in the document, and are they designed and programmed through a participatory approach (e.g. SLP, CBPP, etc.)?

Through this review, OSZPR also aims to determine whether the project document (including Budget Reviews) highlights the key main recommendations from reviews and evaluations, and overall whether the livelihood and asset creation aspects and components are reflected and designed in line with corporate policy and guidance on FFA. More specifically:

1. **Context of vulnerability and exposure to shocks** – what justifies assets creation from Food Security assessments and trends information; the type and trends of shocks in the last 3-5 years (especially for PRROs and CP/DEV); and other aspects – e.g. land degradation trends, access to productive infrastructure (e.g. roads and markets), access to land, and other context specific indicators (i.e. population densities, etc.). Was an ICA done and used to strengthen the rationale for the geographic targeting of different programmatic strategies in the project document?

³⁰² WFP, 2015. Executive Director's circular. Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/cd/wfp272012.pdf>

- 2. How the FFA objectives stated in the document relate to the corporate SOs** (e.g. SO1, SO2 and SO3) **and national priorities** – the FFA objectives need to be realistic and (i) related to the timeframe of the operation; (ii) linked to the overall context and exposure to shocks; (iii) aligned with existing capacities and policies/strategies of government; and (iv) based on the level of capacity of partners. Specific objectives imply robust partnerships with other UN agencies, the World Bank, government, NGOs, and private sector with major commitments to joint efforts. Project documents should clearly position FFA in government frameworks and priorities (National policies, UNDAF, others), and (where relevant) detail partnerships beyond government and RBAs, including the private sector and research institutes/universities.
- 3. Rationale of the FFA activity in relation to the programme category** – e.g. building resilience through water harvesting and soil and water conservation work requires longer term planning (e.g. extended recovery through PRRO or CP/DEV), as opposed to clearing debris and quick repairs (e.g. more suitable under EMOPs or early recovery of PRROs).
- 4. Caseloads and aspects of targeting versus types of measures considered** - e.g. assessments and historical trends, partners' capacity, seasonality and duration of activities, M&E aspects/capacity, realistic approaches, etc.
- 5. Type of transfers (food, cash-based)** in relation to seasonal aspects, markets, capacity to deliver, cost effectiveness, and preferences by gender, and beneficiaries/participants.
- 6. Results from evaluations** – provide lessons learned or suggestions for FFA, especially if the FFA specific evaluations suggest how to modify rationales for restoration, rehabilitation and building of assets, as well as specific suggestions for partnerships. Has the CO developed its new FFA activity and related objectives in line with evaluations, and what steps are undertaken by the CO to correct issues/problems? These aspects need to be considered, particularly if funding of this component has been a problem in the past.
- 7. Level of technical and implementation capacity of governmental/technical services and partners for the type and scale of FFA envisaged.** Specific components proposed for FFA (e.g. restoration/rehabilitation of irrigation schemes, watersheds, etc.) require robust technical and implementation capacity from governmental technical services and cooperating partners. Is this capacity in place or should it be developed first? This issue is related to the question of feasibility of FFA in a given context, and what the CO envisages to put in place to build sufficient capacity. Has the document built a strong case in relation to capacity and implementation arrangements? Is the scale of the FFA sufficient to reach the desired objectives?
- 8. Participation, targeting and gender aspects** – what reference to participatory planning is made in the project document? Is there any basic or more elaborated planning approach envisaged? What is the CO planning with regards to participatory planning at community levels? Participation of communities in FFA planning and implementation is a key aspect, particularly for sustainability. This is also important for the empowerment of women and marginalized groups. What are the targeting criteria used to this effect and for implementation? What gender considerations are part of the strategy and design of FFA? For example, which FFA could impact on women and reduce environmental hardships? A number of these aspects need to be succinctly summarized in the implementation arrangements or in a footnote.
- 9. Work norms and technical standards** – these aspects are related to points 7 and 8 above, and need to be highlighted in the project document that they have considered and adjusted to meet climatic, livelihood, and/or other risks associated to the context (e.g.

rainfall patterns, current participant workloads, soil, topography, etc.). Specific work norms and working hours may also need to be developed for women.

- 10. Environmental safeguards** – have specific environmental safeguards been included for FFA interventions that may pose environmental and health risks (such as water-related works)?
- 11. Major existing or potential partnerships, and assumptions over resources** (current and past trends) in relation to building productive safety nets and asset creation programmes. Complementarity with multi-sectorial activities should be highlighted, especially for resilience-focused programmes.
- 12. Aspects related to terminologies** – check for use of specific concepts and how they relate to the desired objective(s) and outcome(s). For instance a productive safety net needs to have predictable base of support and funding, and ownership at institutional level; resilience building needs to be related to building resilience to specific shocks (prepare to, withstand and recover from) and how this can be achieved (a few trees or water ponds do not build sufficient - let alone long lasting - resilience, etc.). It is advised to avoid, to the extent possible, repeating the use of specific concepts in e-PRP documents.
- 13. Monitoring and Evaluation** – check for realistic project-specific and corporate indicators - feasible within the proposed timeframe. Ensure outputs and outcomes are measurable. For all programmes, make sure that M&E is budgeted for, specifically corporate indicators that are progressively being introduced (i.e. FCS, DD, CSI (food), CSI (livelihoods) and CAS).
- 14. Non-food/wage-items (budget and numbers/amounts)** – check that a sufficient minimum budget for NFI is included; check for consistency in standard tables and spread sheets; check that sufficient budget is also allocated for technical support at implementing partners or government levels, etc.

Note: the above are offered as general guidance and the most relevant need to be identified case-by-case according to context. Considering word limits, COs can attach additional documentation on aspects such as exposure to vulnerability, trend analysis and land degradation aspects, community planning manuals, and other information that strengthens the overall rationale of the FFA activity.

Chapter 9

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Knowledge Management and Advocacy



World Food Programme

wfp.org

1. Knowledge management

1.1. What is knowledge management?

Knowledge management is the process of developing, capturing, storing, sharing and effectively using organizational knowledge. It is about getting the right knowledge to the right people at the right time and place. WFP's ability to serve beneficiaries around the globe in a timely, effective and efficient manner is greatly influenced by its ability to capture, analyse and learn from the knowledge and information at its disposal.

COs can develop knowledge management strategies to ensure the most effective ways for sharing knowledge to ensure proper management of WFP's internal knowledge throughout the program cycle; and ensure adequate knowledge management with partners and governments to share experiences, lessons learned and good practices and capitalize on experiences in given contexts.

WFP has huge potential to bring FFA and complementary efforts to unprecedented levels of quality and effectiveness building on good practices. However, often good and innovative practice in the field may not be documented or shared due to lack of time or resources and lessons do not get learnt. Poor documentation, and sharing knowledge, experience, and learning between countries can lead to duplication of efforts and missed opportunities.

Documenting and sharing good practices and lessons learned on FFA planning and technical aspects is crucial to enhance learning and strengthen WFP and partners' ability to design and implement effective programmes and should be part of CO knowledge management strategies. The systematic sharing of experiences enables WFP and partners to identify successes (and areas for improvement), innovative techniques to replicate what works in a given context and learn from past mistakes. In turn, these can also support advocacy efforts by highlighting successful results.

The table below provides an overview of the objectives and key content and audiences of good practices and lessons learned. Note that a more comprehensive table provided in **Annex 9a** shows the roles and responsibilities, work processes, and the formats for each tool, vis-a-vis success stories (which are meant for advocacy purposes).

Table 9.1 - Overview of the objectives and key content and audiences of good practices and lessons learned

| Tool | Focus | Objective | Content | Audience |
|-----------------|---|--|--|---|
| Good practices | Share experiences on FFA planning and technical design aspects in a specific contexts | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthen technical capacities to plan, design and implement quality programmes Foster replication of good practices throughout WFP and partners' operations and facilitate continuous improvement | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document main technical features and aspects of specific or integrated FFA activities in a given context – their performance and impact, the approach and steps undertaken, and the partners involved Document successful planning approaches | WFP programme and partners at RB, CO and SO level |
| Lessons learned | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capitalize and learn from areas requiring improvement Avoid duplication and ensure that inappropriate methods are avoided and learn from experiences of others | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document unyielding efforts and identify actions to address systemic problems - taking into account inputs of staff involved in the FFA programme and feedback from experts at corporate level | WFP programme and partners at RB, CO and SO level |

To ensure the roll-out and effective documentation of good practices and lessons learned across the organization each CO should establish yearly action plans and timeframes for good practices and lessons learned development, and identify CO and SO focal points that will be working on these. RB may want to coordinate these efforts across countries and liaise with the relevant units in HQ. Depending on the CO, M&E officers might also be involved in the process.

However, identifying and documenting good practices and lessons learned require joint efforts at CO and SO levels, involving WFP staff and cooperating partners. In particular, a process to identify good practices and lessons learned should be established. For example, COs can organize regular 'FFA experience sharing' meetings/workshops/joint calls taking place every six months with all WFP and CP staff working on FFA programmes to identify constraints and/or determinants of successful programmes. These meetings can help identify what works and what doesn't, drawing upon each other's experience to overcome constraints, and eventually seek guidance through WFP (CO, RB and/or HQ) or partners' technical support. Documentation and subsequent dissemination of the products can then be undertaken to ensure that these experiences are not lost and can inform and improve future programmes.

Depending on the CO, **cooperating partners** can play a key role in the documentation and dissemination of good practices and lessons learned and can be trained to do this by WFP staff. This can also be included in FLAs with CPs.

To facilitate learning and use of the information documented, it is essential to improve access to information for WFP and partners. Whilst many COs already have specific systems in place to share technical information internally (e.g. Teamwork Space, newsletters, Dropbox, etc.), OSZPR is developing an **online repository for good practices and lessons learned on the FFA PGM platform**³⁰³ to facilitate sharing of experiences among WFP and partners. The platform is designed to enable WFP staff and partners around the world to share and access experiences on FFA planning and technical design aspects in different contexts through an interactive, centralized, and easy-to-access web-page.

1.2. Good practices

1.2.1. What is a good practice?

"A good practice³⁰⁴ is [...] a practice that has been proven to work well and produce good results, and is therefore recommended as a model. It is a successful experience, which has been tested and validated, [...] which has been repeated and deserves to be shared so that a greater number of people can adopt it" – FAO, 2013³⁰⁵.

The main focus of good practices should be placed on documenting context-specific features and technical aspects of FFA activities, impacts of FFA, the description of planning methods, successful partnerships, and benefits related to increased resilience and food security and nutrition. This is not about basic project-specific information, such as overall inputs, outputs and outcomes measured through the project cycle and specific evaluations – it is about describing why an activity represents a good practice, for example, highlighting why specific techniques or approaches worked in a given area, the steps used to their planning, design and implementation through visual descriptions, how management of assets was achieved, who were the partners involved, what was the intervention's cost effectiveness and most importantly what are the assessed impacts on people.

³⁰³ Available at the following link: <http://ffa.manuals.wfp.org/>

³⁰⁴ The terminology "Good practice" may be more appropriate to indicate continuous improvement, as opposed to "best practice" which may imply that no further improvements are possible. Both imply ease of transfer to other situations with similar goals.

³⁰⁵ FAO. 2013. Good practices at FAO: Experience capitalization for continuous learning. <http://www.fao.org/3/a-ap784e.pdf>

1.2.2. How to document good practices: step-by-step

1. Identifying a good practice

The first, most important step, is to properly identify what makes a practice a 'good practice'. Field visits by field monitors can be a good opportunity to identify good practices, for example, if an FFA site meets the highest standards of quality, if it is showing exceptional results, or if participants on that site did something outstanding in the process. Regular 'FFA experience sharing' meetings can also help to identify successful interventions through CO and SO focal points.

FFA best practices should capture aspects that are not commonly recorded under regular reporting routines, for example those that as explained in a number of other sections relate to environmental changes, gender and empowerment and decent work. The documentation of some of these aspects may have strategic implications in providing important information that will enable governments, WFP and partners to increase the effectiveness of their programmes, cover specific gaps, and enhance the overall acceptance and replication of specific efforts by local communities.

Criteria to identify FFA good practices³⁰⁶

The list of criteria below can guide the identification of FFA good practices. Some of these aspects should be highlighted and documented in the good practice document, with the information generated then being used to support programmatic efforts and policy actions.

1. **Effectiveness and success** - Was the intervention the most effective in achieving:
 - **Food security and nutrition outcomes:** Improved food security and nutrition of the community – it is clear and can be proved/demonstrated
 - **Resilience building efforts:** i.e. people are less affected by recurrent shocks, etc.
 - **Environmental benefits:** i.e. improvement of soil and water management, rehabilitation of productive land, etc.
 - **Gender equality:** i.e. reducing women's hardships or empowering women in decision making processes; did FFA have an impact on reducing women and girls daily chores?
 - **Decent work:** i.e. which FFA activity has a high level of acceptability and is increasing income and local employment (self or through other community members) of vulnerable households? What norms have been adopted and specific local arrangements made to assist those households with limited labour capacity but willing to participate in FFA?
 - **High quality standards for assets created** – crucial in degraded, fragile contexts
 - **Capacity development:** i.e. people have been trained on specific activities; communities can better manage their natural resources; partners and government have the ability to take on part of all of the FFA planning / implementation process; etc.
 - **Sustainability:** i.e. the asset created has been productive/functioning for xx years and continues being regularly maintained by community members beyond WFP assistance
 - **Community benefits:** i.e. reduction of communities' negative coping strategies, such as distressed outmigration and selling of productive assets, cutting of trees, etc.
 - **Partnerships:** i.e. particularly successful partnerships
 - **Integrated and multi-sectorial programmes:** i.e. WFP and partners' interventions were layered together to strengthen each other's impact
 - **Cost-effectiveness:** i.e. high value for money
2. **Innovation** - Why is this an innovative project (new type of activity, known technical method in a new context, new method that reduce time for implementation, etc.)? What innovation has FFA promoted in relation to creative employment and sound use of the natural resources base?
3. **Replicability and adaptability** - Is there potential for replication? Is the intervention adaptable to other contexts?

³⁰⁶ These are aligned to [FFA's five keys to success](http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/newsroom/wfp266929.pdf), available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/newsroom/wfp266929.pdf>

When to document a good practice? The approaches or techniques documented may not withstand time (e.g. an asset described in a good practice may be destroyed a few months later) – therefore good practices should be documented when it becomes clear that long-term benefits and sustainable management can be observed.

Once the good practice has been identified, CO, SO, and CP focal points should focus on documenting the following information for the good practice.

2. Documenting a good practice

There are three main types of FFA good practices that can be produced, being:

- **Good practice on a specific FFA intervention**

This type of good practice focuses on a specific FFA intervention in a given context, highlighting key achievements in terms of food security and nutrition, reduction of hardships, empowerment of vulnerable groups (marginalized), planning methods used, main challenges, description of key technical implementation steps and inputs required, capacity development efforts, gender and environmental aspects, sustainability and cost-effectiveness evidence.

- **Good practice on a set of integrated FFA and complementary interventions**

This type of good practice focuses on how a set of integrated FFA and complementary (WFP or other partners') programmes strengthen each other's impact in a given community, highlighting key achievements in terms of food security and nutrition, reduction of hardships, empowerment of vulnerable (marginalized), planning methods used, main challenges, capacity development efforts, gender and environmental aspects, sustainability and cost-effectiveness evidence.

- **Good practice on how 3PA tool(s) informed FFA programmes**

This type of good practice focuses on how the 3PA tools – either one of them or the full range from ICA to SLP to CBPP – have been carried out and used to successfully inform the planning and implementation of FFA and complementary programmes. Focus can be on: how the tools helped to understand context, take into account livelihood and seasonal lenses and designing nutrition- and gender-sensitive interventions; how it contributed to design or strengthen government programmatic strategies together with partners; how the government and local institutions are using the tool(s); whether the tool(s) facilitated collaboration among partners or helped identifying new partnerships, local technical expertise and capacity development efforts; and how the tool was used to complement other existing planning approaches.

