



Brussels Rural Development Briefings

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**Briefing n. 18 – Humanitarian assistance and rural development in ACP countries:
responding to new challenges**

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A Reader

Resources on

Humanitarian assistance and rural development¹

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partageons les connaissances au profit des communautés rurales
sharing knowledge, improving rural livelihoods

¹ This Reader is not intended to exhaustively cover the issue of humanitarian assistance in ACP countries but to provide some background information and selected information resources, focusing on the implications for rural development. Most text of this Reader has been directly taken from the original documents or websites. For additional inputs, kindly contact Isolina Boto (boto@cta.int).

The Reader and most of the resources are available at <http://brusselsbriefings.net>

Index

1. Context	5
1.1 Getting reliable data is difficult... ..	5
1.2 The costs of disasters	6
1.3 Increase in humanitarian expenditure	8
2. Key players in humanitarian assistance	8
2.1 International agencies	8
2.2 The European Commission.....	11
2.3 ACP regional agencies	12
2.4 New players in the humanitarian system.....	14
2.5 Humanitarian NGOs: challenges and trends	15
3. Crisis prevention and disaster risk reduction	16
3.1 Brief history of UN Disaster Risk Reduction	16
3.2 Some concepts	17
3.3 Underlying drivers of vulnerability.....	18
3.4. Improving crisis prevention and management	19
3.5. Humanitarian implications of climate change.....	20
3.6. Better environmental information to prevent disasters.....	21
3.7. Innovative technologies for relief interventions	22
4. Food security at threat	23
4.1 Understanding ‘famine’, ‘vulnerability’ and ‘livelihoods’	23
4.2 Increasing availability and access to food	24
a. Projected losses in food production due to climate change.....	26
b. Micro-level practices to adapt to climate change for african small-scale farmers	27
c. Food security information systems	28
5. Towards more effective interventions.....	30
Resources available online (English and French).....	31
Websites	35
Glossary.....	38
Acronyms	43

1. Context

Today, the world is facing disasters on an unprecedented scale: more than 255 million people were affected by natural disasters globally each year, on average, between 1994 and 2003, with a range of 68 million to 618 million. During the same period, these disasters claimed an average of 58,000 lives annually, with a range of 10,000 to 123,000. In the year 2003, 1 in 25 people worldwide was affected by natural disasters.

During the last decade disasters caused damage of an estimated US\$67 billion per year on average, with a maximum of US\$230 billion and a minimum of US\$28 billion. The economic cost associated with natural disasters has increased 14-fold since the 1950s. Scientific predictions and evidence indicates that global climate change will increase the number of extreme events, creating more frequent and intensified natural hazards such as floods and windstorms. Population growth, urbanization and the inability of poor populations to escape from the vicious cycle of poverty makes it all the more likely that there will be an increase in the number of people who are vulnerable to natural hazards, with a resulting increase of natural disasters and environmental emergencies.

Based on the data in CRED's EM-DAT database, between 1974 and 2003 there were 6,367 natural disasters, not counting epidemics. This resulted in the reported deaths of slightly more than 2 million individuals, about 5.1 billion people being cumulatively affected, 182 million persons made homeless and estimated reported damages of US\$1.38 trillion.

Only in the last decade, 86% of all disaster-related deaths were caused by natural hazards, with just 14% resulting from technological disasters such as transport or industrial accidents. Asia alone suffered 75% of the deaths from natural disasters.

These figures may seem very high, but they are probably underestimates. For example, droughts reportedly killed 500,367 people in Ethiopia over the last three decades. But some estimate that the number of people who died from the great Ethiopian drought of 1984-1985 alone may have numbered between 600,000 and 1 million. Even worse is the case of economic damages, where not more than a third of reported disasters estimate economic losses.

1.1 Getting reliable data is difficult...

Data on disaster occurrence, their effect upon people and cost to countries remain at best patchy. No single institution has taken on the role of prime provider of verified data. The data in EMDAT² is culled from a variety of public sources, including reports by governments, insurance companies, press agencies and aid agencies. The original information is not specifically gathered for statistical purposes and inevitably, even though CRED applies strict definitions for disaster events and parameters, the original suppliers of the information may not. The figures should be regarded as indicative. As a result, relative changes and trends can be more useful to look at than absolute, isolated figures.

The database has gradually increased the use of insurance companies' reports, while using those of humanitarian and disaster agencies has remained relatively constant over time. Reports

² Since 1988 the WHO Collaborating Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) has been maintaining an Emergency Events Database EM-DAT. EM-DAT was created with the initial support of the WHO and the Belgian Government. The main objective of the database is to serve the purposes of humanitarian action at national and international levels. It is an initiative aimed to rationalise decision making for disaster preparedness, as well as providing an objective base for vulnerability assessment and priority setting. EM-DAT contains essential core data on the occurrence and effects of over 18,000 mass disasters in the world from 1900 to present. The database is compiled from various sources, including UN agencies, non-governmental organisations, insurance companies, research institutes and press agencies. (www.emdat.be)

from specialized agencies, such as the UN World Food Programme, the World Health Organization or the US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, have also increasingly been used as sources for the compilation of data. In 2003, about 27.9% of the data came from various US Government disaster agencies, 27% from insurance companies, 20% from United Nations organizations, 18.1% from press agencies and the remaining 7% from various humanitarian organizations.

Information systems have vastly improved over the last 30 years and statistical data is now more easily available. However, the lack of systematic and standardized data collection of disasters is now revealing itself as a major weakness for long-term planning. Despite efforts to verify and review data, the quality of disaster databases can only be as good as the reporting systems that feed them.

1.2 The costs of disasters

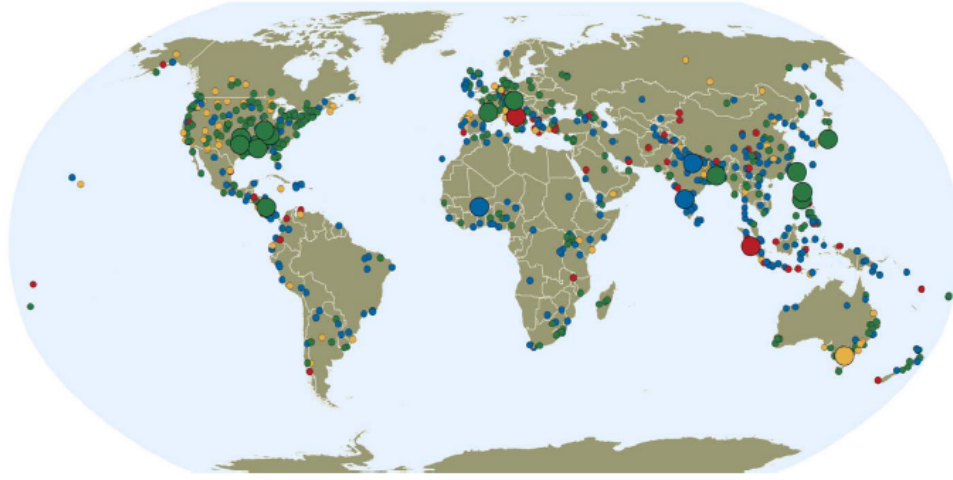
Munich Re's NatCatSERVICE database³ shows that, globally, the average number of major weather-related catastrophes such as windstorms, floods or droughts is now three times as high as at the beginning of the 1980s. Losses have risen even more, with average increases of 11% per year since 1980. To what extent the increased losses are due to climate change is not yet clear. Preliminary analyses suggest that it accounts for a low single-digit percentage of annual overall losses. Although this increase appears low, the amounts involved are enormous. This is illustrated by total natural catastrophes losses in the period 1980–2008. According to studies by Munich Re, overall losses due to weather-related events came to around US\$ 1.6tn in original values, with insured losses amounting to approximately US\$ 465bn. In the period from 2000–2008 alone, overall losses totalled over US\$ 750bn, whilst insured losses came to around US\$ 280bn. Those worst hit by the impacts of climate change include a large number of developing countries, many of which are located in regions highly exposed to natural catastrophes and are unable to adapt to the growing danger. To help such countries, the Munich Climate Insurance Initiative (MCII), founded by Munich Re, has introduced a risk-management system with insurance solutions for developing countries into the Copenhagen negotiating process. It is expected that items from the MCII programme will be incorporated into the final Copenhagen document. The MCII estimates that the solution – a combination of prevention, support for microinsurance schemes and the funding of a climate insurance pool for the biggest risks – will cost around US\$ 10bn per year. "Since the developing countries did not cause climate change and are not able to adapt well to its impacts, active cooperation and help with risk reduction and insurance from the industrial countries is only logical.

Natural catastrophe losses were far lower in 2009 than in 2008⁴ due to the absence on the whole of major catastrophes and a very benign North Atlantic hurricane season. However, the total number of destructive natural hazard events was above the long-term average, 850 being recorded in all. Consequently, despite the lack of really disastrous events, there were substantial economic losses of US\$ 50bn and insured losses amounted to US\$ 22bn compared with economic losses of US\$ 200bn and insured losses of US\$ 50bn in the previous year.

By way of further comparison, the average number of natural hazard events with relevant losses over the past ten years was approximately 770 per annum. Economic losses came to around US\$ 115bn on average and insured losses US\$ 36bn. There were some 75,000 deaths per year due to natural catastrophes on average. Not only were the losses but also the death toll from natural catastrophes in 2009 – around 10,000 – was well below average.

³ http://www.munichre.com/en/media_relations/press_releases/2009/2009_11_26_press_release.aspx

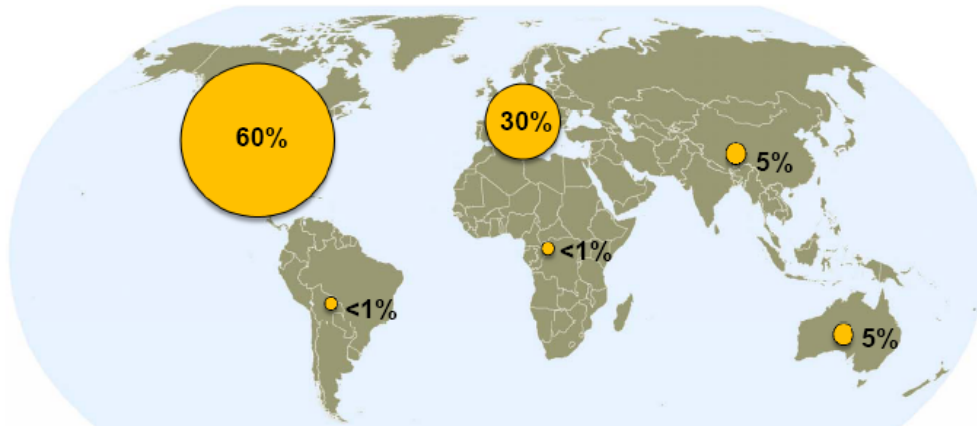
⁴ http://www.munichre.com/en/media_relations/press_releases/2009/2009_12_29_press_release.aspx



- 850 natural hazard losses
- Costliest/Deadliest events
- Geophysical events (Earthquake, tsunami, volcanic eruption)
- Meteorological events (Storm)
- Hydrological events (Flood, mass movement)
- Climatological events (Extreme temperature, drought, forest fire)

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NatCatSERVICE
 Natural catastrophes 2009
 Insured losses US\$ 22bn - Percentage distribution per continent



Continent	Overall losses [US\$ m]	Insured losses [US\$ m]	Fatalities
Africa	500	-	720
America (North and South America)	22,000	13,500	800
Asia	11,500	1,000	7,400
Australia/Oceania	3,000	1,000	450
Europe	13,000	6,500	670

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1.3 Increase in humanitarian expenditure

Latest DAC data release reveals big rise in humanitarian expenditure in 2008⁵. The Development Assistance Committee (DAC) released its full final data on official development assistance (ODA), updating the analysis of humanitarian aid expenditure by donor and recipient country for 2008.

