Food security & livelihoods.
Terre des hommes is the leading Swiss organisation for child relief. Founded in 1960, Terre des hommes helps to build a better future for disadvantaged children and their communities, with an innovative approach and practical, sustainable solutions. Active in more than 30 countries, Tdh develops and implements field projects to allow a better daily life for over 2.1 million children and their close relatives, particularly in the domains of health care and protection. This engagement is financed by individual and institutional support, of which 86% flows directly into the programs of Tdh.
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<tr>
<td>ACF</td>
<td>Action Contre la Faim [Action against Hunger]</td>
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<tr>
<td>CALP</td>
<td>Cash Learning Partnership</td>
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<tr>
<td>DAC</td>
<td>OECD Development Assistance Committee</td>
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<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development (UK)</td>
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<td>DG ECHO</td>
<td>European Community Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection Office</td>
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<td>DNH</td>
<td>Do No Harm</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
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<td>FFS</td>
<td>Farmer Field School</td>
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<td>FSL</td>
<td>Food Security and Livelihood(s)</td>
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<td>GRET</td>
<td>Groupe Recherche Echange Technologie [Group for Research Exchange and Technology]</td>
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<td>HEA</td>
<td>Household Economic Analysis</td>
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<td>HPN / ODI</td>
<td>Humanitarian Practice Network / Overseas Development Institute</td>
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<tr>
<td>IDS</td>
<td>Institute of Development Studies</td>
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<td>IFAD</td>
<td>International Fund for Agricultural Development</td>
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<td>IFPRI</td>
<td>International Food Policy Research Institute</td>
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<td>IGA</td>
<td>Income-generating activities</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>LRRD</td>
<td>Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development</td>
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<td>Microfinance Institution</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<td>PCM</td>
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<td>SDC</td>
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<td>SL</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
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<td>URD (Groupe)</td>
<td>Urgence Réhabilitation Développement [Emergency Rehabilitation Development]</td>
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<td>WASH</td>
<td>Water Sanitation and Hygiene</td>
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<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
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Introduction.

This document is the first attempt to provide a framework for Terre des hommes’ (TdH) actions in the sector of Food Security and Livelihoods. It aims to clarify the challenges as well as the objectives and methods the organisation has chosen to adopt for its interventions in this sector.

The document intends to provide a reference for the Department of Programmes as well as for field workers in our delegations around the world. Its goal is to offer our staff guidance on the basic principles for identifying, designing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating our sector-specific interventions.

Section I outlines the global challenges of food security and livelihoods along with the reasons prompting us to take action.

Section II concentrates more specifically on our action, and how the organisation perceives the short-term development of our Food Security and Livelihoods programme and its integration in our operational framework. It highlights its functional significance and planned synergies with the key areas Tdh works in: Child Protection and Maternal and Child Health Care.

Section III takes a closer look at our working methods and the range of actions the organisation proposes to take to achieve its programme goals. This section only intends to provide an outline of our thematic actions; forthcoming practical manuals will provide more detailed guidelines.

Section IV covers the cross-cutting issues that should inform our programme interventions, such as gender sensitivity, Do No Harm, targeting practices, participatory and community-based approaches, advocacy and involvement in coordination mechanisms.

The document is primarily targeted at an informed audience. The language may occasionally be inaccessible to some readers; the glossary at the end has been designed to help unravel some terms that are frequently used – sometimes too casually – for interventions in the Food Security and Livelihoods sector.

This document also has three annexes: Annexe I aims to highlight the main issues and challenges of social protection programmes (such as how these dovetail with universal benefits systems and the welfare state) that aim to strengthen the resilience of children, families and communities and contribute to social equity. It is not intended to regulate our actions but rather to provide an overview of the scale of the problem while also presenting the concept of the Food Security Floor. Annexe II covers sector-specific interventions in humanitarian crisis situations. Indeed, the destabilisation of the political, social and economic fabric sometimes requires adopting ad hoc instruments to tackle increased vulnerability, albeit from a perspective of linking humanitarian action to longer term approaches. Annexe III applies our Project Cycle Management methodology to build on several elements that are specific to the issue of Food Security and Livelihoods.

Finally, this document contains a select bibliography listing, by subject area, works that have been chosen for their capacity to summarise or clarify various topics.

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1 Since this document constitutes the first point of reference for guiding our interventions in the Food Security and Livelihoods sector, it shall remain for controlled circulation and be valid for three years from the date of publication, unless the Programmes Directorate extends it validity.
I. Food Security and Livelihoods.
According to FAO’s most recent estimates, between 2012 and 2014, about 805 million people (in other words, approximately the population of Europe and the United States combined) suffered from chronic undernutrition. This represents a decrease of 100 million people over the last decade, and of 209 million people since 1992. Over the same period, the prevalence of undernutrition worldwide dropped from 18.7 to 11.3% and from 23.4 to 13.5% in developing countries.2

The number of people in the world living below the extreme poverty line (USD 1.25 per day and per person)3 decreased from nearly two to less than one billion between 1981 and 2012. This development is all the more astonishing if one considers that over the same period the world’s population rose from 4.5 to 7 billion people.

This undeniable progress is, however, tempered by differences that persist between various regions around the world. While Latin America and the Caribbean have made huge progress on food security, in the last few decades, sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia have had much more mixed results. Furthermore, notwithstanding these positive trends, in certain regions around the world, inequalities not only persist but they are growing.

It is also worth noting that measures of poverty are not altogether accurate as they only include certain (non-monetary) social indicators of poverty. They do not reflect the path to precariousness (or vulnerability to poverty characterised by the periodic or persistent absence of one or more basic elements of security), the erosion of social cohesion, or the mechanisms of social disqualification and separation that lead to marginalisation and exclusion.

With an often devastating impact on the means of subsistence, climate change also thwarts the efforts of the most vulnerable sections of the population (generally working on small-scale and rain-fed agriculture) to feed their families and can have a substantial negative impact on recent progress made in the fight against hunger and poverty.4

In developing countries, the price of basic foods remains extremely volatile – indeed stubbornly high – and, as with any commodity, is often subject to uncontrolled or poorly controlled speculation. The poorest households, who spend a large portion of their income on their nutritional needs, are the first to suffer.

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3 The World Bank has recently revised the extreme poverty line to USD 1.90.
With a few exceptions, food insecurity is a phenomenon that is often overlooked. While famines grab the headlines, “hunger and endemic food insecurity – the fate of millions of people, with one person out of seven affected worldwide – rarely attract media attention because they are nothing new”. Yet the right to food was recognised in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and adopted as a binding obligation by the one hundred and sixty-two countries that ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights reiterated at the World Food Summits (1996, 2002 and 2009).

Eradicating hunger is a critical step towards laying the foundations of development in other sectors (in particular, health and education). For example, according to WHO, more than one billion people do not have access to adequate, often life-saving, health care because of the quality of the services and the distance/time taken to reach the health care facilities, but also because of patient payment systems. Hunger is also often a cause of social destabilisation and can have potentially disastrous consequences on a country’s development. Hunger destroys any chances of reversing the trend and is therefore intrinsically linked to malnutrition and poverty (and the intergenerational transmission of poverty).

Poverty is a modern form of discrimination and exclusion, which prevents those who suffer from it from meeting their basic needs, developing their potential, being fully-fledged citizens, participating in collective social, political and economic processes and, in general, determining their own fate with dignity. After more than two decades, the fight against poverty is on the international community’s agenda and has become a priority for organisations working on development cooperation, as well as for the countries that are the most deeply affected. However, results have been mixed. In fact, to be effective, any action in the fight against poverty must resolutely subscribe to an approach to reduce inequality and recognise that hunger is primarily a problem of access to essential and nutritious foods, not one of production.

Reducing or indeed eradicating hunger and poverty calls for a range of initiatives and public policies based on integrated approaches, which include measures to promote better access to agricultural inputs, land, services, technology and markets. Investments are also needed to increase agricultural productivity for families and businesses as well as tangible universal social protection measures. Actions must be specifically targeted at vulnerable individuals (in particular in terms of strengthening their resilience to disasters) and nutrition interventions must be aimed specifically at alleviating the effects of undernutrition.

The greatest of evils and the worst of crimes is poverty.
George Bernard Shaw

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6 For example, contrary to all expectations, food riots have resumed since 2006, primarily as a result of a sharp rise and the hyper-volatility of food prices. In addition, hunger also weakens the economy in more subtle ways, by reducing the access to services and the means of production. It can sometimes lead to exclusion and occasionally violent political struggles. It must be emphasised that modern food crises are not generally the result of shortages, but of access to food.

7 “Hunger, and the malnourishment that accompanies it, prevents poor people from escaping poverty as it diminishes their ability to learn, work, and care for themselves and their family members. If left unaddressed, hunger sets in motion an array of outcomes that perpetuates malnutrition, reduces the ability of adults to work and to give birth to healthy children, and erodes children’s ability to learn and lead productive, healthy, and happy lives. This truncation of human development undermines a country’s potential for economic development – for generations to come.” Agriculture, Food Security, Nutrition and the Millennium Development Goals. IPFRI, 2005.
The Sustainable Livelihoods conceptual framework.

The analytical framework on Sustainable Livelihoods (SL, see the FAO’s illustration below) developed by DFID and frequently used by a large number of international organisations, clearly explains a households’ methods of survival. At the centre is the individual and their assets (or capital). It illustrates the impact and influence of policies and institutions as well as the vulnerability context on the individual.

In operational terms, the Sustainable Livelihoods approach establishes a theory of change based on four main aspects: i) the context, or the factors that determine a vulnerable situation and upon which the sustainability of interventions as well as the trends (economic, social, etc.) depend; ii) the assets or capacities, the belongings, the means and the resources that an individual or a household have in the form of capital (natural, human, financial, physical and social); iii) the institutions and processes of transformation that identify the authorities with the capacity to influence the vulnerability factors as well as the individual’s or household’s assets and iv) the livelihood strategies in place or to be developed and backed by the intervention, which lead to concrete and sustainable improvements in the livelihoods of individuals and households.⁹

Hunger and poverty

“Hunger is a consequence of poverty, as lack of income is the main cause of people not having access to sufficient food to enable them to enjoy an adequate diet. Hunger itself causes undernourished people to be trapped in poverty. There is a vicious circle linking hunger and poverty. Indeed, poverty is also a consequence of chronic undernourishment. Undernourishment contributes to keeping people in poverty. A hungry person has a reduced physical and intellectual development, and his/her working capacity is reduced. He or she is also more likely to become ill and therefore not to be able to work at all. Undernourishment is also a vector of inheritance of poverty. Women who are weak because of insufficient food during pregnancy, give birth to small and fragile children who are more likely to suffer from a physical or even a mental disability at birth and throughout their lives. An undernourished child performs less well at school, first because of a reduced concentration for studying – due to hunger – but also often because of an inadequate intellectual development. Finally, poverty is often the enemy of risk-taking: a poor person will hesitate to get involved in risky economic activities, which are often the most profitable.” Materne Maetz

⁸ Rapid guide for missions, Analysing local institutions and livelihoods. FAO, 2006. It should be noted that certain actors (e.g. WFP) make up a sixth category: political assets (power relations, access to the political decision-making process at local and national level, influence on this decision-making power, etc.).