Country Offices are encouraged to use the type of good practice that fits their strengths, based on their experiences. For example, some countries will see the benefit of featuring successful results from a specific FFA activity, while others – with successful integration of diverse FFA activities and complementary interventions – would prefer the second option.

Templates & formats: Good practices can be documented in different formats, such as written documents, pictures, and videos to present examples of successful FFA planning and implementation allowing other COs, including Field Monitors, and partners to replicate it. The FFA Good practice template is available (in [English](#) and [French](#)),³⁰⁷ along with **Tips for filling in the Good Practice template**, in **Annex 9b**, and can be used by field monitors, programme Officers, and partners when documenting good practices. Being equipped with the good practice template and guidance during field visits can be helpful to start capturing key information.

³⁰⁷ English template available at:

http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282121.pub;

French template available

at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282122.pub

Key aspects to capture (narrative)

The following are overall aspects that should be captured when documenting a good practice – these are reflected in detail in the template:

- **Overview:** context of vulnerability, planning methods used and rationale for intervention
- **Key achievements:** tangible results in terms of food security, nutrition, reduction of hardships
- **Main challenges** (and how these were overcome): limited technical capacities, difficulties in engaging the most vulnerable groups of the population, challenging geophysical conditions, etc.
- **Step-by-step implementation:** essential technical steps undertaken
- **Technical features:** explanation of why specific techniques or approaches worked in the area, and of what were the main inputs for FFA implementation
- **Cross-cutting aspects:** capacity development efforts, partnerships and complementarities, gender and environmental aspects, sustainability and cost-effectiveness evidence
- **Story from the field:** providing the perspective of a beneficiary, a government technical staff or a staff member from a partner organization

Pictures and videos

Pictures and videos are an integral part of good practices to make sure that achievements are well documented at different stages (before, during, and after implementation). These photos/videos give historical evidence on how changes took place over time. A good practice documentation 'mind-set' is needed from the planning phase of an FFA project. In this regard it is important to capture initial documentation during the CBPP, such as pictures that document the phase 'before' the intervention, recording the GPS points during the transect walk, etc. These aspects are included in the **CBPP annotated guidance, available in Annex 3a**³⁰⁸ and can be used for good practices at later stages.

Pictures or videos need to be taken from the same location and with the same point of view as the original ones taken 'before' the FFA intervention. With appropriate site markings and documentation, photos can be precisely replicated by different photographers, even after a lapse of several months or years. At the start of the project, photo points are easily set up, especially if done during the CBPP. However, in the event that photos or videos are taken while the project is on-going, the challenge will be to obtain an idea of the initial view before the start. For this purpose, old pictures of the area which illustrate how the surroundings and circumstances looked like can be used.

Pictures and videos: key tips

³⁰⁹

- Remember to take pictures or videos that show the 'before', 'during', and 'after' of FFA activities, so that the progress and main achievements of these programmes can be tracked easily. Record a GPS coordinate at the time of shooting to identify the site for follow-up visits; map and identify photo-points to help relate photos
- When taking a picture or video, ensure that the frame includes a skyline. Significant landmarks such as rock outcrops, mountain slopes or other geographic features that will remain the same over long periods of time can also be used if there is difficulty in showing a skyline in the horizon. The photo should include a landmark that can be detected over time, as this can also help locating the same site
- Make sure to include a person within the photo which will provide scale to a context. Some areas are so vast that it becomes difficult to understand how big a particular structure is, thus misrepresenting the amount of work that a structure of that size required
- Stand at the bottom of large structures to show height

³⁰⁸ CBPP annotated template (English) available at:

http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp283040.pdf and « Format annoté pour la Planification Communautaire Participative » (French) available at:

http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282778.pdf.

³⁰⁹ For more comprehensive guidance, consult WFP Nepal photo monitoring guidance, available at this link:

http://go.wfp.org/documents/4299153/4984924/Nepal_Photo_Mon_Guid.pdf/7c47a1c0-3f71-42cb-9e49-c2d18d829bb3

- Try different angles when capturing the pictures. Check the background, remove any distraction. Take several pictures of the same subject, in order to have a choice of the best picture
- Include in the picture or video a beneficiary, partner and/or government representative and include their names when you save the file(s)
- Maintain a well-organized, easily accessible filing system for photos and videos. The files may consist of a series of folders and/or CDs or DVDs containing digital photographs. Organize and manage your files and folders in a computer database and maintain an archive at a separate location for back-up. Organizing these images will not only allow to complete good practices but can be also useful for advocacy and fundraising purposes

Review process & quality check: Once the good practice, either as written document, or photos/videos or a mix, has been drafted by WFP SO staff and partners, or by partners (depending on the context), it should be reviewed as a collaborative effort between CO, RB and HQ (OSZPR), with an emphasis on editing good practices to make them intuitive for programme officers in other countries. When CO, RB and HQ finalize the good practice, these are ready to be shared.

1.3. Lessons learned

1.3.1. What is a lesson learned?

A 'Lesson Learned' documents the experience gained during a project. These lessons come from working with or solving real problems. Collecting and disseminating lessons learned helps to eliminate the occurrence of the same problems in future projects.

There are many examples of FFA interventions that have not been planned, designed and implemented properly and that show poor performance, sometimes even detrimental effects, on assets and people. For example wrongly designed and constructed terraces that collapse and create concentration of runoff which in turn damages other fields located downstream. This does not always mean that specific activities were not appropriate to a given context but that specific design, planning, implementation and management factors were not adequate.

Documenting and sharing lessons learned is crucial to make sure that inappropriate methods are avoided and to learn from others' experiences to continuously improve FFA programmes. The aim is to identify areas requiring improvement, as well as actions to address problems and facilitate learning to improve FFA activities. Lessons learned are not evaluations or performance reviews, but are rather a systematic approach that enables WFP and partners to listen, learn and act based on feedback from field staff and from WFP and partners' experts.

1.3.2. How to document lessons learned: step-by-step

1. Identifying lessons learned

Field visits by field monitors are a first step, but it is crucial to hold regular 'FFA experience sharing' meetings (or calls) to bring together all WFP and partners working on FFA for an extensive look into the operations, successes, and shortcomings of the project and to capture lessons learned at the end of or during a project. This allows for a broader analysis and may help to build a sense of collaboration and communication within the group responsible for FFA implementation.³¹⁰

During the discussions, some FFA programmes can come up as ineffective, having unintended negative consequences, or more broadly as not responding to the criteria set for identifying good practices. WFP and partners can then draw upon each other's experience to overcome constraints or seek guidance through WFP (OSZPR, CO and/or RB) or partners' technical support. The identified lessons can then be documented and disseminated to benefit future FFA programmes.

³¹⁰ A useful 'Guide to Capturing Lessons Learned' is provided by Nature Conservancy and can be consulted at this link: www.conservationgateway.org/ConservationPlanning/partnering/cpc/Documents/Capturing_Lessons_Learned_Final.pdf

2. Documenting lessons learned

Lessons learned can be documented in different formats – e.g. written documents, pictures, and videos to highlight key findings from implementation. A standard [lessons learned template](#)³¹¹ is also available to support documentation.

Key aspects to capture (narrative)

The following are overall aspects that should be captured when documenting a lesson learned:

- **Overview:** context of vulnerability, planning methods used and rationale for intervention;
- **What are the differences** from usual practice (if any)?
- **Lessons Learned:** What worked? What went wrong or had unintended consequences?
- **Recommendations:**
 - What would you do differently next time? What recommendations would you make to others doing similar projects?
 - Were the project goals attained? If not, what changes need to be made in the future?
 - What challenges did the team have to deal with?
 - What project circumstances were not anticipated?
 - Did you develop any useful solutions to problems that cropped up during the project?
- **Story from the field:** reflecting different perspectives of beneficiaries, government, and partners.

Pictures and videos

Pictures and videos can also be useful to visually document the unintended consequences from the project, showing the situation 'before', 'during', and 'after' implementation.

Once the lesson learned has been drafted by WFP SO staff and partners, or by partners (depending on the context), the review should be a collaborative effort between CO, RB and HQ (OSZPR), with attention to documenting details in ways that can be easily used by programme officers in other countries. When CO, RB and HQ finalize the lesson, it can be shared and disseminated.

1.4. Sharing good practices and lessons learned

The final step, and the most important one, is the process of sharing good practices and lessons learned, since lessons are of little benefit unless they are distributed and used.

1.4.1. WFP, partners, and governments

When CO, RB and HQ have reviewed and finalized the good practice and/or lessons learned, these should be ready to be shared and stored by OSZPR on the online good practice repository of the [FFA PGM platform](#)³¹². This is a public platform, in order to facilitate sharing and learning among WFP and partners throughout the world.

RBs and COs are encouraged to disseminate and promote these tools among WFP staff, partners, government, and communities, to capitalize and learn from experience. They can use their existing platforms and systems (online platforms, newsletters, etc.), organize specific meetings/workshops, or include them in specific FFA trainings or knowledge sharing activities at community level.

At this point it is crucial to ensure that, before starting new FFA programmes, WFP, partners, and government technical staff can access past good practices and lessons learned to foster a culture of capturing and adapting behaviour based on experience.

³¹¹ Lessons learned template available at:

http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282125.pub

³¹² Available at: <http://ffa.manuals.wfp.org/>

1.4.2. Communities

Good practices can be shared at the community level: experience sharing among communities can be one of the best ways to expose community members to new approaches, innovative techniques and management efforts. A number of experience sharing efforts are suggested and explained (**Chapter 10: Section 2.1**) in relation to capacity development efforts targeted to communities.

1.5. South-South and Triangular cooperation

When it comes to knowledge sharing for FFA, **South-South and triangular cooperation (SSC)**³¹³ (see **Chapter 10: Section 2.5**) can be a valid option for countries to learn from other countries' experiences. SSC is a process whereby two or more developing countries pursue their individual and/or shared national objectives through exchanges of knowledge, skills, resources and technical know-how. It also includes regional and inter-regional collective actions (**UN definition**³¹⁴). Note that when donor countries and/or multilateral organizations (e.g. WFP) facilitate South-South initiatives through the provision of funding, training, management and technological systems as well as other forms of support, these should be referred to as "**triangular cooperation**".³¹⁵

South-South Cooperation can take different forms, from study tours and peer learnings to knowledge sharing activities, including through partnerships with academia and research institutes, technical cooperation and capacity development, mobilization of in-kind and cash resources, policy advocacy and support to regional bodies. In particular, South-South Cooperation can: (1) Facilitate the sharing of country experiences, knowledge, skills, information and innovative practices; (2) Capture, identify and encourage programme and other innovations; (3) Identify lessons on and examples of scaling up through WFP's analysis of a country's food security and nutrition situation; (4) Establish appropriate and customized institutional mechanisms for sharing country-specific knowledge and expertise, and capturing country experience. Examples on SSC and capacity development for FFA are found in **Chapter 10**.

1.6. Linking Successful Projects to Research Institutes

FFA could benefit from linkages with research institutes and Universities that would like to engage in studying and researching food security aspects and the relevance of specific FFA projects, approaches and techniques that have a positive effect on reducing hunger and strengthening resilience building efforts.

For example, universities in Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Bangladesh, Haiti, Senegal, Liberia, Rwanda and Pakistan, to name a few, could explore the possibility to second students assigned to research and support specific projects of interest. Students can collect useful information, assess impacts or simply provide technical assistance on technical issues. WFP CO could envisage, together with universities, to plan studies right from the planning stages or at any relevant phase of FFA projects. These partnerships can be very cost-effective and provide both practical experiences to students willing to engage in food security and nutrition work as well as a contribution to document of what works (and what does not).

³¹³ South-South and triangular cooperation (SSC) corporate guidance being finalized/forthcoming.

³¹⁴ South-South Cooperation UN definition available at: http://ssc.undp.org/content/ssc/about/what_is_ssc.html

³¹⁵ As per the UN definition, available at the above link.

1.6.1. Research institutes to support good practice/lessons learned

To support the documentation of good practices and lessons learned, as well as to strengthen local capacities, COs may setup initiatives where students from local Universities support specific research topics linked to asset creation programmes. These may for example include FFA provided for natural resources management, resilience and adaptation to climate change, gender, or the sustainable management of ecosystems. Linkages with Academia can be established to promote the engagement of students in support to WFP programmes throughout the programme cycle.

Chapter 10: Section 2.4 provides additional suggestions related to fostering linkages between university students, research and FFA activities as part of capacity development initiatives.

Students may be involved in piloting specific FFA activities with innovative design and integration efforts, collecting data/information during specific periods for research and documentation purposes, or carrying out GIS and measurement work. This could also help documenting land use changes in FFA sites over time and good practices in sustainable land management, for example.

Such initiatives can provide lessons learned from research that could trigger greater engagement of national staff in natural resource management type of efforts and draw attention from partners to replicate and scale-up similar programmes, including from government-led sponsorships.

1.6.2. Research papers and Case studies

Case studies are more elaborated efforts that include a detailed description of activities and their impact. Few FFA projects undertake case studies and quite often they tend to describe the effects and impact of a given project on people and their livelihoods. Whilst this is an important aspect, the descriptions of the technical characteristics of the interventions tend to be more general. More attention is therefore required to describe the following aspects:

- Participatory approach used
- Targeting mechanisms
- Role of women in decision making and benefits
- Costs efficiency and effectiveness (measure relevance of the transfer modality)
- Management and maintenance of the assets created
- Impact on reducing hardships
- Seasonal livelihood analysis
- Labour market analysis
- Technical design of FFA interventions
- Sequence of FFA activities, and their visual presentation through photos or drawings
- Work norms
- Self-help contributions (as a proportion of the total) and solidarity efforts
- Role of Government institutions
- Integration requirements (e.g. between FFA and other programmes)

Another important aspect to document is how FFA interventions fit within national policies and strategies. This includes to which extent they have been able to influence approaches or specific efforts undertaken through joint UN programmes, major food security coalitions and safety nets.

Considering the role FFA can play in resilience building and in the adaptation to climate change agenda, of considerable interest will be research and case studies undertaken in close collaboration with the policy unit on DRR and Climate Change, and together with research institutes and universities at country and international level.

The following (albeit not comprehensive) examples provide some indication of the type of case studies that COs may want to undertake to describe specific FFA interventions and their impact.

Note that these case studies would have been more robust had they included a cost effectiveness analysis and a detailed description of specific activities and techniques used for implementation:

- [Case study on the type of FFW interventions around refugee camps in Northern Kenya – Kakuma, and their impact on local production and food security](#)³¹⁶ (case study commissioned by the WFP Kenya Country Office, 2010)
- [Can food-for-work encourage agricultural production?](#)³¹⁷ By Sosina Bezu and Stein Holden (2006). A research paper.
- [The Empowering Communities through Food-based Programmes In Crisis-Prone Situations: Ethiopia Case Study](#)³¹⁸ by Marc J. Cohen and Mariagrazia Rocchigiani *et al* (September 2008). An IFPRI-case study on the role of participatory planning in FFW projects – report was prepared for WFP under the IFPRI-WFP 'Linking Research and Action' initiative.

1.6.3. Research institutes for knowledge sharing

There are other activities that can increase the exchange of technical knowledge and expertise in research related to ecosystems and livelihoods, food security and nutrition, resilience, and climate change adaptation (among others). The following are some of the activities that can be promoted by WFP and partners jointly with research institutes:

- Conduct regional study-tours or workshops to exchange experiences on technical practices in different agro-ecological and livelihoods context - i.e. agroforestry, soil conservation and water harvesting
- Organize seminars in specific topics to share good practices, lessons learned and discuss challenges faced when implementing FFA or related technical activities
- Prepare, in the partnership with Research Institutes, concept notes and funding proposals related to relevant research topics

³¹⁶ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238166.pdf

³¹⁷ Available at: <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S030691920800050X>

³¹⁸ Available at: www.wfp.org/sites/default/files/WFP_Discussion_Paper-Empowering_communities-Ethiopia_0.pdf

2. ADVOCACY

2.1. What is Advocacy?

'Advocacy' is the work, based on demonstrated evidence that WFP staff undertake, to directly and indirectly influence decision makers, stakeholders and relevant audiences to support and implement actions that contribute to Zero Hunger. Advocacy encompasses research and policy analysis, lobbying, communications and campaigning.