- Total humanitarian assistance from DAC donors (22 countries plus the European Commission) reached US\$11.2 billion in 2008 - this is US\$2.5 billion (nearly 29%) higher than in 2007 (US\$8.7 billion)
- US\$11.2bn is 9.3% of total ODA in 2008 (excluding debt relief). This compares to 8.2% in 2007
- the United States remains the biggest single donor of humanitarian aid, accounting for 38% (US\$4.3 billion) of the US\$11.2 billion; the next biggest donors are the European Commission (US\$1.9 billion) and the United Kingdom (US\$1.1 billion).
- Sudan was the largest recipient (US\$1.3 billion), followed by Afghanistan (US\$823 million), Ethiopia (US\$807 million); Palestine (US\$750 million); and Somalia (US\$540 million) – these amounts include contributions made through the CERF and country-level pooled funds.
- Over half (US\$1.3 billion) of the US\$2.5 billion rise in humanitarian expenditure in 2008 came from the United States. The next biggest increases in volume came from the European Commission (US\$277 million) and the UK (US\$338 million). Other notable increases came from Spain (US\$204 million) and Australia (US\$131 million).
- Ethiopia received the biggest increase in humanitarian aid – up by over US\$500 million to US\$807 million in 2008. US\$343m of this was funded by the United States.

2. Key players in humanitarian assistance⁶

2.1 International agencies

UN Humanitarian Assistance and Assistance to Refugees⁷

Since its first coordinated humanitarian relief operations in Europe following the devastation and massive displacement of people in the Second World War, the United Nations has been relied on by the international community to respond to natural and man-made disasters that are beyond the capacity of national authorities alone. Today, the Organization is a major provider of emergency relief and longer-term assistance, including food, shelter, medical supplies and logistical support, primarily through its operational agencies, and a catalyst for action by Governments and other relief agencies.

Providing immediate assistance to victims of an emergency is the first, essential step. But humanitarian action by the United Nations systems goes beyond relief, to involve long-term rehabilitation and development. A central component of United Nations policy is to ensure that emergency relief contributes to recovery and longer-term development in the affected area. Economic and social development remains the best protection against disaster -- whether natural or, as is increasingly the case, man-made.

⁵ <http://www.globalhumanitarianassistance.org/blog/latest-dac-data-release-reveals-big-rise-humanitarian-expenditure-2008>

⁶ http://www.emdat.be/old/Documents/Publications/publication_2004_emdat.pdf

⁷ <http://www.un.org/ha/general.htm>

The United Nations also assists countries in incorporating disaster prevention and preparedness into their overall development plans. The World Conference on Disaster Reduction (Yokohama, Japan, 1994) helped to develop new strategies to reduce the effects of disasters.

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)

The mandate of the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) is to strengthen coordination among the United Nations bodies that provide assistance in response to emergencies. The Office works to secure agreement among agencies of the United Nations system on the division of responsibilities such as the establishment of coordination mechanisms, the mounting of need-assessment missions, the preparation of consolidated appeals and resource mobilization.

The core functions of the Emergency Relief Coordinator are:

- Policy development and coordination
- Advocacy of humanitarian issues with political organs, notably the Security Council;
- Coordination of humanitarian emergency response, by ensuring that an appropriate response mechanism is established on the ground.

Four United Nations entities -- UNDP, UNHCR, UNICEF and WFP -- have primary roles in the delivery of relief assistance, while the FAO GIEWS has a leading role in monitoring the global and local food security situation and the UN ISDR aims at disaster risk reduction.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the agency responsible for operational activities for natural disaster mitigation, prevention and preparedness. When emergencies and natural disasters occur, UNDP Resident Representatives coordinate relief and rehabilitation efforts at the national level. On many occasions, Governments call on UNDP to help design rehabilitation programmes and to direct donor aid. UNDP helps to ensure that recovery activities are integrated with relief operations.

In 2001 UNDP's Executive Board created the *Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery (BCPR)* with the aim to restore the quality of life for men, women and children who have been devastated by natural disaster or violent conflict. Operating through some 100 country offices, the Bureau provides a bridge between the humanitarian agencies that handle immediate needs and the long-term development phase following recovery. Carving stability out of chaos, BCPR continues to seek new ways of preventing conflicts and of doing business - faster, earlier and in riskier situations.

The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) was established on December 14, 1950 by the UN General Assembly. The agency is mandated to lead and co-ordinate international action to protect refugees and resolve refugee problems worldwide. Its primary purpose is to safeguard the rights and well-being of refugees.

During the past decade, war and civil strife have left an estimated 1 million children orphaned or separated from their parents. A further 12 million children have been made homeless and 10 million have been severely traumatized. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has sought to meet their needs by supplying food, safe water, medicine and shelter. UNICEF also aims to assist development by supporting activities such as immunization and education (through "school-in-a-box" kits) in refugee camps. Special programmes assist traumatized children and help unaccompanied children to reunite with parents or extended families.

The World Food Programme (WFP) provides relief to millions of people who are the victims of disasters. It is responsible for mobilizing food and funds for transport for all large-scale refugee-feeding operations managed by UNHCR. Every day, WFP emergency response teams rush supplies to millions of the victims of war, ethnic conflict and political strife or flood drought and

crop failure. Such crises, especially man-made disasters, consume most of WFP's resources. Born in 1962, WFP has five main objectives: Save lives and protect livelihoods in emergencies, Prepare for emergencies, Restore and rebuild lives after emergencies, Reduce chronic hunger and undernutrition everywhere and strengthen the capacity of countries to reduce hunger.

The FAO's Global Information and Early Warning System (GIEWS), established in the wake of the world food crisis of the early 1970s, is an open forum located in the Commodities and Trade Division of FAO for the exchange of information on food security. The system continually receives economic, political and agricultural information from a wide variety of official and unofficial sources. It remains the leading source of information on food production and food security for every country in the world, whether or not it is an FAO member. In the past 25 years, the system has become a worldwide network which includes 115 governments, 61 Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and numerous trade, research and media organizations. Over the years, a unique database on global, regional, national and subnational food security has been maintained, refined and continuously updated. The System supports national and regional level initiatives to enhance food information and early warning systems.

Because the FAO has a development mandate and the institutional ability to pass seamlessly from post emergency rehabilitation to long-term development assistance, FAO emergency interventions are designed more to help communities to upgrade their skills and improve their farms rather than to provide the first humanitarian aid and to prevent the situation in rural areas from deteriorating further. FAO works quickly to restore agricultural production strengthen the survival strategies of those affected, and enable people to reduce their dependence on food aid as soon as possible.⁸

The United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR)

This is the focal point in the UN System to promote links and synergies between, and the coordination of, disaster reduction activities in the socio-economic, humanitarian and development fields, as well as to support policy integration. It serves as an international information clearinghouse on disaster reduction, developing awareness campaigns and producing articles, journals, and publications related to disaster reduction.

The World Bank

The **Hazard Management Unit (HMU)**, formerly called the Disaster Management Facility, was established by the World Bank in 1998 to champion the integration of disaster prevention into development efforts and to promote a more strategic response to disaster emergencies. The unit serves as a central resource of hazard risk management knowledge for World Bank staff and its client countries. The HMU provides: (i) technical support to World Bank operations; (ii) develops corporate strategy and policy analysis for hazard risk reduction; (iii) generates knowledge through work with the World Bank Group and external partners; (iv) provides learning and training activities. Efforts have focused on such activities as documenting the longer-term economic impacts of disasters, developing tools and training for assessing damage and needs following a disaster, and conducting country-level analyses to better manage disaster risk.

The World Bank has also established a partnership, the **Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery GFDRR**, with the United Nations and an expanding group of donor governments that works to help disaster prone countries enhance their capacity for disaster prevention, emergency preparedness, response, and recovery. The Facility was created in 2006, in response to calls from the international community to accelerate the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA).

⁸ <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/011/i0765e/i0765e02.pdf>

GFDRR has developed a range of financial and advisory services to help disaster prone countries manage the risk and impacts of natural disasters before they strike. GFDRR grant funding is available to priority countries to catalyze longer term engagement via technical assistance which aims to enhance collaboration among governments, research institutions and civil society organizations of Southern countries through Risk Assessments, Catastrophe Risk Financing Products and Services, Support to National Disaster Risk Management (DRM) Programs, Knowledge, advisory, and capacity building.

Towards the end of 2007 GFDRR introduced the Standby Recovery Financing Facility (SRFF in the "Track III") to provide technical assistance and fast-track financing to affected countries for well coordinated recovery and reconstruction planning and recovery activities that bridge the gap between humanitarian relief and development. The most requested support from Track III has been for **Post Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA)**. PDNA is increasingly recognized as international accepted standard for a Government-led assessment to verify the impact and identify the needs for recovery and reconstruction. Since 2008 there has been a tendency to move away from conducting many separate assessments towards Government-led joint assessments, supported by an increasing number of international organizations.

2.2 The European Commission

The European Community Humanitarian Office (ECHO)

ECHO's Disaster Prevention, Mitigation and Preparedness Programme (DIPECHO) was launched in 1996 to help prepare populations in areas at risk from natural catastrophes and to support practical measures to reduce such risks. DIPECHO funds support training, capacity-building, awareness raising and early-warning projects, as well the organization of relief services. The programme has shown that even simple precautions can help save lives and property when disaster strikes. CRED served as the principal technical support to develop DIPECHO'S strategy and program guidelines

*EU policy on Humanitarian food Assistance*⁹

The EC has recently released a communication COM(2010) 126 in order to maximise the effectiveness and efficiency of EU food assistance, improve policy coherence, coordination, and complementarity between the Commission, Member States and other donors and inform partners and stakeholders of the Commission's objectives, priorities and standards in the delivery of humanitarian food assistance. Since approximately 10% of those who are undernourished are food insecure as a consequence of a disaster or emergency situation, it stresses the strict linkage between and the need for coherence between the food security policy and the humanitarian assistance one.

Among the objectives of the EU Humanitarian Assistance Policy there is clearly the minimization of damage to food production and marketing systems, and the establishing conditions to promote the rehabilitation and restoration of self reliance.

The modalities of food assistance must respect the fundamental humanitarian principles of humanity, impartiality, neutrality and independence. Decisions on the allocation of humanitarian food assistance will be strictly needs based without bias or prejudice. Thus the Humanitarian Food Assistance responses are preceded by, and based on, detailed needs assessments and causal analyses in order to prioritised the humanitarian food assistance interventions accordingly to (i) the severity of the crisis and the scale of the unmet needs (ii) the immediacy of the crisis,

⁹ Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament
An EU policy framework to assist developing countries in addressing food security Challenges, 31/03/2010
http://ec.europa.eu/development/icenter/repository/COMM_PDF_COM_2010_0127_EN.PDF

and (iii) the expected impact of the response. Particular attention will be paid to the specific nutritional needs of defined vulnerable groups.

The EU and its Member States will ensure that human dignity is respected in the provision of humanitarian food assistance. They will seek the involvement of beneficiary communities in identifying needs, and designing and implementing responses. The choice of the most appropriate intervention and transfer instrument (e.g. cash-based or in kind) must be context-specific and evidence-based, and be regularly reviewed.

When food aid is deemed to be the most appropriate tool, local purchase (i.e. purchase in the country of operation) or, secondarily, regional food purchases (i.e. procuring from neighboring countries) are favoured, so as to maximise acceptability of food products, protect or support local markets, and reduce transportation costs and delivery timeframes. Humanitarian food assistance operations and food security development interventions should be designed and implemented in such a way that together they ensure an optimal coverage of emergency and development needs, whether they succeed each other in a continuum or coexist in a contiguum², as in many fragile states. They should be coordinated and eventually dovetailed with each other so as to maximise opportunities for sustainable and durable impact, pursuing the ultimate objective of self-reliance for victims of food crises.

EU humanitarian food assistance will therefore uphold Linking Relief Rehabilitation and Development (LRRD) principles and facilitate LRRD objectives, in accordance with the 2001 Commission Communication on LRRD¹¹, with the 2007 EU Humanitarian Aid Consensus, and within the stipulations of the Framework Partnership Agreement.

EU humanitarian food assistance interventions must consider opportunities for mainstreaming disaster risk reduction (DRR), preparedness, mitigation and prevention, within the limits of the humanitarian mandates, regulations and food-assistance objectives.

Advocacy should ensure that collective efforts span emergency, transitional and developmental needs simultaneously, and promote enabling conditions linked to good governance and conducive national and international policies (e.g. for trade and migration).