This model has the significant benefit of illustrating the complexity of the notions of poverty and exclusion, avoiding analyses that are too macroscopic and based on stereotypes. Its structure encourages one to address the priorities of the poor through programme policies that adopt cross-cutting approaches thus enabling identification of the entry points and levers for our interventions.

There are, however, two major drawbacks:

1) The approach is centred resolutely on the individual (or at best on the household) and their assets. It therefore tends to diminish the role and impact of public policies on the households’ livelihoods and risks, derailing thoughts and actions (the institutions create an environment in which the individuals interact through exchanges based exclusively on their personal interests).

2) There are disadvantages to basing the analysis on the individual (or household) and not on the territory (spatial study of human activities). In fact, the territorial approach allows one to take into account everyone present in a geographical unit and the way they organise themselves within their common and shared space (not just as individuals within the same space). It therefore provides details that allow for a clearer understanding of exoduses, migrations, seasonal migrations, etc.

These two drawbacks can, however, be countered through awareness and a specific analysis of the determinants of undernutrition.
II. Our intervention.
Where possible, Tdh takes an integrated approach based on principles of interconnection, coordination and the development of synergies with programmes run in other sectors. Livelihoods-based approaches are therefore used as a response to strengthen the effects and impacts of the Maternal and Child Health and Child Protection programmes.

This goal is based on the finding that Food Security and Livelihoods interventions often involve providing economic support and social protection, as well as actions to promote nutritional security and to prevent stunting. The main expected results are to promote the empowerment of marginalised groups and improve the nutritional status of the most vulnerable groups and those affected by undernutrition.

To achieve these results and be consistent with its two areas of expertise, Tdh has two specific objectives, which are:

i) to help strengthen and extend the provision of social protection and economic support by setting up safety nets, access to finance for income-generating activities, training, etc.

ii) to take part in reducing infant mortality through a preventive approach on promoting nutrition.

Tdh aims to develop the Food Security and Livelihoods sector significantly by linking it to the Maternal and Child Health programme and the Child Protection programme. This will allow it to analyse in detail the effectiveness of incorporating it with its operational set-up (in terms of changes and tangible effects on the objectives of the Health or Child Protection programmes). Over time, it will enable Tdh to pinpoint the key areas it wishes to focus on.

However, in the context of acute crises, the issue of Food Security and Livelihoods will occasionally be brought to the fore without necessarily seeking synergies with Tdh’s other areas of intervention. Indeed, certain disruptive events (conflicts, displacement, droughts, etc.) have harmful and immediate consequences on the households’ economy (such as reducing consumption, creating a need for an alternative income stream to the family business, increased dependence on the markets, exclusion, etc.), which require the adoption of a framework of priorities and actions that are resolutely focused on livelihoods.

Reasons for acting and short-term objectives.

I long to accomplish a great and noble task, but it is my chief duty to accomplish small tasks as if they were great and noble. Helen Keller
Many practitioners have conducted research and promoted an intersectoral strategy to fight against poverty, arguing that poverty can only effectively be reduced if the economic, social and institutional sectors are all mutually strengthened. Any development work must be multidimensional and seek to consolidate the capacities of the households and communities. IFAD summarises these causal links well and consequently the importance of the cross-cutting approaches: “Social investments, as part of an intersector strategy, make people stronger, healthier and better educated. When people’s basic social needs are met, they are better able to profit from their economic enterprises. They feel fitter, more protected and confident, and as a result are more receptive to information and innovation. They form a more stable labour force, which in turn makes for more stable levels of production. For the poorest and most vulnerable households in particular, meeting basic needs is essential to moving towards improved incomes and living conditions. Once individuals have become more productive, they can then invest in better health, schooling and more functional social networks, provided that facilities and quality services are available and accessible. An intersector strategy strengthens the links between social and economic sectors, which is especially important in supporting very poor and vulnerable households.”

The links with Maternal and Child Health

There is an increasing recognition of the close relationship between the concepts of food security, nutrition and livelihoods and the need to combine them together to achieve greater synergy. Children affected by malnutrition generally live in poor households where the sustainability of the livelihoods, which are essential to ensure food security, health and adequate care, is not guaranteed. The precarious nature of the livelihoods is often the cause of undernutrition. Undernutrition remains one of the crucial challenges of public health. One third of children in developing countries are underweight or suffer from stunting. “In its various forms, undernutrition is the cause of 45% of deaths of children in this age group. Either it kills them or it has long-lasting effects on the physical and cognitive development of the younger generation, their educational attainment and career success. Undernutrition is a health crisis that leads to considerable economic losses and has long-term harmful effects on the overall development of vulnerable communities.”

Regardless of political crises and natural disasters, undernutrition rates are the result of a combination of factors: problems of availability and access to food and a varied diet; a lack of micronutrients; the presence of infectious and debilitating diseases; limited access to water and sanitation; a lack of adequate health care services; a lack of awareness of or poor hygiene practices; gender inequality in the household and society, unhealthy behaviour and poor child health care practices. The conceptual framework of undernutrition clearly shows some of these causal links and the interaction between the various factors that contribute to undernutrition and in the longer term to the development of the individual and their health.

We know that, originally, the word discipline was used for naming a small whip for self-flagellation, therefore allowing self-criticism; in its inferior form, discipline becomes a way to flagellate the one adventuring in the field of ideas that the specialist considers to be his property.

Edgar Morin
**Links with Child Protection**

The effects of economic fragility on children and young people are both direct and indirect. If the parents are in a precarious situation, they are unlikely to be able to give their children the required attention. The impact of a chronic food insecurity event or situation on the children’s education is, however, less clear. If there is not enough food, education (school or vocational training) can swiftly become a secondary urgency within the family. Over time this perpetuates the cycle of poverty and child exploitation. Today, approximately 98 million boys and girls aged between 5 and 17 work on farms. Worldwide, nearly 60% of child labour is employed in agriculture and most are unpaid members of the family. 15

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15 ILO, FAO. Of course child labour is not inherently harmful and it can lead to a genuine transfer of knowledge if there is no barrier to education and the working conditions are acceptable in terms of hours, difficulty of the task and risk. For more information on the “International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture”, please refer to the joint FAO-ILO website.
Actions targeted at the protection, rehabilitation and development of livelihoods (IGA, financial support, training etc.) as well as specific social protection measures (social transfers, benefits, micro-insurance covering poor harvests and shocks, etc.) can help to reduce poverty and inequality, boost the development of the households’ productive potential and, by specifically including concerns about decent work, address the interaction between adult and child employment.  

Given that the security and well-being of children depends largely on their family’s wherewithal; the most lasting interventions target the household rather than the children in isolation. However, “older adolescents may also benefit directly from skills training, savings schemes, apprenticeships and other activities to develop their livelihoods”.  

Education can also be encouraged through school feeding programmes and food-for-schooling actions.

**Target groups**

Based on its objectives of integrating the Food Security and Livelihoods sector, Tdh’s priority target are the beneficiaries of the Maternal and Child Health and Child Protection actions. Often, it is the diverse needs of the vulnerable sections of the population that determine our response. In general, Tdh tries to develop specific criteria and processes to identify the poor in a position of inequality and dependence; vulnerability and poverty are complex and multi-dimensional concepts. They encompass not only the monetary issues of income and expenditure but can also take other forms (food and nutrition security, living conditions, access to basic services, social status and integration, ownership of goods and the means of production, etc.). Aware of the possibility of inclusion and exclusion errors with potentially harmful effects on social groups, Tdh prioritises targeting approaches and does what it can to avoid giving certain parties discretionary control over its projects’ strategic resources.

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16 “Although aimed at human development, few cash transfer programmes include the reduction of child labour as an explicit objective. But cash grants and the emphasis on schooling in many programmes are unlikely to leave the situation of child labour unaffected. Indeed, it is arguable that one reason for leaving out child labour as an explicit objective is that such programmes, if effective, are expected to alleviate conditions that give rise to it in the first place. This is borne out by a number of studies that show a reduction in child labour even when this was not a stated programme objective. Available evidence, however, is limited and somewhat mixed.” Hamid Tabatabai. *Conditional cash transfers and child labour: Experiences and opportunities.* ILO, 2010.

17 This approach does not apply to unaccompanied children (children separated from their parents and other members of their family and who are not taken care of by any adult to which the law or customs have attributed this responsibility).


19 This categorisation is inevitably overlooked where exposure to food insecurity is widespread (especially in the case of a sudden humanitarian crisis). In these instances, our response is targeted at the population as a whole.
III. Methods of intervention.
Convinced of the need to adapt its response to local challenges, Tdh has adopted a relatively broad range of approaches to improve food security and to protect, enhance and livelihoods. These approaches can be roughly grouped into two main categories: economic support and social protection (mainly IGAs and cash-based interventions) and actions to prevent infant mortality through nutritional promotion and the prevention of malnutrition. Training is a cross-cutting action that generally aims to consolidate the results of our programmes.

Economic support and social safety nets.

Cash-based interventions

Cash (or vouchers) is a viable alternative (or complement) to distributing aid inkind (food, seeds, medicines, equipment, etc.) and can be adapted to the goals that have been set. Due to its flexibility, money can indeed play a crucial role in various aid sectors and can, in particular, help to provide better access to food, to rehabilitate and protect livelihoods, as well as to purchase certain equipment, materials and non-food products, etc. Cash-based interventions have the potential to improve nutrition, health and the education of the children and to support the households, preventing them from resorting to harmful coping mechanisms, such as child labour. In addition, investments made for the children’s benefit through cash-based interventions help to break the potential cycle of transmission of poverty. Cash transfers, unlike food transfers, help the beneficiaries to choose what they wish to purchase and can boost local production. Social safety nets are frequently used in cash-based interventions. These involve transfers of non-contributory funds (no financial contribution is required from the beneficiaries), which can take several forms: conditional or unconditional cash transfers, school feeding, food/cash for work programmes. Unlike safety net measures, which are frequently deployed in emergency aid programmes, social protection nets are predictable and lasting public benefits targeted at preventing hunger or taking people out of hunger and poverty.

However, cash-based interventions are not devoid of challenges. Cash provision requires well-functioning local food markets (to prevent inflationary effects), and efficient distribution systems (to reduce the risk of theft or corruption and of exposing the beneficiaries to risks). Furthermore, although cash-based transfers or vouchers might have an impact on the underlying causes of the children’s nutritional status, they cannot replace the food supplements required to prevent malnutrition. In addition, cash interventions might take a long time to set up due to the need to create and implement strategies and specific methods for identifying beneficiaries who are often outside the tax system. This inevitably means that they can sometimes fall victim to manipulation and misappropriation, leading to tension.
As well as transfers in kind, there are three forms of transfers: cash, cash vouchers or goods vouchers. The options for payment mechanisms are varied (direct, via an MFI or bank, mobile phone banking, etc.). The transfers may be conditional, unconditional or work-based.