WFP brings about change through programming, partnerships, and advocacy. WFP staff are all advocates for Zero Hunger and the vital role WFP plays in ending hunger. Advocating and communicating effectively on the importance of FFA programmes and raising awareness on the benefits from these programmes is crucial to mobilize the full range of actors whose actions, policies and resource allocation can have an impact on the most vulnerable and food insecure.

It is critical to better explain the context of vulnerability found in specific contexts, raise awareness on problems of land degradation, and how investments in land and water management, and integrated FFA activities (and other WFP and partners' programmes), can contribute to resilience building, food security and nutrition. This is key to improve the understanding of the links with other major agendas (e.g. food and nutrition security, resilience, climate change, economic growth, etc.). WFP can play a key role in designing policies, strategies and tools for resilience building and asset creation, and strengthen its role as a strategic partner in integrating humanitarian and development actions. Strengthening awareness and ensuring proper management of WFP's knowledge on FFA help WFP staff fully play its role and support advocacy and policy advice.

WFP staff can encourage an enabling environment for resilience building through FFA at different levels. For example, WFP staff can work with governments to have informed discussions on FFA and to support development of relevant policies. Overall, FFA may influence or become an important component of the following strategies and policies: Poverty Reduction and Rural Development Strategies; Disaster Risk Management Strategies and/or Policies; National Adaptation to Climate Change Plans; Food Security and Nutrition Policies and Strategies; Social Protection Policies and Strategies and related Safety Nets Programmes; Resilience Strategies; Agriculture and Environmental Policies and Strategies; etc. **Chapter 10: Section 2.6** provides more information on strengthening the integration of FFA in strategies and policies.

More specifically, WFP can work at the country level to develop a common narrative on FFA (e.g. focus on participatory planning, quality assets, integration and scale, and partnerships) and related resilience and adaptation to climate change efforts. This narrative should be evidence-based and provide a balanced overall picture of the risks and benefits that might be associated with different policy choices. Key messages from this common narrative can be worked out strategically for policy dialogue between countries and their partners.

As **partnerships** are a key cornerstone of the resilience agenda, WFP staff can engage more strategically with the wider UN system, other humanitarian and development actors, and research institutions. This enables the establishment of strategic partnerships with operational partners in areas where WFP does not have in-house expertise to scale up FFA and promote convergence of efforts to complement FFA programmes in specific communities for impacts at scale.

How to develop an FFA advocacy plan

A simple advocacy strategy can prove useful to guide WFP and partners advocacy efforts related to FFA and resilience, safety nets, climate change adaptation, and disaster risk reduction programming. This advocacy strategy shall address:

- **What do we want (e.g. scaling up FFA, raising resources, etc.)?**
- **What are our core messages?**
- **Who are our targets (government, donors, etc.)?**
- **Who are our partners?**
- **What are our tools (e.g. good practice sharing, communication material, etc.)?**
- **What resources are required for advocacy (remember that it is not for free!)?**

Useful document: UNICEF advocacy toolkit www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/Advocacy_Toolkit.pdf

2.2. Advocacy tools

The following provides a set of tools and key messages that can help WFP staff make impactful advocacy with convincing arguments and clarify WFP's position on FFA. These can be used as references when engaging with government, private sector, UN and NGO partners in meetings or events at global, regional, and national level.

2.2.1. WFP Advocacy framework

WFP's corporate Advocacy Framework³¹⁹ is a tool to help WFP staff position the organization effectively and coherently to maximize the agency's influence on policy decisions. While this is more focused on high-level, global policy debates (e.g. SDGs rather than programme-specific advocacy) the Framework references FFA, and WFP staff can consult the Framework when preparing briefings, statements, op-eds etc. or when meeting government, private sector, UN agency, and NGO counterparts inquiring about WFP's positions and contributions in a particular area.

2.2.2. FFA key messages: examples

- Most vulnerable and food insecure people live in fragile, resource scarce and degraded environments, in areas prone to climate and natural disasters, exposed to frequent shocks and crises. A significant proportion of such populations are primarily reliant on the natural resources found within the landscapes and on which they draw upon for their livelihoods. Highly degraded landscapes limits opportunities for food diversification and production, improving health, nutrition, and education, economic growth and development.
- Recurrent climate and natural shocks and stressors, are increasing in strength and frequency - these crises disproportionately impact the world most vulnerable and food insecure populations, that are increasingly faced with multiple hardships and limited access to food and basic services.
- WFP's FFA programmes help meet the immediate food needs of vulnerable people - through food or cash-based transfers – whilst simultaneously having them build assets to benefit their whole community. FFA's key focus is building or recovering assets that positively impact food security in the most food insecure geographical areas for the most vulnerable households in need.

³¹⁹ Available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/partnerships/advocacy>

- Building assets can mean constructing a road connecting to markets, rehabilitating land, creating a water conservation system, training people to improve their food production, or building community and market infrastructure. In each community, WFP ensures that the different assets being built complement and reinforce each other. Together, this helps make individuals and communities more resilient.
- Planned together with communities and designed and integrated with other complementary programs, these assets can strengthen local capacities to withstand, and recover from climate and other natural disasters. Overall, asset creation can result in immediate gains in food security and simultaneously reduce risks from drought, floods and other natural hazards, while also contributing to long term environmental and livelihood benefits that increase resilience.
- Many FFA interventions are environmentally focused, as natural resources are often the most valuable assets of communities. WFP’s Asset creation programmes are a key component to restore degraded ecosystems, improve production, and build sustainable food systems for the most vulnerable jointly with government and cooperating partners. WFP’s food assistance transfers, either through food or cash, can be used to halt and reverse environmental degradation and build resilience.
- FFA interventions aim to reduce hardships faced by women and girls, such as walking long distances to collect water or firewood and increase access to productive opportunities through income generating activities and control over resources. In many countries women constitute over 50% of the work force and evident signs of their increased role in decision making, well-being and empowerment are noticeable.
- Assets restoring degraded ecosystems can reduce hardships, especially for women and girls tasked to collect water and firewood, protect communities from flash floods, improve soil moisture content for rainfed agriculture and often enable small-scale irrigation, hence reducing drought risks and further degradation as people try to cope. More (and cleaner) water in arid and semi-arid contexts, for example, also means the possibility to increase agricultural and animal production and introduce diverse foods, thereby complementing nutrition efforts.
- Although primarily supporting SDG2, FFA interventions also strongly contribute to SDGs 1, 5, 6, 12, 13, and 15³²⁰, through the transfers (of food or cash-based) provided and the assets created that stabilize and restore landscapes, reduce hardships on women and girls, reduce disaster risk, increase food production, and strengthen and diversify livelihoods.

2.3. Communication products

To capitalize on achievements and contribute to the visibility and understanding of FFA, make sure that **FFA is part of RB and CO’s communication strategies and plans** with wide dissemination through traditional networks, social networks, the media, etc. It is advised that Public Information officers regularly consult with FFA staff while developing communication materials.³²¹

A number of communication materials can be produced to equip WFP staff to advocate and communicate strategically on successful FFA achievements and to support fundraising efforts.

³²⁰ SDG 1: End poverty in all forms everywhere; SDG 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture; SDG 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls; SDG 6: Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all; SDG 12: Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns; SDG 13: Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts; SDG 15: Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests.

³²¹ For example, WFP Somalia CO developed a guidance to ensure PI officers focus on key aspects when developing FFA stories, available at this link:

http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282118.pdf

These products – presented below – can be further developed and adjusted by Programme officers and Public Information officers.

2.3.1. Presentations

Before starting to prepare a presentation, it is important to think about the purpose of the presentation and who your audience is: What is the real purpose of your presentation? Why were you asked to present? What does the audience expect? What are the most important parts of your topic for the audience to take away from your presentation?

Once you start preparing a presentation, consider these quick tips:

- **Keep it simple** – think about what the key messages are that you want to pass to your audience and avoid overloading them with too much information
- **Have a clear structure** – so that your audience can follow and visualize the logic of your content and the flow of the presentation
- **Tell it with a story** – using a story to communicate ideas makes the concepts clear, and the ideas more memorable. You should try to come up with good, short, interesting stories or examples to support your major points
- **Use pictures/videos** – help the audience see what you mean by using pictures. They can see what you see, and get more engaged. You can also use videos, when available
- **Limit bullet points and text** – avoid boring the audience with bullet point after bullet point and slides overloaded with text. Slides are meant mainly to support the narration of the speaker
- **Limit transitions and animations** – listeners will get bored if they are asked to endure slide after slide of animation. For transitions between slides, use no more than two-three different types of transition effects and avoid placing transition effects between all slides
- **Keep it short** – it is better to have the audience wanting more (of you) than to feel that they have had more than enough.

The following presentation is an example of what can be used by COs:

A [Generic Presentation on FFA](#)³²² that can be used and changed to suit a particular context and enriched with photos and visuals, as required.

2.3.2. Factsheets

A two-pager [FFA factsheet](#)³²³ is available, explaining what FFA programmes aim to do, the planning approaches used for FFA, the key achievements worldwide and some success stories. Similar factsheets can be developed at CO level, describing the FFA programmes, their targeted areas, partners, donors and key outputs, contextualizing the information to the country context.³²⁴

Some CO examples are available below:

- [Productive Assets and livelihood support – WFP Cambodia](#)
- [WFP’s Rural development activities – WFP Guinea](#)
- [Productive Asset creation – WFP Zimbabwe](#)
- [Asset creation activities – WFP Myanmar](#)
- [Enhancing Resilience to Disasters and the Effects of Climate Change – WFP Bangladesh](#)
- [FFA factsheet – WFP Somalia](#)

³²² Available at: <https://box.wfp.org/public.php?service=files&t=82cc7b3062f61cb1dc307ed375c87aec&download>

³²³ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp276275.pdf

³²⁴ WFP Factsheet templates are available at: <http://go.wfp.org/web/communications/brochures-and-reports>

2.3.3. Success stories

FFA success stories are identified from the documentation of good practices and can be used in advocacy or institutional communication. The template used for the documentation of a good practice allows the identification of elements that can be used in success stories. Therefore, it is advisable that the same people conduct the documentation of good practices and success stories in order to avoid duplicating the work. WFP technical staff involved in the documentation of the good practice can liaise with the Public Information officer to flag the fact that a success story is readily available.

The content of the success story is less detailed than that of the good practice, in the sense that it focuses primarily on the induced change (the goal is to document a good result). Contrary to good practice, it should not necessarily be an innovation or an example which is 'replicable' but more a case of successful FFA implementation to be used for advocacy purposes.

Key aspects to capture (narrative)

The following are overall aspects that should be captured when documenting a good practice – these are reflected in detail in the template:

- Overview: context and rationale for intervention
- Key activities implemented and quick facts (outputs from the activities implemented)
- Key highlights/results: tangible results in terms of food security and nutrition, reduction of hardships, empowerment, etc.
- Story from the field: story from the beneficiary or government technical staff or partners
- Pictures showing 'before' and 'after' the intervention, if available
- Cross-cutting aspects – to be selected based on the key features of the success story, among: capacity development efforts, partnerships and complementarities, gender, environmental aspects, sustainability and cost-effectiveness evidence.

The [FFA Success story template](#)³²⁵ and table in **Annex 9b** clarifies audiences, purpose and roles and responsibilities for documenting good practices, lessons, and success stories.

2.3.4. Posters and infographics

Posters and infographics can be powerful advocacy tools to provide information on key FFA achievements (focusing on the types of assets and their key outputs, the number of beneficiaries, gender stats, etc.) to provide a quick reference on FFA activities through visuals that can be easily shared.

The Three-pronged Approach (3PA) posters can also be useful to sensitize and advocate with government and partners as powerful complementary tools to strengthen programming and planning process and promote partnerships, by showcasing how we work with government staff, partners, local communities and NGOs. Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) posters can also be used to support fundraising efforts, by highlighting what are the best times in the year to carry out specific activities in a given context based on livelihood, seasonal, and gender lenses.

³²⁵ Success story template available at:
http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282123.pub

Some examples of posters:

- [3PA Poster](#)³²⁶
- [ICA Poster – Zimbabwe](#)³²⁷
- [SLP Poster – Somalia \(Somaliland\)](#)³²⁸
- [SLP Poster – South Sudan \(Warrap\)](#)³²⁹

Infographic examples from other WFP activities are available below - infographics can be developed at Country level, providing an overview of key achievements per year at CO level:

- [School feeding in 2014](#)³³⁰
- [Emergency preparedness](#)³³¹

2.3.5. Pictures and videos

Pictures and videos are key to capture results and change through FFA programmes. However, these often do not reflect the diversity of FFA activities and its full potential in really making a difference. To address the lack of awareness on the diversity of its livelihoods projects, WFP Somalia CO has promoted a photo competition and received good photos that could later be used for donor and public information material. Other COs can also encourage similar efforts and increasingly collaborate with Public Information officers at CO, RB, and HQ levels to improve FFA visibility - [Somalia FFA photo contest initiative](#)³³²

As an example, a video on successful FFA activities was also produced in Guatemala in 2013, in close collaboration between the CO, RB and HQ: [‘Guatemala: a story of resilience’ video](#).³³³

³²⁶ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282119.pdf

³²⁷ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282150.pdf

³²⁸ Available at: http://resilienceinsomalia.org/index.php?option=com_mtree&task=att_download&link_id=347&cf_id=24

³²⁹ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282120.pdf

³³⁰ Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/communications/wfp276665.pdf>

³³¹ Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/newsroom/wfp276939.pdf>

³³² Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282117.pdf

³³³ Guatemala video available at: www.wfp.org/videos/guatemala-story-resilience?page=6

Chapter 10

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) for Zero Hunger and Resilient Livelihoods: A PROGRAMME GUIDANCE MANUAL



Capacity Development for FFA



World Food Programme

wfp.org

1. PRINCIPLES FOR CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT IN FFA

WFP defines capacity development (used interchangeably with capacity strengthening) as:

'A process through which individuals, organizations and societies obtain, strengthen and maintain their capabilities to set and achieve their own development over time. Capacity development is about building on existing skills, knowledge, systems and institutions to enable government to take responsibility for investing in and managing hunger solutions'

The principles stated in the 2004 [Building National and Regional capacities' WFP Policy](#)³³⁴ for building national and regional capacities are:

1. achieve sustainability through local ownership;
2. work in partnership;
3. keep a systems view;
4. build on existing capacities;
5. be accountable;
6. stay engaged in difficult circumstances; and
7. stay relevant.

An [update](#)³³⁵ to the policy in 2009 included capacity development implementation in a changing strategic and policy context. The main aspects of capacity development are reflected in Country Strategies; in Capacity Gaps and Needs Assessments related to different programmatic areas; and Specific Capacity Development Plans related to technical areas that demand specialized expertise.

With regards to FFA – capacity development is captured in the [FFA Theory of Change \(TOC\)](#)³³⁶ – notably in **Pathway 2 on Community Capacity Development**, and **Pathway 4 on Capacity Development of Government and Partners**, particularly the strategies and policies development that include assets creation for enhanced food security and nutrition

Capacity development for FFA includes capacity targeted to government institutions, community members, cooperating partners and WFP staff at different levels. It embraces direct skills enhancement (e.g. through guidance and training), knowledge sharing (e.g. through exposure to different experiences, research), and systems' strengthening and development (e.g. enhanced coordination, policy work).

