



CAADP

CAADP Pillar III
Framework for African Food Security (FAFS)



PARTNERSHIPS IN SUPPORT OF (CAADP)



FRAMEWORK FOR AFRICAN FOOD SECURITY (FAFS)



Comprehensive African
Agriculture Development
Programme (CAADP)
Pillar III





NEPAD
A Programme of The African Union

Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)

Pillar III

Framework for African Food Security (FAFS)

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Foreword

The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) Pillar 3 Framework for African Food Security (FAFS) is a companion document to the CAADP Framework. FAFS presents a plan of action to address food insecurity and hunger at a time when a structural adjustment in food prices has had far-reaching implications for future agricultural growth and food security in Africa.

In 2003, African leaders endorsed CAADP as the plan of action to put agriculture back onto the development agenda. Through CAADP, African leaders, the African Union (AU) and the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) advocate for increased investment in the agricultural sector from development partners and African governments. African governments have committed to increasing public investment in agriculture to a minimum of 10% of national budgets – substantially more than the 4 to 5% average currently allocated. The emerging support from the development partners for endorsing CAADP as an Africa-led and Africa-owned AU/NEPAD initiative and framework to rationalise and revitalise African agriculture for economic growth and lasting poverty reduction results is most welcomed.

As one of four pillar frameworks, the CAADP Pillar III Framework for African Food Security (FAFS) contributes directly to the goals of CAADP and is unique in a number of ways. First, FAFS presents the first and only continentally agreed on plan of action for addressing food insecurity and hunger. Second, in keeping with NEPAD and CAADP principles, the framework was drafted by a team of predominantly African experts concerned with solving hunger and poverty in Africa. The draft framework was presented at various regional, continental and international meetings and gatherings and refined and honed to include the comments, concerns and opinions of academics, politicians, NGOs, civil society and development partners over 18 months.

In a final review process, an international team affirmed that the plan of action aligned with the Maputo Declaration, the Abuja Summit and the agenda of the continent with regard to the role and influence of FAFS in African countries. Third, FAFS builds on existing efforts to address Millennium Development Goal 1, poverty reduction efforts in country, and agricultural growth targets without creating an additional burden. FAFS, as the name implies is a Framework for action that summarises the key challenges to food security in Africa and sets out four key elements to address these, in ways that address policy change and support the agricultural growth agenda in an integrated, multi-sectoral manner. Fourthly, FAFS is intended to assist and facilitate the revision, development, implementation and monitoring of integrated and supporting programmes that bring the vulnerable into the mainstream of agricultural growth while simultaneously addressing hunger and poverty in sustainable ways. FAFS is not another project or programme but a tool for initiating in-country and inter-country dialogue in search of sustainable solutions to Africa's food insecurity and hunger.

The framework comes at an opportune time, when the world is faced with high food prices that increase the occurrence of hunger, and worsen conditions for the food insecure. The AU Commission endorses this Framework and encourages engagement and implementation of the principles, priorities and suggested strategies as part of NEPAD's CAADP. The inputs and contributions of all stakeholders from within and beyond the continent are gratefully acknowledged and appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Rhoda Peace Tumusiime
Commissioner for Rural Economy
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Executive Summary

In most parts of the world, rates of hunger and malnutrition have fallen significantly in recent years, but those in Africa have shown little improvement. Africa has the highest proportion (one-third) of people suffering from chronic hunger. Hunger in sub-Saharan Africa is as persistent as it is widespread. Between 1990–92 and 2001–03, the number of undernourished people increased from 169 million to 206 million, and only 15 of the 39 countries for which data are reported reduced the number of undernourished. Efforts to reduce hunger in the region have been hampered by a range of natural and human-induced disasters, including conflicts and the spread of HIV/AIDS. Widespread hunger and malnutrition in Africa determine and reflect deep poverty in the region. 298 million Africans (40 per cent of the continent's population) currently live on less than \$1 per day. In 1990, this figure stood at 241 million, 19 percent of the world's total.

Almost two-thirds of Africa's population is rural and thus directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture for employment and sustenance. Sustained growth in agriculture is therefore crucial to cutting hunger and poverty in the region. Indeed, recent increases in overall GDP growth rates in Africa track similar increases in agricultural GDP growth rates.

The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)

The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) has been endorsed by African heads of state and governments as a vision for the restoration of agricultural growth, food security and rural development in Africa. A specific goal of CAADP is to attain an average annual growth rate of 6 percent in agriculture. To achieve this goal, CAADP aims to stimulate *agriculture-led development that eliminates hunger and reduces poverty and food insecurity*. More specifically, the NEPAD vision for Africa holds that, by 2015, Africa should:

- Attain food security
- Improve agricultural productivity to attain a 6 percent annual growth rate
- Develop dynamic regional and sub-regional agricultural markets;

- Integrate farmers into a market economy
- Achieve a more equitable distribution of wealth.

CAADP is a strategic framework to guide country development efforts and partnerships in the agricultural sector. Similar to the broader NEPAD agenda, it embodies the principles of peer review and dialogue, which, when adequately followed and applied, will stimulate and broaden the adoption of best practices, facilitate benchmarking and mutual learning and, ultimately, raise the quality and consistency of country policies and strategies in the agricultural sector.

CAADP directs investment to four mutually reinforcing and interlinked pillars:

- *Pillar I:* Extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems
- *Pillar II:* Improving rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for market access
- *Pillar III:* Increasing food supply, reducing hunger and improving responses to food emergency crises
- *Pillar IV:* Improving agricultural research, technology dissemination and adoption.

CAADP Pillar III

CAADP Pillar III is a deliberate attempt to ensure that the agricultural growth agenda targets the chronically poor and vulnerable directly, rather than through indirect and hoped-for trickle down effects typical of past development policies and programmes. CAADP Pillar III focuses on the chronically food-insecure, and on populations who are vulnerable to and affected by various crises and emergencies. This is to ensure that the CAADP agenda simultaneously achieves the agricultural growth agenda and Millennium Development Goal targets for addressing poverty and hunger (MDG 1 aims to cut extreme poverty and hunger in half by 2015). CAADP Pillar III focus draws together the central elements of the CAADP vision to ensure that growing agricultural productivity, well-integrated markets and expanded purchasing power of vulnerable groups combine to eradicate hunger, malnutrition and poverty. The pillar focus necessarily intersects with the other three CAADP pillars.

Pillar III subscribes to CAADP principles and promotes the specific pillar principles in the box that follows.

CAADP PILLAR III PRINCIPLES

- Principle 1: Protect the right to food for all citizens of Africa.
- Principle 2: Focus on the chronically hungry and malnourished, particularly women and children, in order to address short term crises and in the long term integrate them into broad agricultural development.
- Principle 3: Ensure that all parties and players automatically seek to understand and address hunger and malnutrition.
- Principle 4: Mainstream considerations of human diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria and TB.
- Principle 5: Ensure that emergency responses promote growth and reduce chronic hunger (i.e. do no harm to the overall CAADP Agenda).
- Principle 6: Protect and promote the resilience of the livelihoods of the vulnerable.
- Principle 7: Ensure that gender dimensions of hunger and malnutrition are addressed.
- Principle 8: Promote intra-regional trade, particularly in food staples to raise food supply, food quality and moderate price volatility.
- Principle 9: Integrate regular review and broad-based dialogue to ensure successful implementation of this Pillar.
- Principle 10: Be in coherence with the MDGs, especially MDG1 to cut extreme poverty and hunger.
- Principle 11: Integrate lessons from success stories in cutting hunger and malnutrition.

This document, the CAADP Framework for African Food Security (FAFS), brings structure and congruence to this effort to articulate an actionable food security agenda for Africa.

The Framework for African Food Security (FAFS)

The purpose of the FAFS is to guide and assist stakeholders in Africa to simultaneously meet the objectives of CAADP Pillar III and the broader African development agenda. The food security challenges addressed in the FAFS are threefold: (1) inadequate food supply (2) widespread and persistent hunger and malnutrition and (3) inadequate management of food crises. The FAFS aims to provide principles, recommended actions, coordination, peer review and tools to guide national and regional policies, strategies, investments, partner contributions

and advocacy efforts to overcome these challenges, leading to increased food supply, reduced hunger and malnutrition, and improved food security risk management.

The FAFS recognizes previous AU/NEPAD work and pulls together previous key AU/NEPAD priorities, efforts and documents across sectors to address the challenges of improving food security in Africa. By addressing the multi-dimensional problem of food insecurity with multi-dimensional solutions, the FAFS creates an opportunity to generate a cycle of reinforcing benefits that will ameliorate the devastating impacts of food insecurity in Africa. In as much as CAADP Pillar II applies a 'value-chain' approach rather than a 'supply-chain' approach, where the value-chain begins with consumer market analysis to drive sector coordination, so FAFS begins with household consumption behaviour analysis to identify and understand the impact of changes in income and consumption behaviour prior to selection of investment instruments to ensure that the food and livelihood security of vulnerable households is protected, broadened, buffered and/or boosted.

The FAFS represents the first concerted attempt to build continent-wide consensus on the challenges and opportunities facing Africa in its efforts to reduce the food insecurity which plagues millions of its citizens, and it proposes interventions and systems for coordinated and integrated action within the CAADP implementation processes. The process used to develop the FAFS has been evidence-based, inclusive and participatory. The FAFS therefore provides answers not only to the question of "what" needs to be done to increase food security in Africa, but also to "how" this might be done.

Food Insecurity Challenges in Africa

CAADP Pillar III focuses on three dimensions of food insecurity in Africa: inadequate food supply, widespread hunger and malnutrition, and food crises borne of a range of natural and man-made risks and hazards. This pillar recognizes that some of the solutions to addressing hunger and malnutrition may lie outside of direct agricultural interventions and that not all households will attain food security through agricultural production, but that widespread agricultural growth depends on active and healthy people, and that agricultural growth has widespread indirect benefits. However, no non-agricultural intervention or programme should undermine the agricultural growth agenda.