Conditional and unconditional transfers

An unconditional transfer is a sum with a monetary value that is not tied to any obligation, condition or work-based consideration. The person receiving it (either in the form of cash or as a voucher) can use it without restrictions.

A conditional transfer is a sum of money that the beneficiaries can spend freely, but that they only receive after they have met certain conditions (for example, after having registered their children at school or having had them vaccinated). The conditions attached to the transfers generally depend on the aim of the intervention. In general, conditional cash transfers allow one to support vulnerable households and noticeably improve their poverty levels, particularly if the transfers are generous, well-targeted and structured so as not to discourage the beneficiaries from taking other measures to escape poverty. Conditional transfers generally differ from health financing programs, even though both types of intervention are measures of social protection.

Health-funding schemes are designed to protect against the financial risk of paying for health services and ensure the service is available. By their very nature, they also include mechanisms for collecting contributions paid in advance (sometimes through taxes). The transfers do not offer protection against risks but provide assistance that is not subject to any prior contribution made by the beneficiary.

Cash-for-Work

Cash-for-work schemes (where money is paid to the beneficiaries for specific work carried out) involves the creation of short-term jobs for an unskilled or low-skilled workforce. One of the main goals, apart from the usefulness of the work/asset per se, is to introduce money in order to kickstart the households’ economy (and by extension, the local economy as well). The workers should be paid a minimum salary resulting in a self-targeting mechanism (only the less fortunate join the scheme). Of course, these programmes should be run over the long-term for them to be considered effective measures in the fight against chronic food insecurity.

Furthermore, it should be remembered that cash-for-work programmes inevitably tend to exclude sections of the population who are less physically able and they are generally more complex than cash-based transfers (bearing in mind that the projects have to be selected and designed, the work at the site has to be supervised and technical assistance and equipment has to be provided).

Income-generating activities (IGAs)

Definition

IGAs are economic activities that an individual (or a group of individuals) with (few) professional qualifications can carry out by setting up a small business that will allow them to draw an income. An IGA can sometimes be akin to a real job or be the prelude to one. An intervention that promotes IGAs can have a range of objectives that is fairly broad and does not exclusively fall under the remit of Food Security. It might aspire to facilitate social and vocational reintegration, support employment, strengthen social cohesion, etc. Generating income can invariably contribute to overcoming potential precariousness and food and nutritional insecurity if these were caused by a

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23 The cash voucher gives the bearer the right to purchase goods (while the goods voucher can be exchanged against a set quantity of certain goods and/or services) for the amount indicated on the voucher at all traders who accept the vouchers as if they were cash. The trader will then cash the vouchers in at the organisations that have distributed them.


25 Cash-for-work schemes include specific methods to operate conditional transfers.

26 “Cash for Work may be designed to be self-targeting, meaning that wages are low enough that only needy or poor households will choose to participate. In practice, however, CFW schemes tend not to be self-targeting unless wages are set so low that the cash earned is insufficient to enable participants to meet even basic needs.” P. Harvey et S. Bailey. Cash transfer programming in emergencies. HPN, 2010.
deterioration in economic factors, and if the food is available in the local markets but certain vulnerable groups do not have the financial means to purchase it. An IGA can improve the availability of certain products in the markets and can potentially lead to job creation.

Indeed, an IGA can also play a significant psycho-social role for parents who rediscover a daily activity, abandon their passive and dependent attitude and discover the active and productive role they can play. Nevertheless, promoting IGAs is not a one-size-fits-all solution. To determine the most appropriate response, it is essential to conduct a preliminary analysis of the food security context to identify potential economic activities (as well as their viability and profitability). The more the intervention focuses on the local players’ existing initiatives, the better its chance of success.

Specific targeting elements
The criteria used to select the beneficiaries are generally based on their levels of vulnerability, their capacity to work and their motivation. Since they must be able to work and guarantee participation and a sense of ownership over the activity, IGA programmes do not target the most deprived sections of the population. When developing IGA schemes, Tdh focuses in particular on the role of women in the context of the household economy. Indeed, for a woman, an IGA can be an opportunity to break free from the restrictions placed on her by the labour market that often condemns her to lower paid and more precarious jobs, but it can also be a supplementary task that is added to the burden of housework (with a negative impact on the attention given and care provided to the children).

In addition, Tdh is aware that in certain contexts there are mechanisms in place that aim to maintain the status quo in terms of access to resources and the hierarchy of social organisation and decision-making. Tdh therefore proposes systematically to weigh up the factors that limit the effectiveness of its actions to promote IGAs.

If collective or semi-collective IGA options are chosen, Tdh will not impose the creation of new groups from the outside, in the knowledge that this approach typically contributes to undermining the sustainability of the whole intervention.

Feasibility study
An IGA provides benefits, firstly, to those who implement it who must consequently have some expertise in managing it. Since an IGA draws on the market it is de facto subject to the law of supply and demand and must therefore be profitable. A relatively short feasibility study should ideally be conducted for any planned activity to reveal: i) its technical, financial and economic viability; ii) the capacity, the know-how and experience of the individual or group managing the activity; iii) the conditions for implementing the project (the methodology, organisation, time frame for implementation, etc.). The level of detail in this study is directly proportional to the innovative characteristics of the activity and the volume of investment required. In addition, it is systematically subject to criteria regarding relevance and effectiveness.

Methods
Tdh provides help to (re)launch an IGA through material support (equipment) and assistance (training). The promotion and support for IGAs must include an analysis of the best methods for financing the required goods and equipment (revolving funds, grants, subsidies, help securing loans, repayments via instalments, etc.). Often IGAs can be financed with microcredits (granted by legal microfinance institutes). Microcredits allow one to escape the vicious circle of attrition and

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27 For example, supporting vegetable gardens is a good way of improving nutrition, contributing to food self-sufficiency, providing a supplementary income but also promoting social activities. The producers have the opportunity to increase their vegetable consumption and thus improve the quality and variety of their diet. However, these positive impacts are directly proportional to the activity’s capacity to generate revenue (this inevitably being the producers’ main motivation) and thus allow them to allocate what is destined for sale and what is for self-consumption. The impact also varies depending on the income distribution within the household and the use of this income. Vegetable gardens should be developed alongside other actions aimed specifically at nutritional security.


29 Several studies show that women use almost all their income to subsidise the family’s needs, while men put at least 25% of their income to other uses (FAO, 2005). An increase in the woman’s income therefore often has a much greater impact on the household’s food security.

30 A livestock smallholding run in the past by an individual receiving support through an IGA scheme, does probably not warrant work being carried out on the future viability of the project.
offsets obstacles in accessing conventional banks. They also provide access to social protection and demonstrate, namely through the principle of joint liability, that certain economic practices can also be predicated on social bonds. Even in cases where microcredits are not suitable for the context, it is clear that a financial contribution from the beneficiary – provided it does not expose the individual to debt – is likely to enhance ownership and sustainability of the initiative.

Obviously, the training component is more important in programmes that aim to optimise the results of the IGAs (or create new ones) than in programmes that try to re-instate pre-existing activities.

**Promotion of entrepreneurship (supporting business start-up)**

Promoting small businesses is analogous to supporting IGAs. Nevertheless, it has certain special characteristics. Indeed, Tdh understands support for a business start-up to be a practice based on a long-term relationship with a person or a group that allows the beneficiary to access resources and learning. In appropriate contexts, Tdh creates the opportunity whereby project leaders can cover their requirements for initial capital and/or investments when setting up, resuming or developing an entrepreneurial activity. It does it ideally through partnerships with organisations specialising in business loans and professional training.

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**Income-generating activities: a key concept in sustainable food security. ACF, 2009**

- IGAs can be a successful response for the recuperation and/or strengthening of livelihood systems and food security if income is a fundamental dimension of these systems.
- Universal recipes for the implementation of this type of programme do not exist. It is necessary to evaluate the relevance of the programme in each situation and adapt the activities to the specific characteristics of the context.
- Before the introduction of new types of IGA, the reactivation and/or strengthening of traditional activities is recommended whenever possible: the impact will be more rapid and more sustainable.
- As with other types of interventions, these programmes can produce unexpected negative impacts. It is necessary to evaluate all possible risks and to weigh the negative versus positive aspects before initiating the programme.
- Income generation programmes do not always represent a relevant alternative for the most vulnerable population sectors.
- The motivation and participation of the population to be involved in the project are indispensable conditions for any IGA programme.

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25 After years of widespread international recognition, microcredits have also undergone criticism, sometimes virulent, as they can lead to a cycle of micro-debt and prevent poor households from producing their own goods which triggers a conversion to more precarious jobs.

32 Amongst the different types of entrepreneurs, there is the emergence of social entrepreneurship (such as a small unit producing flour enriched with micronutrients for children under the age of 2).
Nutrition-sensitive food and agriculture-based approach

Since the poorest sections of society often live in rural environments and are generally reliant on agriculture, and since agriculture opens the path to economic growth in the poorest countries, agricultural and rural development often forms the foundation for economic and social progress.

Agriculture and nutrition are closely related. "Agricultural products provide individuals with their daily intake of nutrients (energy, proteins, vitamins and minerals) and are therefore critical when tackling malnutrition, particularly among children and vulnerable groups. However, calorie intake, which is the main nutritional benefit of grain, does not improve an individual’s nutritional status. The agricultural sector is, without doubt, in the best position to ensure adequate production of diverse and nutritious food products. Indeed, micronutrient malnutrition is one of these most acute and devastating “hunger” problems."  

Multiple factors have an impact on household dietary diversity, such as market conditions, agricultural policies but also food preferences and consumer habits. For their recommended daily intake of vitamins and minerals, people must have access to enough nutritional food, be part of a society that promotes good nutritional practices and greater consumption of nutritional foods, and have an income that allows them to purchase nutritional foods (if they do not grow them or produce them themselves). To this end, Tdh uses practical methods such as supporting industries that produce goods with a high nutritional value (livestock and dairy products, fish or fruit and vegetables, in particular through vegetable gardens and/or agricultural IGAs), biofortification to increase the nutritional value of basic foodstuffs, agro-ecology, etc.

Nutrition sensitivity - Save the Children

The impacts of undernutrition on economic development have implications for the agriculture sector in three ways, each truly debilitating.

First, with 45% of child deaths due to malnutrition, this has a significant impact on the number of young people entering the agriculture sector. Second, stunting rates are, in most cases, higher in rural areas than urban areas. This is important because of the impacts of stunting on physical strength – critical to agricultural manual labour. Survey evidence from Guatemala suggests that physical strength is undermined, while susceptibility to disease is increased by undernutrition. This particular study showed statistically significant relationships between stunting and hand strength (as much as 22%) at age 24.