There are six capacity development areas for FFA:

1. Strengthening community level institutions and groups
2. Strengthening programmatic and technical guidance
3. Strengthening programmatic and technical skills
4. Strengthening linkages with Academia and Research
5. Strengthening capacity with South-South cooperation
6. Strengthening FFA integration in strategies and policies

³³⁴ WFP. 2004. *WFP Policy on Building country and regional capacities*. Available at: www.wfp.org/sites/default/files/Building%20National%20and%20Regional%20Capacities-.pdf

³³⁵ WFP. 2009. *WFP Policy on Capacity Building- an update on Implementation*. Available at: <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfp208229.pdf>

³³⁶ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282732.pdf

2. MAIN AREAS FOR CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT FOR FFA

2.1. Strengthening community level institutions and groups

Capacity development in communities takes multiple forms. The first step in capacity development is creating community-based local level planning and development teams, after which specific capacity strengthening actions can be promoted at the community level during the course of the programme cycle - and beyond (e.g. by cooperating partners and government institutions). The type of capacity development efforts at community level can include:

2.1.1. Technical training

Training at community level entails activities such as on-the-job training, field days, dedicated partners sessions and demonstrations on a number of FFA activities for their correct design and implementation. For example, training on:

1. Design, layout and construction of specific FFA activities (e.g. including how to use basic instruments for layout, work norms, technical standards, integration requirements, etc.)
2. Establishing a community nursery and handling of trees/seedlings, and vegetative materials
3. Constructing specific assets using a variety of materials (e.g. stones, soil, vegetation, cement or local mortar, etc.)
4. Complementary partner's efforts (e.g. savings and credit schemes, irrigation methods, fruit tree grafting techniques, integrated pest management, water lifting techniques, etc.). These trainings are done as part of partner's capacity development initiatives (e.g. government training centres, FAO Farmers Field Schools, NGO's training, etc.)

Sessions need to be calendared based on the type and nature of the activities (e.g. when is the best period to implement such activities), local preferences based on seasonal tasks, and gender considerations (e.g. when is best to train specific groups that may otherwise not be available).

A few tips regarding training at community level:

- Make it practical and linked to what households, groups, and/or the entire community will perceive as tangible benefits (e.g. increased access to water, production, etc.)
- Demonstrate activities yourself as opposed to asking someone to do it on your behalf
- Show patience and repeat demonstrations in difficult spots, as required (e.g. trenches in different soils and with different design, terracing, plantation techniques, etc.)
- Training follow-up: One-off training is seldom capable to achieve the quality expected, and follow-up training is needed to verify its effectiveness and included in WFP and partner plans. For example, most soil and water conservation measures introduced in a community need careful design, layout and construction, and follow-up efforts after the training would repeat specific demonstrations to avoid any errors in construction and spacing of structures, etc.; or soil bunds and terraces along contours where some reinforcement may be required, and when and how vegetative stabilization need to take place. These and other examples demonstrate that continuous support to communities engaged in FFA is needed, particularly for activities intended to generate long term benefits (i.e. for resilience and adaptation to climate change)
- Use innovators: Identify community innovators and champions to use for on-the-job training and dissemination of good practices. Specific individuals in any community may be particularly gifted in managing water (e.g. irrigation), stone masonry, using and propagating vegetation, and other practices. Such individuals may already be known by the community or 'discovered' during the project. For example: a group of women that successfully rehabilitated a degraded gully into a productive unit with high value crops and beekeeping for income generation, etc.
- Coordinate with government staff and/or other partners for complementary activities and combined efforts

2.1.2. Awareness on relevant topics complementary to FFA

Creating awareness occurs at different stages of the programme cycle, and includes aspects that do not necessarily demand intensive training but where training may be a follow-up action.

Raising awareness has to be linked to the need to complement FFA activities **and** to induce behaviour change that can directly improve the well-being of communities and tackle the basic causes of vulnerability (i.e. Behavioural Change Communication – BCC). Some examples include awareness sessions on:

- Improved nutrition and use of specific foods
- HIVAIDS and anti-stigma efforts
- WASH
- Gender issues and aspects of solidarity mechanisms to assist most vulnerable households
- Other sessions depending on context

Awareness sessions can last a few hours or a few days, be undertaken in one or more sessions, and the duration of these interventions are usually shorter for community-level efforts than for those targeting specific household groups. Creating awareness has been found to be ineffective where there has been no follow-up with concrete actions that impact positively on the community or specific groups. For example, raising awareness on HIVAIDS (e.g. anti-stigma, voluntary testing, etc.) is often effective when done at scale (e.g. in several communities, districts, regions), through specialized personnel and volunteers, and in combination with counselling and other forms of assistance (e.g. medical) provided to affected people and families.

Awareness raising can effectively complement FFA activities, once the activities are well-established and starting to generate results (sometimes this is only after one/or a few years from the start of implementation). For example, effective watershed rehabilitation should result in the replenishment of the water table, and increases water availability for domestic and productive use – water that is now available from shallow wells or springs will be an excellent enabler of improved WASH and nutrition efforts. Regarding nutrition (and in addition to community-based nutrition interventions), the introduction and dissemination of new vegetation species often requires awareness on their potential use – e.g. new crops such as pulses, leaves, fruits, nutritious leaves from *Moringa sp*, etc. (and how to cook them), their benefits (diversifying local diets), and any disadvantages.

2.1.3. Forming Groups to manage assets and generate income

Managing community assets (such as water points, reforested areas, rehabilitated gullies, and community access roads etc.) requires people, ideally in groups, to be being trained in specific management skills to optimize the ability to maintain and use such assets to their full potential (i.e. **Asset Management groups**). Whilst the proper establishment and application of quality measures during construction will contribute to asset sustainability, it is only half the job – the other half relates to proper asset management necessary to sustain and improve measures, initiate their replication and expansion, and to generate tangible benefits by associating (specific) FFA Asset Management with income generating activities (IGAs). A good way of doing this is through the establishment of **IGA groups**.

(a) What Group formation implies

People naturally come together in large or small groups - for meetings, common interests, or cultural, social and economic functions. There are numerous traditional associations covering a large number of tasks, from assisting newly married couples to burial ceremonies and other social and religious events. Traditional group organisation can offer entry points for other initiatives to

start - for example to approve a new group composed of only women for the purpose of child care, income generation, water management, special credit schemes, etc.

However, traditional organisations may also be rather conservative and see new groups as threats to their power, thus constituting serious obstacles that may eventually become counterproductive and place parts of the community against the other. In such cases there is a need, usually from State representatives and cooperating partners, to play an interface role with local leaders. Raising awareness and promoting dialogue amongst all different stakeholders on the advantages and mutual benefits of a given initiative is often the key to success.

Group formation is a pre-requisite to any asset management and IGAs. It is a participatory exercise which may involve all or part of the community, whereby the scope and objectives of managing assets and starting IGAs is explained to all members, and where the common understanding on the need to prioritize certain groups (e.g. women, youth, etc.) is discussed, understood and endorsed.

Group formation should start from the standpoint of sustainability and local commitments as *“development initiatives will not be sustained unless beneficiaries make some form of resource commitment to support those initiatives. (George Honadle et al, 1985)”*. Any assistance should be thought of as a social contract where self-help efforts as well as commitments to manage, protect and eventually improve assets once they are established is considered as part of the agreement.

Linked to the establishment of assets, a large number of groups can be organised, formally or informally, to gather skills and resources with the main objective of improving livelihoods and access to labour opportunities, through: the restoration of assets, the acquisition of new skills related to the management of natural resources and new species, or the exchange of information on a wide range of topics, particularly markets, prices, and income generation opportunities. These are **Assets Management groups**. To ensure that IGAs are environmentally sound and based on the sustainable use of the natural resource base and the assets created, an **IGA group** can be formed to work closely with and interact with the FFA Assets Management group.

A number of group formation activities are included in **Chapter 4: Section 6** - for instance those intended to encourage and promote participation of women and the poorest households' in decision-making, the management of assets, and in accessing income generation opportunities

(b) Organizational and functional aspects of groups

The detailed work required for group formation is explained below.

- **Large groups:** A large Asset Management or IGA group usually comprises 20 to 50 individuals. If more people are interested in joining the scheme, then two or more groups can be formed. It is common practice to keep a large group within a limit of a maximum of 30 members. Large groups are particularly relevant for the management of community schemes (ponds, roads, conservation sites) rather than for IGAs, but it is also common to see large groups organized along the lines of farmer's associations or cooperatives linked to specific IGA. For example, for the cleaning, milling and sale of food and cash crops, livestock, cereal banks, beekeeping, etc. Large groups may also be comprised of an aggregation of smaller semi-independent groups that would be engaged in similar activities – for example, a number of sub-groups growing vegetables linked to another 'service' sub-group which specializes in compost making, or other functions related to packaging. etc.
- **Small or sub-groups:** Usually composed of approximately five members, these refer to small or sub-groups belonging to a larger group (4-6 sub-groups constitute a larger group). Sub-groups are semi-autonomous on a number of decisions, their members are mutually

accountable to one another (mutual-guarantee), and each will have a team leader. Small groups are usually conducive for the promotion of **IGAs** and, in addition to a team leader, should also include a treasurer.

- **Agreements:** The correct formation and management of groups is crucial, and greatly depends on leadership and how management rules are set. “*The guiding principle of correct management procedures required is that, simple is optimal*” (D. Kahan, 1998). Group formation may be constituted in a very informal manner with no or limited written statements and agreements, however those that include writing a constitution is preferable for sustainability purposes, although this requires expertise that may not be readily available locally.

The following two main agreements are examples of what can be developed for Asset Management and IGA groups (and others:

- **Sub-groups agreement:** The essential factors in a group agreement are: (i) members’ commitment to a common set of objectives; (ii) interest on gains; and (iii) a clear mutual understanding and agreement of responsibilities. These are the most important and core aspects of an agreement, as they will be the centre of gravity of all IGA and an essential binding element to make the group successful. Other factors such as group composition (social strata, leadership positions, education levels, etc.) play a role in the cohesiveness of the group, but are less important compared to the three core factors.

Each sub-group should have its own specific internal agreement or ‘constitution’ that sets the specific activities and responsibilities of each member, including the use of funds. In this regard, although each sub-group may be part of a larger group, it will have its own specific activities and use profits in different (or partially different) ways to the other sub-groups.

- **Large group Agreement:** Large groups comprise of various sub-groups. These sub-groups should draft and sign a general agreement or Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) which states the rules and set of activities that they will undertake together. It should clearly set the goals, activities, responsibilities, leadership roles, resources provision and contributions, use of external resources and self-help resources, fines and procedures for accountability, and capacity building requirements, etc. The group can also decide to use some of its capital (labour, etc.) or revenue in support to other less favoured individuals (i.e. solidarity mechanisms) and in this case sets the ‘protection mechanisms’ and modalities to interact with the whole community, and other large groups (if any). The agreement or MoU document may be registered or acknowledged by the community leadership, the local administrative institution, or by the group itself.
- **Agreements between large groups and other organizations/associations/etc.:** There are a number of IGAs that may require agreements between large groups and various institutions – e.g. large groups that undertake different IGAs, of which some can be part of specific cooperatives or other associations’ activities or businesses, such as a women’s IGA group managing a nursery may sell fruits to a cooperative, etc. In this case, each IGA group may need to adhere to the conditions set by the cooperative and sign specific contracts binding them to agreed standards, timeframes, and other responsibilities. This agreement protects both sides from potential abuse and misunderstandings.

An example of an Assets Management and IGA group Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) for the large group and a specific ‘Constitution’ for sub-groups is provided in **Annex 10a**. These formats can be used flexibly and adapted as per local conditions.

(c) Establishing Asset Management and IGA groups

- **Organisational form and processes:** Asset Management and IGA groups are locally created organisations. They implicitly convey a message of participation and interaction, '*values that are not always apparent in the traditional organisations, which are often exploitative*' (D. Kahan, 1999). WFP, partner, and government institution field staff should initiate and guide the formation of IGA groups around common areas of interest. This step can lay the foundation for members to take a higher and more responsible part in their own development.

Group formation involves stages of communication, organisation and selection:

- Explaining emerging opportunities to interested community members or groups of households, starting from the management requirements that they entail
- Inviting a self-selection of members based on their interest, gender, willingness to participate, taking co-responsibility, and ensuring the establishment of a solid group with defined objectives, functions and tasks
- Organising defined groups to receive information (training, skills upgrading, etc.), set activities and responsibilities, foster leadership, and prepare detail work plans

Each group should be organised and allowed to evolve at a pace that its members can assimilate. This process is usually slow at the beginning and considerable energy is often spent on this task. The role of field staff, particularly the agriculture extension workers and home economic agents (if any) from government, or trained staff from cooperating partners, is crucial at this stage. Adequate management and follow-up the groups' organisational structure and to monitor progress is needed, particularly in regard to the status of membership, the sharing of benefits, and potential problems related to membership discriminations. Capacity development is also crucial for those IGA that have the potential to evolve into business enterprises.

- **Group composition, size and membership:** Group formation is often geared towards homogeneous membership criteria either by gender (i.e. women, youth, elderly, etc.) or by specific objectives and activities. The group composition itself however often remains heterogeneous - e.g. women headed households can all agree on working on managing a nursery for IGA, but they can come from different wealth ranks and social status. It is important to acknowledge that local societies are complex and people show personal, religious and socio-economic differences that are highly marked (e.g. differences in education, assets possession, linkages with elites and political leaders, access to resources, etc.).

For example, a compost making group can comprise of both landless individuals and small land holders; pigeon peas or *Moringa sp* growers associations may comprise of farmers owning large plots as well as small marginal land holders, etc. For groups based on activities related to soil and water conservation, the bio-physical context will also influence both the group size and its membership (e.g. membership can be based on being part of a sub-watershed, etc.). Thus, group composition should be determined using flexibility, logic, and be based on willingness.

The issue of the size of a group and its membership is usually controversial, with some preferring small homogeneous groups (but risks high fragmentation and possible competition between groups, limited coverage and difficulties in capacity building support, etc.) rather than large groups (which could be difficult to handle, may less cohesion, and power is held by a few individuals, etc.). Thus, the choice of membership is an issue of negotiation with interested members. Some groups start small and grow big, some need to remain small, whilst others need to be large to reach an economy of scale (e.g. crop producers groups). For credit schemes, there are parameters that set minimum threshold size for different schemes.

Some examples of group composition in the context of FFA activities:

- a) For initiatives linked to income generation using rehabilitated degraded lands (e.g. area-closures or stabilised areas), a group size of 20-50 households is recommended to keep cohesion and solidarity, and maintain a sense of belonging to a land unit (sub-watershed). This size also allows for mutual support and self-help efforts to be managed easily.
 - b) Groups (or sub-groups) of 10-30 households may be preferable for IGAs such as horticulture, community nurseries, new nursery establishment around water ponds, shallow-wells and springs (to avoid competition, etc.). The group size is also limited by assets which cannot be over-exploited, for example a pond whose primary objective is to supply drinking water and thus prevent its use for other IGA's, etc.
 - c) Small sub-groups linked one to another can also be created if related to the reclamation of a gully through sedimentation & overflow dams, checkdams or similar reclamation efforts.
 - d) Groups that are established to share the use of specific inputs and tools from WFP or partners complementary efforts (e.g. P4P) should preferably remain small at the beginning (e.g. threshing machines, mills, weaving sets, water pumps, etc.), and their capacity should be thoroughly built (maintenance and management) before expansion.
 - e) The process of group formation can either be assisted by field staff or spontaneously among interested households through self-determination (preferable). Group members should be made aware about the pros and cons of the initiatives (repayment rates, contributions, obligations, potential advantages and risks, fines, etc.) before registering as members. Local leadership within groups is key for effective group formation and implementation of IGAs. This should translate into commitment, accountability, innovativeness, administrative competence and respect for opinions and suggestions of other members.
- **Timing of Group formation:** A group building process (according to studies) is divided into three periods:
 - Initiation (0-4 months): entry phase of organisation, building skills, and activity start-up
 - Evolution (4-15 months): group stabilisation (drop-outs and new entries, learning and adjustment process, evaluation of advantages and opportunities, etc.)
 - Self-reliance (15-36 months): creation of sustainable grassroots institutions (consolidation and expansion, partnerships and joint ventures, diversification and formal structure creation, etc.)