Challenges Related to Food Crisis Management

Extreme weather events such as droughts and floods (which are increasing in frequency and impact under global climate change) a range of pests, and communicable human and animal diseases often undermine fragile livelihoods and pose direct threats to food security in Africa. Climate change is likely to create additional challenges and threats to a range of production

systems in future. So, too, do a range of disruptions borne of social and political strife, most notably the several civil conflicts raging across the continent. Food crises occur when these hazards and disruptions encounter deep-rooted vulnerability. Food crises can be prevented or their effects significantly muted if underlying vulnerabilities are confronted and addressed. However, few African countries possess the required physical, human, institutional and financial capacities to do so. The capacity gaps that constrain adequate crisis prevention and preparedness also limit the depth and breadth of effective action *during* crises. The principal challenges during food emergencies centre on coordination, logistics and information management. National governments are not always able to take the lead in setting the broad framework for emergency response, or in prioritizing intervention modalities and locations. International agencies often face difficulties in translating commitments of support into concrete support and action on the ground. NGOs typically operate in tightly defined locations and are thus limited in their ability to serve as focal points for broad-based coordination, logistics and information management. Many African countries are signatories to the Hyogo Framework for Action on Disaster Reduction, but few have taken the steps to implement the recommendations set out in the Framework.

Challenges Related to Inadequate Food Supply and Limited Marketing

Food supply in Africa is inadequate and erratic. African population growth rates are the highest in the world. With low agricultural productivity and rapid population growth, Africa is the only region of the world where per capita food production has fallen over the past 45 years. Cereal yields have stagnated for the past 45 years and currently average less than one ton per hectare. Livestock have always been a key element in African agriculture and household investment. However, livestock production and pastoral livelihoods in Africa face multiple threats related to trans-boundary disease, water shortages and climate change among others related to trade barriers and phytosanitary issues. Per capita fish consumption in Africa is likely to decline due to population pressure, despite increasing international trade.

The value of agricultural output per worker in Africa has stagnated. In 2003, the average African farm worker produced \$520 in farm output, compared to \$670 in Asia and \$4,100 in Latin America. Low on-farm productivity thus translates into low incomes, low purchasing power and lower incentives and capacities for investment in productivity growth. Low agricultural productivity also contributes to high food prices. Low asset endowments of small farmers combine with endemic livestock diseases to limit animal production, productivity and traction. Pastoralists in semi-arid and arid lowland regions are relatively asset-rich in livestock, but remain highly vulnerable. The direct consumption of livestock products – particularly milk – can comprise more than

half of daily food energy needs. Milk is a particularly important food for children and women in these communities but milk supply is affected by livestock diseases and increasing rainfall variability. In these regions, there are limited livelihoods options other than livestock rearing.

Challenges Related to Increasing the Incomes of the Vulnerable

One of the root causes of food insecurity in developing countries is the inability of people to gain access to food, due to poverty. Even in good years, many households are unable to meet their basic food needs. Over 70 per cent of the poor in Africa live in the rural areas where food insecurity is prevalent. Poverty is closely related to the lack of a steady flow of income. The poor, because of their lack of income and assets, are highly vulnerable and therefore unable to cope with uncertainties such as economic down-turns, health hazards, natural catastrophes and civil conflict. Vulnerability is further increased by the depletion of productive assets and unsustainable livelihoods.

Poor households spend a significant proportion of their household expenditure on food, either by directly purchasing it or by producing it. Where households produce their own food, cash and transport constraints limit people's ability to purchase farm inputs and market their produce. Increasing prices of farm inputs associated with the supply-side commercial practices on local and sub-regional markets undermine poor farmers' ability to access the farm inputs for production. Food access by urban dwellers hinges primarily on the household's ability to purchase food. Lack of education frequently limits poor households' access to the most lucrative farm and non-farm employment opportunities. At the same time, shortage of capital prevents them from investing in transport, mechanical milling and other high return farm or non-farm business opportunities. Instead, the poor depend on low-return unskilled labour activities such as basket making, weaving and casual labour activities.

Access to and availability of a consistent flow of income is fundamental to the lives of the vulnerable. The challenge, therefore, is to assist the vulnerable with the means to access income, accumulate assets and prevent their depletion, establish sustainable livelihoods and access infrastructure.

Challenges Related to Improving the Quality of Diets through Dietary Diversification

Stunting rates in Africa declined by less than four percentage points between 1980 and 2000. However, with population growth, the number of stunted children actually increased by more than 12 million and both relative and absolute numbers of underweight children in Africa increased over the same period. These trends reflect challenges related to food access and food utilization. A key

determinant of food access is the structure and functioning of food markets. Yet large segments of African populations are unable to meet their food needs from market sources. Usually efficient markets emerge where demand is vibrant and sustained. But, almost half of Africa's population lives on less than US \$1 per day and wages in Africa are generally low, especially for unskilled labor - even more especially in agriculture - implying a general inability to effectively express demand for food from market sources.

However, it is now widely recognized that problems of malnutrition are not limited to the more common syndrome of stunting which characterizes mild to moderate malnutrition, but also extend to micronutrient malnutrition, which often co-exists in resource-poor settings where there is inadequate access to food, sanitation and safe water, and to lack of knowledge about safe food handling and feeding practices. The three deficiencies of greatest public health significance are those of vitamin A, iron and iodine. The primary causes of most micronutrient malnutrition are inadequate intakes of micronutrient-rich foods and impaired absorption or utilization of nutrients in these foods, due partly to infection and parasitic infestation, which also increases metabolic needs for many micronutrients. One of the nutrition intervention strategies intended to address micronutrient malnutrition is dietary diversification. If people have access to a sufficient quantity and variety of foods, they will meet their nutritional needs

Proper food utilization requires that an individual be able to consume diversified, properly prepared, safe foods and effectively absorb the energy and nutrients in the foods consumed. Nutrition status is determined by biological utilization of food by the body – a process that is itself determined by the health status of the individual. Diseases such as diarrhea, respiratory conditions, measles, malaria and HIV/AIDS thus interfere with proper food utilization. For proper food utilization, individuals must also have reliable access to health services, have sound food storage practices, live in sanitary environments with access to potable water, and, for children especially, be provided with knowledgeable care. Access to health, water, improved food storage and good sanitation facilities is typically low, and seasonal fluctuation in food supply leads to cycles of inadequate intakes which affect children's growth in particular. Most important is the need to include foods in the diet that have high micronutrient densities, such as pulses or legumes, vegetables (including green leafy vegetables) and fruits. This is the preferred way of ensuring optimal nutrition, including micronutrient adequacy. By and large, broadening the food base and diversifying diets has multiple benefits in addressing food and nutrition security.

Strategic Responses to Food Insecurity

Responses to these challenges will necessarily vary widely by country and region within Africa, depending on social, political, economic and biophysical realities. A basic premise in the FAFS is

that strategic priorities for reducing food insecurity are likely to be less divergent. Furthermore, the FAFS proposes that the range of available scalable and replicable intervention options is likely to be fairly stable across countries and regions. It is useful to consider three types of responses under each of the three Pillar III action areas (increasing food supply, reducing hunger and malnutrition, and improving risk management): (1) *immediate* responses that yield impacts within 1-2 years; (2) *medium term* responses that generate impacts within 3-5 years; and (3) *long term* responses that produce impacts within 6-10 years. The framework lists specific immediate, medium and long term responses appropriate to the African growth agenda as recommended responses that countries and regions could consider as part of their total intervention and investment strategy.

Using the FAFS

The FAFS is intended to provide sound guidance on the overall direction in which all policy, strategies and actions might best address chronic hunger and malnutrition, bring vulnerable groups into mainstream agricultural growth, and complement the priorities of the other CAADP Pillars. The FAFS is intended to provide an easy reference resource for countries and regions to apply principles and priorities to ongoing and future interventions and investments to ensure the simultaneous achievement of agricultural growth and reduction in food and nutrition insecurity. The FAFS is also intended as an advocacy tool that can offer leaders increased access to political, technical, methodological and financial support for their food security-related policies, plans and institutions. Further work is required to develop and test common tools for use in regions and countries for stock taking, assessment, scenario testing and monitoring, and evaluation of strategies.

Monitoring Food Security Situations and Progress toward Pillar III Goals

Progress toward Pillar III's objectives must be objectively monitored and evaluated. Not only is it important to co-ordinate monitoring and evaluation across regions and countries to provide comparative measures and know where the hunger hot-spots are, such exercises are also crucial to realization of CAADP's peer review elements. Monitoring and evaluating Pillar III's objectives means tracking Africa's success in increasing food supply, reducing hunger and malnutrition, and improving the effectiveness of responses to food crises. Recommended indicators for monitoring and evaluating Pillar III are provided.



Co-ordination for Implementation, Monitoring, Evaluation and Peer Review

Food security and nutrition are seldom integrated into national development agendas. Responsibilities for these issues within the public sector are typically unclear. Resources for programmes to improve food security and nutrition are often insufficient. Budget constraints result in shortfalls in material supplies, trained workers, training and supervision, and in monitoring and evaluation. Moreover, there is little co-ordination of action and use of resources among agencies. With no clear responsibilities established on food security and, especially, nutrition issues, conflict rather than co-operation is likely to characterize the relationships between agencies and sectors of government. Coordination of food security and nutrition activities is therefore crucial for both implementation of Pillar III policies and programmes, and for monitoring and evaluation of outcomes.

Coordination Model for FAFS Implementation

The country-level CAADP implementation process is primarily one of aligning national agricultural sector policies, strategies and investment programmes with CAADP principles and targets, in particular the 6 percent growth rate and 10 percent public expenditure share for the sector. The CAADP process must build on ongoing country efforts and be led by national governments, with the necessary support from the Regional Economic Communities and the NEPAD Secretariat. In line with the NEPAD principles of ownership and accountability, the country CAADP process is initiated on a demand-driven basis, through consultation between RECs and their member countries. Country Round Tables (CRTs) and Regional Round Tables (RRTs) are the loci for these consultations. Resulting from these CRTs and RRTs are National Compacts comprising high-level agreements between governments, regional representatives, civil society, technical partners and development partners for a focused implementation of CAADP within the respective country. The compacts detail priority projects, programmes and investment strategies that the various partners can support. Compacts include defined actions, commitments, partnerships and alliances, and guide country policy and investment responses, planning of development assistance, public-private partnerships, and business-to-business alliances to raise and sustain the necessary investments.