Regarding the chronic food insecurity the Commission recognizes that its humanitarian instruments do not have a comparative advantage in addressing it, and where, in spite of its comparative disadvantages, positive impact can be expected within the time limitations of its intervention with a clear and realistic exit-strategy defined.

2.3 ACP regional agencies

Three tendencies can be observed at a regional level: Regional policies for natural disaster emergency management (more developed in the Caribbean and Pacific regions, but improving also in African regions in reaction to the climate change threats), Regional policies in order to cope with Humanitarian crisis related to food security (strictly linked to the food security long term policies), and Regional policies aimed at securing post-conflict situation (with a strong military component, the EU and USA are trying each to organize regional standby brigades).

In few cases these policies have lead to the creation of structured Emergency management or prevention Agency.

- African Union

The African Union and its New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) has adopted an "Africa regional strategy for disaster risk reduction" on July 2004. It has been developed because, despite the existence of disaster risk reduction policies and institutional mechanisms various degrees of completeness in African countries, their effectiveness is limited, hence the need for a strategic approach to improving and enhancing their effectiveness and efficiency by emphasizing disaster risk reduction. The Strategy's objectives are to: increase political commitment to disaster risk reduction; improve identification and assessment of disaster risks;

enhance knowledge management for disaster risk reduction; increase public awareness of disaster risk reduction; improve governance of disaster risk reduction institutions; and integrate of disaster risk reduction in emergency response management.

- Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency (CDEMA)

This regional inter-governmental agency has been established in September 1991 by an Agreement of the Conference of Heads of Government of CARICOM to be responsible for disaster management. There are presently sixteen Participating States within CDEMA's membership. CDEMA's main function is to make an immediate and coordinated response to any disastrous event affecting any Participating State, once the state requests such assistance.

- Réseau de Prévention des Crises Alimentaires (RPCA)

The food crisis prevention network has been created in the Sahel and West African region in 1985 and represents a unique intergovernmental forum for cooperation in the field of food security. It is a space for free and informal reflections, to exchange information and to promote coordinated actions. The RPCA organizes biannual meeting, produces thematic analysis, release communications and utilize a web platform (> www.food-security.net). The network is coordinated by the CILSS and CSAO Secretariat.

- ECOWAS Warning and Response Network (ECOWARN)

Pursuant to Chapter IV of the 1999 protocol relating to the mechanism for conflict prevention, management, resolution, peace-keeping and security, a sub-regional peace and security observation system known as the ECOWAS Warning and Response Network (ECOWARN) has been established. ECOWARN is operated by the ECOWAS Observation and Monitoring Centre (OMC). Despite of the lack of specialized regional agencies in these years there is a clear tendency at both the national and regional level to develop Emergency prevention and management plan of actions, especially in order to prevent and manage the food crises due to climate change or international economic factors.

- East African Community (EAC)

Some of the EAC countries (namely Rwanda, Burundi and Tanzania) have developed a Climate Change National Adaptation Programmes of Action & Strategies in which they asses their preparedness to climate change and the occurrence of extreme phenomenon (droughts and floods, etc). The Community has also started to implement a *Regional Plan of Action for the Prevention & Control of Human & Animal TBDs in EA 2007 – 2012*, since the East African region continues to suffer some of the highest levels of ill health of their populations as well as huge economic losses in both agricultural and animal production in the world.

- Intergovernmental Authority on Development in Eastern Africa (IGAD)

The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) has drawn up in 2002 a sub-regional Disaster Preparedness Strategy in order to put in place an appropriate framework of principles, policies, legislation and agreements at sub-regional and national levels which will enable disaster preparedness and response measures to be implemented effectively and to develop capabilities to ensure that disaster management interventions are based on adequate, timely information. At the same time it urged his seven Eastern Africa countries members to draft National Disaster Risk Management Programmes as a first step to develop a broader regional initiative.

- Pacific Island Forum Secretariat

Pacific Island countries rank among the most vulnerable in the world to natural disasters. Since 1950, natural disasters have directly affected more than 3.4 million people and led to more than 1,700 reported deaths in the region (outside of Papua New Guinea). In the 1990s alone, reported natural disasters cost the Pacific Islands region US\$2.8 billion in real 2004 value. The Secretariat has recently (October 2009) recalled the attention of Pacific National government on supporting the efforts for disaster risk management and climate change adaptation National Action Plans currently being spearheaded by National Disaster Management Offices.

- Southern African Development Community (SADC)

The SADC Disaster Risk Reduction Strategic Plan was produced in 2005-2006 with the Aim of facilitating disaster risk and vulnerability reduction to the impact of disasters by providing a regional framework for coordinating disaster risk management related activities within the SADC Member States. Its purpose is to integrate and harmonise the various regional and national activities and plans that relate to disaster risk management. A focal importance is given to the creation of early warning systems at all levels and the integration of preparedness and emergency response. It establishes the creation of a SADC Disaster Management Technical Committee (DMTC) composed by the heads of the national Disaster Management Units that is scheduled to meet biannually.

2.4 New players in the humanitarian system

In 2005, a study by the Humanitarian Policy Group (HPG), entitled *Diversity in Donorship: The Changing Landscape of Official Humanitarian Aid*, documented the growing diversity of donors responding to humanitarian crises¹⁰. From as few as a dozen government financiers just over a decade ago, it is now commonplace to see 50 or 60 donor governments supporting a humanitarian response. [...]. Through membership of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Western governments have tended to dominate public debates about the direction, purpose, principles and methodology of relief. Diversity in Donorship noted that countries with DAC membership do not, however, represent the totality of aid, nor are the DAC's members all necessarily the most significant aid-givers.

The study found that non-DAC donors do not comprise a homogenous group at the field level. They have diverse policy approaches, and define humanitarian aid in diverse ways. That said, some general trends emerge. Overall, and in contrast to DAC donors, most non-DAC governments prefer to channel humanitarian assistance through host-state mechanisms, and do not necessarily differentiate between providing support to the host state in response to a natural disaster and doing so in response to conflict, even if the authorities are party to that conflict. This reflects a general emphasis on ensuring that the affected state has the primary role in managing the humanitarian response on its territory.

Non-DAC donor contributions have steadily increased in recent years. In 2008, there was a marked increase in non-DAC humanitarian aid, to \$1,181 million, from \$391m the previous year. Several important contributions from the Gulf States, including a \$500m allocation from Saudi Arabia to the World Food Programme (WFP) food price crisis appeal, account for this increase in total aid. Saudi Arabia, the UAE, Kuwait and Qatar together accounted for 64% of overall non-DAC aid in the period 2000–2008. Despite the increase in total humanitarian aid, non-DAC donors continue to provide only a small percentage of reported humanitarian flows from official donors. As a percentage, non-DAC contributions in 2008 accounted for 12% of total official humanitarian aid. This comparatively minor financial weight does not necessarily result in a lack of influence over the course of the humanitarian response. In Darfur, for example, where China (a non-DAC donor) has made a very small financial contribution, its political influence, both bilaterally and over actions taken by the international community in the UN Security Council, has been considerable.

Non-DAC donors pride themselves on speedy, timely response, often being the first on the ground with in-kind relief supplies or technical assistance teams. Humanitarian allocations from

¹⁰ Adele Harmer and Lin Cotterrell, *Diversity in Donorship: The Changing Landscape of Official Humanitarian Aid*, HPG Report 20 (London: ODI, 2005).

<http://www.odi.org.uk/programmes/humanitarian-policy-group/focus-humanitarian-aid-system.asp>

non-DAC governments could, however, are criticized for being supply-driven – providing the affected state with immediately available in-kind goods or technical assistance, rather than offering support based on an assessment of the needs of the affected population. There is also a broader understanding of humanitarian assistance than that held by most DAC donor governments and international aid agencies, with non-DAC governments labelling development assistance, and in some cases economic investments, as ‘humanitarian’ if they are allocated during a time of crisis. Non-DAC donors also place great importance on rapidly shifting from emergency relief to transition, reconstruction and development programmes. Non-DAC relations with the rest of the international assistance community (and the international community’s awareness of the role non-DAC donors are playing) are generally limited. Partly due to a strong adherence to bilateral partnership with and support for the affected state in the allocation of non-DAC support, monitoring and evaluation exercises are not a regular feature of non-DAC donor approaches.

[...] Despite often significant contributions to a crisis, non-DAC donors are virtually invisible to international evaluations. [...] That said, there are no formal fora for discussions between DAC and non-DAC donors outside of ECOSOC and the UN General Assembly¹¹.

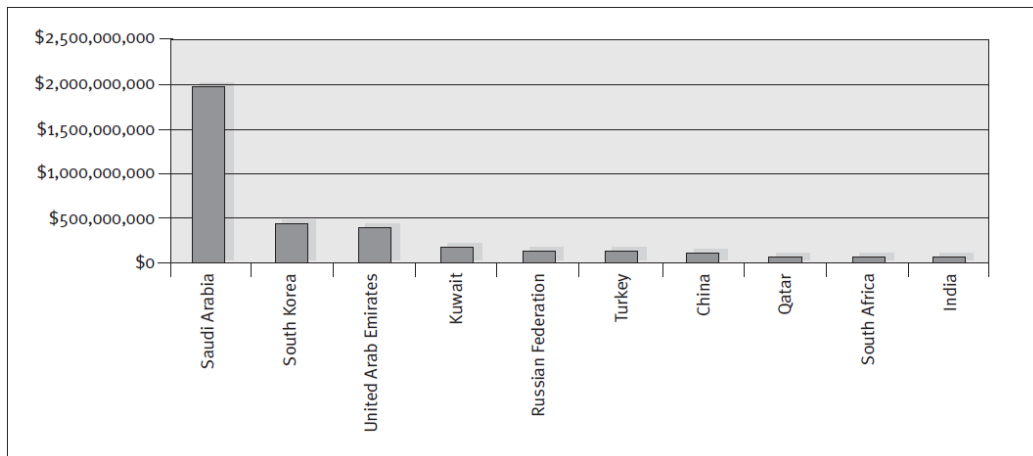


Figure 1 Total humanitarian aid from non-DAC top 10 donors. Source: ODI

2.5 Humanitarian NGOs: challenges and trends

Non-governmental humanitarian organizations have evolved into a crucial pillar of the international humanitarian architecture. A handful of large and influential organizations predominate. These include the, CARE, Catholic Relief Services (CRS), Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF), Oxfam, Save the Children and World Vision. Although all of these NGOs conduct programmes across sectors, most occupy a specific operational niche: CARE in food delivery and logistics, MSF in health, Oxfam in water and sanitation and Save on the needs of children. By the 1990s, a more confederated style of governance had begun to emerge across these organisations. In part, this reflected the perceived need for tighter policy coherence among national members, and the desire to increase southern participation.

Umbrella organisations as the The Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies engage its emergency response tools: Disaster Management Information System, National and Regional

¹¹ Adele Harmer and Ellen Martin. Diversity in donorship: field lessons. HPG Report 30 (London: ODI, 2010)

Disaster Response Teams (NDRT/RDRT), Field Assessment and Coordination Team (FACT), Disaster Relief Emergency Fund (DREF), Emergency Response Units (ERU) for the realization of effective and timely response to address the immediate and short term needs of communities affected by disasters and safe life and livelihoods. The RC/RC has been able to assist millions of disaster affected people in different parts of the globe through food aid, cash provision, shelter & NFI, agricultural tools and seed support for primary production, emergency health & care including psychological support, local capacity building etc.

3. Crisis prevention and disaster risk reduction

3.1 Brief history of UN Disaster Risk Reduction

Natural hazards, such as floods, drought, earthquakes, tsunamis and epidemics, have had an increasing impact on humans due to population growth, urbanization, rising poverty and the onset of global environmental changes, including climate change, land degradation and deforestation. Compounding the situation, poor planning, poverty and a range of other underlying factors create conditions of vulnerability that result in insufficient capacity or measures to reduce the potentially negative consequences of natural hazards and disasters. Thus, vulnerability contributes as much to the magnitude of the disaster impacts as do the natural hazards themselves. Action to reduce risk has grown in importance on the international agenda and is seen by many as essential to safeguard sustainable development efforts and for achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

International decade for natural disaster reduction

An increase in human casualties and property damage in the 1980s motivated the UN General Assembly in 1989 to declare the 1990s the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction (IDNDR) (Resolution 44/236). The aim of the IDNDR was to address disaster prevention in the context of a range of hazards, including earthquakes, windstorms, tsunamis, floods, landslides, volcanic eruptions, wildfires, grasshopper and locust infestations, and drought and desertification.