Third, malnutrition is both an outcome and a driver of inequality. In developing countries, children born to the poorest 40% of families are nearly three times more likely to be malnourished than those born to the richest 10% – and are likely to go on to earn less than their better-off (and better-nourished) peers.

26 The Nutritional Impact of Food Security and Livelihoods Interventions. ACF, 2011.
Community-based nutrition issues

The main objective of community-based nutrition interventions is to improve the nutritional situation as perceived by the community itself. It encompasses activities relating to the prevention, control and management of malnutrition to address the weaknesses of the public health system in guaranteeing optimal geographical cover. A community-based approach is often an appropriate alternative, recommended to provide and enable the implementation of the minimum package of nutritional activities countrywide. Indeed, local action must complement national policies and programmes for the sustainable reduction of undernutrition and other forms of malnutrition.

The community-based nutrition approach is based on five pillars: local screening for a rapid diagnosis of malnutrition cases; support for medical therapeutic feeding centres for malnourished children with complications; basic local therapeutic programmes for malnourished children without complications; local production of enriched flours and supplementary feeding to prevent acute malnutrition. These actions must tackle the local determinants of malnutrition (chronic or seasonal food shortages, lack of product diversity or inappropriate dietary habits, etc.) and identify solutions. Community workers (health workers, positive deviants, etc.) play a crucial role in the grassroots action on nutrition.

As part of community-based nutrition interventions, it is worth noting the importance of the positive deviance approach, which is based on the idea that in any human group, certain individuals may find better solutions to a given problem than their neighbours, even though they share the same resources and face the same obstacles and challenges.

Similarly, it should be highlighted that nutritional educational activities (any form of awareness-raising targeted at a voluntary change in practices that impact on peoples’ nutritional status, with a view to improving it - including breastfeeding) are crucial in reinforcing the impact of our interventions.

School feeding

School meals are a decisive factor in creating and promoting an environment that is conducive to pupils’ learning. Indeed, inappropriate feeding practices negatively affect children’s capacity to learn. Along with public health actions and micronutrients, school feeding also contributes to the children’s good health and are therefore an additional tool in the fight against malnutrition. One guaranteed meal served to pupils every day can be a decisive factor in a family choosing to send and keep their children at school.

Tdh does not manage school feeding programmes directly but it tries, within its programmes that have components in the education sector, to promote partnerships with relevant actors. Tdh is exploring, where possible, and without suggesting that the public authorities’ responsibility for this area be withdrawn, the possibility of supplying school canteens from local producers and in turn promoting family farms. School gardens or local vegetable gardens could also supply school canteens.

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34 Nutrition activities could, owing to their hybrid identity, be run in conjunction with our Health Programme, coordinating with our interventions in this area.
35 Tdh has used this same positive deviance approach in its child protection actions.
36 Other factors include having qualified teachers, school textbooks, suitable premises, class composition, etc.
37 See: Setting up and running a school garden. FAO, 2009.
For Tdh, training activities are often a prerequisite for the sustainability of the interventions that we implement and should therefore be developed alongside and in addition to the economic support and food and nutrition security actions. Training can take place over various periods, depending on the objectives. A distinction should be drawn between vocational training and advisory schemes.

Vocational training is targeted at young people who are following a school curriculum (initial training) or at adults engaged in an activity (ongoing training) and is based on the learners’ personal needs. It involves a major investment in time to assist project plans and to develop the skills.

Advisory schemes, are generally short-term and only target specific elements related to the broader range of skills of the profession in question.

Vocational training (agricultural and rural)

“Agricultural and rural vocational training is one of the elements that will help to respond to the challenge of food sovereignty in the future. Universal access to healthy and sufficient quantities of food partly depends on the family farms’ capacity to increase production and the income of poor farmers, who are the first victims of hunger”. By way of example, in sub-Saharan Africa, farming accounts for 32% of gross domestic product and 65% of employment. “Growth in agriculture is twice to four times as effective in reducing poverty as other sectors but is held back by a lack of qualified professionals”.

For Tdh, it is essential to guide and support young people towards agricultural and rural jobs by making these more appealing. Tdh considers investments in human training to be crucial to sustainable professional (re)integration. In addition to technical knowledge, this also requires a general knowledge base (literacy, numeracy and administration skills, health, etc.) to gain recognition and tools to adapt to changing work practices. Indeed, over the next few decades, agricultural areas and jobs in farming will see profound changes in skills and production methods, in terms of its relationship to the environment and market integration. In the light of these new parameters, small-scale farming know-how and practices will have to undergo significant changes.

Being capable of expanding one’s operation by diversifying crops and engaging in non-farming activities, developing resilience to climate change, organising the business in a professional way to secure production both upstream and downstream, etc. will be crucial priorities for farmers.

In agricultural and rural vocational training Tdh tries, where possible, to work with recognised institutions and partner organisations.

Agricultural extension service

Agricultural extension service includes “technical knowledge and involves facilitation, brokering and coaching of different actors to improve market access, dealing with changing patterns of risk and protecting the environment.” Agricultural extension services are essential in ensuring that farmers’ aspirations are the primary focus of development, in guaranteeing their food security and helping them to deal with risks and uncertainties. For family businesses, they are the stimulus that is needed to adapt to the constantly changing practices of farming and the transition to—
wars production systems that can provide food sustainably and fight effectively against poverty. 43

Today, agricultural extension is no longer the prerogative of the public sector. Extension services is an area where a large number of parties operate (input suppliers, producers’ organisations, wholesalers and shopkeepers, foundations, NGOs, etc.). This diversity undermines the credibility of the linear models of technology transfer and provides the ground for mixed and dynamic relations and innovation systems.

Tdh designs its approach to agricultural extension by taking this development into account, ensuring that its training and support provision is firmly shaped by grassroots organisations (mainly producers’ organisations) 44 and that it contains elements of strong participation, 45 sustainability and reproducibility. Relations with government bodies will be valued but nonetheless operationally declined following a detached evaluation of their performance (or their potential to bring about the desired change).

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43 Agridape, September 2013, volume 29 No. 3.
44 This approach will not apply to non-commercial value chains or in the context of purely subsistence agriculture among the more disadvantaged sections of the population.
45 The Farmer Field School (FFS) is a good example. This is a method of training in the field which advocates that the learners meet regularly throughout the season to learn how to grow crops in a plot. The aim is to observe all the interaction by experimenting with solutions to production problems and choosing the most promising technical option for a healthy crop using little-known technical approaches.
IV. Cross-cutting elements.
Targeting.

In the context of a development project or emergency, targeting translates into the means used to identify the individuals, households, groups and communities who will benefit from the intervention’s services and inputs (donations, grants, training, etc.).

A targeting plan should be devised for most of the actions that are part of the overall goal of food security and protecting, rehabilitating and promoting livelihoods. As a matter of fact, available resources rarely offer the opportunity to extend services across the whole intervention area. In addition, there is often a determination to provide assistance and prioritise support for vulnerable households.

A targeting plan must form an intrinsic component of the process of designing and developing our interventions. It entails the capacity to identify operational solutions to a set of issues (what is the objective of the selection, who is capable and responsible for selection and according to what criteria, what should the eligibility threshold be, what are the associated risks etc.), which will have a significant impact on the success of our intervention.

Measuring inequality and vulnerability is particularly important when analysing poverty determinants and as a means of strengthening targeting approaches. Poverty is a complex phenomenon that can only be understood if viewed from material, social and cultural perspectives (income, education, health, gender, isolation, integration and discrimination, etc.). Vulnerability (or the likelihood of sliding into poverty at some point) is a key dimension of well-being as it has an impact on the individuals’ behaviour (in terms of investment, production paradigms, coping mechanisms), and their perception of their own situation.

This is not about providing ready-made solutions (which would inevitably prove to be anachronistic) but rather, highlighting the complexity of the issue. The notion of well-being has several definitions and encompasses a multiplicity of concepts that are adapted locally. This is why Tdh prioritises developing targeting mechanisms (where possible, using participative approaches and combining quantitative and qualitative methods) and explaining them to potential beneficiaries.

Most of the targeting mechanisms will invariably lead to inclusion errors (a transfer of resources to those who are not eligible to receive them or do not need them, which is inefficient and costly) and exclusion errors or “omissions” (a transfer of resources to individuals who are entitled to them, which is unfair and can even have disastrous consequences during a particularly severe crisis, leaving the individuals vulnerable to acute food insecurity). Moreover, any targeting error is liable to lead to tension amongst potential beneficiaries. This is why Tdh proposes systematically to

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46 “Targeting can originate either from political and ethical notions of ‘fairness’, or from economic considerations of cost-effectiveness. In the first case societies judge existing levels of poverty and inequality as unacceptable, while in the second case societies aim to maximise welfare under existing budget constraints.” S. Deveraux. What is the evidence on the effectiveness and efficiency of different social transfer targeting methodologies? IDS, 2013.

47 To this end, it is important to note that outsourcing the targeting plan by setting up and using local targeting committees and/or local authorities involves significant risks (limited understanding of targeting mechanisms, use of different vulnerability categories, inclusion by co-opting, etc.) that must be contained and countered. Furthermore, in environments where poverty is widespread and social distinctions are less marked than elsewhere, the decision to use vulnerability criteria may not be understood and/or may be resented by the population.

48 Introducing an exclusion threshold could lead local leaders to operate non-compliant distortions of the criteria for identification.

49 Individuals living on less than USD 1.90 a day (or USD 1.25 in the first half of 2015) are classed as poor. However, establishing a poverty line is usually highly arbitrary, but “it is important to set it according to social norms and the generally accepted notion of a minimum wage” (Ravallion, 1996). It is also worth noting that “there is far from any consensus on the definition of poverty or a grasp of the limitations of the three most common definitions: income poverty with its statistical element, sometimes far removed from the reality of the poor; poverty in terms of the lack of primary goods, an ideal based on political philosophy considerations; and poverty in terms of the lack of capability, which is closer to a dynamic definition relating to resources and the individual’s characteristics as well as their environment”. R. Biauaux. Comment définir la pauvreté : Ravallion, Sen ou Rawls ?. L’Economie politique No. 049, January 2011.

49 Of course, self-targeting mechanisms (where the benefits of the programme are offered to a specific target population - for example to individuals ready to provide labour in food/cash-for-work projects), by their very nature reduce the number of errors and normally incur administrative costs that are, in general, lower than mechanisms based on administrative targeting. This is often because no eligibility criteria have had to be set and because it is not always necessary to check compliance with selection criteria.