These periods are indicative and will vary depending on the type of activity and their seasonality. As part of FFA capacity development activities, the role of government and cooperating partner field staff is to create awareness on potential IGA initiatives, social mobilisation, and links between the two. Incentives, including FFA using food and/or cash-based transfers can be used as entry points for labour intensive asset creation works and to alleviate labour constraints, as well as to cover the opportunity costs of the poorest households who can rarely afford to spare time and resources.

Once groups have been established, some of them may operate for a limited period of time before evolving into more individual enterprises; other groups - while still remaining private initiatives - may continue to be co-owned and co-ordinated by the group for economic and social reasons (e.g. a major growers' association; a group promoting eco-tourism, etc.).

2.1.4. Some examples of linking FFA to IGA opportunities for Groups

1. Opportunities for IGAs around hand-dug wells and springs:

In several areas the water table is relatively high (3-8 meters below the surface) and sometimes even very high (2-3 m below the surface). Opportunities for horticulture, fruit trees, compost making, and domestic use are many, and all feasible. In other areas, the water table can rise after a few years of integrated and systematic land rehabilitation, especially if combined with water harvesting inducing measures such as trenches, infiltration pits and ponds, tree planting, etc. Hand-dug wells and spring development for productive uses can then be initiated. Hand-dug wells construction can be implemented through FFA using the pond excavation work norm, stone shaping and stone collection for the various support measures around the well.

IGAs in this case are strongly recommended, particularly for women groups that are organized to sell high value horticulture crops. Attention on market conditions and the need to diversify production to minimize risks must be given. In difficult market conditions (access, limited demand, etc.) it is suggested to increase non-perishable/less perishable crops production such as onions, garlic, chilies, and pigeon peas, etc.

The type of activities in which women could be involved through an IGA group may include:

- Specific crops growers
- Fruit trees within irrigated perimeter
- Multi-layered vegetative fencing
- Small livestock fattening
- Compost making
- Sharing of drip irrigation system
- Packaging of products using local materials (e.g. baskets, pottery, etc.)
- Beekeeping

2. Cash Crops Growers groups along conservation terraces:

A large number of opportunities that can be exploited when introducing cash crops exists, particularly in moisture deficit areas. For example growing cash crops (e.g. chilies, pigeon peas intercropped with cotton, sesame, sunflower, etc.) in planted in 1-3 meters strips near the edges of bench terraces (with the remaining part planted with staple food crops) take advantage of increased moisture, and better soil fertility and depth accumulating near the bund. This activity can also be integrated with intensive composting. Stabilization of such strips should be considered 'opportunistic' and 'cash oriented', and can be done using annual crops mixed with semi-perennials. Other examples of stabilization occurs with pigeon peas, sugar cane and banana trees.

Related to the above, local government and cooperating partner experts are needed, and should consider suggesting such changes (once they have been piloted and tested in the area) to better exploit the advantages of moisture conservation, which will result in farming systems that offer a greater diversity and combination of cash and staple crops to generate opportunities for establishing (new) IGA groups.

3. Opportunities for IGAs from integrated gully control reclamation:

Gullies can become sources of income provided an entire combination of activities are established, from large soil sedimentation and overflow dams, to rock-fill dams, stone checks, and to brush-woods, side shaping, and vegetative fencing and plantations of various trees, shrubs and cash crops. Groups of landholders (including landless and youth) can be organized to undertake such activities. The group formation size will depend on the extent and size of the gully (user) network, as well as community arrangements on matters of user rights.

4. Degraded areas rehabilitation and area closure – intensifying production:

Degraded lands rehabilitated through a variety of FFA interventions can be closed to human and livestock interference and 'allocated' to specific user groups to intensify production and IGAs. For example, portions of area closures of 20-50 hectares can be managed by groups of 20-50 households that have been granted user rights by the community. Closed areas should be newly or recently established (maximum of 2-5 years), and may also include water harvesting measures - i.e. multi-purpose trenches and eyebrow basins, multi-purpose hillside terraces, or trenches constructed and planted with multi-purpose trees and shrubs. Part of the trenches can be used for fodder production, and eyebrows to grow belts of pigeon peas and cash crops (fruit trees, etc.). Grass for roofing, or fodder production can be undertaken on embankments. Households need to be organized to sell grass, seeds and cash crops. The same group(s) can also be involved in compost making and other activities. Priority should be given to women and the poorest households.

5. Cash Crops and Conserving Crops (e.g. Pigeon Pea) – 'C4' Growers association:

Farmer groups can be organized by local government and cooperating partner staff to grow pigeon peas on bunds (annually or semi-perennial), along sowing lines (annually, every 2-3 meters), and on small plots within homesteads. This activity can be complemented by planting *Moringa sp* along fences or intermittently along bunds, and should be set up where households have a demonstrated interest in consuming and/or selling both pigeon peas and *Moringa sp leaves* (local cooperating partners, government staff, and/or home economic agents must provide training to households in this regard). In areas where interest already exist, local partners should explore and encourage the use and marketing opportunities of pigeon peas and *Moringa sp*, and organize producer groups accordingly.

6. Compost makers IGA groups:

Groups (5-20 individuals) of landless or poor farmers with small plots can be organized to prepare compost for other farmers on a contract basis (requires two pits to be constructed as part of the terms of the contract). This activity should be closely connected with other activities aimed at increasing agricultural productivity. Compost makers can create an income generation group specializing in this kind of activity for a large number of farmers.

7. Combinations:

A number of the activities mentioned above can be combined, and if local conditions allow then groups can become multi-functional.

2.1.5. Experience sharing between households and communities

Experience sharing on specific activities can be organized in communities for skilled groups or individuals to explain the 'ingredients' of success related to FFA and complementary activities. Experience sharing meets the dual purpose of:

- i) Explaining and sharing innovation that can be replicated or adopted (or adapted) by other community members; and
- ii) Building the self-esteem of the group/individual in relation to their own community. This has implications in terms of the value and appreciation given by the community to the achievements made by the group and which may boost their status and empowerment.

Three modalities³³⁷ to do this are suggested (although further setups are possible):

1. **Intra-community Field-Days:** Often a half or a full day event for community members to observe the performance of a given FFA and/or set of integrated activities done. These can involve one or more communities, group(s) or household(s) that have a common interest in asset realization. Of particular interest are those initiatives that, besides building a proper functional asset/or assets, have generated increased productivity, incomes and/or improved the overall well-being of a group. The intent of a field day is to both celebrate success and to explain the opportunities for replication/scaling up and what steps led to positive results.

Organizing a field day includes the following:

- Identifying the activities (one or more) to be undertaken and/or shown
- Identifying the resource persons - e.g. core members of the planning team, field 'champions' or groups that have excelled in a specific activity, and technical staff from local technical institutions (i.e. Ministry of Agriculture) invited to support the field day, and other relevant stakeholders (e.g. a local institution representative, traditional leader, cooperating partner staff, etc.)
- Set the itinerary – i.e. the meeting point, where it starts/ends, what to observe, possible demonstration of the activity or its results, etc.
- Invitations (e.g. through announcement in the market place, general assembly, one-to-one communication, etc.) and amenities required (e.g. food, water, shelter etc.)
- Conducting the event and identifying next steps for expansion and replication.

Field days should be organized when there is something tangible and well consolidated to observe. Therefore, activities should have withstood at least one or more rainy seasons, and for integrated efforts and measures that take time to mature, two or more years' after the implementation of the activities is preferable. For example, well managed reforested sites, stabilized areas, value chains developed as a result of restored natural resources, replenishment of water tables following proper watershed rehabilitation, etc.

Field days consisting of demonstration exercises can be organized to observe the introduction of specific techniques and approaches. These can be done as on-the-job training, are usually facilitated by technical services or partners, and often using training facilities such as FAO's Farmer Field Schools.

Important during a field day is to avoid boasting and advocating of the work without having convincing arguments, exaggerating impacts, and dismissing scepticism or constructive comments, but is an opportunity to discuss pros and cons of specific measures, particularly the details of what steps have been required to achieve an intended outcome.

³³⁷ Additional reference to experience sharing intended as knowledge management is also included in **Chapter 9.**

- 2. Inter-community Field Days:** Similar to the above, inter-community field days involve one or more community representatives/interested groups visiting and getting a hands-on briefing on exemplary efforts undertaken in another community, often a neighbouring one.

These can involve observations in two or more communities to compare the performance of different activities, or the same activities but implemented with different modalities. Such inter-community visits are opportunities to exchange knowledge, demonstrate results, and also to share plants and seeds. They differ from seed fairs and other similar 'market places' (which are also important but with a different format and scope) as they focus on natural resources management or landscape rehabilitation and related techniques and management aspects.

Organizing these exchanges is often facilitated by a technical service (e.g. Ministry of Agriculture) or by a cooperating partner interested in stimulating the adoption of a particular activity (or activities) beyond a specific location. In addition to the organizational aspects, these events may include additional costs that can be sponsored by either private contributions, and/or by programme stakeholders. These events have an advocacy and promotional purpose, and can include a calendar of follow-up actions – e.g. one community or group commits to provide hand-on technical assistance to another group or community, upon agreed dates and working arrangements.

To the extent possible, field days should not be an end in themselves and they are expected to generate spontaneous replications. Follow-up actions may include the provision of farmers-to-farmers training, and joint efforts for activities that require a coalition of communities – for example, the reclaiming a large portion of degraded land bordering a number of communities which requires agreement between all, etc.

- 3. In depth visits exchanges (peer farmers/household training and farmer-to-farmer demonstrations):** This activity may be a result of field days, or emanate from the demand of one community to another (communicated through the cooperating partner or the technical services). It involves some skilled individuals (single or in small groups) supporting another community (and community groups) on specific activities. For example in Myanmar and Ethiopia, local champions in gully rehabilitation were used to provide technical support to other farmers (within and in other communities) interested to learn and implement gully control technology. These highly skilled 'champions' were farmers who demonstrated an incredible capacity in building highly performing soil and water retention structures, and were able to spend a few days in different communities to pass this technology. These field champions served as very effective catalysts for innovative technology transfers.

Organization of sharing local level expertise entails costs that will depend on the complexity of the tasks, the materials that may be required (specific tools, planting material, etc.), and the number of days spend on site. The identification of these local 'champions' needs to be carefully undertaken and culturally gauged, including from a gender perspective.

2.2. Strengthening programmatic and technical guidance

The technical references found in this FFA guidance manual are intended to support practitioners and technical staff from government technical ministries, cooperating partners and WFP responsible for FFA. Technical guidance and specifications relevant for FFA have also been developed by partners (e.g. ILO, FAO, GIZ, other NGOs, and local Ministries of Agriculture, Water, Infrastructure, etc.) and are available through websites – a number of links to these are included in **Chapter 4**.

Three key aspects³³⁸ of guidance are critical for FFA in terms of their possible adoption as part of national or subnational/context specific guidance: (1) Guidance on Participatory Planning; (2) Guidance on technical aspects related to FFA activities (standards, norms, etc.); and (3) Guidance on measurement of results (e.g. monitoring and evaluation).

Programmatic and technical guidance found in the various Chapters of the FFA PGM can be used to develop country and context specific guidelines and information notes for WFP staff and partners.

The following are common examples of guidance developed for FFA:

- i) Standard Operating Procedures (SOP):** Guidelines often developed to regulate FFA’s activities with partners – they describe FFA’s role, planning, design, implementation and monitoring requirements in a given context. They also provide templates for participatory planning, description of work norms, list of FFA activities and technical descriptions, monitoring and reporting formats, among others. These guidelines are not compulsory but often desirable. Alternatively, excerpts from the FFA PGM can be used and rapidly adapted to each context – see this [example](#) from Senegal.³³⁹ More details on SOPs are found in **Chapter 6: Section 5**.
- ii) Technical guidelines on FFA activities:** They provide a description of FFA activities, including design standards, construction/establishment steps, maintenance/management requirements, and environmental safeguards as required. These technical manuals can be developed drawing upon: **(i)** these FFA PGM guidelines and references; **(ii)** existing design standards and protocols available in the country; and **(iii)** specific technical experience from the field. In the absence of consolidated technical reference materials, technical standards need to be developed based on the closest set of agro-climatic, soil and topographic conditions to the one where FFA is intended to be implemented. For example, in a country or region with a predominance of arid conditions and agro-pastoral livelihood systems with no FFA guidelines, the CO may draw upon **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 4** to outline a possible range of approaches and activities suitable for these areas. Any technique that may be new to these contexts (e.g. run-on/runoff systems) would need to be carefully introduced and tested first. Similarly, any guideline prepared in contexts where FFA is required should be updated and improved as experience builds-up.

The development of such technical guidance should be seen as an opportunity to consolidate partnerships with local institutions and other partners, and to develop improved national standards for activities that can serve a wide spectrum of programmes and projects using assets creation. Programmes that have different or multiple entry points such as building resilience, fostering adaptation to climate change, reducing disaster risks, and/or supporting safety nets through public works and/or community and household asset building may all target similar livelihood zones and implement common activities. National or context specific guidelines for community based participatory planning and livelihood assets creation can be proposed and developed as a multi-stakeholder effort.

For example, under the leadership and support of a leading national institution WFP with other organizations can develop specific guidelines on: **(i)** Participatory Landscape Rehabilitation and Development; **(ii)** Community-based Participatory Watershed Development; **(iii)** Soil and Water Conservation in Degraded Tropical Environments/Arid and Semi-Arid Zones/Mountainous Environments/etc.; **(iv)** Technical Standards and Work Norms for Small Community Infrastructure; **(v)** Maintenance and Management of Community Assets/Infrastructure; and **(vi)** Climate proofed Livelihood Assets Building; and **(vii)** any other context or activity specific guidance that can be used across different programmatic efforts.

³³⁸ There are many more than these three aspects – however, these three domains are the foundational elements of guidance that relates to FFA.

³³⁹ WFP Senegal, 2015. FFA Standard Operation Procedures (French). Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282764.pdf.

Promoting and developing joint and complementary efforts in guidance is a major contribution to capacity development of local and national institutions. It helps to avoid duplicating guidance material with different standards/work norms that can generate confusion or inefficiencies, and avoids competition between stakeholders to allow greater experience sharing and selecting what works better on the ground. Whilst a diversity of approaches for planning and design is important to maintain, particularly across diverse livelihood zones, seeking to harmonize such approaches and practices in each of these contexts is important.

The following key steps and elements can be considered in support to the preparation of national/context specific guidelines:

- Identification, stocktaking and review of partners' existing asset creation planning practices and technical guidance in areas of high food insecurity and recurring shocks
- Identification of existing knowledge and technical gaps related to FFA (e.g. planning approach, type and design of activities, etc.) by using the FFA PGM as a reference guide
- Identification of areas for joint guidance development
- Establishment of a technical working group under the leadership of a government institution (e.g. the Ministry of Agriculture) to develop guidance
- Identification of specialized expertise requirements, budget, timeframes and review mechanisms

Examples of harmonized guidance are cited in various sections of **Chapter 4**. For example, the **[Ethiopia Community Based Participatory Watershed Development \(CBPWD\)](#)**³⁴⁰ guidelines used across different programmes (e.g. SLM, MERET, PSNP, etc.) to plan and implement certain physical and biological soil and water conservation measures and community infrastructure assets. These guidelines were prepared in 2005 by a coalition of partners under the leadership and support of the Ethiopia Ministry of Agriculture (Natural Resources Sector) and included WFP, GIZ, USAID and ILRI who shared their approaches, lessons learned and technical experiences. The CBPWD guidelines are widely used across the country and translated into three of the main local languages. Similar approaches and guidelines have been prepared in Guatemala (**[Work Norms](#)**³⁴¹), Kenya (**[FFA Guidelines for Project Implementation Teams](#)**³⁴²), Mali (**[Repository of Technical Standards and Norms](#)**³⁴³) and Nepal (**[Small Rural Infrastructures - Technical Guidelines for Project Management and Design](#)**³⁴⁴).

iii) Specific Info-techs and materials for training and rapid reference: Examples of a rapid set of technical references are found in **Annex 4a**, intended for staff already acquainted with asset creation technicalities. Different FFA activities can also be described using a 2 to 4 page pamphlet format, posters and photographs that illustrate a particularly relevant approach or technology/technologies. Translation of these materials into local languages is often required for better dissemination and easy access by local communities.