Yokohama strategy and plan of action

One of the main outcomes of the IDNDR was the Yokohama Strategy for a Safer World and its Plan of Action, adopted in 1994 at the World Conference on Natural Disaster Reduction held in Yokohama, Japan. The Yokohama Strategy set guidelines for action on prevention, preparedness and mitigation of disaster risk. These guidelines were based on a set of principles that stress the importance of risk assessment, disaster prevention and preparedness, the capacity to prevent, reduce and mitigate disasters, and early warning. The principles also stated that the international community should share technology to prevent, reduce and mitigate disasters, and demonstrate a strong political determination in the field of disaster reduction.

International strategy for disaster reduction

At its 54th session in 1999, the UN General Assembly decided to continue the activities on disaster prevention and vulnerability reduction carried out during the IDNDR through the establishment of the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR). An Inter-Agency Secretariat and an Inter-Agency Task Force for Disaster Reduction (IATF/DR) for the implementation of the ISDR were also established (Resolutions 54/219 and 56/195, respectively). Among its mandated tasks, the IATF/DR was to convene *ad hoc* expert meetings on issues related to disaster reduction.

The Hyogo Framework for Action¹²

The World Conference on Disaster Reduction (WCDR) was held from 18-22 January 2005 in Kobe, Japan. The aim of the conference was to increase the international profile of DRR, promote its integration into development planning and practice, and strengthen local and national capacities to address the causes of disasters that hamper development. The 168 States attending the conference adopted the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters (HFA) and the Hyogo Declaration. The HFA was endorsed by the General Assembly in Resolution 60/195, and committed governments to five priorities for action to: ensure that DRR is a national and local priority, with a strong institutional basis for implementation; identify, assess and monitor disaster risks and enhance early warning; use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels; reduce the underlying risk factors; and strengthen disaster preparedness for effective response at all levels.

Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction

In 2006, the Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs launched a consultative process to consider practical ways of strengthening the ISDR system to support governments in meeting their commitments to implement the HFA. As outlined in the Secretary-General's reports on the implementation of the ISDR, the main aims were to extend participation of governments and organizations, raise the profile of disaster reduction, and construct a more coherent international effort to support national disaster reduction activities. A result of the consultations was the proposal to convene the Global Platform for DRR as an expanded and reformed successor to the IATF/DR. The Global Platform was envisaged as serving as the primary multi-stakeholder forum for all parties involved in DRR in order to raise awareness on reducing disaster risk, share experience and guide the ISDR system.

3.2 Some concepts

The UN International Strategy for Disaster Reduction has the following definition of a disaster: A serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society causing widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources. A disaster is a function of the risk process. It results from the combination of hazards, conditions of vulnerability and insufficient capacity or measures to reduce the potential negative consequences of risk. The overall trend shows that the number of recorded natural disasters has doubled from approximately 200 to over 400 per year over the past two decades. The majority are climate-related disasters – that is, disasters which climate change can influence both in terms of frequency and severity.

Despite decades of usage, there is little consensus on what constitutes 'an emergency'. The term can be used to describe a variety of different circumstances related to some kind of shock, different causal factors underlying the circumstances or shock, or different outcomes in terms of the status of affected groups. WFP defines emergencies as: *urgent situations in which there is clear evidence that an event or series of events has occurred which causes human suffering or imminently threatens human lives or livelihoods which the [community or local] government concerned has not the means to remedy; and it is a demonstrably abnormal event or series of events which produces dislocation in the life of a community on an exceptional scale. The event or series of events may comprise one or a combination of the following: Natural disasters; human made emergencies resulting in displacement or refugee flows; slow-onset food crises related to drought, crop failures, pests and diseases that result in an erosion of the capacity of*

¹² http://gfdrr.org/docs/HFA_Guide_Words-into-Action.pdf

vulnerable populations to meet their food needs; acute economic shocks; and complex emergencies.

The UN and the Inter-Agency Standing Committee define complex emergencies as ‘a humanitarian crisis ... where there is total or considerable breakdown of authority resulting from internal or external conflict and which requires an international response that goes beyond the mandate or capacity of any single agency’. This definition implies not only conflict that threatens affected groups, but also significant difficulty in humanitarian access and significant security risks for humanitarian agencies and workers.

3.3 Underlying drivers of vulnerability

Poverty and vulnerability to disasters are integrally linked and mutually reinforcing (Wisner et al. 2004). The poor are forced to exploit environmental resources for survival, thereby increasing both the risk and exposure to disasters, in particular those triggered by floods, drought and landslides. Deforestation and agriculture on marginal land, or destruction of forests for firewood collection, are often induced, or at least exacerbated, by poverty. These practices directly affect the natural environment, and may hurt the very resource base that these poor people are depending on. Indeed, the rural communities, which depend on resource-based activities, are the worst sufferers of the disaster impacts (Shaw 2006).

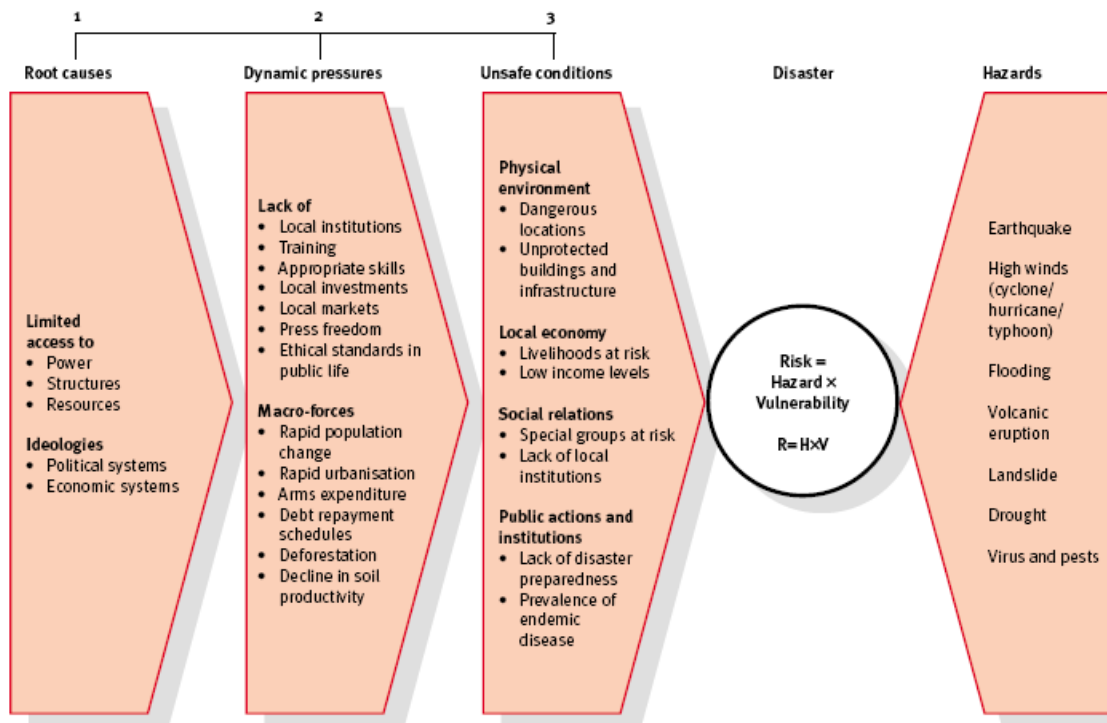
For many of the world’s poor people, four trends threaten to further increase their vulnerability¹³:

- there are many more people living in urban slums built on precarious land.
- the increasing pressure on farmland, caused by drought, population density, and increasing demand for meat and dairy products in emerging economies, means that more people will find it difficult to get enough to eat.
- climate change, environmental degradation, and conflict are likely to drive more people from their homes, stripping them of their livelihoods, assets, and the networks of family and communities that can support them. Some estimates suggest that up to one billion people will be forced from their homes by 2050.
- the global economic crisis is increasing unemployment and undermining social safety nets.

Unlike emergencies following natural catastrophes, protracted crises are often the result of failed institutions and conflicts over resources. They are characterized by poor or non-existent public services, high susceptibility to violence, and the absence of regulation in the productive and trade sectors. As countries become less able to protect their citizens, widespread hunger is a common consequence.

¹³ <http://blogs.oxfam.org/en/blog/09-04-21-natural-disasters-will-hurt-more-people-due-to-climate-change-inequality>

The progression of vulnerability



B. Wisner et al., *At Risk: Natural Hazards, People's Vulnerability and Disasters* (London: Routledge, 2004), p. 51.

3.4. Improving crisis prevention and management

It is no secret that disasters are eroding decades of effort in development, in terms of political progress, social and educational issues and infrastructure and technological development (ISDR 2007). The Inter-American Development Bank (IADB) says that disasters are “clearly a development problem”. Several studies have highlighted the fact that money invested in development is wasted unless precautionary action is taken toward reducing disaster risk (DfID, 2004, UNDP, 2004; IADB, 2000). So why do such investments continue to take place without reliable risk management frameworks in place? While many development agencies have disaster response units, only very few consider the need to integrate a precautionary vision into design and management of projects. The more money invested in development without risk awareness, the more money is lost when a disaster occurs.

Many of the poorest are the most vulnerable to being affected by disasters as often settled on the most marginal lands. Development investments are needed to raise these individuals out of poverty, yet disasters often push people into poverty – how can this vicious cycle be broken?

Environmental degradation is directly related to poverty (DfID *et al.*, 2002; Mainka *et al.*, 2005), particularly in developing countries and heavily populated coastal areas. People who live in environmentally degraded areas, for example where soil erosion has been heavy leading to loss of soil fertility, like in northern Ethiopia, struggle on a daily basis to survive. When ecosystems are not healthy, ecosystem services that all humans rely on cannot take place.

3.5. Humanitarian implications of climate change

In 2007, the Fourth Assessment Report of the IPCC authoritatively established that human-induced climate change is accelerating and already has severe impacts on the environment and human lives. A significant impact of climate change is the increase in the frequency and severity of certain hazards. In the coming decades, climate change is expected to exacerbate the risks of disasters, not only from more frequent and intense hazard events, but also through greater vulnerability to the existing hazards. More frequent and intense storms and floods and long-lasting droughts can erode existing community coping capacity to prepare, respond and rebuild after successive hazard events. The other adverse impacts of climate change, for example on public health, ecosystems, food security, migration will increase the vulnerability of communities to natural hazards of all types. This in turn may also exacerbate the struggle for access to, or control of, scarce resources and increase the likelihood of migration or even conflict. Any increase in disasters, whether large or small, will threaten development gains and hinder the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals. Many of the countries that are already of humanitarian concern and which have populations that are highly vulnerable will face even greater risks because of the impacts of climate change.

Environmental refugees

The estimated 25 million annual number of displaced due to climatic disasters. Global warming is expected to increase, due to global warming, to 200 million by 2050, with a deeper impact in the semi-arid ecosystems. Most climate refugees will come from Asia, Africa, Latin America and small island states. According to the report of the Foundation for Environmental Justice¹⁴, climate change may force 10% of the world's population to move.

Pacific Regional Framework, Secretariat of the South Pacific Applied Geoscience Commission¹⁵

To implement the HFA, the Pacific Region in 2005 developed the "Pacific Regional Framework for Action 2005-2015: An Investment for Sustainable Development in the Pacific Island Countries". Designed to build the resilience of nations and communities against disasters, this Framework was endorsed and adopted by Pacific Forum leaders. It builds on already close and sustained disaster risk reduction collaboration among the countries over the past ten years.

The Framework describes the growing vulnerability of Pacific Island nations and communities to the impacts of hazards. This vulnerability has increased national and regional commitments to disaster risk reduction and disaster management on an 'all hazards' basis in order to sustain the region's development. The Framework has six priority areas: (i) governance - organizational, institutional, policy and decision-making frameworks; (ii) knowledge, information, public awareness and education; (iii) analysis and evaluation of hazards, vulnerabilities and elements at risk; (iv) planning for effective preparedness, response and recovery; (v) effective, integrated and people-focused early warning systems; and (vi) reduction of underlying risk factors.