50 Given that exclusion errors have a human cost, Cornia and Stewart (1993) argue that they must be assigned more weight than inclusion errors. Nonetheless, faced with budgetary restrictions, the policymakers are generally more interested in the latter. Those who see targeting as a regrettable strategy argue that universal (untargeted) programmes are the only means of ensuring social protection for all those who effectively need it and of not excluding an individual due to an error or omission (from: Social protection for food security. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security, HPLE, 2012).
complement the targeting schemes with complaint and response mechanisms to increase our accountability. Opening new windows of opportunity accessible to non-beneficiaries is also an effective procedure to defuse any possible tensions and conflicts.

Ultimately, in any decision regarding targeting, Tdh analyses not only the social costs of the distinction between the beneficiaries and others in the areas and communities, which could harm social cohesion and community assets by creating stigmatisation, envy and frustration amongst non-beneficiary groups, but also the costs involved in the selection process (particularly the administrative costs and the costs borne by beneficiaries – in terms of time lost joining lists, accessing the sites, receiving the services, etc.).

**Sensitivity to gender issues.**

Inequality between men and women is both one of the main causes and one of the main effects of hunger and poverty. There is a close link between maternal poverty and the hardship of children. If the children are poor, this usually means that the mother is too. Poverty leads to sick children. The children of poor families often have a lower birth weight than normal, predisposing them to health problems later in life.

Despite the number of laws in place and the fact that the majority of countries have signed up to most international conventions on empowering women, which have allowed changes to take place in the political-legal sphere, the change in the status of women has been much slower in terms of customs and practices. Women remain more susceptible to poverty than men. Moreover, women dedicate more time to unpaid work (domestic tasks, caring for children, preparing meals, etc.), which dramatically reduces their opportunities for paid employment and forces them to rely on part-time, seasonal, contractual or temporary work (usually poorly paid, offering no job security, few possibilities for advancement and with no medical insurance cover). This same inequality of access is manifested in primary factors determining food security.

For Tdh, the gender approach consists of systematically taking into account the various opportunities provided to men and women, the roles assigned to them by society and the relations between them and also incorporating a gender-sensitive perspective of promoting fairness between the sexes in all programmes and policies. Moreover, when designing a programme targeted at a female beneficiary group (IGA, cash transfers, etc.) Tdh will take into account the fact that women tend to be time poor. In addition, Tdh is aware that domestic tasks have an impact on the time women can spend on providing attention and caring for their children.

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52 Amongst others: i) women’s precarious land tenure rights and the difficulties encountered in improving agricultural productivity and their income (the land is usually allocated based on “head of household” criteria, which usually means the man), ii) poor access to services supporting production activities, such as extension and training, iii) inadequate credit facilities, etc.

53 However, the inequality between men and women differs depending on the group and is strongly influenced by social class, generation, beliefs, etc. Moreover, in a given space, women are evidently not a homogenous group.
As part of its Food Security and Livelihoods interventions, Tdh proposes to adopt systematically participatory and community-based approaches. It does so with the conviction that collaboration with individuals, groups and local bodies not only helps to improve the quality of the interventions (by encouraging more precise contextual and needs analyses), but it is also an expression of our acknowledgement that people have the right to make a significant contribution regarding the type of support being targeted at them.

Tdh is aware that any participatory and community-based approach is complex and presents a number of challenges. Consulting the people one wishes to involve requires time that we have often been unable or have not known how to plan. Furthermore, misunderstandings often occur regarding the meaning of the words “community” and “participation”. Also, there is often a lack of mutual understanding on socio-cultural representations, knowledge, practices and history. In addition, working with people from the “community” implies already having an idea of how this community is made up and functions, taking into account the cohesive elements as well as the cleavages and divisions. Indeed, contrary to the mythical image of cohesive “communities”, local societies are divided; they are made up of heterogeneous actors that operate on systems marked by inequalities and dependences, with different social statuses, economic means and social networks. Since they do not have the same social and economic positions, it is logical that these actors will not have the same interests or the same reactions to what a project might offer.” The community-based approach should therefore take potential fragmentations into account. Analysis, regular information and exchanges are some of the best ways of avoiding manipulation or mutual misunderstanding.

To increase our organisational accountability towards those to whom our interventions are addressed, we use participatory methods to provide us with a structure for handling complaints if people feel that their needs are not being met or are being poorly met, or if they have been harmed while assistance was provided. Being close to the beneficiaries means we can improve our daily ability to guarantee solid mechanisms for accountability, monitor their effectiveness and evaluate their effect on the results and impact of a project.

And also: “At a practical level, this means that the approach: i) starts with an analysis of people’s livelihoods and how these have been changing over time; ii) fully involves people and respects their view; iii) focuses on the impact of different policy and institutional arrangements upon people/households and upon the dimensions of poverty they define (rather than on resources or overall outputs per se); iv) stresses the importance of influencing these policies and institutional arrangements so they promote the agenda of the poor (a key step is political participation by poor people themselves); v) works to support people to achieve their own livelihood goals (though taking into account considerations regarding sustainability). “ Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheets. DFID, 1999.


P. Laville Delvigne (2000). As well as the fact that communities are transient, each person can claim multiple affiliations (their place of origin for those who have emigrated to urban centres, their religious beliefs, their political stance, etc.).
Collectivist approaches versus individual support.

The Tdh Food Security and Livelihoods actions are often designed for the benefit of formal and informal groups. In the first instance, it is often grassroots organisations and small associations who benefit from our projects’ actions and which in turn, once the external support has ended, are called upon to take over the running of the activities.

Collective forms of aid certainly meet efficiency requirements and are often based on the belief that development also involves support for the organisation and strengthening community practices at grassroots level. However, Tdh is aware that an organisational setup that is externally established is rarely successful. This is why we do not consider mutual cooperation practices (collective tillage, rotational maintenance of locally-owned infrastructures, etc.) as the sole requisite for pooling resources and income (communal enterprises, collective IGAs, etc.) In our interventions, we avoid engineering local organisations or disrupting and radically altering local forms of affiliation and membership so as not to compromise the viability of the supported action. Our help is only targeted at supporting existing community and collective dynamics and supporting their viability factors.  

Do No Harm and conflict sensitivity.

The notion of “conflict sensitivity” has emerged in the last two decades as a crucial framework for discussions in fragile settings. It is based on two cornerstones: (i) the Do No Harm imperative and (ii) efforts to seize the opportunities to contribute to enhancing peace. The Do No Harm concept and approach is the result of the realisation that: “when international assistance is given in response to a violent conflict, it becomes a part of that context and thus also of the conflict. Although aid agencies often seek to be neutral ... the impact of their aid is not neutral regarding whether conflict worsens or abates” (Zicherman, 2011). Recently, the Do No Harm approach found its way into reconstruction and “development” interventions. Indeed, in its broadest form, it involves the ability to ensure that our intervention does not exacerbate existing tensions by undermining social cohesion.

Even though it is not directly engaged in peace-building, Tdh views the Do No Harm analytical framework as an opportunity to improve the understanding of the interaction between the intervention and the context, and to take this interaction into account during the identification and implementation phases to prevent any harmful consequences and maximise the positive impacts.  

57 An entirely spontaneous and endogenous approach is rare in the development of grassroots organisations. Even so, an external engineering practice over organisational processes, did not systematically lead the organisation to lose autonomy. However, organisational change is a delicate process that requires dexterity and should be monitored closely to ascertain the level of acceptance of the changes by the members of the organisations in question.

58 As Pierre Janin points out, hunger and famines are eminently political issues, often aggravated by the outrageous media coverage of emergencies. “Since 1985 and the famine in Ethiopia, the celebrity aspect that is an inescapable element in humanitarian action, also brought about huge changes in intervention priorities, thereafter dictated more by this event than a more objective analysis.” Faim et politique: mobilisations et instrumentations. (Hunger and politics: mobilisation and instruments.) Politique africaine, 119 (2010), pp. 5-22. The risk is therefore of being subject to manipulation during food crises. See footnote 80. See also footnotes 47 and 51 on the harmful consequences of certain cash-based interventions on social cohesion.
As Food Security and Livelihoods has been newly integrated within our operational framework, Tdh proposes developing strategic partnerships, worldwide and through national delegations, with organisations (associations, foundations, NGOs, research institutes, etc.) that have specific sectoral expertise. In addition, it prioritises partnering with local organisations to develop, implement and evaluate our sectoral interventions and actively seeks to include them in thematic networks.

Tdh does not systematically include capacity-building actions when creating partnerships. In fact, it pains-takingly seeks to pursue a project’s performance targets as well as supporting its partner to acquire skills and achieve genuine autonomy. Nevertheless, Tdh systematically strives to create mutual learning experiences with its partners to enhance its knowledge, its positioning and operating methods.

The global humanitarian context has evolved considerably over the past three decades. With the growing number and diversity of the players involved, an essential aspect of our action involves taking part in mechanisms aimed at ensuring the predictability of the interventions and improving strategic coordination in the field. This applies especially to the Food Security and Livelihoods sector, where there is a particularly large number of actors.

Tdh believes that coordination is a key issue when drawing up strategies aimed at tackling aid shortfalls, avoiding duplication and ensuring interventions do not overlap. Despite this, no coordination mechanism is perfect, capable of bringing together all the key players and guiding the actions of each and every one, according to principles of effectiveness and relevance. Tdh assumes its responsibility for overcoming the shortcomings in the existing mechanisms (namely in terms of analysing needs and encouraging a varied range of responses). It consequently defines internal procedures to help identify stakeholders and potential synergies to better respond to beneficiary groups’ situations.

Finally, our efforts to coordinate our thematic intervention with that of other players won’t counter our determination to work efficiently and according to the values to which we subscribe (in particular, our motivation at optimising the cost-benefit ratio).

Partnership.

Participation in coordination mechanisms.

According to CCFD Terre Solidaire, partnership is a dynamic process of reciprocal support that lasts several years, with a shared agenda and values. The projects are not an end in themselves but are places where the partnership establishes its markers and bases its content. Despite its intentions, and notwithstanding undeniable progress since 2005 – when the humanitarian reform initiatives were launched - the clusters only include a small number of humanitarian actors (namely the United Nations agencies and medium-sized international NGOs).

“We utilise and manage our resources and skills in the best possible way”. Our values. Tdh, 2014.

60 Tdh assumes its responsibility for overcoming the shortcomings in the existing mechanisms (namely in terms of analysing needs and encouraging a varied range of responses). It consequently defines internal procedures to help identify stakeholders and potential synergies to better respond to beneficiary groups’ situations.
Involvement with research and academic circles.

Tdh’s aim is to promote a critical approach to its action and we therefore encourage the creation of a framework for ongoing learning and reflection. Tdh is convinced that partnerships with research communities can offer real added value in understanding the relevance and effectiveness of our programmes. The emergence of socio-anthropological research focusing on humanitarian work (and in particular on social protection) expands the windows of opportunity for establishing partnerships with the academic sector.