A model is proposed for coordinating Pillar III policies and programmes that are designed, implemented, monitored, and evaluated based on the FAFS. To ensure that FAFS policies and strategies have the necessary political authority to facilitate interactive action, coordinating bodies are required at national, regional and continental levels. To ensure this authority, National Coordinating Platforms (NCPs) should be created and located in a non-line Ministry with enough authority to move the Pillar III agenda forward. Ministries of Finance and Development,

and Offices of the President or Prime Minister are possibilities. However, the choice of the government units within which NCPs will be located is left to countries. This national platform will be made up of various Ministries (Agriculture, Health, Welfare, Social Services, Trade, Foreign Affairs, etc.), in-country Technical Working Groups, Parastatals, Technical Agencies, Civil Society, Development Partners and Private Sector representation. Its main aim will be to provide strategic national leadership and coordination for the monitoring, evaluation, planning, implementation and reporting of policy and interventions around food security. The NCP could be replicated at different levels of government, down to the local levels, as appropriate.

Regional Coordinating Platforms (RCPs) should be created and situated in RECs, reporting to the AU/NEPAD Secretariat. RCPs should provide the same analysis, evaluation, monitoring, planning and reporting elements as do the NCPs, but at regional level. This structure includes representatives from countries, the REC, technical agencies, civil society, development partners, sub-regional research organizations (SROs) and the private sector. The RCP plays an additional role in reporting for and advocating Pillar III related activities and policies in various other forums, such as the REC Parliamentary Forums and the Pan African Parliament. The Regional Strategy Analysis and Knowledge Support Systems (ReSAKSS) will work with the regional and national agencies to facilitate access by the RECs and their member states to policy-relevant analyses of the highest quality, in order to generate the necessary knowledge to improve policy making, track progress, document success and derive lessons that can feed into the review and learning processes associated with the implementation of the CAADP agenda. They operate under co-ordination and governance structures chaired by the RECs. NEPAD will encourage RCPs, NCPs and local coordinating platforms to draw upon ReSAKSS for information management support, data analysis and dissemination that could strengthen coordination and planning of activities, budgets and reporting.

Scaling up Food Security Investments in Africa

Africa's leaders recently committed the AUC, NEPAD, and RECS to establish criteria for identifying African successes that rely primarily on Africa's own resources and promote measures for their replication, adaptation and up-scaling. Identifying scalable food security enhancing interventions for an area as large and diverse as Africa is extremely challenging. Judicious simplification is required. One approach to such simplification involves gaining a quantitative appreciation of patterns of food insecurity across the continent. Such patterns likely derive partly from climatic factors, partly from underlying biophysical conditions in agricultural sectors, and partly from policy and institutional factors (including 'chronic conflict' situations in the Horn of Africa). Visualizing similarities and differences in agriculture across the

region is a powerful first step toward focusing attention on areas and issues that cross national borders. The ReSAKSS is ideally suited to serve such a purpose.

The FAFS recommends that analysis be undertaken by the ReSAKSS, in collaboration with lead institutions, SROs, and NARS, to disaggregate Africa into geographical units (possibly termed “food security domains”) in which similar food security problems or opportunities are likely to occur. Such “food security domains” would permit consideration of the following issues: Where are those geographic areas within and across African countries in which food security problems and opportunities are likely to be most similar? Where will specific types of food security policies,

investments, and livelihood options likely be most effective? Given successful food security-enhancement in one location, where else do similar conditions obtain? What is the potential for targeted replication (scaling up) of successes to these similar areas?

The ReSAKSS will work with AU/NEPAD Centers of Excellence, to build national capacities to undertake the analysis required to develop and analyze food security domains. The CRTs and RRTs will provide forums for discussion and resource mobilization based on recommendations emerging from the analysis of prospects for up-scaling successes and best practices. A network of support institutions will be established drawing from the SROs, NARS, academic institutions and local experts.



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1 Introduction

In most parts of the world, rates of hunger and malnutrition have fallen significantly in recent years, but those in Africa have shown little improvement (IFPRI, 2007). The impact of the 2008 global financial, food, fuel and fodder crises have impacted significantly on Africa's food and agricultural systems. Africa has the highest proportion (one-third) of people suffering from chronic hunger (FAO, 2006). Hunger in sub-Saharan Africa is as persistent as it is widespread. Between 1990–92 and 2001–03, the number of undernourished people increased from 169 million to 206 million, and only 15 of the 39 countries for which data are reported reduced the number of undernourished (FAO, 2006). Recent figures indicate that the 2008 food crisis added 100 million more to global hunger estimates, the majority of which are Africans. Efforts to reduce hunger in the region have been hampered by a range of natural and human-induced disasters, including conflicts, the spread of HIV/AIDS and recent financial crises. Widespread hunger and malnutrition in Africa determine and reflect deep poverty in the region. Currently 298 million Africans (31 percent of the continent's population) live on less than \$1 per day; in 1990, this figure stood at 241 million, 19 percent of the total (IFPRI, 2007).

Despite the gains that have been made in agriculture, health care and education across the continent, more than 40% of the population in sub-Saharan Africa lives on less than a dollar a day. Included in this group are three quarters of the world's poorest people – those who live on less than 50 US cents a day. Almost two-thirds of Africa's population is rural and thus directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture for food, employment and income (FAOSTAT, 2006). Although urban populations are growing, most of Africa's poor live in rural areas and depend on agriculture for food and livelihoods. The fact that the number of people affected by poverty and hunger in Africa is increasing means that agriculture is not meeting its potential as a driver for economic growth, and more and more people are "falling out" of the growth process.

Sustained growth in agriculture is therefore crucial to cutting hunger and poverty in the region. Indeed, recent increases in overall GDP growth rates in Africa track similar increases in agricultural GDP growth rates (IMF, 2007; World Bank, 2007).

1.1 The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)

The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) has been endorsed by African Heads of State and Governments as a vision for the restoration of agricultural growth, food security, and rural development in Africa (NEPAD, 2003). A specific goal of CAADP is to attain an average annual growth rate of 6 percent in agriculture. To achieve this goal, CAADP aims to stimulate *agriculture-led development that eliminates hunger and reduces poverty and food insecurity*. More specifically, the NEPAD vision for Africa holds that, by 2015, Africa should:

- Attain food security
- Improve agricultural productivity to attain a 6 percent annual growth rate
- Develop dynamic regional and sub-regional agricultural markets
- Integrate farmers and pastoralists into a market economy
- Achieve a more equitable distribution of wealth.

CAADP is a strategic framework to guide country development efforts and partnerships in the agricultural sector. Similar to the broader NEPAD agenda, it embodies the principles of peer review and dialogue, which, when adequately followed and applied, will stimulate and broaden the adoption of best practices, facilitate benchmarking and mutual learning and, ultimately, raise the quality and consistency of country policies and strategies in the agricultural sector.

CAADP directs investment to the following four mutually reinforcing pillars, adhering to its seven principles and targets (Box 1):

- *Pillar I:* Extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems
- *Pillar II:* Improving rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for market access
- *Pillar III:* Increasing food supply, reducing hunger and improving responses to food emergency crises
- *Pillar IV:* Improving agriculture research, technology dissemination and adoption.



1 CAADP PRINCIPLES AND TARGETS

- Principle 1: Designating agriculture-led growth as a main strategy to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of halving the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day (MDG1).
- Principle 2: Pursuing a 6 percent average annual sector growth rate at the national level.
- Principle 3: Allocating 10 percent of national budgets to the agricultural sector.
- Principle 4: Exploiting regional complementarities and co-operation to boost growth.
- Principle 5: Adopting the principles of policy efficiency, dialogue, review and accountability, shared by all NEPAD programmes.
- Principle 6: Strengthening and expanding partnerships and alliances to include farmers, agribusiness and civil society communities.
- Principle 7: Assigning programme implementation to individual countries, co-ordination to designated Regional Economic Communities (RECs), and facilitation to the NEPAD Secretariat.

Agricultural growth is at the centre of the CAADP agenda. Agricultural growth benefits both rural and urban populations by providing more food and raw materials at lower prices; providing capital and labor for development; and reducing poverty by increasing labor productivity and employment in rural areas. Agricultural growth is effective in reducing poverty and has been shown to have a stronger effect on poverty reduction than other sectors of the economy (Bresciani and Valdes, 2007; World Bank, 2007; Hendriks and Lyne, 2003; Delgado et al., 1998). However, even in Asia, where the Green Revolution of the 1970s drove substantial improvements in overall development and substantially reduced hunger and malnutrition, it is clear that economic growth alone is not sufficient to eliminate hunger (Task Force on Hunger, 2005).

The hungry and malnourished tend to be located primarily in agricultural areas. Hunger and malnutrition are more acute among the landless, pastoralists, smallholders and hired agricultural workers (Southgate et al., 2007). Many such populations do not have access to improved technologies and are beyond the reach of markets (the focus of CAADP Pillars I and II). Narrow livelihood options render many such populations vulnerable to various income and consumption shocks. In addition, the poor and hungry often face social and political exclusion and are not able to demand their rights with regard to food and entitlements. It is well known that women and children make up the majority of those who are poor and hungry. They are the most prone to the life-threatening effects of hunger and malnutrition. It is therefore crucial that the growth agenda

includes a special focus on those who may not be the immediate beneficiaries of agricultural growth but whose immediate needs to address hunger and malnutrition require urgent and immediate attention and assistance. In addition, a sustainable growth agenda must ensure that the marginalized are the ultimate beneficiaries of growth and are not further marginalized by rapid development. Addressing hunger and malnutrition in Africa is crucial to attaining the Millennium Development and CAADP targets, especially in terms of attaining and maintaining a 6 percent annual growth rate through increased productivity. This is the basic rationale for CAADP Pillar III that seeks to identify ways to achieve reductions in hunger and malnutrition through, or in the context of, agricultural growth.

1.2 CAADP Pillar III

CAADP Pillar III is a deliberate attempt to ensure that the agricultural growth agenda targets the chronically poor and vulnerable directly, rather than through indirect and hoped-for trickle down effects typical of past development policies and programmes. CAADP Pillar III focuses on the chronically food insecure, and on populations vulnerable to and affected by various crises and emergencies, in order to ensure that the CAADP agenda simultaneously achieves the agricultural growth agenda and Millennium Development Goal targets for addressing poverty and hunger (MDG 1 aims to cut extreme poverty and hunger in half by 2015). CAADP Pillar III focus draws together the central elements of the CAADP vision to ensure that growing agricultural productivity, well-integrated markets and expanded purchasing power of vulnerable groups combine to eradicate hunger, malnutrition and poverty. The pillar focus necessarily intersects with the other three CAADP pillars.