³⁴⁰ Available at:

<ftp://bseerv214.bse.vt.edu/Dillaha/ReferenceMaterial/CommunityBasedParticipatoryWatershedDevelopmentAGuidelinePart1.pdf>.

³⁴¹ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238004.pdf.

³⁴² Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp238017.pdf.

³⁴³ Available at: http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp282734.pdf.

³⁴⁴ Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/webfragments/wfp246290.pdf>.

2.3. Strengthening programmatic and technical skills

2.3.1. Building blocks

WFP CO and SO programme staff responsible for the design of programmes that include FFA must ensure that other staff, field monitors, government staff and cooperating partners involved in FFA have the required knowledge on FFA. This knowledge can be presented in the following way:

- i) Distribution of guidance:** e.g. sections of the FFA PGM, or newly developed specific guidance
- ii) Awareness sessions and discussions:** related to the main components of the FFA PGM that are relevant for a given livelihood system. The use of power point presentations should be integrated with discussions and practical exercises (e.g. how to relate the work norms to the transfer modality and wage rate, what are the selection criteria for FFA activities in specific agro-climatic contexts, what are the key participatory planning and FFA elements, etc. including aspects related to gender, nutrition, tenure and partnerships, how to complete an FLA, etc.)
- iii) Training sessions:** these usually follow the first two points above – particularly in areas with limited capacity. A major effort is required to place government expertise in a leading role and to support local government institutions, ensuring they can actively participate in all phases of programme design, implementation and monitoring, including in the sharing of lessons learned
- iv) Provision of operational support:** equipment, training materials, budget support, expertise, etc. provided to enhance the capacity of government institutions, cooperating partners and other stakeholders responsible for delivering some or all the components of FFA programmes

A generic presentation of 'what is FFA' prepared for general awareness: <http://goo.gl/vUKdA1>.

2.3.2. Enhancing capacity for FFA Programming and Technical Areas

i) Building programme formulation and coordination capacity through the 3PA:

In many contexts where WFP works, FFA is an important programme component related to building resilience for food security and nutrition, recovery and rehabilitation (e.g. post crisis, shocks), adaptation to climate risks and social safety nets, among others. WFP should support government and partners' capacity to realize the intended outcomes of these strategies.

A major capacity gap is on the quality and ability of partnerships-based programming to layer and integrate different programmes in different contexts to deliver sustainable solutions. WFP, through the 3PA contributes to filling this gap for programming resilience building efforts. The 3PA offers a system designed to draw upon and enhance (not replace) existing government and partner information, analytical, planning, and coordination structures and approaches. Providing training on how to do and use the 3PA supports a governments' ability to integrate livelihood assets creation in national Food Security & Nutrition and Social Protection policies, Resilience and Adaptation to Climate change policies, plans, strategies and programmes.

The foreseen outcome is a gradual handover of FFA to government – or a government-led coalition of partners. Information on using the 3PA for FFA is found in **Chapter 2: Section 3.**

ii) Building capacity for FFA Technical Design and Implementation:

A number of highly food insecure and vulnerable contexts are often the ones where there are knowledge gaps and limited numbers of trained field staff in FFA. Guidance suited to the context should be developed where it does not exist (drawing on this FFA PGM and/or other partner guidance, and through a multi-stakeholder approach wherever possible) followed by training and capacity development for national institutions and WFP and cooperating partners' staff.

For example, guidance and training in an arid and semi-arid zone could cover topics such as:

- Planning approaches in arid/semi-arid areas, including gender/conflict resolution aspects
- Soil and water conservation for dry lands – focus on run-on/runoff systems
- Sand dunes stabilization
- Area based development for agro-pastoral and pastoral settings
- Diversion weirs and small irrigation schemes development
- Irish bridges/crossing points construction
- Dryland agro-forestry and management of rangelands.

These trainings (and related training materials and guidance preparation work) should be part of the standard programme cycle. This requires upfront budgeting for capacity development augmentation elements³⁴⁵ such as:

- Preparation of programmatic and technical guidance
- Awareness raising sessions at different levels
- Technical training sessions (development and delivery)
- Recruitment of specialized expertise
- Procurement of tools, materials and equipment required in relation to training (and planning, design, layout of specific FFA)

A capacity development plan can be prepared to identify key areas for capacity strengthening, including expertise, skills and financial resources needed for FFA programmes. Not that there are no standard approaches to this as every country requires its own specific capacity development plan. However, the three key elements that should always be considered first are: (1) Guidance on Participatory Planning; (2) Guidance on technical aspects related to FFA activities (standards, norms, etc.); and (3) Guidance on measurement of results (e.g. monitoring and evaluation).

Prepare a CO capacity development plan for FFA and building resilience in phases:

- **Phase 1:** internal CO and SO team’s consultations to review current capacity levels for FFA, and identify key gaps prior to further consultation with other stakeholders.
- **Phase 2:** consultations regarding capacity for FFA should be part of broader consultations for the programming of food assistance and the identification of major FFA interventions. This will include discussions with government representatives but also NGOs, other UN agencies (UNDP, FAO, WB, etc.), and selected donors. Countries that start FFA without past experience will need to ensure that a number of basic capacities are in place before starting FFA. For example, that cooperating partners and government institutions have the necessary capacity for planning and implementing the type of FFA able to resolve specific food security problems.

The following is an example of a Capacity Development plan, based on a real country scenario developed for a CO that also includes links with Academia and Research, and learning incentives for national government and institutional staff. It outlines a set of activities that can be followed:

³⁴⁵ See **Chapter 6: Section 4** on FFA Budget Planning.

Example of a CO Capacity Development plan:**1. Activity 1: Strength institutional capacity in NRM/SLM through learning opportunities of national staff/government extension workers**Sub-Activities

- 1.1. Identify XX national staff from specific departments/districts to support the planning, design, implementation and monitoring of FFA and livelihood enhancement programmes, and under the operational framework of country specific WFP and partnered operations
- 1.2. Establish partnerships with national Universities to support the access of students to 3-month summer courses and/or exchange programmes, based on scholarships available for government field staff to obtain a University Degree (e.g. BSc, MSc, etc.)
- 1.3. Train XX national staff in planning, design and data collection, surveys, information analysis, management and dissemination, etc.
- 1.4. Proposal development, advocacy and fund raising for the initiative
- 1.5. Based on funds, provision of support to national staff deployed in specific WFP assisted communities during the regular follow-up of FFA and other complementary interventions
- 1.6. Select relevant NRM/SLM topics for inclusion in each staff's research work for graduation dissertation and work plans aligned to programme cycle implementation
- 1.7. Monitor national staff performance and engagement at community level.

2. Activity 2: Links with Academia to promote student engagement in support to WFP resilience programmes throughout the programme cycleSub-Activities

- 2.1. Develop a country based WFP-Academia joint research agenda in NRM/SLM linked to WFP's FFA programmes targeting specific areas. Each selected area requires one or more CBPP or equivalent exercise, and constitute the operational environment where each student will undertake supportive research and data collection work
- 2.2. Proposal development, advocacy and fund raising for the initiative
- 2.3. Based on funds, secondment of XX University students in each identified country to support specific research agendas (e.g. through BSc, MSc, and Ph.D.) and projects of interest
- 2.4. As appropriate and within their respective research agendas, students develop and maintain a mechanism for GIS mapping and survey methods able to track vegetation changes over time (5 year period) in a number of project locations. These will provide specific accounts on vegetation diversification and biomass regeneration (species of trees/shrubs/grasses), soil erosion, changes in type of fauna, and changes in activities related to the sustainable use of natural resources, among others (this will be project specific).
- 2.5. Completed research and related reports documented, and shared.

3. Activity 3: Strengthen Regional cooperation and knowledge sharing on NRM/SLM through South-South Cooperation (SSC)Sub-Activities

- 3.1. Identify regional SSC opportunities to exchange knowledge and experiences related to NRM/SLM for resilience and climate change adaptation
- 3.2. Support regional study-tours/workshops/training in technical practices in different agro-ecological/livelihood contexts - i.e. agro-forestry, soil conservation, water-harvesting, etc.
- 3.3. Organize workshop(s) in specific topics to share good practices, lessons learned and discuss challenges faced when implementing FFA or related technical activities

2.4. Strengthening linkages with Academia and Research

Partnerships with Academia and Research Institutes can become a powerful capacity development incentive for local institutions engaged in asset creation programmes, particularly those staff deployed in remote and difficult locations. The following are two main approaches suggested for strengthening local and national capacities in FFA and related technical fields.

2.4.1. Educational incentives linked to asset creation programmes

In most contexts, WFP seeks to involve government institutions and their technical staff at all stages of the programme cycle - i.e. in the design, implementation and follow-up of various landscape restoration and livelihoods enhancement activities. These field staff often manage to effectively engage with communities and develop a sense of responsibility and ownership. However, hardships (in terms of difficult contexts and environments with complex landscapes) combined with lack of educational or training opportunities to grow professionally and at times insufficient salaries, usually force staff to undergo rapid rotations and turnover. This can negatively impact on the long-term investment in time that sustainable natural resource management requires in terms of patience, relationship building, follow-up, and evidence learning of staff.

Upgrading individual skills through educational incentives can enable dedicated and best performing national staff to access distant learning courses or country specific summer courses and/or inter-country learning while based for a minimum of 3 to 5 years in difficult and food insecure locations. The availability of educational incentives to boost motivation for staff in difficult locations can be extraordinarily important, combined with the realization that tangible progress on the ground is also rewarding from a professional and career advancement perspective.

Example of good practice: In Ethiopia, 42 district-level officers from the Ministry of Agriculture assisting WFP-supported participatory watershed development activities through FFA were given the opportunity to attend 3-month summer courses each year for four years, obtaining their BSc in a variety of technical fields such as soil conservation, water engineering and forestry. These staff performed extremely well at the field level and managed to deeply engage with communities, developing a major sense of responsibility and local ownership towards FFA realizations. Costs of such an effort were relatively modest, particularly when compared to individual and FFA achievements.

2.4.2. Enabling University students to support research in FFA sites

To both strengthen capacities and support the documentation of good practices and lessons learned, initiatives can be created where students from national Universities support specific research agendas linked to asset creation programmes – e.g. FFA provided for natural resources management, resilience and adaptation to climate change, gender-based sustainable management of ecosystems, and other projects of interest. Links with Academia (i.e. national Universities) can be established to promote student support to WFP programmes throughout the programme cycle.

Students may be involved in piloting specific FFA activities related to innovative design and integration, or in collecting data/information for research and documentation (including through GIS and other measurement technologies). This can help to document land use changes in FFA sites over time, and good practices in sustainable land management, for example.

Through such initiatives lessons learned from research can trigger greater engagement of national staff in natural resource and sustainable land management efforts, drawing attention from partners to replicate and scale-up similar programmes, including from government-led sponsorships.

2.4.3. Link up with Research Institutes for knowledge sharing

There are other activities that can increase the exchange of technical knowledge and expertise in research related to ecosystems and livelihoods, food security and nutrition, building resilience, and climate change adaptation, among others.

The following could be promoted by WFP and partners with research institutes.

- Conduct regional study-tours or workshops to have specific hands-on training on technical practices in different agro-ecological and livelihoods contexts - i.e. agroforestry, soil conservation and water harvesting, etc.
- Organize seminars in specific topics to share good practices, lessons learned and discuss challenges faced when implementing FFA or related technical activities
- Provide planting/vegetative materials (e.g. grafted fruit trees, cuttings, seeds, etc.)
- Prepare, in partnership with Research Institutes, concept notes and funding proposals related to relevant research topics.

Useful References:

- a) **CGIAR Consortium**³⁴⁶ includes 15 Research Institutes, of which the **World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF)**³⁴⁷, the **Centre of International Forest**³⁴⁸, the **International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA)**³⁴⁹, and the **International Water Management Institute (IWMI)**³⁵⁰ are focusing on the sustainable use of water and land resources in developing countries. CGIAR could be of interest for specific technical collaboration.
- b) UN Agencies offers a number of free online courses in several topics related to Natural Resource Management, food security and nutrition, resilience – e.g. the **United Nations Institute for Training and Research**³⁵¹ (UNITAR) and **FAO**³⁵².
- c) Universities centres – such as the **Water and Land Resource Centre (WLRC) or the Centre for Development and Environment (CDE)**³⁵³ of University of Bern, Switzerland which undertake specific studies related to Natural Resource Management/Sustainable Land Management (NRM/SLM) in Ethiopia.

³⁴⁶ Available at: www.cgiar.org/

³⁴⁷ Available at: www.worldagroforestry.org/

³⁴⁸ Available at: www.cifor.org/

³⁴⁹ Available at: www.iita.org/

³⁵⁰ Available at: www.iwmi.cgiar.org/

³⁵¹ Available at: www.unitar.org/

³⁵² Available at: www.fao.org/home/en/

³⁵³ Available at: www.wlrc-eth.org/

2.5. Strengthening capacity with South-South Co-operation

When it comes to strengthening country capacities in FFA, WFP has different options at hand. One of them is through South-South and triangular cooperation (SSC).

What is South-South and Triangular Co-operation?

South-South cooperation (SSC) is a process whereby two or more developing countries pursue their individual and/or shared national objectives through exchanges of knowledge, skills, resources and technical know-how. It includes regional and inter-regional collective actions ([UN definition](#))³⁵⁴. When countries and multilateral organizations (e.g. WFP) facilitate South-South initiatives through the provision of funding, training, management and technological systems as well as other forms of support, this is triangular cooperation.

South-South co-operation as a means of developing capacities in FFA

In the context of FFA, South-South cooperation is a means to advance country-led efforts in FFA by tapping into the existing expertise, skills and capacities of other developing countries. Most South-South initiatives contribute to developing national capacities. They may address a sector-specific gap in FFA (technical expertise, knowledge, skills or technologies, or resources), by bringing in 'solutions' that have worked in similar country settings. Upon country demand, WFP and partners can help countries to explore these different options, and then help to implement the one that fits their context best.

2.6. Strengthening FFA integration in strategies and policies

Asset creation can be a component of the following strategies and policies in any given country:

- Poverty Reduction and Rural Development Strategies
- Disaster Risk Management Strategies and/or Policies
- National Adaptation to Climate Change Plans
- Food Security and Nutrition Policies and Strategies
- Social Protection Policies and Strategies and related Safety Nets Programmes
- Resilience Strategies
- Agriculture and Environmental Policies and Strategies
- Others as required

Depending on the local context, asset creation programming and specific technical approaches may influence or become a major feature of strategic and policy efforts. These are particularly relevant for countries that develop strategies and policies to eliminate hunger and address the underlying causes of food insecurity and exposure to shocks and stressors.

For example, asset creation may be a prerequisite to restore vast areas of degraded lands where the majority of vulnerable populations reside, and to focus on activities integrated and complementary activities such as water harvesting, agro-forestry, and access to markets, etc. The same applies where the nexus between land degradation, climate, conflict and food insecurity is also increasingly acknowledged as a crisis amplifier.