The Costs and Benefits of Disaster Risk Reduction¹⁶

Reviews of available literature coupled with emerging insights from field work on the role of DRR (Disaster Risk Reduction) in relation to climate change and evolving patterns of vulnerability demonstrate that:

¹⁴ EJF (2009) *No Place Like Home - Where next for climate refugees?* Environmental Justice Foundation: London
http://www.ejfoundation.org/pdf/climate_refugees_final.pdf

¹⁵ www.sopac.org

¹⁶ Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2007 *Costs and Benefits of Disaster Risk Reduction*, High Level Dialogue Information Note No 3,
http://www.preventionweb.net/files/1084_InfoNote3HLDdialogueCostsandBenefits.pdf

- Investments in DRR can generate high economic returns. Benefit-cost ratios of 4 and higher are widely documented in the literature.
- Not all forms of DRR will perform equally well under evolving contexts: The ability to generate high returns from investment requires substantive work to identify strategic approaches where returns are likely to be robust despite inherent uncertainties.
- Data, analytical and inherent issues in the valuation of some non-market goods will continue to constrain the widespread applicability of CBA as a decision making tool at the project level.
- Making the case for continued investment in disaster risk reduction depends heavily on demonstrating the economic and other returns to investments.

3.6. Better environmental information to prevent disasters¹⁷

In many places around the world, people have been forced to deplete natural resources to a point of complete degradation simply because there are no other livelihood alternatives. The process of development also carries with it environmentally damaging activities, such as land clearing for settlement or agricultural expansion, redirecting of rivers for agricultural, domestic or industrial purposes, and pollution – including greenhouse gas emissions. The trade-offs between development and environment were recognized by the World Commission on Environment and Development, and since the early 1980s, the concept ‘sustainable development’ has attempted to encourage environmentally, socially and economically sound development.

Damage to environmental resources affects the environmental sustainability and poses challenges in achieving the MDG7 – ensuring environmental sustainability.

Environmental degradation is one of the underlying causes of disaster risk. Ample evidence indicates that better environmental information and/or environmental management could effectively support disaster risk reduction, post-disaster response and environmental and humanitarian recovery efforts. This has led to increased understanding of the contributions that natural systems make in reducing the impacts of disasters, the environmental consequences of disasters and of post-disaster recovery.

Some of the global environmental themes include – changing unsustainable patterns of consumption and production, climate change, desertification, drought, forests, industrial development, protecting and managing the natural resource base of economic and social development, waste management, water, etc. – all within the overall purview of disaster management and vulnerability.

Geographical Information Systems¹⁸

Rapid advances in information and communications technologies, especially Geographical Information Systems (GIS), are revolutionising the potential capacity to analyse hazards, risks and vulnerability, and plan for disasters.

The term GIS is currently applied to computerized information storage, processing and retrieval systems that have hardware and software specifically designed to cope with geographically referenced spatial data and corresponding attribute information. The spatial data is commonly in the form of "layers", which may depict topography, water availability, soil types, forests and grasslands, climate, geology, population, landownership, administrative boundaries and infrastructure (highways, railroads, electricity or communications systems).

Evidence from development applications has highlighted several common operational problems that cause GIS initiatives to fail. These include:

¹⁷ http://www.preventionweb.net/files/13199_DEWGAIntegratingenvironmentandDRRSt.pdf

¹⁸ <http://www.odihpn.org/documents/gpr9/part1.pdf>

- Underestimation of the workload required to input, retrieve and analyse data.
- Technical facilities (software, hardware, networks) that are inadequate.
- Selection of data based on cost rather than usefulness.
- Lack of systematisation in collecting, inputting and storing data.
- Inadequate training or staff who is not sufficiently qualified to manage GIS.

In many developing countries, resource information collection and processing systems are still relatively undeveloped. This means that application of GIS at the country and subcountry level will, in many cases, need to be accompanied by the improvement of existing information collection systems and the introduction of new ones.

3.7. Innovative technologies for relief interventions

Innovative technologies for cash delivery¹⁹

There is growing use of the provision of cash as a mechanism to provide relief to people after disasters, on the part of international aid agencies and governments. The banking industry is also undergoing rapid changes, with new technologies providing different options for making payments and delivering banking services. The use of cash, as opposed to 'in kind' assistance, remains a relatively new approach and aid agencies are at the early stages of developing guidelines, policies and organisational capacity to implement cash projects.

One of the main concerns that agencies have when undertaking cash interventions in less developed countries is finding a safe and reliable mechanism for physically delivering cash into people's hands (Levine and Carrington, 2009).

There are many ways in which money can be transferred to people: the direct delivery of cash (by an agency or a sub-contracted party); cash payments at banks or post-office branches (with or without using bank accounts); and payments into bank accounts or wallets, accessed using smart cards, ATMs, Point of Sale (PoS) devices or mobile phone technologies. There are a range of options, from operating entirely outside of the payments and banking systems to operating entirely within the banking system.

Delivery agents include governments, aid agencies, banks, post offices, mobile phone companies, micro-finance companies, security companies, local traders ...

Some successful examples in African countries

In Kenya, (i) as part of the Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP), cash is delivered using a smart card system. Recipients have their fingerprints scanned and receive a smart card that they take to a local trader or agent to get their cash. The local trader or agent uses a Point of Sale device to verify recipients' identities. (ii) Equity Bank is rolling out smart cards for the Hunger Safety Net Programme that are read on a Points of Sale that is connected to the bank's accounts records via the mobile phone network. Transactions records are updated whenever the PoS device comes into an area with mobile phone coverage.

In Malawi, in 2006/2007, Concern implemented a biometrically identified cash disbursement system, which involved: Concern staff (who prepare a database of recipients and card numbers); OIBM Bank (which passed on an authorization to transfer money from Concern to the smart card operator); and Malswitch, the smart card operator (which loaded money onto a smart card). Mobile banks (in this case OIBM Bank vehicles, which had Point of Sale devices) were dispatched to distribution points where recipients were able to get their cash.

¹⁹[http://www.reliefweb.int/rw/lib.nsf/db900sid/SNAA-8449F6/\\$file/Delivering_Money_low_res.pdf?openelement](http://www.reliefweb.int/rw/lib.nsf/db900sid/SNAA-8449F6/$file/Delivering_Money_low_res.pdf?openelement)

In Somalia, WFP are developing a software package to support a mobile-based voucher system where beneficiaries will be issued with a voucher card that will enable them to collect full food rations in smaller tranches from traders using an SMS-based debit system (Lofvall 2009).

In Swaziland, in 2007 and 2008, as part of Save the Children's Food and Cash Transfer Programme, different mechanisms were used to transfer cash: (i) direct distribution was used for child-headed households; (ii) bank accounts were opened at Standard Bank (SB) with the support of Save the Children, where people could withdraw their cash using debit cards at ATMs; and (iii) SB sub-contracted the Post Office to handle the disbursement of cash.

4. Food security at threat

4.1 Understanding 'famine', 'vulnerability' and 'livelihoods'

Howe and Devereux define famines in terms of the severity and magnitude of a crisis, relying heavily on measures of malnutrition and mortality, and posit different levels of famine. The FAO has defined famine only as the most extreme of crises, but has also attempted to define less severe 'phases' of crisis as well. Local definitions of famine may be strikingly different from those used by the humanitarian community. Livelihoods have become the framework through which food security is usually analysed. Livelihoods analysis is also often a framework for intervention – both in emergencies and in situations of chronic poverty. A livelihood 'comprises the capabilities, assets (including both natural and social) and activities required for a means of living'. While often focusing on food security as an outcome, a livelihoods approach therefore emphasizes understanding people's means of achieving this outcome: their assets, the strategies on which they rely, the constraints they face and the coping strategies they are forced to depend on to achieve outcomes in terms of food security and accessing other basic requirements. The emphasis is on both the means (livelihoods) and the ends (food security, health, shelter, safety). A livelihoods approach also requires understanding the competing objectives of poor households and the trade-offs that poor and disaster-affected people must inevitably make between consumption and savings or investment, or even among different consumption choices. At the same time, an analysis of key factors in the broader policy and institutional environment (the so-called PIPs box in the livelihoods framework – policies, institutions and processes) is increasingly important to a complete understanding of livelihoods. This emphasis on risk and vulnerability, and on the coping mechanisms on which vulnerable households and groups rely, is a recurrent theme in the contemporary literature on food and livelihood security. Vulnerability was classically understood to mean 'exposure to risks and the inability to cope with the consequences' of those risks, or more simply as sensitivity to livelihood shocks. More recent work has cast vulnerability less in terms of outcomes – for example malnutrition or starvation – and more in terms of hazards or causal factors – for example drought. This formulation leads to an analysis of the risk of a negative outcome in terms of the likelihood of a given hazard combined with the level of exposure of a given group to that hazard, and the ability of the group to deal (or 'cope') with the consequences.

Vulnerability is an extremely important component of food security analysis, albeit, like 'food security' itself, a difficult concept to measure. Vulnerability almost always has to be defined in specific situations that put people at risk of ill-health, loss of productive assets, loss of the ability to work, malnutrition or starvation. However, while food insecurity and famines may be linked to entitlement failures, entitlement failures in turn are often the result of political processes. Stephen Devereux underlines the political element of vulnerability: 'the intellectual progression from "old famine" to "new famine" thinking requires two paradigm shifts from famines as failures of food availability to failures of access to food, to failures of accountability and response'. The implied focus on the right to food – and impartially providing or facilitating access to food

according to need – is critical to a principled emergency food security strategy. But so too is the ability to understand causal factors, including political factors.

4.2 Increasing availability and access to food

World population is estimated to reach 9 billion by 2050 and, as diets change and incomes increase, demand for food is likely to grow by 70%²⁰. This requires accelerated agricultural production growth, including in countries where populations grow fastest. In many of those countries, natural resource limitations, exacerbated by climate change, place increasing demands on the efficient use of those resources. Most of the poor and hungry in the world live in rural areas, where agriculture – including crops, livestock, fisheries and forestry - forms the main economic activity. Small-scale farming is dominant: about 85% of farmers in developing countries produce on less than 2 hectares of land. Mixed crop/livestock smallholding systems produce about half of the world's food. Therefore, sustainable small-scale food production should be the focus of EU assistance to increase availability of food in developing countries. It has multiple effects of enhancing incomes and resilience for rural producers, making food available for consumers, and maintaining or enhancing environmental quality. When supporting small-scale agriculture EU assistance should prioritise intensification approaches that are sustainable and ecologically efficient, respecting the diverse functions of agriculture. This means inter alia optimising agri-inputs, integrated pest management, improved soil and water management and stress resistant crop varieties.

For this approach to be successful, production needs to be seen in a value chain context, with adequate access to financing, processing and markets, where small and medium enterprises and rural micro-finance can play a key role. Under the right conditions, public-private partnerships can play an important role in boosting agricultural productivity.

Secure access to land and secure land tenure and use rights are prerequisites for higher productivity of small holder farmers. Effective national land policies and laws are essential, requiring governments to take priority action on land. Where countries develop policies on agriculture, land, and biofuels the EU and its Member States should advocate that these policies address concerns over availability and access to food and stimulate the integration of smallholder farmers in production chains.

Major determinants of food access include: 1) sufficiency – access to sufficient amounts of food to ensure that people have enough to meet energy requirements; 2) diversity – access to different types of food to meet basic nutrient requirements; 3) a psychological dimension relating to deprivation, restricted choice or anxiety about food; and 4) the social or cultural acceptability of consumption patterns.

While these indicators measure the access element of food security, it is now widely agreed that livelihoods indicators more broadly capture the elements that underpin food access, and may be equally well correlated with food security in the longer term than some of these specific food access indicators. The most commonly accepted indicators of livelihoods include measures of household assets, sources of income and livelihood, diversification of livelihood and income, and expenditure and expenditure ratios.