As a new constituent of Tdh’s operational framework, the Food Security and Livelihoods sector is ideally suited to take in research work and to host action-research approaches. Indeed, change occurs when the parties involved in an intervention understand, learn and experiment. It is a question of giving the opportunity to our teams to reflect on our own practices from two perspectives: on the one hand, the concrete problems encountered in the projects and on the other, the broader challenges of the Food Security and Livelihoods issue as part of the humanitarian and development action. The nature of our partnerships with academic circles may therefore vary: pilot projects, training curriculums, longitudinal surveys, applied research, analysis of practices, etc.

National advocacy.

Without minimising the local impact of our interventions, Tdh hopes that by scaling-up its actions and innovations it will contribute to broader social, economic and political transformations.

Tdh is persuaded that sustainable social change is more likely to occur if the actors in the political spheres are involved in our action. As a consequence, knowledge of public policies and the acquisition of skills to analyse and influence the institutional environment are critical to each intervention. Within each delegation, Tdh systematically endeavours to define a structured strategy aimed at influencing decision-making processes and the decision-makers by valuing lessons learnt from our experience in the field.

“Implementing a change of scale can entail stumbling across three major hurdles: the change of scale may not replicate a successful experience identically, since replication, often in different contexts and territories, is far from guaranteed to be successful. The processes according to which a change takes place in a village do not reflect the principles and relationships of cause and effect as those one seeks to implement for change at a more regional or countrywide level. Nor does it work through step-by-step identical propagation. Indeed, the process according to which something new is invented or implemented requires adaptations and technical and social transformations. Finally, the word “scale” can also lead to one thinking that a project can follow a path of continuous progression from a “lower” (e.g. a village) to a higher (e.g. a large region) level of organisation. This is not the case: a change of scale requires links between levels of organisation that often no longer exist”. Coordinated by F. Apollin and C. Mainenti. L’action des ONG face au défi du changement d’échelle. [NGO action to the challenge of change of scale.] GRET, Traverses No. 43.

Policymakers seem to regard research as the opposite of action rather than the opposite of ignorance.

Martin Surr
Glossary.
This glossary, which does not claim to be exhaustive, attempts to summarise the key concepts in our common frame of reference.

**Conditional cash-based transfers**
Funds transferred to beneficiaries, subject to use for the purposes that have previously been agreed (for example, to supply a service or to use a service such as a school, health centre, etc.)

**Effectiveness**
The extent to which the development intervention’s objectives were achieved, or are expected to be achieved, taking into account their relative importance.\(^6^3\)

**Efficiency**
A measure of how economically resources/inputs (funds, expertise, time, etc.) are converted to results.\(^6^4\)

**Employment/Work**
Employment is a remunerated occupation in the economic sphere. Work, on the other hand, belongs to the social sphere and is not necessarily paid.

**Evaluation**
Evaluation is an exercise in assessing the quality of an object by unravelling the processes that explains its current situation, to facilitate decisions that will be taken on it.

**Food Security**
Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.\(^6^5\)

**IGA**
Income-generating activities are economic activities that an individual (or a group of individuals) with (few) professional qualifications can carry out by setting up a small business that will allow them to draw an income.

**Impacts**
Positive and negative, primary and secondary long-term effects of a development intervention, either direct or indirect, intended or unintended.\(^6^6\)

**LRRD Linking Relief Rehabilitation and Development**
The LRRD approach involves the capacity to establish links between emergency aid interventions (which respond to immediate needs), rehabilitation (early recovery) and longer-term development. It involves the capacity to think about one’s intervention and adjust the methodology to changes in the situation - often uneven within the same geographical units.

**Monitoring**
Monitoring is an iterative approach that provides information on the implementation of our actions with a view to assisting in the decision to steer and manage an intervention.

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\(^{63}\) ROECD. Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and Results Based Management.

\(^{64}\) As above.

\(^{65}\) World Food Summit 1996.

\(^{66}\) OECD. Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and Results Based Management.
Nutrition security: The concept of nutrition security encompasses and transcends that of food security. “Nutrition security exists when all people at all times consume food of sufficient quantity and quality in terms of variety, diversity, nutrient content and safety to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life, coupled with a sanitary environment, adequate health, education and care.”

Partnership: Partnership is a dynamic process of reciprocal support over several years, based on a shared agenda and values.

Positive deviance: Community-based approach to nutritional rehabilitation and behavioural change, based on identifying and promoting local strategies to tackle the nutritional problems.

Poverty: Poverty is a human condition characterized by sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security and power necessary for the enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights.

Resilience: Resilience is the ability of an individual, a household, a community, a country or a region to withstand, cope, adapt, and quickly recover from stresses and shocks such as violence, conflict, drought and other natural disasters without compromising long-term development.

Right to food: The right to food is the right to have regular, permanent and unrestricted access, either directly or by means of financial purchases, to quantitatively and qualitatively adequate and sufficient food corresponding to the cultural traditions of the people to which the consumer belongs, and which ensure a physical and mental, individual and collective, fulfilling and dignified life that is free of fear.

Social Protection: Social Protection refers to all the instruments, devices and mechanisms of collective welfare that aim to fight poverty and vulnerability and allows individuals or households to deal with the financial consequences of social risks.

Sustainable Livelihoods (SL): A livelihood comprises the capacities (including both material and social resources) and activities required for an individual to earn a living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capacities without undermining the natural resource base.

Sustainability: The continuation of benefits from a development intervention after the intervention has been completed. The probability of continued long-term benefits. The net benefit flows’ resilience to risk over time.

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68 United Nations Committee on Social, Economic, and Cultural Rights, 2001
69 European Commission, Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection Development and Cooperation- EuropeAid.
70 Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food.
71 DFID, 1999.
72 OECD, Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and Results Based Management.
**Targeting**

In the context of a development project or emergency, targeting is the mechanism that identifies the individuals, households, groups and communities who will benefit from the operation’s services and input (donations, grants, training, etc.).

**Unconditional cash-based transfers**

Funds without conditions attached that are granted to individuals or households to reduce their exposure to poverty or protect their livelihoods.

**Undernutrition (food)**

Undernutrition (or undernourishment), one of the two forms of malnutrition, is defined as the outcome of insufficient food intake and repeated infectious diseases and poor care practices. It includes being underweight for one’s age, too short for one’s age (stunted – chronic undernutrition), dangerously thin for one’s height (wasted – acute undernutrition) and deficient in vitamins and minerals.

**Vulnerability**

Vulnerability (or food insecurity) is the inability of an individual or a group to maintain an acceptable level of food security. Vulnerability contains the concept of a development. The expression “living on a knife edge” provides a good picture of what vulnerability means.

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73 ACF.
Annexes.
The expression “social protection” refers to a broad range of instruments, devices and mechanisms of collective welfare that aim to fight poverty and vulnerability and allow individuals or households to deal with the consequences of social risks. It includes specific chronic and provisional situations (ageing, sickness, disability, unemployment, extraordinary outgoings and charges, etc.) that can result in a drop in income or a rise in expenditure, thereby amplifying vulnerability.

The concept of social protection is based on a principle of collective solidarity that should complement any private solidarity unit (a family, a group, a corporation, etc.) and reflects the idea that public policies should guarantee minimum social benefits to the most vulnerable sections of society. Social protection is also defined by its durable and predictable nature: benefits are regular and part of a legislative framework. A number of definitions highlight where it differs from social security – a system beneficiaries contribute to, for example through deductions from wages – which provides a form of guaranteed income in the event of unemployment, retirement and other situations outside formal employment. Given that there is generally very little social security provision in poor countries or that employment is concentrated in the informal sector and people are often self-employed, social protection aims to rectify this shortcoming by extending social welfare to people “without cover”. These non-contributory social protection (or “social assistance”) measures can be financed by government revenue or grants and loans from international organisations.

Any social protection programme (not based on the wish to provide a minimum subsistence income or a universal benefit) must tackle the challenges of identifying the needy. Although no targeting system is perfect and can lead to exclusion and inclusion errors, it is still crucial to define simple and understandable targeting methods. Targeting should be designed and implemented carefully to prevent the risk of transferring funds to the wrong individuals or to those who do not need them, or of leaving out some of the intended beneficiaries. As part of any intervention, we intend systematically to distinguish between assisting those with limited capacity to escape from poverty, those requiring long-term institutional social assistance (the elderly poor, the disabled, etc.) and providing support for the poor who could benefit from synergies between social assistance and development programmes focused on growth and who, over time, may no longer require the benefit of social protection schemes.

Despite the remarkable expansion of social protection programmes in a growing number of developing countries, the main challenge for any government is to achieve sufficient cover through basic guarantees and to expand social protection to the most deprived and most vulnerable, particularly in the areas that are the most difficult to access and amongst workers in the informal sector.

It should clearly be remembered that social protection is not only about granting relief to the most disadvantaged to avoid total deprivation.

In the real sense of the word, it is for everyone the basic condition that allows them to continue to be part of a “society of equals”.

Robert Castel

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**Definition**

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74 This annexe - and more specifically the paragraphs on the Food Security Floor - is broadly inspired by: Social protection for food security, a report by The High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition. HLPE Report 4, 2012.

75 There are a number of definitions of social protection. Most of them emphasise the concepts of risk management and assistance to the poor, while others add a human rights dimension and a component of sustainability and predictability. Others include access to basic services, particularly health care, and support for the livelihood needs of the poor, such as subsidies for agricultural inputs, or they underline the fact that social protection covers social insurance (lifelong protection against risks and adversity), social assistance (which helps the poor with transfers in cash or in kind), and social inclusion (which helps marginalised individuals to participate fully in social and economic life).

76 This provision is also called: universal income, unconditional (sufficient) income, (minimum) subsistence income, (guaranteed) social income, universal benefit, lifetime income, citizenship income or universal dividend. What these concepts have in common is the principle of unconditional remuneration for citizens: a sum of money given regularly and unconditionally by the State to any citizen with multiple objectives (resolving the problem of unemployment and pensions, simplifying the social security system and taxation, controlling the wealth gap, etc.).

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This challenge is all the more crucial as social protection programmes are often marginalised in budgetary decision-making. Indeed, the introduction of a social protection policy is far from uncontroversial: critical voices, often quite inappropriately, tend to denounce the social costs and the fact that handouts might encourage chronic dependency amongst the poorest sectors of the population.

A social protection system that targets the most vulnerable should not question the achievements of the welfare state and a broader vision of social protection that advocates universal and free access to public services (health, education, infrastructure).

Finally, the fact that social protection includes reactive/humanitarian social safety nets (during an acute crisis or a context of increased vulnerability) leads not only to a semantic shift with the original meaning of the term being lost, but also to an ever greater move towards financing reactive and/or emergency mechanisms, or ones that respond to crises rather than lasting and sustainable initiatives able to prevent the most extreme forms of poverty in the long-term.

**Tangential concepts**

**The Social Protection Floor (SPF)**

The Social Protection Floor (SPF) is an initiative that was launched in 2009 and supported by the United Nations. Its starting point is the right to social security as defined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which states that any person who has a need for protection must be able to access essential goods, services and transfers.