The following are a few key entry points in policy dialogue and strategy development for which the role of asset creation (and potentially of a coalition of partners) is required:

³⁵⁴ Available at: http://ssc.undp.org/content/ssc/about/what_is_ssc.html

Table 10.1 - Key entry points in policy dialogue and strategy development for which the role of asset creation is required

| Entry points for assets creation in strategy and policy development | Resulting processes and building blocks that influence strategy and policy dialogue | Policy and strategy areas that may include assets creation |
|--|---|--|
| <p><u>1. Analysis and Programming tools:</u></p> <p>a) Use of the Integrated Context Analysis (ICA) to show trends and correlations between land degradation, exposure to shocks, food insecurity and malnutrition.</p> <p>b) Specific ICA analysis zooms in areas of significant interest for detailed analyses (e.g. rapid deforestation trends, episodes of social tensions, increased recurrence of pests, etc.)</p> <p>c) Undertaking Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) exercises at decentralized level, to define main programme areas for asset creation (e.g. NRM, agriculture, community infrastructure, household assets, etc.) and other complementary interventions supporting livelihood strategies and in the context of shocks.</p> <p>d) Undertaking CBPP (or equivalent) in areas of recurring shocks and persistent food insecurity and malnutrition – layering and integrating FFA activities sequenced along seasonal livelihood calendars</p> | <p>1.1. Building on the entry points (left), dialogue is strengthened with government at all levels and with other stakeholders (UN, donors, NGOs, etc.) to develop and deliver a combination of social safety nets and livelihood assets restoration and rehabilitation (e.g. SLM) programmes.</p> <p>1.2. Multi-stakeholder working groups can be established to develop context specific resilience building, CCA, and/or related social and productive safety nets combined with livelihood enhancement interventions. In a number of contexts these should particularly relate to NRM/SLM, as well as community and household based resilience building interventions.</p> | <p>A. Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition strategies, including climate change national adaptation plans (NAP) which recognize the central role of assets creation and layered complementary interventions (partnerships).</p> <p>B. Livelihood Assets – particularly related to NRM/SLM included in National Poverty Reduction Plans, Ending Emergencies strategies, Food Security and Nutrition policies, Social Protection policies and Safety Nets programmes, etc.</p> <p>C. A gender perspective in strategy and policy formulation may be enhanced as a result of greater attention to reduction of hardships and empowerment of women and vulnerable groups generated from FFA planning and interventions.</p> |
| <p><u>2. Complementary programmes and guidance</u></p> <p>a) Promoting joint and/or complementary programmes can inform policy and strategic debate on resilience, adaptation to climate change, and safety nets – for example using lessons learned from well-developed FFA experience in specific areas, particularly where participatory (e.g. through CBPP), well-integrated (e.g. with the RBA) and scaled-up livelihood assets are created and/or established.</p> | <p>Coalition of partners formed to replicate programmes for resilience and/or safety nets that include assets creation at scale – and able to ensure:</p> <p>2.1. a combination of short, medium and long term responses in areas facing recurrent shocks and high levels of food insecurity and malnutrition; and</p> | <p>D. Enhanced national protocols and guidelines related to a number of livelihood assets and complementary interventions included in national extension services and academic curricula.</p> |

| Entry points for assets creation in strategy and policy development | Resulting processes and building blocks that influence strategy and policy dialogue | Policy and strategy areas that may include assets creation |
|--|---|---|
| <p>b) Development of guidelines related to asset creation, including in contexts of high levels of food insecurity and recurrent shocks (e.g. watershed planning and implementation; soil and water conservation, water harvesting, household and community small-scale productive infrastructure, agro-forestry, flood control, etc.)</p> | <p>2.2. a combination of social safety nets and livelihood assets creation to restore the functioning of ecosystems, rehabilitate productive infrastructure and empower vulnerable groups.</p> <p>2.3. National guidelines related to assets creation, standards and work norms are developed (e.g. a set of activities by livelihood zone, participatory planning approach is harmonized, climate proof technical standards and work norms, etc.)</p> | <p>E. Policies and strategies are reviewed based on context and lessons learned (e.g. based on measurement of outcomes and impact of programmes and interventions).</p> |
| <p>3. Measurement tools:</p> <p>a) Establishing of monitoring and evaluation systems linked to an FFA Theory of Change to provide the foundations for enhanced strategy and programme formulation, implementation, and tracking of performance results.</p> <p>b) Establishing links with Research, Universities and Academia to enhance field engagement; development of case studies and sharing of good practices.</p> | <p>3.1. An evidence based approach is established that documents livelihood gains (e.g. using a Theory of Change and related monitoring frameworks).</p> <p>In turn, lessons learned from asset building programmes (that may include public works) provide inputs into the review of national strategies and programmes</p> <p>3.2. Research agenda provides evidence on the nexus between food insecurity, ecosystems degradation, and recurrence of shocks and stressors</p> | |

GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

Capacity development for Food Assistance for Assets (FFA): This entails transferring the skills and building the capacity of local and national governments, and partners that implement FFA, on the FFA approach to planning, design, implementation, and all other aspects related to the activity, including the development of local and context-specific guidance on work norms, good practices, and integration of FFA in specific country strategies. Capacity development in this regard can either be included within and as part of an FFA programme, or as a separate capacity development activity in FFA that specifically targets Government and partners, depending on the WFP country strategy and programme portfolio (in: **Chapter 1**).

Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP): A community level participatory exercise to empower vulnerable communities and women, build a shared understanding of livelihoods, landscapes, shocks and stresses, vulnerabilities and priority needs, and to develop a multi-sectorial action plans tailored to the local context (in: **Chapter 2**).

Environmental degradation: Can be defined as the progressive reduction of the capacity of the land, and the features it contains, to sustain life and provide food security (in: **Annex 1b**).

Food Assistance for Assets (FFA): One of WFP's key programmes for providing food assistance to the most vulnerable, using food and cash-based transfers to support households and communities in asset creation activities such as repairing irrigation systems, building bridges, soil conservation, and establishing community granaries. WFP's FFA programmes help meet the immediate food needs of food insecure people whilst building assets helping them strengthen their livelihoods, reduce the risks from natural disasters, and make them and their communities more resilient to shocks (in: **Chapter 1**).

Gender equality: The state in which women and men enjoy equal rights, opportunities and entitlements. For WFP, promoting gender equality means providing food assistance in ways that assign equal value to women and men while respecting their differences. The treatment of women and men should be impartial and relevant to their respective needs (in: [WFP, 2015. WFP Gender Policy 2015-2020](#)³⁵⁵).

Good practices: A practice that has been proven to work well and produce good results, and is therefore recommended as a model. It is a successful experience, which has been tested and validated, [...] which has been repeated and deserves to be shared so that a greater number of people can adopt it (in: [FAO, 2013. Good practices at FAO: Experience capitalization for continuous learning](#)³⁵⁶, in: **Chapter 9**).

Livelihood: A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets, and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (in: **Chapter 1**).

(Livelihood) assets: Resources or capitals that people draw upon to make a living, categorized into the following five categories: **(i)** human capital: skills, knowledge, health and ability to work; **(ii)** social capital: social resources, including informal networks, membership of formalized groups and relationships of trust that facilitate cooperation and economic opportunities; **(iii)** natural capital: natural resources such as land, soil, water, forests and fisheries; **(iv)** physical capital: basic infrastructure, such as roads, water & sanitation, schools,

³⁵⁵ WFP, 2015. WFP Gender Policy 2015-2020. Available at:

<http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc063829.pdf>.

³⁵⁶ FAO, 2013. Good practices at FAO: Experience capitalization for continuous learning. Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/017/ap784e/ap784e.pdf.

ICT; and producer goods, including tools, livestock and equipment; and **(v)** financial capital: financial resources including savings, credit, and income from employment, trade and remittances (adapted from: **Chapter 1**).

Indicator: Quantitative or qualitative factor or variable that provides a simple and reliable means to measure achievement or to reflect the changes connected to a WFP operation (in: [WFP, sa. Monitoring and Evaluation wiki – Glossary](#)³⁵⁷).

Integrated Context Analysis (ICA): Carried out at the national level, the ICA is a collaborative and consultative programming tool that helps orient geographic prioritization for intervention based on where different levels of recurrence of food insecurity and natural shocks have historically overlapped. It is used to inform strategic programmatic decision-making in specific geographical areas in resilience, disaster risk reduction, social protection, and preparedness actions (in: **Chapter 2**).

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs): Persons or groups of persons who have been forced to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights, or natural or man-made disasters, and who have not crossed an international border (in: [UNHCR, 2015. Forced displacements in 2014](#)³⁵⁸, in: **Chapter 5**).

Lesson learned: Documents the experience gained during a project. These lessons come from working with or solving real-world problems. Collecting and disseminating lessons learned helps to eliminate the occurrence of the same problems in future projects (in: **Chapter 9**).

Outcome: The intended or achieved short term and medium term effects of an intervention's outputs. Outcomes represent the changes in conditions that occur between the completion of outputs and achievement of impact. It relates to the purpose level of the log frame hierarchy (in: [WFP, sa. Monitoring and Evaluation wiki – Glossary](#)³⁵⁹).

Output: The products, capital goods and services which result from a WFP operation (including participants/beneficiaries). They include changes resulting from the operation which are relevant to the achievement of outcomes and relate to the output level of the log frame hierarchy (in: [WFP, sa. Monitoring and Evaluation wiki – Glossary](#)³⁶⁰).

Productivity work norms: Associated to each asset that is to be created through FFA, productivity work norms indicate the number of outputs or work units, by FFA intervention (or sub-intervention), expected from an FFA participant (or a defined number of FFA participants), within a required timeframe (e.g. per day), in line with the required qualitative technical standards, and depending on the FFA project and context (in: **Chapter 6**).

Project Document Review: A technical review of the project document by means of an electronic programme review process (e-PRP) in the System for Project Approval (SPA) (in: **Chapter 8**).

Refugees: Individuals recognized under the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, its 1967 Protocol, the 1969 Organization of African Unity (OAU) Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, those recognized in accordance with the UNHCR Statute, individuals granted complementary forms of protection, and those enjoying temporary protection. The refugee population also includes persons in refugee-like situations (in: [UNHCR, 2015. Forced displacements in 2014](#)³⁶¹, in: **Chapter 5**).

³⁵⁷ WFP, sa. Monitoring and Evaluation wiki – Glossary. Available at: http://wiki.wfp.org/M_and_E/index.php/Glossary2014-2017.

³⁵⁸ UNHCR, 2015. Forced displacements in 2014. Available at: <http://unhcr.org/556725e69.html>.

³⁵⁹ WFP, sa. Monitoring and Evaluation wiki – Glossary. Available at: http://wiki.wfp.org/M_and_E/index.php/Glossary2014-2017.

³⁶⁰ WFP, sa. Monitoring and Evaluation wiki – Glossary. Available at: http://wiki.wfp.org/M_and_E/index.php/Glossary2014-2017.

³⁶¹ UNHCR, 2015. Forced displacements in 2014. Available at: <http://unhcr.org/556725e69.html>.

Resilience: Resilience can be defined as the capacity to ensure that shocks and stressors do not have long-lasting adverse development consequences (in: [WFP, 2015. Policy on Building Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition](#)³⁶²).

Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP): Carried out at the sub-national level, it is a consultative process that brings together communities, government, and partners to develop a shared understanding of the context and to highlight which ongoing programmes should be implemented when, for whom, and by which partners, during typical and crisis years and identify programme gaps. This dialogue aims to strengthen operational plans across multiple sectors and institutions, to inform resilience-building, productive safety nets and other relevant agendas, and to enhance partnerships and coordination (in: **Chapter 2**).

Self-reliance: The ability of individuals, households or communities to meet their essential needs and enjoy social and economic rights in a sustainable manner and with dignity (in: [UNHCR, 2014. Global Strategy for Livelihoods 2014-2015](#)³⁶³, in: **Chapter 5**).

Shocks and stresses: 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 (in: [Chambers and Conway, 1991. Sustainable rural livelihoods: practical concepts for the 21st century](#)³⁶⁴).

Standard Operating Procedures (SOP), also called Country Office FFA Operational Guidelines: is a good practice and a very important context specific reference aiming to ensure that FFA activities are implemented in line with the intended objectives and expected standards, where key steps and the roles of each party are described (in: **Chapter 6**).

Standard Project Report (SPR): An annual project performance report that serves as a repository of institutional knowledge of the project, contributes to WFP's annual corporate statistics and Annual Performance Report (APR), and is a reflection of management results, while fulfilling a key contractual agreement with donors (in: **Chapter 8**).

Success stories: FFA success stories are identified from the documentation of good practices and can be used in advocacy or institutional communication. Its goal is to document a good result. Contrary to good practice, it should not necessarily be an innovation or an example which is "replicable", but more a case of successful FFA implementation to be used for advocacy purposes (in: **Chapter 9**).

Technical Assistance: Non-financial assistance provided by local or international specialists. The technical assistance focuses on particular needs and priorities identified by the beneficiary country and takes the form of missions carried out by recognized experts. It can take the form of sharing information and expertise in the form of secondment or short-term consultation, instruction, skills training, transmission of working knowledge, and consulting services and may also involve the transfer of technical data. WFP technical assistance helps countries develop effective institutions, legal and policy frameworks, programme design and management, strategic planning and financing, and continuity and sustainability to end hunger. The aim of technical assistance is to maximize the quality of project implementation and outcomes by supporting institutions, policy and legislation, programme design and management, programme financing and sustainability in WFP's core areas (in: [WFP, 2015. The Design and Implementation of Technical Assistance and Capacity Development](#)³⁶⁵).

³⁶² WFP, 2015. Policy on Building Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition. Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc063833.pdf>.

³⁶³ UNHCR, 2014. Global Strategy for Livelihoods 2014-2015. Available at: www.unhcr.org/530f107b6.pdf.

³⁶⁴ Chambers and Conway, 1991. Sustainable rural livelihoods: practical concepts for the 21st century. Available at: www.ids.ac.uk/files/Dp296.pdf.

³⁶⁵ WFP, 2015. The Design and Implementation of Technical Assistance and Capacity Development. Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/forms/wfp267077.pdf>.

Technical guidelines on FFA activities: They provide a description of FFA activities, inclusive of design standards, construction/establishment steps, maintenance and management requirements, and environmental safeguards as required (in: **Chapter 10**).

Three-Pronged Approach (3PA): An innovative programming approach developed by WFP in consultation with governments and partners to strengthen the planning and design of resilience building, productive safety nets, disaster risk reduction, and preparedness programmes. It informs plans and policies, promotes operational partnerships, and strengthens the design and planning of long-term programmes. The 3PA brings people, governments and partners together to identify context-specific actions required, using converging analyses, consultations, and participatory approaches. It is made up of three processes that take place at different levels: Integrated Context Analysis (ICA) at the national level; Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) at the sub-national level; and Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP) at the local level (in: [WFP, 2015. WFP's Three-Pronged Approach factsheet](#)³⁶⁶).

Urban: For the purpose of FFA, “urban” can be understood as any built-up area where livelihoods are not primarily based on the utilization of the natural resource base. In urban areas, pastoralist and agrarian livelihoods are less present – or simply absent – whereas the secondary and tertiary sectors are more prominent (cash-based economy). Urban income is primarily based on employment rather than food production (in: **Chapter 5**).

Women’s empowerment: Process through which women achieve choice, power, options, control and agency in their own lives. It is a goal in its own right. To be empowered, women must have not only equal capabilities and equal access to resources and opportunities to those of men, but also the ability to use these rights and opportunities to make choices and decisions as full and equal members of society. For WFP, this means that food assistance policies and programmes must create conditions that facilitate, and do not undermine, the possibilities for women’s empowerment (in: [WFP, 2015. WFP Gender Policy 2015-2020](#)³⁶⁷).

Working days: The number of required working days based on the food gap (including nutrient gap) for any participating household can be easily obtained by dividing the share of the food gap to be covered through FFA by the daily transfer value (in: **Chapter 7**).

³⁶⁶ WFP, 2015. WFP’s Three-Pronged Approach factsheet - November 2015. Available at: http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp276340.pdf.

³⁶⁷ WFP, 2015. WFP Gender Policy 2015-2020. Available at: <http://docustore.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/eb/wfpdoc063829.pdf>.