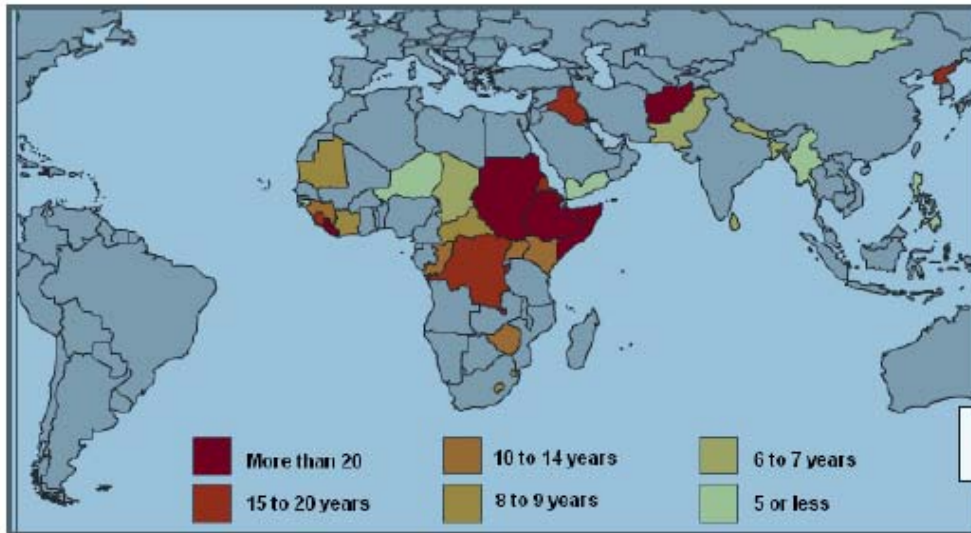
Understanding the role of markets in food security

A complete analysis of food security requires an understanding of markets. This includes understanding the actions and expectations of market players: traders, importers, households and policymakers. Increasingly, it is recognised that emergency interventions (especially those involving either cash or food transfers) have important market impacts, and that there are

²⁰ FAO 2009. *How to feed the world in 2050*.

occasions when markets themselves may be better mechanisms for delivering goods and services – even to emergency-affected populations – than are normal humanitarian programmes. Assessing both the functioning of markets and the availability of food and other commodities in local and regional supply is necessary to determine if market-based interventions can succeed. The functioning of markets depends very much on the nature of the crisis. Some kinds of crisis may undermine the market function itself; others (for example the Indian Ocean tsunami) may wreak havoc on infrastructure and human life, but leave production and marketing functions relatively untouched.

Location and duration of food emergencies



Source: based on GIEWS (2010).

33 countries currently face a food security crisis, 14 of which have been in this situation for more than a decade. When emergencies continue for such extended periods of time, traditional humanitarian and development paradigms are not suitable for guiding effective responses. Rather than engaging in *ad hoc* relief programmes, interventions should follow longer term strategies and build on local institutions. Unlike emergencies following natural catastrophes, protracted crises are often the result of failed institutions and conflicts over resources. They are characterized by poor or non-existent public services, high susceptibility to violence, and the absence of regulation in the productive and trade sectors. As countries become less able to protect their citizens, widespread hunger is a common consequence.

Conflicts: source of food insecurity

Conflicts increase the risk of food supply instability tremendously. Countries in conflict and post-conflict situations tend to be food insecure, with more than 20% of the population, and in many cases far more, lacking access to adequate food (IFPRI, 2006). The group of countries that are experiencing civil conflicts cannot meet their basic needs and are large importers of food. In addition, the transport of commodities is hazardous and the situation is not secure enough for farmers to make investment decisions.

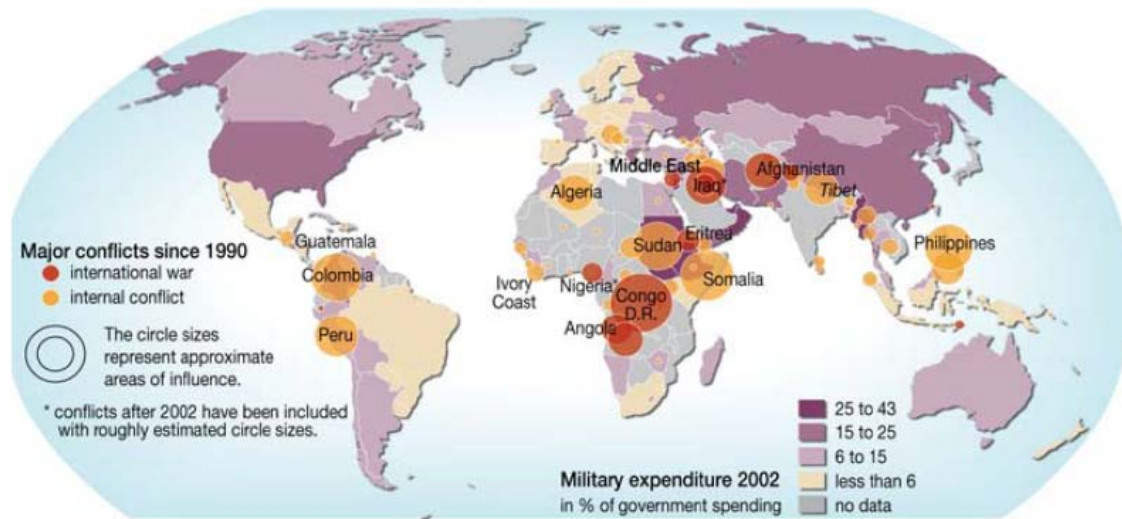


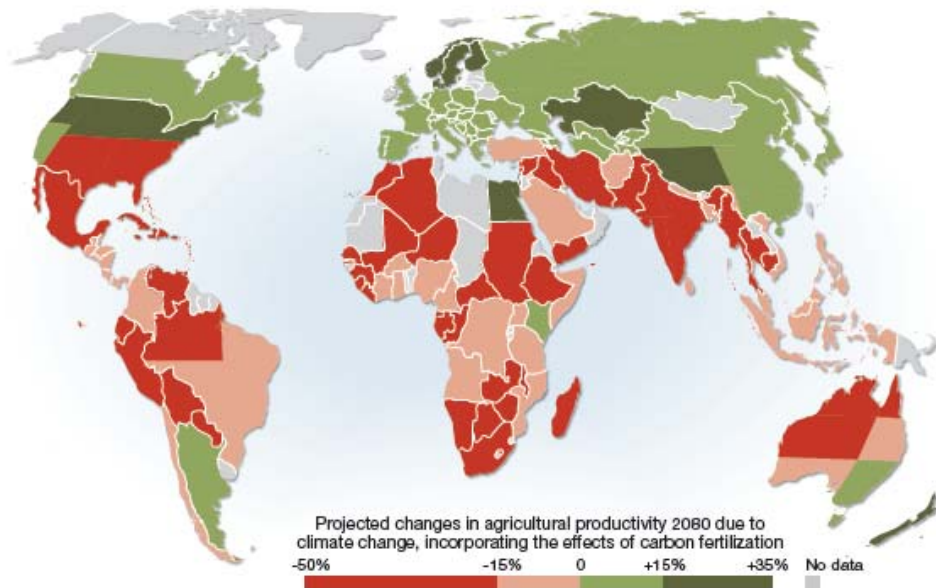
Figure 31: Crushed by war and world conflicts. For people in countries at war or subject to economic embargos, many goods are scarce, with shortages of food and water being the most crucial. (Source: PRIO, 2004).

a. Projected losses in food production due to climate change

According to the IPCC projections for Africa, agricultural production and access to food is projected to be severely compromised by climate variability and change; there is an expected decrease in the area suitable for agriculture, length of growing seasons and yield potential, particularly along margins of semi-arid and arid areas; and in some countries, yields from rain-fed agriculture could decrease by up to 50% by 2020 (IPCC, 2007).

Based on a consensus estimate of 6 climate models and two crop modelling methods, Cline (2007) concluded that by 2080, assuming a 4.4° C increase in temperature and a 2.9% increase in precipitation, global agricultural output potential is likely to decrease by about 6%, or 16% without carbon fertilization. Cline suggested a range of output potential decline between 10 and 25% among regions. As climate change increases, projections have been made that by 2080 agricultural output potential may be reduced by up to 60% for several African countries, on average 16–27%, dependent upon the effect of carbon fertilization (Figures 18 and 19). These effects are in addition to general water scarcity as a result of melting glaciers, change in rainfall patterns, or overuse. In order to understand the factors underpinning the food crisis and to assess trends, UNEP commissioned a Rapid Response team of internal and international experts²¹. The experts argue that, unless more sustainable and intelligent management of production and consumption are undertaken food prices could indeed become more volatile and expensive in a world of six billion rising to over nine billion by 2050 as a result of escalating environmental degradation. Up to 25% of the world food production may become 'lost' during this century as a result of climate change, water scarcity, invasive pests and land degradation. The report makes seven significant recommendations. These include real opportunities for boosting aquaculture and fish farming without intensifying damage to the marine environment alongside ones highlighting the opportunities for minimizing and utilizing food.

²¹ *The Environmental Food Crisis: The Environment's Role in Averting Future Food Crises*, United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), February 2009



Projected losses in food production due to climate change by 2080. (Source: Cline, 2007).

b. Micro-level practices to adapt to climate change for African small-scale farmers²²

Rural producers and communities need to be resilient against the effects of food-related crises. While short term responses to crises often require mobilisation of ad hoc humanitarian instruments, other mechanisms and capacities need to be built and maintained to reduce the risks of crises occurring and to manage their effects. Close linkage between humanitarian and development actors and instruments is essential and should be promoted using Linking Relief Rehabilitation and Development (LRRD) principles.

African smallholders are already using a wide variety of creative practices to deal with climate risks; these can be further adjusted to the challenge of climate change by planned adaptation programs. Adaptation policies should complement farmers' autonomous response to climate change through the development of new drought-resistant varieties and improved weather forecasts, the provision of financial services, improvement of rural transportation infrastructure, investments in public healthcare and public welfare programs, and policies that improve local governance and coordinate donor activities.

[...] Adaptation is an iterative, dynamic, multiscale, and multi-actor process, not a mechanical adjustment to a current state (Osbaahr et al. 2008). [...] The multi-actor character of adaptation means that it involves a variety of stakeholders, such as rural households, private businesses, NGOs, and governments at local, regional, national, and international levels. Any realistic assessment of adaptation practices needs to take into account the linkages between actors and levels (Smit and Skinner 2002). In summary, adaptation is highly context sensitive, and determining when the climate is the driving force behind adaptation behavior is difficult.

[...] The practices address a wide range of adjustments in the behavior of individuals, groups, and institutions, as well as in the use and development of technologies. They include

²² IFPRI Below T. 2010, Micro-level practices to adapt to climate change for African small-scale farmers http://www.preventionweb.net/files/12863_IFPRIfeb2010.pdf

fundamental changes in the character of natural resource management, such as the construction of large reservoirs for irrigation, but also more subtle and less visible adjustments to ancient farming practices, such as the use of wild plants and animals as indicators of ecosystem variability and change. Because adaptation takes place at multiple levels and involves multiple actors, introducing or adjusting crop insurance—or even international grain futures markets—and making simple changes in the mix of traditional crops grown in a single field can also help smallholder farmers in Africa adjust to climate change.

It is possible to classify adaptation practices in the following five categories (which are not mutually exclusive):

- Farm management and technology (53% of practices mentioned in the literature)
- Farm financial management (15%)
- Diversification on and beyond the farm (14%)
- Government interventions in rural infrastructure, the rural health care services, and risk reduction for the rural population (13%)
- Knowledge management, networks, and governance (5%)

c. Food security information systems

Information is critical to any kind of emergency response. In the absence of good information it is impossible to know that an emergency is taking place, much less mount a credible response. Recent research has improved our understanding of the requirements of information, and several major initiatives are seeking to improve the quality of information. Since the famine in the Sahel over 30 years ago, the emphasis on information has been on early warning before crises. On the response side, the emphasis has been on commodity accounting – in other words, keeping track of food aid. Recently, however, it has become clear that early warning alone, even if well documented, is inadequate to plan a response, and the information requirements on the response side have more to do with monitoring *outcomes* than the previous emphasis on monitoring *inputs*. A much broader span of information is required across the board.