The promotion of an SPF is based on the concept that national social protection systems reduce poverty and inequality, encourage the development of people’s productive potential, stimulate local economies and are effective methods in fighting against the informal sector.

**Food Security Floor**

The “Food Security Floor” concept is similar to that of the “Social Protection Floor”. It is based on the idea that food is a fundamental requirement for survival (freedom from hunger is the only human right declared a “fundamental” right in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights). It recommends a series of measures aimed at ensuring or protecting access to food and guaranteeing food security for all.

The first level is a set of dynamic nutrition and social welfare interventions that should always be in place in the event of an emergency, and which could include cash transfers index-linked to the price of the goods, as well as food aid. The second level is made up of social safety nets, which include insurance and welfare systems, seasonal public work or job guarantee systems, weather-indexed insurance and management of grain reserves, designed to prevent individuals from plunging into destitution and famine. The third level includes measures to promote agriculture — access to land, water, fertiliser, seeds and financial services — which could be used as part of agricultural development programmes or social protection (subsidised inputs).

**Social safety nets (or social security nets)**

Social safety nets are non-contributory transfer programmes that aim, either directly or through substitution, to boost the households’ consumption of basic commodities and essential services. “Social safety nets are targeted at the poor and vulnerable—that is, individuals living in poverty and unable to meet their own basic needs or in danger of falling into poverty, because of either an external shock or socio-economic circumstances, such as age, illness, or disability. Safety nets form a subset of broader social protection programs along with social insurance and social legislation. Hence, social protection includes both contributory and non-contributory programs, whereas safety nets are non-contributory”.

Most of the existing social safety nets are reactive in nature: they are implemented in response to a crisis, coming to assist the affected population. Short-term interventions prevent poor households from having to sell their productive assets or take their children out of school to buy food, thus contributing to the long-term perpetuation of poverty.

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77 “You have the right to have whatever you need so that you and your family: do not fall ill or go hungry; have clothes and a house; and are helped if you are out of work, if you are ill, if you are old, if your wife or husband is dead, or if you do not earn a living for any other reason you cannot help. Mothers and their children are entitled to special care.” Simplified version of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

However, one of the under-appreciated characteristics of vulnerability is that it is persistent and recurrent, sometimes cyclical (e.g. seasonal).

**Food safety nets**
A food safety net provides resources at an appropriate time, frequency and level. It is predictable, guaranteed and lasts several years. It is granted to people suffering from chronic hunger, to allow them to access an adequate food intake both in terms of quantity and quality and to protect, or even improve, their livelihoods, their capital and their strategies for survival.
Annexe 2: Food Security and Livelihoods in emergencies.

Introduction

Conflicts and natural disasters can dramatically undermine people’s ability to protect their livelihoods. Climate hazards in environments where the survival of people depends on natural resources are a genuine concern owing to their pernicious socio-economic effects. In addition, population growth often exacerbates pressure on resources and the environment and increases competition amongst the most vulnerable sections of the population (which can create new conflicts and lead to migratory phenomena and displacement). Furthermore, an ongoing process that weakens the institutional and social fabric places certain groups in highly precarious situations and has an impact on their production capacity that is often irreversible. Prolonged crises are distinct from a short-term shock (such as a flood or earthquake) due to their long-lasting impact on the households’ livelihoods. The nature of these crises often leads to a sustained erosion of assets. When an emergency situations persist for several years, it becomes extremely difficult to help maintain food security and fight chronic poverty.

Principles

Our sector interventions are based on a set of key concepts, while still acknowledging that crisis situations present a number of major challenges.

1. Analysis

Apart from situations that require immediate attention to save lives, our projects will be based on a proper analysis, including at an institutional level, of the food and nutritional situation. Any action not arising from a robust examination of the context risks compromising the effectiveness of the intervention or even, in the worst case scenario, aggravating the situation. Indeed, action in the area of Food Security and the fight against poverty take place in a highly political context (food sovereignty) in which “different groups or institutions mobilise their knowledge and expertise, create their own interpretation and endeavour to enforce it or reconcile it with that of the other stakeholders according to their various interests.”

2. LRRD approaches

The “relief, rehabilitation and development” continuum, which is based on the notion that a crisis disrupts linear development, has been broadly criticised for its abstraction. Indeed, crises are rarely followed by a recovery without repercussions. Phenomena that require emergency responses often coexist, through a simple geographical juxtaposition, with contexts that are more conducive to long-term responses. Similarly, there is often great ambiguity in an aid model that recommends a post-crisis strategy targeted at a return to pre-crisis conditions. In most emergency contexts, the pre-existing situation was equally unsatisfactory, with unacceptable indicators of food insecurity and child malnutrition. Tdh intends to foster interaction between short-term

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80 X. Rombé, J. Jézéquel. “No action takes place on uncharted territory. With regard to the “problem” identified by the intervention, the stake-holders have, with few exceptions, a number of options and remedies at their disposal. Even if these are limited, or relatively ineffective (or in any case appear as such to outsiders), they still exist. The new offering provided by the intervention does not fill a void, it becomes part of a pre-existing whole, broadening the spectrum of choice. Depending on the features of this new offering compared to the pre-existing one, the stakeholders will, subject to their situation and their own criteria, develop their strategies and change their way of resorting to such and such a solution. Bearing this in mind, and questioning the advantages and disadvantages of this new offering from the different stakeholders’ perspectives, allows for better design of the action and for resounding failures to be circumvented”. Ph. Lavigne Delville (2001).

81 X. Rombé, J. Jézéquel. Niger 2005, une catastrophe si naturelle. [Niger 2005, such a natural disaster] Karthala, 2007. Since 1952, J. de Castro underlined the fact that “few phenomena have had such a strong influence on the political behaviour of people as the food phenomenon and the tragic need to eat”. According to Sylvie Brunel: “Modern” famines have multiplied since the Iron Curtain came down as a consequence of the need, by a certain number of political movements, to find a new source of income... The manipulation of food aid emerged at the same time as emergency humanitarian aid... Famines therefore fulfilled a triple objective. They allowed certain regimes to receive financial and material support separate from the meagre aid granted in normal times; to establish legitimacy for an internal policy managing food distribution; to control certain troublesome or peripheral groups of people using hunger as a weapon”. Quand la famine fait des heureux [When famine makes some happy]. Le Monde, December 2002.

82 This does not necessarily mean that there is no disparity between emergency and “development” interventions. “The purpose of the action, the mandates and the objectives are different. The key priority in humanitarian action is people’s survival, while development policies aim to deal with the root causes of inequality in development, which in themselves are the source of conflicts. Another distinction lies in the methods of intervention, which cover a broad spectrum from quasi-substitution to support processes. Indeed, these factors lead to differences in culture and ideology that are not always conscious”. Humanitaires et développeurs: comment agir ensemble en sortie de crise et de conflit. [Humanitarians and developers: how to work together post-crisis or post-conflict.]. AFD & URD, 2008.
and long-term interventions by combining the two approaches and facilitating a switching from one to the other. To this end, our intervention guarantees the appropriate support for livelihoods through initiatives that ensure immediate access to aid (when needed) while also attacking the fundamental causes of food insecurity. 82

3. Resilience
A household or community’s capacity to manage the risks resulting from a crisis or disaster depends largely on their resources, their coping mechanisms and livelihood strategies.
Tdh endeavours to sustain the resilience of people and of their livelihood strategies when these are under threat. By encouraging resilience-based approaches, Tdh aims to focus not only on the recovery and protection but also on promoting livelihoods to safeguard the cohesiveness of people and societies affected by a chronic or temporary crisis.

4. Partnership
It can prove difficult to identify suitable partners and entry points for our interventions when institutions lack effectiveness and legitimacy, and expressions of “civil society” are primarily characterised by springboards for a political career or platforms for absorbing aid (as is often the case in protracted crises). Moreover, in certain contexts, governments and local players, as actors in the conflict, often do not meet the minimum criteria for establishing a partnership. Nevertheless, collaborating with local partners in planning, implementing and evaluating our interventions is often a key factor in its success.
We systematically try to identify credible partners (grassroots organisations, research institutes, etc.) for our humanitarian interventions. Equally, we consistently try to establish synergies with government programmes aimed at food security and poverty reduction.

5. Security Management
Incidents that take place within the context of humanitarian operations are not new, but their profile has evolved. Security management is a vital component of our support systems.
By focusing on in-depth analyses of the contexts of the intervention, which take all the volatility factors into account, we plan to look beyond the technocratic “risk management” approaches that depoliticise the phenomenon of insecurity and the feeling of insecurity.83 We pursue an ongoing search for security through acceptance, by developing relationships of trust with the various actors in the field.
In fact, we believe that there is close interaction, not only in the participation of the people affected and our understanding of the crises, but above all in the relevance and effectiveness of our interventions and the security of our staff.84
Often those most vulnerable to food insecurity in a crisis context are also the most remote (due to their isolation, the presence of armed groups, etc.). Tdh does not see isolation as a barrier to operation. For Tdh, the key word in these contexts is adaptation. “Security” solutions that are adapted to crisis contexts can only be identified through a contextual approach, not in a formatted framework identical to the rest in the field.

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82 One example is the Twin Track Approach adopted mainly by FAO and IFAD in the event of an emergency. This approach encourages addressing the immediate and longer-term priorities of food security while simultaneously improving productivity and resilience. Similarly, a cash transfer or food distribution, if it takes place in the short-term, is a relevant quick response to hunger and malnutrition, but it is certainly inappropriate for tackling “chronic” or “structural” hunger.
83 “The fact that all acts which are susceptible to affect humanitarian staff or their equipment are referred to as ‘security incidents’ leads to a certain ambiguity, which gives this category its symbolic and performative force... In the end, security policies reflect the loss of confidence between humanitarian organisations and the local population.” A. Dandoy In sécurité et aide humanitaire en Haïti: l’impossible dialogue ? URD, 2013.
84 The socio-spatial segregation of organisations, in addition to inducing an infantilisation of humanitarian workers, has a direct impact on the capacity to understand the context and needs of the people (Dandoy, 2013).
Physically speaking, resilience is the capacity of a material that has suffered an impact to return to its initial state. Psychologically, resilience is the result of individual processes that counter the vulnerability resulting from a traumatic event. The concept of resilience was introduced to the international solidarity agenda fairly recently (during the Kobe conference and the Hyogo Framework for Action in 2005). The EC defines resilience as "the ability of an individual, a household, a community, a country or a region to withstand, cope, adapt, and quickly recover from stresses and shocks (such as violence, conflict, drought and other natural disasters). The concept of resilience has two dimensions: the inherent strength of an entity – an individual, a household, a community or a larger structure – to better resist stress and shock and the capacity of this entity to bounce back rapidly from the impact".