CAADP Pillar III focuses on the challenge of ensuring that vulnerable populations have the opportunity to both contribute to, and benefit from, agricultural growth – a focus that operationalizes CAADP's commitment to broad-based agricultural growth as the best way of achieving sustainable food security in Africa. CAADP Pillar III also recognizes the need to reduce the vulnerability of poor households to economic and climatic shocks, because of the clear linkages between repeated exposure to shocks, the erosion of household assets and coping mechanisms, and deepening poverty. Finally, Pillar III highlights the linkages between poverty, hunger and malnutrition – and the enormous threat posed by chronic hunger and malnutrition to the current and future productivity of Africa.

The framework for the implementation of activities under CAADP Pillar III is the Framework for African Food Security (Pillar III/FAFS). This framework sets out Pillar III's vision to increase resilience by decreasing food insecurity and linking vulnerable people into opportunities for agricultural growth, through its relationship

to the overall CAADP agenda and by suggesting actions at regional and country level. Pillar III therefore seeks to increase the resilience of vulnerable populations in Africa by reducing risks of food insecurity and creating linkages for participation in agricultural growth.

Food insecurity in Africa is a systemic problem. It is not acceptable that the occurrence of a single flood or drought creates a crisis in African food security. Nor is it acceptable that predictable year-on-year food assistance is required to fill the consumption gap of populations in Africa. African governments must have a plan of action to build resilience in order to address chronic food insecurity and mobilize community and national systems to deal with crises. Resilience is the ability of households, communities and countries to anticipate and mitigate risk by providing buffers and insurances to draw on, and having action plans to respond efficiently and quickly to shocks and crises in order to ensure rapid recovery post-shock or crisis.

Pillar III/FAFS Target Groups

Although a number of issues addressed under Pillar III may overlap with the objectives and activities reflected in other CAADP pillars, a key difference is that activities carried out under Pillar III are targeted directly at vulnerable populations in order to both accelerate access to the benefits and impacts of agricultural growth, and to accelerate ability to contribute to that growth. It is important to note that Pillar III does not attempt to address all sources and types of vulnerability and food insecurity; rather, Pillar III activities target the vulnerable populations most likely to be able to contribute to and directly benefit from increased agricultural growth.

Framework Objectives

The framework identifies four key objectives that contribute to the goal of increasing resilience in vulnerable populations:

- **Improved risk management:** at the household, community, national and regional levels to inform decisions that ultimately impact the building and protection of assets and investments, and to strengthen national, regional, and community responses to climatic and economic shocks that risk and undermine the coping mechanisms of vulnerable populations. Strategic policy towards agricultural growth will have influence over the design of programmes in sectors beyond agriculture, ensuring that all policies protect and further the agricultural growth agenda and its broad-based benefits. Fluid food distribution networks are necessary to channel farm surpluses to deficit households and zones (linked to Pillar II). In addition to widely publicized hunger hot spots, Africa is endowed with a broad range of surplus production zones. Often these food security-enhancing hot spots emerge in regions with good water management or where substitution possibilities among

multiple food staples permit flexible supply responses. Yet national boundaries, wide rivers and man-made impediments such as tariffs and export restrictions cut across natural market sheds, impeding the free-flow of food from surplus to deficit zones. Poor infrastructure, lack of appropriate storage, lack of harmonized grades and standards and cumbersome border procedures further restrain trade (linked to Pillar II). Lack of adequate and efficient food reserves prevents effective and rapid mobilization of food stocks in emergencies.

In the long run, social protection will be effective when delivered as predictable public support to targeted households through an instrument that is best suited to the local circumstances (i.e. sometimes cash transfers may be preferable over in-kind transfers and visa versa). Small, strategic and carefully targeted transfers can meet the immediate consumption needs of vulnerable and destitute households, buffering them from asset depletion and adoption of coping strategies that undermine the long-term resilience of households. While transfers in emergencies and to destitute households aim to smooth consumption, they will not shift households out of poverty. 'Productive safety nets' not only smooth consumption but provide productive investment through conditional transfers that provide linkages and pathways out of poverty through improved agricultural productivity, education or healthcare. However, to be successful, social protection programmes need to be delivered on a large scale to maximize economies of scale.

- **Increased supply of affordable commodities through increased production and improved market linkages:** Increasing the supply of food through increased production and improved market linkages will increase the food available to households and communities. Strategies to increase the production of staple commodities are also more likely to impact poor small farm holders, increasing their incomes and extending the geographic reach of markets to underserved areas. Increased and improved agricultural productivity is necessary to achieve CAADP's poverty reduction and food output targets, while at the same time reducing production costs and food prices for the poor. Key components of this effort include: new technologies, better application and delivery of existing technologies (linked to Pillar IV) and improved farm incentives, driven by investments in infrastructure and rationalization of trade and marketing policies (link to Pillar II), and expanded farmer capacity to respond to improved incentives through greater access to productive assets, including fertile soils, reliable water, improved access to veterinary services, and a healthy, well-educated human workforce (linked to Pillar I).
- **Increased economic opportunities for the vulnerable:** Identifying potential opportunities for diversification of

livelihoods – particularly in support of adding value to agricultural production (through local processing, handling, transport, etc.) will both build resiliency and contribute to rural growth. Close coordination with strategic policies and carefully designed programmes undertaken under other pillars will improve outcomes under this objective, as will pro-active attempts to link safety-net interventions to access to agricultural inputs, credit, training, and other interventions capable of providing opportunities for the poor to accumulate, diversify and invest in assets.

- **Increased quality of diets through diversification of food among the target groups.** While investment in increasing the production of staple foods will have an immediate, significant, impact on the poor, increasing the ability of the poor to access sufficient protein and micronutrients through varied, nutritious diets is necessary to ensure sustainable gains in the battle against poverty, hunger and malnutrition.

Progress made through Pillar III will contribute directly to the overall CAADP objective of achieving a growth rate sufficient to reach the MDG goals of reducing poverty and hunger by half by 2015. Progress will be measured through:

- Improvement in food security and nutrition indicators
- Improvement in the household asset and/or income levels of targeted vulnerable populations.

Once vulnerable populations targeted under Pillar III are identified and quantified, establishing the levels and rates of change in these indicators required to contribute to CAADP and MDG goals is a critical component of the implementation of Pillar III/FAFS at the country level.

All Pillar III policies, strategies and activities should adhere to CAADP III principles, which reiterate and uphold various decisions and principles of the 2003 Maputo Summit, 2004 Sirte Summit, 2006 Abuja Fertilizer Summit; and 2006 Abuja Food Security Summit (Box 2).

The elaboration of Pillar III Principles highlights the need to amend some CAADP Principles to reflect the true scope and nature of attaining food security on the continent and to reflect current thinking and policy changes since the drafting of the CAADP principles. While Pillar III ascribes to the CAADP principles, it is recommended that consideration be given to the following in the review of CAADP principles:

First, CAADP principles should more clearly articulate food security as a basic human right. Eradication of chronic hunger and effective emergency responses for vulnerable groups will address food rights in the short and long term. Encouraging the systematic integration of nutrition considerations in all government investments – especially in food security and agricultural interventions – would further the right, not only to

adequate diets, but also to quality diets for all.

Second, Pillar III principles focus on increasing staple cereals and legumes, livestock and fish production, and inter-regional trade,

2 CAADP PILLAR III PRINCIPLES

- Principle 1: Protect the right to food for all citizens of Africa.
- Principle 2: Focus on the chronically hungry and malnourished, particularly women and children, in order to address short term crises and in the long term integrate them into broad agricultural development.
- Principle 3: Ensure that all parties and players automatically seek to understand and address hunger and malnutrition.
- Principle 4: Mainstream considerations of human diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria and TB.
- Principle 5: Ensure that emergency responses promote growth and reduce chronic hunger (i.e. do no harm to the overall CAADP Agenda).
- Principle 6: Protect and promote the resilience of the livelihoods of the vulnerable.
- Principle 7: Ensure that gender dimensions of hunger and malnutrition are addressed.
- Principle 8: Promote intra-regional trade, particularly in food staples to raise food supply, food quality and moderate price volatility.
- Principle 9: Integrate regular review and broad-based dialogue to ensure successful implementation of this Pillar.
- Principle 10: Be in coherence with the MDGs, especially MDG1 to cut extreme poverty and hunger.
- Principle 11: Integrate lessons from success stories in cutting hunger and malnutrition.

with the aim of deepening regional integration of food markets to link surplus and deficit zones, and of creating 'food without borders' to increase regional trade opportunities and rapid market-based regional responses to food emergencies. Please note that the term 'food' is used in this document to refer to crops, livestock and fish, and includes recognition of the important role of indigenous foods.

Third, the AU/NEPAD Agriculture Expenditure Tracking System should include an evaluation of budgetary expenditure on food security. National food security coordinating agencies and comprehensive functional national food security databases (that include nutrition information) should also be established as foundations for strong policy and programme design, implementation and evaluation.

This document, the CAADP Pillar III Framework for African Food Security (FAFS), brings structure and congruence to the effort to articulate an actionable food security agenda for Africa. Furthermore, it assists governments in designing supportive policies and sustainable food security policies that complement and integrate with other CAADP policies and programmes for ensuring overall economic growth and reduction of hunger and poverty in Africa.

1.3 The Framework for African Food Security (FAFS)

The purpose of the FAFS is to guide and assist stakeholders in Africa to simultaneously meet the objectives of CAADP Pillar III and the broader African development agenda. Four food security challenges are addressed in the CAADP FAFS: (1) inadequate risk management at all levels from household to regional levels (2) inadequate food supply and marketing systems for distributing food (3) lack of income opportunities for the vulnerable and (4) hunger and malnutrition. The FAFS aims to provide principles, recommended actions, coordination, peer review and tools to guide national and regional policies, strategies, investments, partner contributions and advocacy efforts to overcome these challenges, leading to increased food supply, reduced hunger and malnutrition, and improved food security risk management (Figure 1).