Nevertheless, almost by definition, emergencies are circumstances where information is less than perfect, and the humanitarian imperative often cannot wait for perfect information. At the same time, acting on poor or wrong information can compound a crisis. There is thus always a balance to be struck.

The concept of mapping poverty or hunger refers to the graphical representation of welfare and undernourishment estimates for highly disaggregated geographic units. Through this geospatial representation, the importance of geography and location, as determinants of food security, poverty and vulnerability become evident. Mapping exercises, on the grounds of recent advances in small area estimation methods, enable the identification of hunger or poverty hubs for small administrative areas, cities, villages, or even neighborhoods. At the core of the exercise lie participatory or household survey data the analytical results of which are projected on census data. Additional information from satellite images or digital maps enriches the informational content of the maps and provides valuable input in discussions for antipoverty policy design and interventions.

Baseline vulnerability analysis

Baseline analysis is the fundamental building block of *food security* information systems. As the name implies, baseline analysis concerns understanding existing conditions and livelihoods, vulnerabilities and capacities for dealing with risk, and critically *all* the risks and hazards that exist in a given location. It must also represent baseline or 'normal' benchmarks in the critical indicators of both food security and crisis (e.g. 'normal' levels of household food production and

staple-food prices). Good baseline analysis is difficult and expensive to do. It is difficult to calibrate the levels of analysis because there is always a wide area to cover, but inevitably crises occur on a more localised basis.

Lack of baseline information is often cited as a major constraint to planning appropriate responses – needs assessments give information about how bad a situation is, but to formulate the appropriate response information is needed on how much a ‘crisis’ situation differs from a ‘normal’ (baseline) situation. Baseline analysis is difficult to conduct at an appropriate scale and level of specificity, because it is never clear where subsequent disasters will occur.

Early warning

Early warning is the information needed for *prediction*, *early detection* and *mitigation* of the impacts of shocks so that they do not result in a humanitarian crisis, or to deploy needs assessment resources if they are resulting in a humanitarian crisis. Most critically, it is the information on which an early response must be mobilised. Early warning has to be an ongoing activity (i.e. it is a form of monitoring). Coverage has to be broad, both in terms of geography and hazards. This means that it tends to consist of trend analysis of a given number of specific indicators in comparison with baseline information.

Throughout much of the past 30 years, the emphasis in crisis information has been on early warning, though in many cases this has included needs assessment as well. Early warning has improved greatly, and most of it is now done by large-scale programmes at the national level (the Food Security Analysis Unit for Somalia, for example) or at international level (the Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWSNET) project, the Conflict Early Warning and Response Network (CEWARN)). National governments are usually responsible for early warning within countries, but in some cases are unable to fulfill this role. While the ability to generate early warning information has become the specialised field of a few agencies, the ability to analyse and synthesise such information is a task for the entire humanitarian community.

A major constraint to early response has been the question of how to interpret early warning information in a way that is objective and impartial. The Integrated Food Security and Humanitarian Phase Classification (IPC) tool attempts to synthesise a variety of indicators into a single classification system which enables degrees of severity to be diagnosed in various different contexts, allowing for impartial, needs-based responses to crises. This part of the tool is centred on a meta analysis of ‘outcome’ or status indicators (such as prevalence of malnutrition, mortality rates, food security status, assets and coping). That is, the IPC tool is concerned with both situational analysis and comparing across different situations. In this sense, the tool builds on an earlier classification scheme developed by Howe and Devereux (2002).

Emergency needs assessment

Emergency needs assessment, as the name implies, is the information that quantifies immediate needs for emergency assistance, to enable an appropriate response: number of people affected, type of assistance needed, quantities required, duration of assistance, which groups should be targeted, for how long. This may be strictly on life-saving interventions, or it may also look at livelihoods and underlying factors. ENA methodology has been improving, but continues to suffer from credibility problems and is the major element of information systems targeted for improvement by the WFP project Strengthening Emergency Needs Assessment Capacity (SENAC). To date, methodologies have ranged from simple checklists to more complex analytical procedures such as Household Economy Analysis. The revised Sphere Guidelines provide updated assessment standards in food security, food aid and nutrition. The Emergency Food Security Assessment Handbook was revised by WFP in 2005, and underwent another revision in 2008. It should also be noted that emergency food security needs assessment is related to a much broader field of food security and livelihoods assessment generally.

5. Towards more effective interventions

Most decision makers agree that the integration of disaster preparedness, mitigation and prevention measures into policy development is key to reducing the vulnerability of human populations to natural hazards. However, relief is very “visible”, action oriented, easy to quantify – tonnes of food distributed, number of family shelters shipped – and readily accountable to donor. However, in order to deal with protracted crises, short-term relief programmes need to be coupled with measures to address the underlying causes of food insecurity. Interventions must build on local institutions and livelihood adaptation strategies to achieve more sustainable solutions. The current aid architecture needs to be more flexible and support longer term interventions and development approaches, even during acute crisis situations.

Many factors contribute to the poor track record in dealing with protracted crises. Above all, donors lack the right instruments to achieve better results. Most development interventions currently fall into one of three categories: (i) humanitarian aid, which neglects long-term considerations; (ii) development assistance, which relies on functioning state institutions; and (iii) nation-building activities, which focus more on re-establishing the public sector than addressing the source of the problem. None of these instruments alone can effectively combat persistent food insecurity. Instead, protracted crises call for an integrated approach to development and humanitarian interventions. Emergency relief programmes should be coupled with efforts to prevent and mitigate risks for future crises. Such initiatives need to strengthen a country’s institutional framework and simultaneously address the short- and the long-term dimensions of an emergency. Policy makers thus need to intervene on two fronts: improve access to food through immediate support measures and address the root causes of the crisis through longer-term structural interventions. In this regard better coordination of all stakeholders is of crucial importance. Strengthening the participation of local partners and institutions will be one of the key ingredients to break the vicious cycle of continuing and self-perpetuating emergencies. Most importantly, the current aid architecture needs to be revised in order to effectively link long- and short-term interventions²³.

National or regional early warning systems capable of predicting imminent disasters need to be strengthened or developed where they do not exist, and better linked to decision making and response organisations. Linking weather data with nutritional information, crops and animal disease outbreaks and market prices, the systems need to draw their data from all levels, including community-level. To mitigate volatility, the stock-to-use ratio of food products needs to be improved by creating conditions for production increases and for adequate stock. Moreover, export restrictions of basic food products should be discouraged. This will include responding through market transparency (information on production, reserves, prices, etc.), promoting storage, and local/national food reserves where appropriate and feasible. The impacts of price volatility can be mitigated by using a range of measures, including the establishment of scalable safety nets, food security information systems, use of (weather, index) insurance, and an enhanced capacity to use price risk management instruments²⁴.

²³ Alinovi, L., Hemrich, G., & Russo, L. (eds).•• 2008. Beyond Relief: Food Security in Protracted Crisis. FAO and Practical Action Publishing. Rugby, U.K.

²⁴ IFPRI Below T. 2010, Micro-level practices to adapt to climate change for African small-scale farmers http://www.preventionweb.net/files/12863_IFPRIfeb2010.pdf

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<http://www.adrc.asia/>

ALNAP-Active learning network for accountability and performance in humanitarian action

<http://www.alnap.org/>

ELDIS - Institute of Development Studies

<http://www.eldis.org>

European Commission Directorate General Development

http://ec.europa.eu/development/index_en.cfm

European Commission Directorate General External Relations

http://ec.europa.eu/external_relations/index.htm

European Commission Humanitarian Aid

http://ec.europa.eu/echo/index_en.htm

FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

<http://www.fao.org/WAICENT/faoinfo/economic/giews/english/giewse.htm>

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery

www.gfdr.org/

Good Humanitarian Donorship

www.goodhumanitarianandonorship.org/

HPCR Conflict Prevention Initiative

<http://www.hpcr.org/>

Humanitarian Accountability Partnership

<http://www.hapinternational.org/>

Humanitarian Reform

www.humanitarianreform.org

ICRC - International Committee of the Red Cross

<http://www.icrc.org>

IFRC - International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies

<http://www.ifrc.org/>

IGAD- Intergovernmental Authority on Development Climate Predictions and Analysis Centre

<http://igad.int/>

OCHA- United Nations Office for the coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

<http://ochaonline.un.org/>

Provention Consortium

<http://www.proventionconsortium.org/?pageid=1>

Relief web

<http://www.reliefweb.int/>

RESPOND

<http://www.respond-int.org/Respond/>

SOPAC -Pacific Islands Applied Geo-science Commission

<http://www.sopac.org>

UN Humanitarian Affairs

<http://www.un.org/en/humanitarian/index.shtml>

UNCHR- United Nations Commissioner for Refugees

<http://www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/tehis/vtx/home>

UNEP- United Nations Environment Programme

<http://www.unep.net/Applications/>

UN High Commissioner for Refugees

<http://www.unhcr.org>

UNICEF

<http://www.unicef.org>

UNISDR- United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction Secretariat

www.unisdr.org

UNOSAT

<http://unosat.web.cern.ch/unosat/>

WHO –World Health Organisation

<http://www.who.int/en/>

World Bank Disaster Risk Management

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NGOs**ActionAid**

<http://www.actionaid.org/>

Action Contre la Faim

<http://www.actioncontrelafaim.org>

Christian Aid

<http://www.christianaid.org.uk/>

CARE

<http://www.care.org/>

CARITAS

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CONCERN Worldwide

<http://www.concern.net/>

International Rescue Committee

<http://www.theirc.org/>

Islamic Relief Worldwide

<http://www.islamic-relief.com/>

IUCN - International Union for Conservation of Nature

<http://www.iucn.org/>

Handicap International

<http://www.handicap-international.org/>

HealthNet International

<http://www.healthnetinternational.org>

Médecins sans Frontières

<http://www.msf.org/>

Plan International

<http://plan-international.org/>

Save the Children

<http://www.savethechildren.org/>

SOS Children's Village International

<http://www.sos-childrensvillages.org/pages/default.asp>

VOICE

<http://www.ngovoice.org/>

Glossary²⁵

Agenda for Protection

A programme of action comprising six specific goals to improve the protection of refugees and asylum-seekers around the world, agreed by UNHCR and States as part of the Global Consultations process, endorsed by the Executive Committee in October 2002, and welcomed by the General Assembly.

Assessment

Assessment & Re-Assessment: set of activities necessary to understand a given situation, entails the collection, up-dating and analysis of data pertaining to the population of concern (needs, capacities, resources, etc.), and the state of infrastructure and socio-economic conditions in a given location/area.

Assistance

Aid provided to address the physical, material and legal needs of persons of concern. This may include food items, medical supplies, clothing, shelter, seeds and tools, as well as the provision of infrastructure, such as schools and roads. "Humanitarian assistance" refers to assistance provided by humanitarian organization for humanitarian purposes (i.e., non-political, non-commercial, and non-military purposes).

Asylum

The granting, by a State, of protection on its territory to persons from another State who are fleeing persecution or serious danger. A person who is granted asylum may be a refugee. A person who has left her country of origin and has applied for recognition as a refugee in another country and whose request or application for refugee-status has not been finally decided.

Capacity

A combination of all the strengths and resources available within a community, society or organization that can reduce the level of risk, or the effects of a disaster.

Capacity Building

A process by which individuals, institutions and societies develop abilities, individually and collectively, to perform functions, solve problems and set and achieve their goals.

Complex emergency

A multifaceted humanitarian crisis in a country, region or society where there is a total or considerable breakdown of authority resulting from internal or external conflict and which requires a multi-sectoral, international response that goes beyond the mandate or capacity of any single agency. Such emergencies have a devastating effect on children and women, and call for a complex range of responses.

Disaster

A serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society causing widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources.

²⁵Sources: [http://www.reliefweb.int/rw/lib.nsf/db900sid/AMMF7HGBXR/\\$file/reliefweb_aug2008.pdf?openelement](http://www.reliefweb.int/rw/lib.nsf/db900sid/AMMF7HGBXR/$file/reliefweb_aug2008.pdf?openelement)
[http://www.reliefweb.int/rw/lib.nsf/db900sid/AMMF-6QLL5K/\\$file/unhcr-gen-jun06.pdf?openelement](http://www.reliefweb.int/rw/lib.nsf/db900sid/AMMF-6QLL5K/$file/unhcr-gen-jun06.pdf?openelement)
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<http://www.humanitarianreformforum.org>
<http://un-interpreters.org/glossaries/ocha%20glossary.pdf>

Disaster Legislation

The body of laws and regulations that govern and designate responsibility for disaster management concerning the various phases of disaster.