ACRONYMS

| | |
|----------------|--|
| 3PA | Three-Pronged Approach |
| AAP | Accountability to Affected Populations |
| APR | Annual Performance Report |
| BCC | Behavioural Change Communication |
| C&V | Cash and Vouchers |
| CAADP | Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme |
| CAAP | Commitments on Accountability to Affected People |
| CAS | Community Asset Score |
| CBA | Cost-Benefit Analysis |
| CBPP | Community-based Participatory Planning |
| CBPWD | Community-Based Participatory Watershed Development |
| CCA | Climate Change Adaptation |
| CD | Capacity Development |
| CFSVA | Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis |
| CFW | Cash-For-Work |
| CGIAR | Consultative Group for International Agricultural Research |
| CHILD | Children in Local Development |
| CO | Country Office |
| COMET | Country Office Monitoring and Evaluation Tool |
| CP | Country Programme |
| CRF | Corporate Results Framework |
| CSI | Coping Strategy Index |
| CSP | Country Strategy Paper |
| DACOTA | Data Collection for WFP Reports |
| DDS | Dietary Diversity Score |
| DE | Decentralised Evaluation |
| DEV | Development Operation |
| DFID | Department for International Development |
| DMC | Drought Management Cycle |
| DRR | Disaster Risk Reduction |
| DRR/DRM | Disaster Risk Reduction/Management |
| DSC | Direct Support Costs |
| DW | Decent work |
| DWA | Decent Work Agenda |
| EB | Executive Board |
| EFSA | Emergency Food Security Assessment |
| EMOP | Emergency Operation |
| e-PRP | Electronic Programme Review Process |

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| EU | European union |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organization |
| FCS | Food Consumption Score |
| FEWSNET | Famine Early Warning System Network |
| FFA | Food assistance For Assets |
| FFA PGM | Food Assistance for Assets Programme Guidance Manual |
| FFS | Farmer Field School |
| FFT | Food Assistance for Training |
| FFW | Food for Work |
| FLA | Field Level Agreements |
| FoodSECuRE | Food Security Climate Resilience |
| FS&N | Food Security and Nutrition |
| FSIN | Food Security Information Network |
| FSMS | Food Security Monitoring Systems |
| FTC | Farmer Training Centre |
| GFD | General Food Distribution |
| GIS | Geographical Information System |
| GIZ | Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit |
| GPS | Global Positioning System |
| GTZ | German Technical Cooperation Agency |
| HAS | Household Asset Score |
| HEA | Household Economy Analysis |
| HFA | Hyogo Framework for Action 2005 – 2015 |
| HH | Household |
| HQ | Headquarters |
| HR | Human Resources |
| IASC | Inter-Agency Standing Committee |
| ICA | Integrated Context Analysis |
| ICRAF | World Agroforestry Centre |
| ICT | Information and Communication Technology |
| IDP | Internally displaced persons |
| IFAD | International Fund for Agricultural Development |
| IFPRI | International Food Policy Research Institute |
| IGA | Income Generating Activities |
| ILO | International Labour Organization |
| ILRI | International Livestock Research Institute |
| IPC | Integrated Phase Classification |
| ISDR | International Strategy for Disaster Management |
| IT | Information Technology |
| IUCN | International Union for Conservation of Nature |

| | |
|----------------|--|
| IWMI | International Water Management Institute |
| JAM | Joint Assessment Mission |
| LTSH | Landslide Transport Storage and Handling |
| M&E | Monitoring and Evaluation |
| MDG | Millennium Development Goals |
| MERET | Managing Environmental Resources to Enable Transitions |
| MINAGRI | Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources (Rwanda) |
| MOA | Ministry of Agriculture |
| MOARD | Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (Ethiopia) |
| MOE | Ministry of Environment |
| MOPA | Ministry of Public Administration |
| MOU | Memorandum of Understanding |
| NAP | National Adaptation Plan |
| NFIs | Non-Food Items |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organisation |
| NR | Natural Resources |
| NRM | Natural Resource Management |
| ODOC | Other Direct Operational Costs |
| OSZPR | Asset Creation and Livelihoods |
| P4P | Purchase for Progress |
| PDM | Post-Distribution Monitoring |
| PDNA | Post Disaster Needs Assessment |
| PGM | Programme Guidance Manual |
| PI | Public Information |
| PLI | Pastoral Livelihoods Initiative |
| PLW | Pregnant and Lactating Women |
| PRA | Participatory Rural Appraisal |
| PRP | Programme Review Process |
| PRRO | Protracted Relief and Recovery Operation |
| PSNP | Productive Safety Net Programme |
| PW | Public Works |
| R4 | R4 Rural Resilience Initiative |
| RB | Regional Bureaux |
| RBA | Rome-based Agencies |
| RCSI | Reduced Coping Strategy Index |
| RMP | Performance Management and Monitoring Division |
| SAFE | Safe Access to Firewood and Energy |
| SCOPE | WFP's beneficiary and transfer management platform |
| SDG | Sustainable Development Goals |
| SLM | Sustainable Land Management |

| | |
|---------------|--|
| SLP | Seasonal Livelihood Programming |
| SMART | Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, and Time bound |
| SN | Safety Nets |
| SO | Sub-office |
| SOP | Standard Operational Procedures |
| SPA | System for Project Approval |
| SPR | Standard Project Report |
| S-PRP | Strategic Programme Review Process |
| SRF | Strategic Results Framework |
| SSC | South-South Cooperation |
| SSD | Soil Sedimentation and overflow Dams |
| SWC | Soil and Water Conservation |
| TOC | Theory of Change |
| TOT | Training of Trainers |
| TSCT | Technical Support Core Team |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| UNFCCC | United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change |
| UNHCR | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees |
| UNICEF | The United Nations Children's Emergency Fund |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development |
| VAC | Vulnerability Assessment Committee's |
| VAM | WFP's Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping |
| WASH | Water, Sanitation and Hygiene |
| WB | World Bank |
| WFP | World Food Programme |
| WOCAT | World Overview of Conservation Approaches and Technologies |

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 - Outline of FFA asset classification

Table 1.2 - FFA's contribution to resilience through the three capacities

Table 2.1 - Generic descriptions of ICA categories/ areas

Table 2.2 - How to use FFA categories to inform FFA

Table 2.3 - Estimating FFA beneficiaries target groups

Table 3.1 - Participatory Planning Basic Features

Table 3.2 - Participatory planning methods in relation to capacity

Table 3.3 - Examples of key participatory planning approaches relevant for FFA

Table 3.4 - Ways to address targeting and technical logic

Table 3.5 - Role of Participatory Planning for mainstreaming Decent Work

Table 4.1 - Main FFA intervention areas and activities

Table 4.2 - Potential interventions and the role of FFA in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas

Table 4.3 - Technical description of key FFA interventions in arid and semi-arid areas

Table 4.4 - FFA activities with potential impact to strengthen gender equality and empowerment of women and girls

Table 4.5 - Menu of possible FFA interventions by focus groups, complementary measures with partners

Table 5.1 - Typology of urban settings for FFA purposes

Table 5.2 - Urban analytical grid

Table 5.3 - Typology of displacement settings for FFA purposes

Table 6.1 - Level of investment in FFA per average community (hypothetical example)

Table 6.2 - Example of planning hand tools

Table 6.3 - Key surveying and layout equipment for main FFA interventions

Table 7.1 - Different potential uses of the TOC

Table 7.2 - Overview of corporate outcomes relevant to FFA activities as described in the 2014-2017 SRF

Table 7.3 - Other indicators are useful to improve and strengthen the design, implementation, adjustment of FFA activities

Table 7.4 - Data quality dimensions

Table 9.1 - Overview of the objectives and key content and audiences of good practices and lessons learned

Table 10.1 - Key entry points in policy dialogue and strategy development for which the role of asset creation is required

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 - FFA and SDG 2

Figure 1.2 - Sendai Framework Priorities and FFA contributions

Figure 2.1 - 3PA: how to use it and linkages between the tools

Figure 2.2 - 3PA timeline

Figure 2.3 - 2015 Malawi ICA map

Figure 2.4 - SLP Seasonal Livelihood Calendar – example from Warrap State, South Sudan

Figure 2.5 - SLP Seasonal Livelihoods Calendar: Typical Year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.6 - SLP Seasonal Livelihood Calendar: ‘Trigger months’ – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.7 - SLP Seasonal Livelihoods Calendar: Bad year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.8 - SLP Seasonal Livelihood Calendar: Typical and bad year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.9 - ‘Zoom-in’ showing SLP Programme lenses for typical and bad years

Figure 2.10 - SLP Programme lenses: Typical and bad year – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.11 - SLP Programme activities and Programme opportunities/gaps – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.12 - Typical Year programme activities for Agro-pastoralists aligned with programme lenses in Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.13 - Aligning the 3-pillared WFP, FAO, UNICEF Somalia Resilience Strategy through an SLP (Somaliland SLP 2012) – Programmes by agency

Figure 2.14 - Household vulnerability groups

Figure 2.15 - SLP Programme activities, target groups, and partners – example from Warrap State, South Sudan (SLP 2013)

Figure 2.16 - An example of convergence between FFA, Nutrition, and School Meals

Figure 3.1 - CBPP exercise

Figure 3.2 - Steps included in a CBPP

Figure 3.3 - Example of community watershed relationships

Figure 3.4 - Major watershed and land use

Figure 3.5 - An example of 3 communities which are part of a common sub-watershed, Ethiopia

Figure 3.6 - Flood prone area in a cluster of villages, Bangladesh

Figure 3.7 - Example of cluster of degraded community watersheds all treated with different FFA interventions, Ethiopia

Figure 3.8 - Illustration of a concentration of efforts

Figure 3.9 - Illustration of a transect walk and treatment measures

Figure 3.10 - Community vs Private land and assets

Figure 3.11 - Example of environmental risk

Figure 3.12 - WFP food and nutrition security conceptual framework

Figure 3.13 - Steps to take in planning within pastoral contexts

Figure 3.14 - Demonstration regarding specific FFA activities

Figure 4.1 - Water cycle (source IFAD)

Figure 4.2 - FAO description of main water harvesting as rainfall multiplier systems

Figure 4.3 - Semi-circular basins for reforestation in Niger

Figure 4.4 - Micro-ponds collecting runoff water

Figure 4.5 - Traditional systems used in the Sahel

Figure 4.6 - Trenches and stone faced bunds in dry and bare sub-watersheds

Figure 4.7 - A gabion and soil percolation dam constructed across large river beds/drainage lines

Figure 4.8 - Rock catchment water scheme

Figure 4.9 - Trenches on steep slopes collect runoff and protect

Figure 4.10 - Detail of a portion of the area before and after treatment (1 year)

Figure 4.11 - Semi-circular structures and stone-faced bunds using micro-catchments

Figure 4.12 - Eyebrow basins, trench bunds and small herring-bone basins

Figure 4.13 - Stone faced bunds upgraded

Figure 4.14 - Tie-ridging used to harness water within terraces and maximize distribution

Figure 4.15 - Cultivated land treated with soil bunds and water pond for domestic uses

Figure 4.16 - Soil bunds precisely constructed along contour lines

Figure 4.17 - Micro-ponds constructed around homesteads

Figure 4.18 - Development of degraded and crusted rangelands in arid areas

Figure 4.19 - Semi-circular bund

Figure 4.20 - Rock catchment water harvesting scheme

Figure 4.21 - Manyatta agro-forestry intensification plan

Figure 4.22 - An oasis basin threatened by siltation from surrounding active dunes

Figure 4.23 - A sandy area stabilized with *Leptadenia pyrotechnica* and control grazing

Figure 4.24 - Sand dunes stabilized with dry fences/grids and recently planted with trees

Figure 4.25 - Agro-forestry systems on steep slopes

Figure 4.26 - Community forest managed using selective cutting and rotation

Figure 4.27 - Deforested and cultivated steep slopes treated

Figure 4.28 - Mixed plantations and bench terraces after 20 years

Figure 4.29 - *Grevillea robusta* trees, bananas, and fodder shrubs planted behind a thick fence of finger-euphorbia

Figure 4.30 - Road protection systems

Figure 4.31 - Road temporarily flooded but remaining functional and not damaged and feeder road and paved waterway

Figure 4.32 - Project beneficiary trained in grafting of fruit trees and seasonally employed in seedling production and detail of grass strips

Figure 4.33 - Water pond for domestic use and irrigation of a nursery

Figure 4.34 - Micro-ponds for homestead horticulture

Figure 4.35 - Micro-ponds and large micro-pond for group of households

Figure 4.36 - Paved waterway conveying excess runoff into stabilized gullies and water reservoirs (left) and gully control with 'water harvesting check-dams'

Figure 4.37 - The rehabilitation and transformation of a gully land into productive units

Figure 4.38 - Series of sedimentation dams

Figure 4.39 - Clearing of overgrown vegetation in old cocoa plantations

Figure 4.40 - A good example of swamp land rehabilitation

Figure 4.41 - Widespread use of slash & burn cultivation observed in Madagascar destroys remnants of natural forests

Figure 4.42 - Formerly abandoned irrigation schemes cleared

Figure 4.43 - Flood-resistant roads in Bangladesh

Figure 4.44 - Main excavation on drainage lines for protection against seasonal flooding of homesteads and of rice fields

Figure 4.45 - Newly achieved high quality improved drainage canals

Figure 4.46 - Raised ground with a homestead on top

Figure 4.47 - Work on raising road levels

Figure 4.48 - Vegetative belt using bamboo, fodder shrubs, trees and cash crops

Figure 4.49 - Water pond and rice fields fenced with robust embankments and planted with trees

Figure 4.50 - Houses are designed to resist the impact of moderate cyclones and built with specific construction criteria and orientation

Figure 4.51 - Flood mitigation using multipurpose dikes

Figure 4.52 - A portion of feeder road-dike strengthened with recycled bags

Figure 4.53 - Side drains dug and filled for better designed camber shaped road

Figure 4.54 - Road construction in steep mountainous terrains

Figure 4.55 - Foot trail construction in Nepal

Figure 4.56 - Construction of a school and warehouse

Figure 4.57 - A solar drier, including cemented floor and side drains

Figure 4.58 - Multi-purpose tree nurseries and Agroforestry

Figure 4.59 - Soil Sedimentation and overflow dam across a large gully using dry masonry

Figure 4.60 - A soil sedimentation and overflow dam filled up with soil and planted with forage shrubs

Figure 4.61 - Stone stepped & soil filled SSD planted with grasses and with stone paved spillway

Figure 4.62 - SSD with reinforced spillway and drop structures in V-shaped gullies

Figure 4.63 - Head of gully with stepped stone riser and checkdams and grasses

Figure 4.64 - Upstream side of SSD in large gullies

Figure 4.65 - Example of fish farming in Nepal

Figure 4.66 - Plantation of vegetables around fish ponds and harvests

Figure 4.67 - Beneficiaries removing silt on a self-help basis from water pond

Figure 4.68 - Main damage and clogging of the primary irrigation canal

Figure 4.69 - Small plots of farmland cleared from stones and boulders

Figure 4.70 - Clearing canals and drainage lines

Figure 4.71 - Farmers clearing rubble chocked canals after the earthquake in 2005

Figure 4.72 - Youth clearing debris in Haiti, Port-au-Prince, after the earthquake in 2010

Figure 4.73 - FFA participant in Bangladesh growing vegetables

Figure 5.1 - Areas where effects of FFA can be maximized

Figure 5.2 - Example of rehabilitation in Gonaives, Haiti

Figure 5.3 - Rehabilitation of dykes in Bangladesh

Figure 5.4 - Global forced displacement figures

Figure 6.1 - Thinking pathway for the selection of the transfer modality and value for FFA

Figure 6.2 - Transfer Modality Selection Process

Figure 6.3 - Simple instruments being used for layout, design and measurement of different interventions

Figure 7.1 - Measuring the impact and recovery from shocks and stresses on people



Front cover photo credits: WFP/Volli Carucci/Ethiopia; WFP/GMB Akash/Bangladesh; WFP/Mario Di Bart/Ethiopia
Back cover photo credits: WFP/Riccardo Gangiale/Rwanda



For more information contact:
Asset Creation and Livelihoods Unit (OSZPR)
Policy and Programme Division
Email: wfp.assetcreationandlivelihoods@wfp.org
June 2016