The FAFS recognizes previous AU/NEPAD work and the frameworks of the other 3 pillars, and pulls together previous key AU/NEPAD priorities, efforts and documents across sectors to address the challenges of improving food security in Africa. Commitments reached at the Africa Food Security Summit are crucial to implement (AU, 2006). This document brings together commitments such as:

- The Pan-African Nutrition Initiative (PANI) that is dedicated to catalyzing multi-sectoral collaboration, facilitating capacity building, mobilizing resources and promoting the use of a Nutrition Lens to mainstream nutrition in investment planning with the aim of identifying opportunities to

integrate nutrition initiatives across multiple sectors, define optimal nutrition inputs from each sector and review the potential impacts of proposed projects

- The African Regional Nutrition Strategy (ARNS) for 2002-2015 that was endorsed by the AU Ministers of Health, and represents a renewed commitment to the improvement of the nutrition situation in Africa and to the achievement of the MDGs
- The African Ten Year Strategy (ATYS) which recognizes that focusing on food production and supply alone will not be enough to stem the rising tide of hunger and malnutrition in Africa. ATYS promotes a view that a coordinated approach is necessary to achieve significant reductions in micronutrient deficiencies
- The AU protocol on African Women's Rights
- AU Livingstone II Process for Social Protection
- AU Child Survival Framework.

The FAFS therefore seeks to strengthen and harmonize existing efforts, and provide a platform for stakeholders to capitalize on synergies and complementarities. By addressing the multi-dimensional problem of food insecurity with multi-dimensional solutions, the FAFS creates an opportunity to generate a cycle of reinforcing benefits that will ameliorate the devastating impacts of food insecurity in Africa.

The framework that has guided development of the FAFS is shown in Figure 2. An individual is food secure if she/he can reliably gain access to food in sufficient quantity and quality to enjoy a healthy and active life. Within households, the degree to which individuals have access to sufficient food may vary systematically owing to gender, age, or labor contribution criteria. Food security is therefore concerned with continuous and assured access to food. Food production does not ensure food security at household and individual levels. For urban households, sufficient income is typically required to acquire food in the market. For rural households, productive resources and accessible markets are required – cropland or livestock, together with sufficient labor and tools – as well as income to acquire the food they are unable to produce themselves.

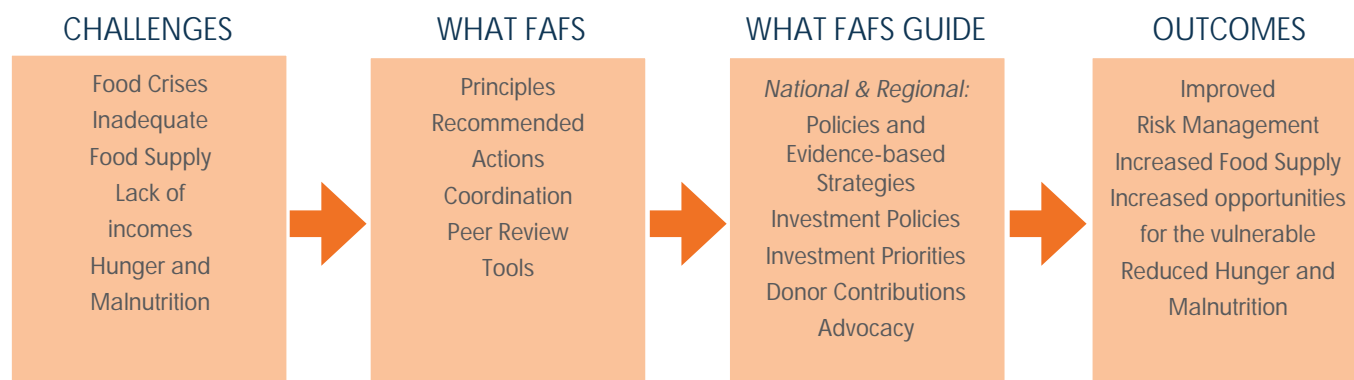


Figure 1: The Framework for African Food Security (FAFS)

Nutrition security explores individual requirements and inadequacies associated with utilization of food by individuals. A household achieves nutrition security when it has secure access to food, coupled with a sanitary environment, adequate health services and knowledgeable care to ensure a healthy life for all household members. Although the notion of nutrition security has received far less attention in the literature on hunger and economic development than has food security, it constitutes a critical component in any discussion about how renewed dynamism in African economies can be translated into general welfare improvements for the poor and undernourished (Benson, 2004).

Reliable access to food is also closely linked to notions of sustainability and vulnerability. When households are unable

to acquire sufficient food using their regular means of access to food – for example, because of poor crop production or a loss of a source of income – they will employ a sequence of coping strategies to meet their food needs. With an extended shortfall in access, the nature of the coping strategies employed shifts from those that will have a relatively short-term impact on the future welfare and access to food of the household – reduction in food consumption levels, seeking piece work, and the like – to those that compromise the household’s ability to regain the standard of living it had before the crisis. These coping strategies might include sale of land or other productive assets or withdrawing children from school to provide labor and income. Food security, then, incorporates the notion that a household must not have to sacrifice the long-term ability of its members to acquire sufficient food in order to meet current, short-term food needs.

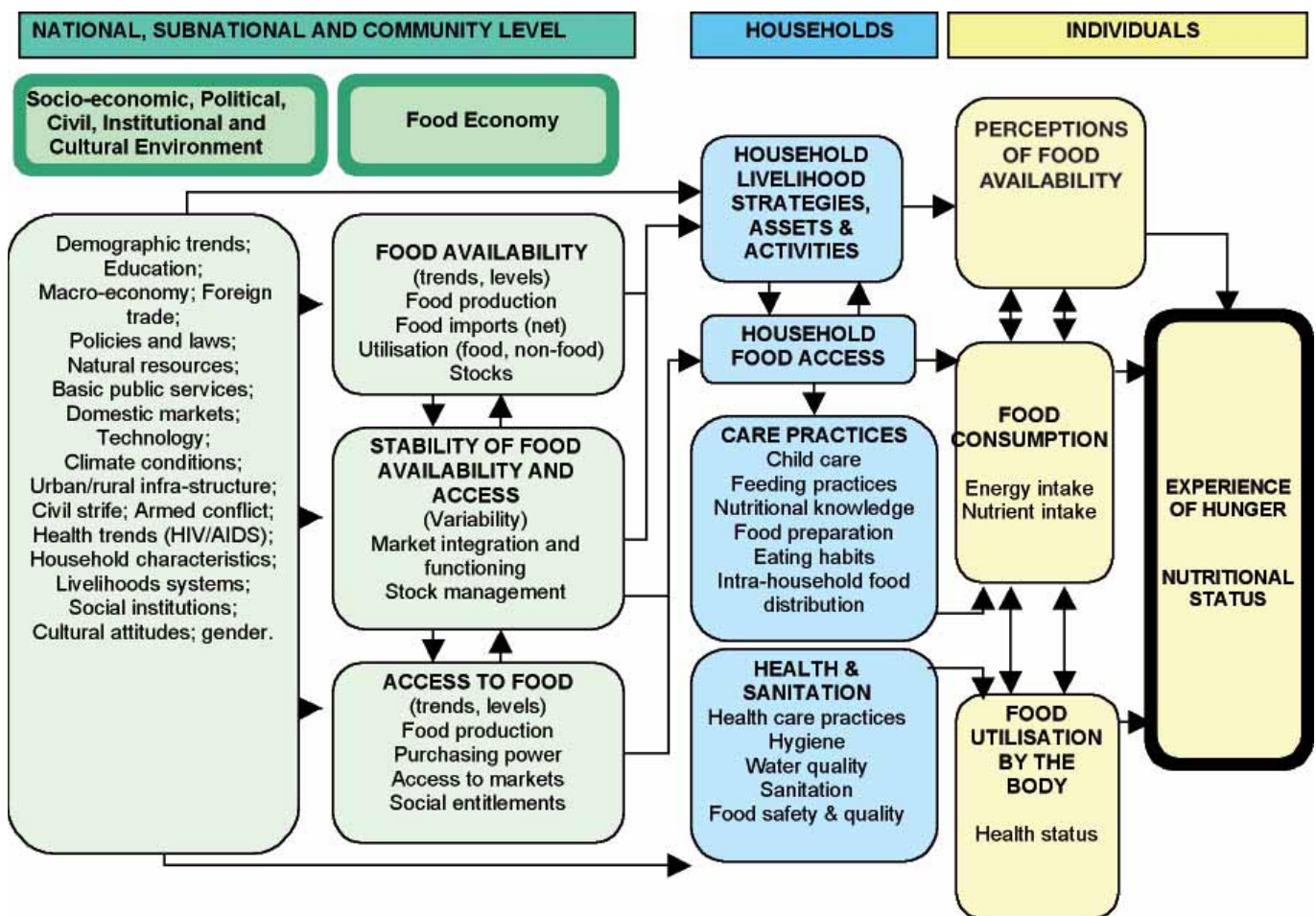


Figure 2: Food Security – A Multi-Dimensional, Multi-Sectoral Phenomenon.¹ Sources: Adapted from UNICEF (1990), Johnson (1993), Smith and Haddad (2000), Benson (2004).

¹ The description of this framework draws significantly from Benson (2004).

The quality of the food to which an individual or household has access must also be considered. To enjoy a productive, healthy and active life, all people require sufficient and balanced levels of carbohydrate, protein, fat, vitamins and minerals in their diets. Households or individuals are not food-secure if they face deficiencies or other imbalances in their diet as a result of lack of access to the necessary food for a balanced diet. Similarly, the health status of the individuals consuming the food must be considered.

The definition of food security used in the FAFS is therefore concerned with physical and economic access to food of sufficient quality and quantity. It is also concerned with the utilization of the food obtained by households and individuals. Malnutrition is the outcome of specific development problems related directly to the level of dietary intake and the health status of individuals. The availability of health services and a healthy environment, and the quality of care the individual receives are therefore crucial. A sustained healthy and active life is possible only when these underlying determinants of the nutritional status of household members are of a sufficiently beneficial character.

This framework is neither novel nor controversial. Yet its implications for policy and programme design and implementation have yet to

be fully recognized and embraced by African governments and their development partners. The FAFS represents the first concerted attempt to build continent-wide consensus on the challenges and opportunities facing Africa in its efforts to reduce the food insecurity that plagues millions of its citizens. The process used to develop the FAFS has been evidence-based, inclusive and participatory. The FAFS therefore provides answers not only to the question of “what” needs to be done to increase food security in Africa, but also to “how” this might be done.

The remainder of this document is organized as follows: Section 2 outlines the key food insecurity challenges in Africa, covering those related to food crisis management, inadequate food supply, lack of income opportunities for the vulnerable, and hunger and malnutrition. Section 3 sets out priority responses to these challenges. Section 4 outlines how FAFS can be used. Section 5 describes how progress on achieving Pillar III objectives can be monitored and evaluated using the FAFS. Section 6 details coordination structures and processes under the FAFS at national, regional and continental levels. The final section discusses issues related to scaling up investments to combat food insecurity in Africa. An appendix contains a country guide or quick reference guide to implementation of the FAFS as part of the NEPAD processes in-country.