Disaster Management

Comprehensive approach and activities to reduce the adverse impacts of disasters.

Disaster Mitigation

A set of measures to reduce or neutralize the impact of natural hazards by reducing social, functional, or physical vulnerability.

Disaster Preparedness

The organization, education, and training of the population and all relevant institutions to facilitate effective control, early warning, evacuation, rescue, relief and assistance operations in the event of a disaster.

Disaster Prevention

The elimination or reduction of the likelihood that natural events may endanger human beings, their goods, their social assets, or their environment.

Disaster Response

A sum of decisions and actions taken during and after disaster, including immediate relief, rehabilitation, and reconstruction.

Disaster Risk

The magnitude of potential disaster losses, in lives, livelihoods and assets, which could occur to a particular community or group, arising from their exposure to possible future hazard events and their vulnerability to these hazards.

Disaster Risk Management

The systematic process of using administrative decisions, organization, operational skills and capacities to implement policies, strategies and coping capacities of the society and communities to lessen the impacts of natural hazards and related environmental and technological disasters. This comprises all forms of activities, including structural and non-structural measures to avoid (prevention) or to limit (mitigation and preparedness) adverse effects of hazards.

Disaster Risk Reduction

Action taken to reduce the risk of disasters and the adverse impacts of natural hazards, through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causes of disasters, including through avoidance of hazards, reduced social and economic vulnerability to hazards, and improved preparedness.

Displacement

Forcible or voluntary uprooting of persons from their homes by violent conflicts, gross violations of human rights and other traumatic events, or threats thereof.

Early Action

Often used with 'early warning', the term refers to either 'preventive action' or 'early response action'. Processes of consultation, policy making, planning, and action to reduce or avoid armed conflict.

Early Warning

The provision of timely and effective information, through identified institutions, that allows individuals exposed to a hazard to take action to avoid or reduce their risk and prepare for effective response.

Early Warning System

The set of capacities needed to provide timely and meaningful information to enable individuals and communities threatened by hazards to act in sufficient time and in an appropriate manner to reduce the

possibility of personal injury, loss of life and livelihoods, damage to property and the environment, and to prepare for effective response.

Emergency Management

The organization and management of resources and responsibilities for addressing all aspects of emergencies, in particular preparedness, response and rehabilitation.

Emergency preparedness

Consists of all activities taken in anticipation of a crisis to expedite effective emergency response. This includes contingency planning, stockpiling, the creation and management of standby capacities and training staff and partners in emergency response.

Emergency Relief

The immediate survival assistance to the victims of crisis and violent conflict. Most relief operations are initiated on short notice and have a short implementation period (project objectives are generally completed within a year). The main purpose of emergency relief is to save lives.

Emergency Response Fund (ERF)

An ERF is an OCHA-managed fund usually set up with contributions from more than one government donor. ERFs aim to provide rapid and flexible funding to in-country actors to address urgent and unforeseen humanitarian needs.

Global Humanitarian Assistance (GHA)

GHA is an independent project, established by Development Initiatives in 1999 to monitor funding for humanitarian action.

Global Humanitarian Platform (GHP)

A forum launched in July 2006 to bring together on an equal footing the three main families of the humanitarian community: NGOs, the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, and the United Nations and related international organizations to enhance the effectiveness of humanitarian action.

Good Humanitarian Donorship (GHD)

The GHD initiative was created by donor governments at a meeting in Stockholm in 2003 with the idea of working towards achieving efficient and principled humanitarian assistance. It provides a forum for donors to discuss good practice in funding humanitarian assistance. By defining principles and standards it provides a framework to guide official humanitarian aid and encourages greater donor accountability.

Geographic Information Systems (GIS)

An organized collection of tools (computer hardware and software), of information and of professional/technical knowledge which is used to input, store, retrieve, utilize, analyse and output geographically referenced data. A GIS is particularly useful in situations with a spatial dimension, such as knowing the locations of refugees, where water taps are and how far refugees need to walk to school.

Humanitarian Assistance

Aid that seeks, to save lives and alleviate suffering of a crisis affected population. Humanitarian assistance must be provided in accordance with the basic humanitarian principles of humanity, impartiality and neutrality, as stated in General Assembly Resolution 46/182.

Humanitarian Coordination

An approach based on the belief that a coherent response to an emergency will maximize its benefits and minimize potential pitfalls. In each country, the coordination of UN humanitarian assistance is entrusted to the UN Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator. OCHA, under the direction of the Emergency Relief Coordinator, is responsible for the coordination of a humanitarian response in the event of a crisis and carries out this role according to approved policies and structures set by the IASC.

Humanitarian Intervention

While there is no agreed upon international definition of “humanitarian intervention” yet, it is a doctrine generally understood to mean coercive action by States involving the use of armed force in another State without the consent of its government, with or without authorization from the UN Security Council, for the purpose of preventing or putting to a halt gross and massive violations of human rights or international humanitarian law.

Humanitarian Operations

Operations conducted to relieve human suffering, especially in circumstances where responsible authorities in the area are unable or unwilling to provide adequate service support to civilian populations.

In-Kind Contributions

Non-cash assistance in materials or services (e.g. food, tents, secondment of staff.)

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs)

Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to leave their homes or 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 human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

International Humanitarian Law (IHL)

A body of rules that seek, for humanitarian reasons, to limit the effects of armed conflict. It protects persons who are not or are no longer participating in the hostilities and restricts the means and methods of warfare by prohibiting weapons that make no distinction between combatants and civilians or weapons and methods of warfare which cause unnecessary injury, suffering and/or damage. The rules are to be observed not only by governments and their armed forces, but also by armed opposition groups and any other parties to a conflict. The four Geneva Conventions of 1949 and their two Additional Protocols of 1977 are the principal instruments of humanitarian law.

Natural Disaster

Natural disasters are events brought about by natural hazards that seriously affect the society, economy and/or infrastructure of a region. Depending on population vulnerability and local response capacity, natural disasters will pose challenges and problems of a humanitarian nature.

Natural Hazards

Natural processes or phenomena that may cause the loss of life or injury, property damage, social and economic disruption or environmental degradation. Comment: Natural hazards are a sub-set of all hazards – see definition of “hazard”.

Non-Governmental Organization (NGO)

An organized entity that is functionally independent of, and does not represent, a government or State. It is normally applied to organizations devoted to humanitarian and human rights causes.

Population at Risk

A well-defined population whose lives, property, and livelihoods are threatened by given hazards.

Post-Conflict Reconstruction

A generic term referring to the rebuilding of society in the aftermath of conflict. Physical infrastructures have to be repaired or re-built, governmental institutions have to be reformed, psychic traumas of civilians and combatants have to be treated, the economy has to be restarted, refugees to be repatriated, reconciliation between the belligerents has to be initiated, justice has to be delivered.

Post-Conflict Transition

The tenuous period immediately following the termination of conflict during which humanitarian needs must still be met and programs such as those for disarmament, demobilization, reintegration and

rehabilitation and for rebuilding infrastructure remain at an early stage. This period may also involve the temporary transfer of government functions to a UN transitional administration.

Preparedness

The capacities and knowledge developed by governments, professional response organizations, communities and individuals to anticipate and respond effectively to the impact of likely, imminent or current hazard events or conditions.

Prevention

Activities to provide outright avoidance of the adverse impacts of hazards and means to minimize related environmental, technological and biological disasters.

Reconstruction

A set of activities aimed at achieving the medium- and long-term recovery of the components and structures that have been affected by a disaster or emergency.

Recovery

A focus on how best to restore the capacity of the government and communities to rebuild and recover from crisis and to prevent relapses into conflict. In so doing, recovery seeks not only to catalyze sustainable development activities, but also to build upon earlier humanitarian programmes to ensure that their inputs become assets for development.

Refugee

A person, who owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, or for reasons owing to external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order in either part or the whole of his country of origin or nationality, is compelled to leave his place of habitual residence in order to seek refuge outside his country of origin or nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of his country of origin or nationality.

Rehabilitation

A set of measures aimed at restoring normal living conditions through the repair and reestablishment of vital services interrupted or degraded by a disaster or emergency.

Reintegration

A process which enables returnees to regain the physical, social, legal and material security needed to maintain life, livelihood and dignity and which eventually leads to the disappearance of any observable distinctions vis-à-vis their compatriots.

Relief

Assistance and/or intervention during or after disaster to meet the life preservation and basic subsistence needs. It can be of emergency or protracted duration.

Risk Management

A structured approach to manage uncertainty and potential losses through a process of risk assessment and the development of strategies and specific actions to control and reduce risks.

Risk Mapping

A risk map is a map of a community or geographical zone that identifies the places and the structures that might be adversely affected in the event of a hazard.

Acronyms

ACE	Assessment and Classification in Emergencies
ACMAD	African Centre of Meteorological Application for Development
ACF	Action Contre la Faim (Action Against Hunger)
AU	African Union
CCA	Climate change adaptation
CEWARN	Conflict Early Warning and Response Network
CFW	Cash for work
CHAP	Common Humanitarian Action Plan
CHF	Common Humanitarian Fund
CILSS	Permanent Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel
CSI	Coping Strategies Index
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
DIPECHO	Disaster Preparedness ECHO
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
ECHA	Executive Committee for Humanitarian Affairs
ECHO	European Commission Humanitarian Office
EC	European Commission
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EHRP	Emergency Humanitarian Response Plan
ENA	Emergency Needs Assessment
EPRS	Emergency Preparedness and Response Section (UNCHR)
ERCC	Emergency Relief Coordination Centre
EVHAC	European Voluntary Humanitarian Aid Corps
EU	European Union
EWS	Early warning Systems
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FCA	Forgotten Crisis Assessment (DG ECHO)
FEWSNET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
FFW	Food for work
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GHP	Global Humanitarian Platform
GIVAS	Global Impact and Vulnerability Alert System
GNA	Global Needs Assessment (DG ECHO)
GPAFS	Global Partnership for Agriculture and Food Security
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
HMSF	Humanitarian Multi-Stakeholder Fund
HRF	Humanitarian Response Fund
HSNP	Hunger Safety Net Programme
IATF/DR	Inter-Agency Task Force for Disaster Reduction
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross and the Red Crescent
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDNDR	International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction

IDP	Internally displaced person(s)
IDRL	International Disaster Response Law
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IHL	International Humanitarian Law
IPCC	Inter-governmental Panel on Climate Change
IRIN	Integrated Regional Information Networks
ISDR	International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
LRP	Local or Regional Purchase
MDG	Millennium development goal
NGO	Non-governmental organization
ODA	Official Development Assistance
ODSG	OCHA Donor Support Group
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OHRM	United Nations Office of Human Resources Management
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PDDR	Prevention Disarmament Demobilization Reintegration
PoC	Protection of Civilians
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RCC	Recovery Coordination Centre
REC	Regional Economic Commission
REDLAC	Latin America and Caribbean Network
RRM	Rapid Response Mechanism
RRR	Rapid Response Reserve
RUTF	Ready-to-use therapeutic food
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SARCOF	Southern Africa Regional Climate Outlook Forum
SENAC	Strengthening Emergency Needs Assessment Capacities
SFP	Supplementary Feeding Programme
SMART	Standardised Monitoring and Assessment of Relief and Transitions
SOPAC	Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission
STERP	Short Term Emergency Recovery Plan
TFP	Therapeutic feeding Programme
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNDAC	United Nations Disaster Assessment and Coordination
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNDSS	United Nations Department of Safety and Security
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFCCC	UN Framework Convention on Climate Change
UN HABITAT	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNISDR	United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction
UNOSAT	United Nations Operational Satellite
UNSMS	United Nations Security Management System
UNSSSS	United Nations Security and Stabilization Support Strategy
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAM	Vulnerability analysis and mapping
VOICE	Voluntary Organisation in Cooperation in Emergencies
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WMO	World Meteorological Organization