Looking beyond the frenzy with which it has been promoted in the last few years and its shifting boundaries, the concept of resilience has certain advantages:

i) it establishes a fundamental change of paradigm that encourages aid to include an approach that is more focused on the way in which potential beneficiaries of humanitarian action view their own needs, and invites one to consider individuals and groups as equipped with survival strategies – often rather sound – and not as vulnerable individuals dependent upon external assistance.

ii) it provides the opportunity to relinquish the compartmentalised approaches of the sectors and clusters promoted by United Nations humanitarian coordination bodies, which tends to partition aid by categorising it into “silos” for each sector (nutrition, food security, WASH, etc.).

iii) it allows one to tackle the fundamental causes of vulnerability – and consequently to make a long-term commitment and increase capacities at all levels, from individuals to regional institutions – and to draft programmes that are more risk-sensitive.

Ideally, “resilience could contribute to making the humanitarian system obsolete (if dramatic events occurred, the people and local institutions would be capable of managing the shocks themselves)” (Grunewald, 2012). However, by promoting resilience at micro level (individuals/households), one should be cautious implicitly not to legitimise potential deficiencies in accountability (of governments, public policies, international community members) and avoid the “fend for yourself” attitude and replacing it with “we’ll tell you how to fend for yourself”. 85

**Modus operandi**

In the context of a humanitarian crisis, Tdh refers to the same methods and approaches expounded in this document, including cross-cutting issues (the involvement of institutions and local partners in defining interventions, taking into account the challenges in targeting beneficiaries, awareness of Do No Harm and attention paid to the way in which the crisis affects the various social groups – in particular the women, children and minorities).

Nevertheless, it includes, where necessary, operations that are focused on food assistance and/or the distribution of seeds and tools.

**Food assistance**

Food assistance refers to the set of initiatives to improve the nutritional well-being of people who would otherwise not have access to sufficient and appropriate food to lead a healthy and active life and would therefore risk having to resort to harmful coping mechanisms. Food assistance can include the direct supply of food, but can also take different forms (the transfer or supply of services, inputs or raw materials, cash or vouchers). It should, nevertheless, be noted that sufficient food consumption cannot in itself guarantee sufficient nutrition. Consequently, in most cases, food assistance should be supplemented by other interventions (distribution of micronutrients for children, pregnant women and breastfeeding mothers, access to drinking water as well as sanitation and health services, etc.).

Excluding exceptional circumstances (where time spent on analysis might cost lives or for interventions lasting only a very limited number of weeks), Tdh ensures that every food assistance intervention is preceded by a detailed analysis of the needs and causes of the situation and is designed based on the data collected. Moreover, Tdh only resorts to food assistance if it is guaranteed: i) not to harm beneficiaries in the supply operations, ii) not to contribute to excessive dependency on aid, iii) not to disrupt the existing markets.

**Distribution of seeds and tools**

If people have lost access to the means of production or if there has been major damage to plant material, it is sometimes necessary to stave off a potential food and nutrition crisis through targeted distributions of seeds and tools.

Nevertheless, Tdh only resorts to this form of distribution following a detailed analysis of peoples’ requirements and will always avoid repeating interventions carried out outside the realm of more structured support for the agricultural sector.

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86 This section draws largely on: Humanitarian Food Assistance: From Food Aid to Food Assistance. DG ECHO, 2013.

87 Micronutrient deficiency is associated with general malnutrition and of these, vitamin A, iron, zinc and iodine shortages are the most prevalent in children. Vitamin A and zinc shortages could contribute to the death of approximately 1 million children a year and to 5% of Disability Adjusted Life-Years (AVCI).

Our Food Security and Livelihoods projects (as with all Tdh projects) comply with Project Cycle Management (PCM) guidelines as explained in the Tdh manual. Taking the PCM methodology as a basis, several specific elements in the Food Security and Livelihoods sector must be taken into account at each one of the key stages.

**Analysis of the situation**

The analysis of the situation (or feasibility study) is a fundamental stage in the PCM that intends to produce the knowledge needed to shape the core elements of our intervention. Our exante thematic evaluations are intended to be systematic and inclusive and endeavour to analyse which strategies individuals adopt to ensure their own food security and to what extent they succeed in doing so. Developing an understanding of livelihood strategies, of mechanisms for adaptation and reactions to shortages or a crisis (chronic or temporary) in a household will allow us to ascertain the paradigms of resilience and consequently identify the way in which our provision integrates and links with those that already exist. They also aim to collect data to analyse the social, political, economic and legal environment and the interactions and interests of the various players involved (stakeholder analysis). During the identification phase we systematically try to consider not only the sector’s national policies but also local strategies and plans. 89

Our information comes from primary and secondary sources. Of course, the quality, accuracy, relevance and range of secondary data available means that the volume of primary information to be collected can be significantly reduced. 90 Where possible, our analyses relate to quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data allows us to evaluate the food security situation and provides a representative picture of the situation, while the qualitative data helps us to describe the process and the interaction between social, political, institutional and economic factors (that determine vulnerability to food security over time). The analysis of each issue should consider both the immediate and underlying causes of the problems, take seasonal factors into account and examine the context, the capacities and general constraints of these problems as well as the actions that can be considered.

**Logical framework and social change**

Tdh’s interventions are generally based on a logical framework. A logical framework is an effective instrument for developing, planning, monitoring and evaluating a humanitarian and development intervention. However, it also has intrinsic limitations and clear shortcomings. Indeed, a legitimate requirement for rigour and consistency in prioritising and measuring objectives can sometimes result in counter-productive inflexibility. This is particularly the case in actions fighting against poverty and those relating to social protection or economic inclusion, which often comprise elements of social change based on complex causal links.

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89 In a number of countries in the Global South significant progress has been made in decentralisation – the transfer of powers and state prerogatives to regional/provincial bodies. While taking into account the contingency and lack of precision of the political dimension (and its resulting stances), any local process of defining development programmes can provide a solid basis for designing our projects.

90 The bibliography on Food Security and Livelihoods continues to grow. The volume of information available requires us to perform a desk review as part of the identification phase. In addition to specific national studies (statistics, early warning systems, etc.), over the last decade standardised analyses have been imposed on the international community (CFSVAM type studies, HEA profiles, Harmonised Framework for Permanent Analysis of Current Vulnerability, etc.) often accompanied by detailed mapping exercises of the zones and population groups, and linked to indicators that allow the degrees of vulnerability to be measured.
In developing and managing its thematic interventions, Tdh ensures that it systematically explains how and why the desired change will take place. This consolidates the project’s logical framework and ensures its compatibility with interventions in other sectors.

Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring is an iterative approach that produces information on the implementation of our actions with a view to helping the decision on steering and managing an intervention. Through monitoring, we ascertain to what extent activities are running as planned and we give ourselves the opportunity to take prompt steps to rectify any possible discrepancies and failures detected by redirecting approaches and the methods of intervention. Unlike an evaluation, monitoring does not challenge the core elements of the interventions, such as the rationale, objectives and plans. Rather, it aims to question the outputs and achievements vis-à-vis the plans, while taking into account compliance with procedures.

The quality of the monitoring system has a direct impact on the evaluation. An evaluation is an exercise in assessing the quality of something by unravelling the processes that explain the current situation, to facilitate any decisions taken on it. An evaluation covers a broad range of approaches but also generally refers to the analysis according to various criteria (namely the results obtained) by taking into consideration its context, and by giving a voice to the various players. For Tdh, evaluation is a fundamental stage in the PCM: it should therefore be designed as an activity that forms an integral part of the planning process from inception (with a budget reserved for this purpose and a schedule for implementation).

The participatory processes in evaluations increasingly have a large support toolkit allowing them to highlight and value the validity and relevance of the knowledge produced. Tdh ensures that it promotes openings to participation when evaluating our programmes and endeavours to include players with specific knowledge in the evaluation system (decision-makers, project staff, partners, users of services, beneficiaries, etc.). Our monitoring and evaluation systems are tailored to their various uses: facilitating the steering and management of the projects, reporting to all our stakeholders, documenting the learning process and capitalising on the experiences. They will be adapted to the type of action and context and will, consequently, be tailored to requirements. Nevertheless, certain organisations offer common indicators – often absolute measures – that can help define the information needed for monitoring.

By evaluating its thematic interventions, Tdh will draw lessons from its experience to improve its approaches, methods and performance. The results of the evaluations will be assessed, not only retrospectively, but also as a knowledge base and to improve our identification of future interventions. Indeed, Tdh is certain that the only way forward is to promote an effective learning process based on lessons drawn from evaluation exercises. This is particularly relevant with regard to Food Security and Livelihoods, in which Tdh has only recently become involved.

Capitalising on experience

With the recent inclusion of the Food Security and Livelihoods sector at Tdh, capitalising on the results and impact of our actions will play a crucial role in our capacity to build on the experience.

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91 To this end, the theory of change – in other words, an ongoing process of reflection that aims to study change in detail and how it happens - can provide an opportunity for a better understanding of our actions. A theory of change can also help us to clarify our contribution (and that of other stakeholders) in this process of change.

92 In an evaluation, the questions are classified into the various groups that correspond to different “perspectives” on what has been evaluated. Five of these points of view (OECD DAC evaluation criteria) are generally considered: relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability, impact. Furthermore, criteria on coherence/connectedness and coverage are also used to evaluate humanitarian projects.

93 The majority of these indicators, mostly developed by WFP, are generally used in a humanitarian context. They include, amongst others: rates of malnutrition amongst children aged 6-59 months, numbers of meals per day and per person, kilocalories/calories absorbed per day and per person, food consumption score and dietary diversity, food-related expenses (as a proportion of the total household budget), food shortages, index of coping strategies, etc.
The number of obstacles that stand in the way of this learning must be reduced, such as the capacity to distance oneself from the rationale behind the action and be able to distinguish between what is essential and what is incidental, to give oneself time to reflect (which often comes back to the issue of financial resources and in being able to make the time), to encourage written rather than verbal means of communication.

Capitalising on experience is a practical not an academic exercise and aims to improve practice. Nevertheless, work is required to formalise this approach (in terms of objectives, activities and timeframes). Capitalising per se is of no use if the conclusions are not embraced and applied. Harnessing the value of capitalising on experiences means promoting them internally, ensuring that conclusions are assimilated, acting on any corresponding decisions and sharing these as widely much as possible amongst the external players.

94 “Capitalising on experiences can be seen as an exercise in facing reality which can reveal weaknesses in operational capacities (we embellish partial successes, hide failures and operate a system that is occasionally in staggering denial of the reality)”. P. Villeval and P. Lavigne Delville. Capitalisation d’expériences, expérience de capitalisations. [Capitalising on experience, experience of capitalising] Traverses No. 15. GRET, 2004
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School Feeding


Vocational training / rural advisory services


Targeting, participative approaches, Do No Harm


Resilience


Partnership


Monitoring and evaluation, quality, capitalising on experience


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