As explained in the previous section, CAADP Pillar III focuses on four dimensions of food insecurity in Africa as set out in Figure 1: inadequate risk management, inadequate food supply, inadequate economic opportunities for the vulnerable and widespread hunger and malnutrition.

2.1 Challenges Related to Risk Management

Not all food emergencies are caused by short-term shocks. Extreme weather events such as droughts and floods (which are increasing in frequency and impact under global climate change), a range of pests, and communicable human and animal diseases often undermine fragile livelihoods and pose direct threats to food security in Africa. So, too, do a range of disruptions borne of social and political strife, most notably the several (some protracted) civil conflicts raging across the continent.

Food crises occur when these hazards and disruptions encounter deep-rooted vulnerability. Food crises can be prevented, or their effects significantly muted, if underlying vulnerabilities are confronted and addressed. However, few African countries possess the required physical, human, institutional and financial capacities to do so, and on-going conflict erodes this capacity further. Food insecurity in Africa is a systemic problem. It is not acceptable that the occurrence of a single flood or drought creates a crisis in African food security. Nor is it acceptable that predictable year-on-year food assistance is required to fill the consumption gap of populations in Africa. Pillar III seeks to increase the resilience of vulnerable populations in Africa by reducing risks of household food insecurity and creating linkages for participation in agricultural growth. It also aims to guide African governments on the development of a plan of action to build resilience in order to address chronic food insecurity and mobilize community and national systems to deal with crises.

Resilience is the ability of households, communities and countries to anticipate and mitigate risk by providing buffers and insurances to draw on, and action plans to respond efficiently and quickly to shocks and crises, in order to ensure rapid recovery post-shock or crisis. Coping strategies are responses to adverse events or shocks, which are selected to reduce income and consumption fluctuations (Mjonono *et al.*, forthcoming 2009; Pandey and Bhandari, 2009; Devereux, 2001; Snel and

Staring, 2001). Typically, households smooth income by making conservative production or employment choices and by diversifying economic activities, thereby attempting to protect themselves from adverse income shocks before they occur (Murdoch, 1995). In anticipation of and after shocks, households smooth consumption by borrowing and saving, adjusting labour supply and employing formal and informal insurance arrangements to buffer consumption against income variability (Murdoch, 1995). Risk-coping strategies involve self-insurance (through precautionary savings) and informal group-based risk-sharing (Davies, 1993; Dercon, 2000). Households can insure themselves by building up assets in 'good' years, and depleting them in 'bad' years (Dercon, 2000). Households are vulnerable when they are unable to cope with and respond to risks, stress and shocks; vulnerability is increased by multiple and/or successive shocks. Low asset levels increase vulnerability as assets act as insurance and can be liquidated in times of need. HIV/AIDS significantly erodes household resilience, increasing the burden on incomes (loss of income may occur if productive members are ill and medical care increases places strain on available resources), available labour (the sick need to be cared for). Burial costs and traditions further erode household resources.

Resilience is established through increasing incomes and asset levels of households. However, there will always be shocks and crises that require public support for emergency relief, social safety nets and mitigation.

2.1.1 Challenges related to early warning and crisis prevention

The first respondents to natural and man-made hazards are individuals and households, followed by communities, then local and national governments, and then international actors. Seldom do households and communities have the resources they need to make decisions that increase their ability to prevent crises. Seldom do they have access to early warning systems that integrate traditional knowledge systems with science-based systems. Where early warning systems exist, they tend to concentrate narrowly on food supply and thus seldom extend beyond data collection processes to become people-centered mechanisms for identifying vulnerabilities and informing responses. Similarly lacking in most cases are credible contingency plans that are backed by solid logistical capacity. Some countries are experimenting with disaster preparedness



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funds of various kinds, but the efficacy of these arrangements is unclear. Design and implementation of effective food reserve systems remains elusive. While most governments and donors have embraced the notions of crisis prevention and mitigation, they have yet to commit significant resources to prevention and mitigation programs. These gaps likely reflect the fact that it is much easier to demonstrate effective crisis response than it is to show that a crisis has been effectively averted.

Most countries thus lack overall disaster management policies and plans. Baseline information on food insecurity and vulnerability is typically weak, implying limited capacity to forecast the food demand and supply. Information sharing across line ministries is typically limited and disorganized, leading to long delays in publication and release of results of key surveys. Data collection and reporting functions are often separated from policy-making processes, and, as a result, governments and other stakeholders are unable to respond in a timely fashion to information on threats and risks to prevent crises. Food reserves at local, national, regional and continental levels are often limited or non-existent.

2.1.2 Challenges related to management of emergencies

The capacity gaps that constrain adequate crisis prevention and preparedness also limit the depth and breadth of effective action *during* crises. The principal challenges during food emergencies center on coordination, logistics and information management. National governments are not always able to take the lead in setting the broad framework for emergency response, or in prioritizing intervention modalities and locations. International agencies often face difficulties in translating commitments of support into concrete support and action on the ground. NGOs typically operate in tightly defined locations and are thus limited in their abilities to serve as focal points for broad-based coordination, logistics and information management. Considerable controversy and debate continues to surround the form in which assistance should be provided to communities in need – i.e., in-kind food versus cash. The appropriate response is necessarily context-specific, based on the nature of vulnerabilities in affected communities. Reliable information about these vulnerabilities is still lacking. The impact of given interventions on these vulnerabilities is also poorly understood. This feeds the controversy and delays emergence on consensus principles and best practices. There is limited use of local and cross-border trade to stabilize food supplies during crises. Weak information systems and poor coordination mean that inappropriate distribution of humanitarian resources is not uncommon.

Efficient responses to food emergencies depend to a large extent on having the ready resources and stocks to mobilize resources. The management of food reserves in Africa has been problematic, as complicated management structures, overlapping responsibilities, poor management practices

and inadequate reserves make food reserves inefficient and ineffective in mitigating in emergencies and crises (NEPAD, 2004). Lack of skilled managers and financial resources has crippled food reserve systems in Africa yet the establishment, stocking, maintenance and management of strategic reserves (at least two to three months supply) is crucial for providing a market for over production, mechanisms for mobilizing reserves for rapid responses and promoting self-sufficiency and self-reliance.

2.1.3 Challenges related to policies and institutions

Effective disaster risk reduction begins with high-level political involvement. Such involvement is very difficult to mobilize when crises are not imminent. Many African countries are signatories to the Hyogo Framework for Action on Disaster Reduction (UNISDR, 2005) but few have taken steps, as set forth in the Framework, to ensure that disaster risk reduction is a national and local priority with a strong institutional basis for implementation. Few are identifying, assessing and monitoring disaster risks and enhancing early warning. Few are using knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience. Few are taking steps to reduce underlying risk factors. Few are strengthening disaster preparedness for response at all levels through targeted capacity development. Simultaneously, the international community continues to be less willing to invest in disaster risk reduction in than it is in disaster response when crises break out. Where food crisis management bodies exist, they tend to be under-funded and poorly integrated with other branches of government. As noted earlier, barriers to cross-border trade are sometimes significant, potentially exacerbating food shortages and worsening crises.

2.2 Challenges Related to Inadequate Food Supply

Food supply in Africa is inadequate, erratic and not growing at the required rate to meet growing demand (Figure 3). African population growth rates are the highest in the world. With low agricultural productivity and rapid population growth, Africa is the only region of the world where per capita food production has fallen over the past 45 years. Cereal yields have stagnated for the past 45 years and currently average less than one ton per hectare. Livestock have always been a key element in African agriculture and household investment. However, livestock production and pastoral livelihoods in Africa face multiple threats related to trans-boundary disease, water shortages and climate change, among others related to trade barriers and phytosanitary issues. Per capita fish consumption in Africa is likely to decline due to population pressure, despite increasing international trade.

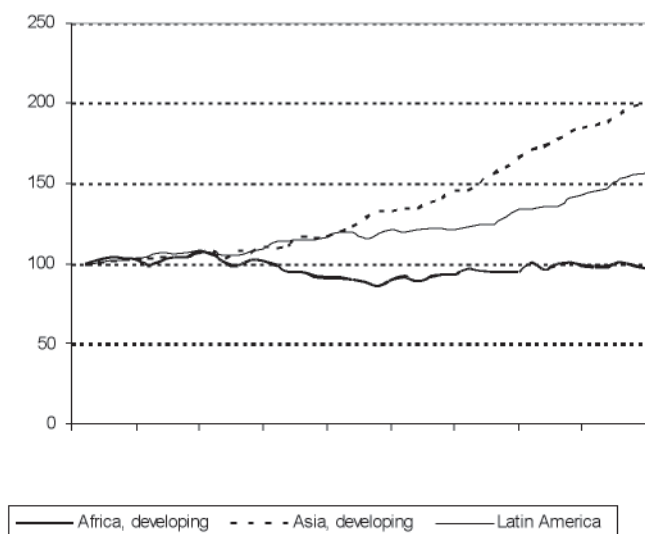


Figure 3: Trends in per capita food production, by region. Source: FAOSTAT (2006)

The value of agricultural output per worker in Africa has stagnated. In 2003, the average African farm worker produced \$520 in farm output, compared to \$670 in Asia and \$4,100 in Latin America. Low on-farm productivity translates into low incomes, low purchasing power, and lower incentives and capacities for investment in productivity growth. Low agricultural productivity also contributes to high food prices. Low asset endowments of small farmers combine with endemic livestock diseases to limit animal production, productivity and traction (Scoones and Wolmer, 2006, Catley et al 2004), particularly in tsetse fly and trypanosomiasis-infested portions of the continent. Large animals attain slaughter weight at advanced ages (3-5 years) and annual milk yields range between 600 and 1,500 liters. Small stock, such as sheep, goats and poultry, have shorter production cycles but are also susceptible to diseases. The seasonality of production and availability of food leads to repeated cycles of inadequate intake which affect children's growth in particular.

By contrast, pastoralists in semi-arid and arid lowland regions are relatively asset-rich in livestock but remain highly vulnerable. The direct consumption of livestock products – particularly milk – can comprise more than half of daily food energy needs. Milk is a particularly important food for children and women in these communities, but milk supply is affected by livestock diseases and increasing rainfall variability. In these regions, there are limited livelihoods options other than livestock rearing. Despite increasing quantities of fish being traded in the world, annual per capita fish consumption in Africa is projected to decline from 6.7 to 6.6 kg by 2020, driven by increasing population and declining incomes.

Low agricultural productivity also contributes to high food prices. Dependence on rain-fed agriculture and pervasive trade barriers induce extreme price volatility. In the face of erratic production, thin markets and frequent barriers to trade, seasonal price

spreads of 50 percent are common. Food prices can easily vary by 100 percent from one year to the next.

Droughts, floods, pests and civil strife disrupt food systems and exert additional pressures on the chronically poor. By reducing farm productivity and purchasing power of vulnerable groups below their already meager normal levels, these disruptions raise food prices and lower incomes, placing a double squeeze on poor households and leaving them vulnerable to descent into poverty traps. Food aid has become a quasi-permanent feature of Africa's food system.

Unlike in Asia, where irrigated rice and wheat dominate the productive landscape, African farming is highly diversified. In most locations, farmers rely heavily on human labor for land preparation, weeding, and harvesting. In the rain-fed production systems that dominate African agriculture, the timing of land preparation, planting and weeding is critical to crop yields and overall farm productivity. Seasonal labor bottlenecks constrain output in most areas.

Chemical fertilizers are expensive due to high fuel and transport costs in Africa. Given reliance on rain-fed cultivation and the consequent lack of reliable water control, yield responses to fertilizer are low. High costs and low returns to fertilizer lead to extremely low levels of fertilizer use. On average, African farmers apply about 20 kg/hectare (9 kg/ha in sub-Saharan Africa) compared to 150 kg/ha in Asia and 90 kg/ha in Latin America (FAO, 2005).

This inadequate performance of African agriculture is linked to challenges related to (1) markets (2) natural resource management and (3) technology development and uptake. These issues are primarily addressed through CAADP Pillars I, II and IV. Climate change and the treats and opportunities presented by growing interest in bio-pharming and bio-fuels will affect agricultural production, trade and food security in Africa in future, and future policy development will need to carefully consider the impact of these factors on food security in Africa. The sections below highlight related production and marketing elements that are pertinent to Pillar III.

2.2.1 Challenges related to markets

Domestic Markets

The supply chains that deliver food to Africa's 800 million consumers are composed of three key linked components: domestic production, food imports and internal distribution networks. Domestic grain production currently supplies 80 percent of African households' cereal consumption (FAO, 2005). But, given the declining per capita production, this share has been falling over time. Imports account for a growing share of African food supplies. On average, imports supply roughly 20 percent of African cereal consumption. Drought-prone countries may depend on imports for as much as 30 percent to 50 percent of their consumption requirements. Domestic marketing systems connect food surplus and deficit areas. Low population density,



long distances, poor infrastructure and limited competition imply high marketing costs, which frequently account for over half of the final food costs (Omamo, 1998). High food prices result as much from marketing constraints as they do from low farm productivity. Furthermore, vacillating policies affecting agricultural markets generate uncertainties that raise costs and discourage private sector investment in marketing systems (Jayne et al., 2002).

Regional Markets

Considerable cross-border trade occurs within Africa. Between 1996 and 2000, intra-African annual trade was estimated at \$2.5 billion. This figure grew to \$4.5 billion between 2001 and 2004, or 7.5 percent of total exports. Intra-African trade in agricultural products was also about twice the level of non-agricultural products during the same period for both exports and imports. However, much of this intra-African trade is informal, due to a range of government controls that limit cross-border exchange. Failure to allow regional trade in food staples not only limits the ability of markets to respond to food deficits in the short run, it risks stalling production growth and private investment in agriculture in the long run. In thin national markets without export outlets, production surges lead to price collapses, dampening incentives for long-term investment in agricultural growth.

International Markets

Africa was a net food exporter during the 1960s but now imports 20 percent of its cereal consumption (FAO, 2005). In 2002-04, Africa's trade deficit in food amounted to \$9 billion – a deficit that has been growing in recent years. Given the widespread hunger and malnutrition on the continent, these high levels of agricultural imports would appear to be only partially filling the consumption needs of a population lacking purchasing power. Indeed, food aid shipments to Africa amounted to over 3.5 million MT in 2006, reaching 115 million people at a cost of over \$2.4 billion (WFP, 2007). These shipments were central elements of humanitarian relief initiatives on the continent. However, reliance on such shipments to bridge food gaps is neither desirable nor sustainable. Moreover, governments and humanitarian agencies face important challenges in design and implementation of food assistance programmes that promote long-term development.

2.2.2 Challenges related to natural resource management

African farmers face formidable ecological constraints, including depleted soils, natural disasters and limited irrigation potential (Bloom and Sachs, 1998). Africa farmers irrigate only 7 percent of arable land, partly because of low potential resulting from the structure of Africa's hydrogeology, and partly because of high energy, equipment and operating costs. Due to this lack of water control, African farmers pursue a wide range of crop and livestock diversification strategies as hedges against the risks inherent in rain-fed cultivation.

Africa's high population growth rate suggests a massive food supply challenge. Over the past 40 years, the African population has grown at an average of 2.7 percent per year, compared to 2 percent in developing Asia and 2.2 percent in Latin America (FAOSTAT, 2006). African economies must therefore grow faster than the rest of the world just to keep up with the continent's rapidly growing population.

Because of this population pressure, both land availability and soil fertility have declined. On average, per capita land availability for those who are dependent on agriculture has fallen from 0.54 ha in 1980 to 0.42 ha in 2000 (NEPAD, 2003). Meanwhile, deforestation, soil erosion and a reduction in fallow periods (the historical means of restoring soil fertility) have resulted in declining soil fertility. Today, nearly half of Africa's farmland suffers from erosion and nutrient depletion (Cleaver and Schreiber, 1994; NEPAD, 2003). The value of nutrients lost in Africa is estimated at \$4 billion per year (Henao and Baanante, 1999).

Population pressure has also resulted in relegation of livestock production to marginal areas with highly fragile eco-systems, characterized by steep gradients, sandy soils and elevated incidences of boulders or gravel. "Free rider" problems in communal areas play against the adoption of innovative livestock management systems and exacerbate soil erosion because of soil compaction, poor infiltration of rain water, increased run-offs and lowered water tables. Over-exploitation of palatable pasture species is common. The quantity and quality of kraal manure, which complements crop production, has dwindled.

2.2.3 Challenges related to technology development and uptake

Notwithstanding the above, Africa has produced some striking technological successes (Nweke et al., 2002; Rusike, 1998; Byerlee and Eicher, 1994; Manners, 2008). Yet these successes have proven too few and irregular to counter the pressures produced by Africa's burgeoning population. The full potential of conventional productivity-enhancing technologies has yet to be realized. Newer technologies – such as tissue culture, gene splicing and trans-genetics – have yet to take root in Africa.

With limited control of water resources, low returns to fertilizer use under rain-fed conditions, and the high cost of chemical fertilizers in Africa, the high-input technologies that drove Asia's Green Revolution have proven less profitable in Africa. Moreover, the diversity of African farming systems limits the breadth of impacts generated by breakthroughs in single crop and livestock systems of the type that underpinned the Asian Green Revolution. Africa may require more management-intensive solutions due to the critical timing required in rain-fed agriculture and consequent peak-season labor constraints in many settings. Yet, the development of agronomic systems feasible for African small farms will require extensive interaction between researchers

and farmers. This interaction will prove difficult, as operational budgets of many national agricultural research and extension programmes are highly restricted.

Veterinary systems are generally weak. Several livestock diseases are endemic in many areas, severely limiting livestock rearing, animal traction and mixed farming, especially in the tropical zones. Livestock research has focused mainly on characterization of breeds, with very little done to develop new and improved breeds, including research into improved indigenous breeds and characteristics. Africa is witnessing increasing cases of endo- and ecto-parasite resistance to most marketed remedies, due to various forms of drug abuse and natural selection following prolonged use of the same drug. This has resulted in wasting and increased mortality of livestock of all ages. Again, little relating to indigenous practices in this area has been researched

Food storage and preservation technologies have largely been neglected in agriculture and food security debates, yet efficient food storage and safety practices are essential for ensuring that food reserves at all levels (national to household) are sufficient to tide populations over lean periods and seasonal fluctuations. Weak food storage and unsafe food handling practices contribute directly to malnutrition.

Several other factors combine to constrain technology supply and demand. Poor access to credit, low purchasing power in input markets, low literacy rates and limited voice in local community organizations render poor farmers across Africa unable to access productivity-enhancing technologies. Debilitating diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria, tapeworm and yellow fever limit the productivity of the human labor force on which much of Africa's agriculture depends. HIV/AIDS has also taken a serious toll on many national research and extension programmes (Bloom and Sachs, 1998; Sachs, 2001; Masters and McMillan, 2001).

2.3 Challenges Related to Lack of Income for the Vulnerable

One of the root causes of food insecurity in developing countries is the inability of people to gain access to food due to poverty. Even in good years, many households are unable to meet their basic food needs. Mwaniki (undated) indicated that over 70% of the poor in Africa live in the rural areas where food insecurity is prevalent. Poverty is closely related to the lack of a steady flow of income (Rivera & Qamar 2003). According to the World Bank (2009), the income-based definition of poverty considers the poor to be people whose income levels fall below a certain minimum level to meet basic needs. Philip and Rayhan (2004) elaborated that the poor, because of their lack of income and assets, are highly vulnerable to, and therefore unable to cope with, uncertainties such as economic down-turns, health hazards, natural catastrophes and civil conflict. Vulnerability

is further increased by the depletion of productive assets and unsustainable livelihoods.

Poor households spend a significant proportion of their household expenditure on food, either by directly purchasing it or by producing it (Staatz 2000). The amount of money left over for expenditure on basic non-food items is barely enough to meet needs. Similarly, household expenditure on health and education is sacrificed. Consequently, the standards of living of the poor remain low. This situation is worsened by food price increases which further reduce the purchasing power of the poor people's meager income. Where households produce their own food, cash and transport constraints limit people's ability to purchase farm inputs and market their produce. Increasing prices of farm inputs, associated with the supply-side commercial practices on local and sub-regional markets, undermine poor farmer's ability to access the farm inputs for production (European Commission 2001).

According to Kennedy (2003), the food access by urban dwellers hinges primarily in the household's ability to purchase food, with the exception of where urban household production contributes directly to food intake. The urban poor often pay more on food purchases than their urban wealthy counterparts as the poor are obliged to buy small quantities of food daily in small neighbourhood shops which are more expensive than wholesalers or supermarket outlets. Moreover, there is limited availability of fresh produce from such small shops (Kennedy 2003).

Lack of education frequently limits poor households' access to the most lucrative farm and non-farm employment opportunities. At the same time, shortage of capital prevents them from investing in transport, mechanical milling and other high return farm or non-farm business opportunities. Instead, the poor depend on low-return, unskilled labour activities such as basket making, weaving and casual labour activities (Huggblade, 2007).

Access to and availability of a consistent flow of income is fundamental to the lives of the vulnerable. Because vulnerability implies the probability of slipping into food insecurity or remaining food insecure, income plays a big role in reducing the risks of falling back into poverty and insecurity for those who have moved out. Income is therefore also a forward step out of poverty and an instrument that may be important to build resilience. The challenge therefore is to reach the vulnerable with the means to access income, to accumulate assets and prevent their depletion, establish sustainable livelihoods and access infrastructure.

2.3.1 Challenges related to income generation and provision

Creation, promotion and support of income-generating activities, such as small business enterprises, is an essential means through which the vulnerable may access income.



However, there is not much public and private investment in small enterprise development. The poor often lack the necessary training in basic business skills. Business development often requires ready markets, reliable transport and communication, technical training and start-up capital, all of which are lacking among the vulnerable.

Social protection, an essential system of public actions that provide direct support to people to help them deal with risk, vulnerability, food insecurity and poverty, is a means of providing income to the vulnerable. However, social protection programmes must be steady and reliable for the poor to obtain maximum benefit. The funding, design and delivery of social protection programmes is highly political and often requires a committed and transparent government (Dorward et al., 2007).

2.3.2 Challenges related to asset accumulation

Poverty, and hence vulnerability as stated previously, may be linked to inadequate access to assets. Assets, whether social, financial, physical, natural or human, determine how vulnerable individuals or households are to shocks. However, access to, and possession of, assets is no guarantee that the assets will be employed in the most productive and effective way so as to reduce vulnerability and maintain livelihoods. This nevertheless does not discredit the importance of assets as a cushion on which the vulnerable bounce in the event of uncertainties. When uncertainties arise, assets may be depleted directly, for example the destruction of standing crops during a flood or loss of stored grain to pests, or indirectly by diverting them from their most productive use. Households and individuals need a secure source of income in order to maintain secure access to and use of assets.

The poor also have limited access to credit, savings and land. There is a deficiency of formal credit services which force the poor to rely on informal mechanisms, such as friends and family who may have limited cash flow. The poor then resort to expensive loans from informal lenders, which destabilizes their asset accumulation. Additionally, poor households do not have the assets commercial banks require as collateral when taking out a loan. (Zeller et al. 1997).

2.3.3 Challenges related to the establishment of sustainable livelihoods

The importance of establishing sustainable livelihoods in reduction of poverty and vulnerability is evident in the MDGs. Despite the economic growth recorded in many African states, poverty has not decreased. There is still a relative lack of income for poor people, which constrains health, food security, education, and asset holdings. Vulnerability can be reduced by creating and promoting sustainable and diversified livelihoods. However, institutional arrangements in land tenure, property rights, taxes, and employment policies limit the access to productive and capital resources by the poor.

Limited access to land and other natural resources is often a barrier to economic development. However, irresponsible use of natural resources, such as over-grazing, deforestation and wetland reclamation, poses a threat to the environment. Civil conflict also leads to loss of land, assets, displacement of people, and general disruption of livelihood activities.

2.3.4 Challenges relating to the access of infrastructure

Many households in Africa remain poor and relatively undeveloped due to lack of good infrastructure. Rural farmers, even with bumper harvests, do not have access to markets because roads are poor. Similarly, they are unable to buy inputs to increase their farm yields. Earnings on sale of produce or assets are meager, as small farmers often have to rely on middlemen with whom they have relatively little bargaining power. The lack of storage and processing facilities leads to product and income losses. Value-adding processes, which may increase the significance and value of agricultural produce and boost rural growth, are lacking in African agriculture. Reduced government expenditure on public health and lack of access to health facilities increase disease-related risks and vulnerabilities, which in turn affect the productivity of individuals.

2.4 Challenges Related to Hunger and Malnutrition and Poor Diet Quality

As mentioned above, Africa is an unfortunate exception to global progress in reducing hunger and malnutrition (Table 1). Stunting rates in Africa declined by less than four percentage points between 1980 and 2000. With population growth, the number of stunted children actually increased by more than 12 million. Both relative and absolute numbers of underweight children in Africa increased over the same period. Although stunting is a major malnutrition problem, people in Africa, as in many developing countries, also suffer from various micronutrient deficiencies. Vitamin A, iron and iodine deficiency disorders are the most common forms of micronutrient malnutrition. Very often, micronutrient deficiencies exist alongside other forms of undernutrition. The challenge is one of a lack of both quantity and quality of food. In many parts of Africa, rural diets are based predominantly on cereals, legumes and starchy roots and tubers. Consumption of animal foods such as meat, poultry, fish (sources of iron, zinc and vitamin A) is limited because of economic, cultural and religious constraints. These trends reflect challenges related not only to reducing hunger and malnutrition per se, but also in ensuring that people consume diets that are diversified and of good quality, providing the necessary micronutrients. Challenges can thus be categorized into three broad themes, namely: (1) those linked to food access (2) those linked to food utilization and (3) those linked to dietary quality and diversification.

UN regions and sub-regions	Prevalence of stunting (%)						Number stunted (million)					
	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005
<i>Africa</i>	40.5	39.2	37.8	36.5	35.2	33.8	34.78	38.51	41.68	44.51	47.30	49.40
Eastern	46.5	46.9	47.3	47.7	48.1	48.5	12.88	14.83	17.13	19.28	22.03	24.41
Northern	32.7	29.6	26.5	23.3	20.2	17.0	6.01	6.01	5.55	4.90	4.44	3.86
Western	36.2	35.8	35.5	35.2	34.9	34.6	9.04	10.51	11.99	13.47	14.74	16.03
<i>Asia</i>	52.2	47.7	43.3	38.8	34.4	29.9	173.37	169.72	167.66	143.49	127.80	110.19
South Central	60.8	56.5	52.2	48.0	43.7	39.4	89.36	93.45	93.36	83.62	78.53	72.28
South-East	52.4	47.5	42.6	37.7	32.8	27.9	27.71	26.47	24.24	21.51	18.94	15.78
<i>Latin America & the Caribbean</i>	25.6	22.3	19.1	15.8	12.6	9.3	13.19	11.87	10.38	8.59	6.82	5.11
Caribbean	27.1	24.4	21.7	19.0	16.3	13.7	0.92	0.86	0.81	0.71	0.61	0.51
Central America	26.1	25.6	25.0	24.5	24.0	23.5	3.87	3.81	3.87	3.94	3.92	3.82
South America	25.1	21.1	17.2	13.2	9.3	5.3	8.38	7.35	6.05	4.55	3.16	1.84
<i>Oceania</i>	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
<i>All developing countries</i>	47.1	43.4	39.8	36.0	32.5	29.0	221.35	220.10	219.73	196.59	181.92	164.70

Source: Benson (2004), using data from WHO (2003).

2.4.1 Challenges related to food access

A key determinant of food access is the structure and functioning of food markets. The challenges raised by poor market development in Africa have been outlined in a Section 2.1.1. A crucial recognition is that efficient markets emerge where demand is vibrant and sustained. Almost a third of Africa's population lives on less than US \$1 per day. This implies a general inability to effectively express demand for food from market sources.

Households' economic access to food in markets is a function of their incomes and the prices they must pay for food. Income is largely dependent upon employment. Rising food prices negatively affect household purchasing power and access to sufficient and diverse diets. Unemployment is therefore a

key determinant of household food insecurity. Although the economies of Africa remain predominantly agricultural, many African households no longer have either access to agricultural land or the skills necessary to produce their own food. Their livelihood strategies typically feature significant reliance on wage employment. This is important in both rural and urban areas. However, wages in Africa are generally low, especially for unskilled labor, and especially in agriculture. Large segments of populations are therefore unable to meet their food needs from market sources.

2.4.2 Challenges related to food utilization

Proper food utilization requires that an individual be able to consume diversified, properly prepared, safe foods and effectively absorb the energy and nutrients in the foods consumed. Nutrition status is determined by biological utilization of food by the body

– a process that is itself determined by the health status of the individual. Diseases such as diarrhea, respiratory conditions, measles, malaria and HIV/AIDS thus interfere with proper food utilization.

For proper food utilization, individuals must also have reliable access to health services, live in sanitary environments with access to potable water, and, for children especially, be provided with informed care. Such conditions do not obtain in many African contexts. Access to health, water and improved sanitation facilities is typically low.

Many cultural practices in Africa limit food intake by certain members of households. Furthermore, there is often a limited range of nutritious foods available to the poor due to the narrow food basket they can afford. Levels of dietary diversification are low, with over-dependence on a short range of staples. There is often inadequate knowledge of food preparation, preservation and storage. Several highly nutritious traditional and indigenous foods and preparation practices have been lost. Literacy levels among women and girls are often very low, further exacerbating poor access to nutrition information, and transmitting such ignorance across generations.

2.4.3 Challenges related to dietary quality and diversification

Vitamin A, iron and iodine deficiency disorders are the most common forms of micronutrient malnutrition. Vitamin and mineral deficiencies have a significant impact on human welfare and generally affect the economic development of poorer countries. Some of the health problems resulting from these deficiencies are blindness, mental retardation and reduced resistance to infectious disease and, in some cases, death. Countries that have a high prevalence of vitamin and mineral deficiencies are likely to experience loss of human capital and low worker productivity. Dietary diversity can be used as an indicator of the micronutrient adequacy of a diet. African diets are often restricted to a narrow range of cereals, legumes and starchy roots and tubers. Consumption of animal foods such as meat, poultry, fish (sources of iron, zinc and preformed vitamin A) is limited because of economic, cultural and religious constraints.

The need for dietary diversification is supported by the knowledge of the interrelationships between food components, which may enhance the nutritional value of foods and prevent undesirable imbalances. Dietary diversification aims to increase dietary availability, regular access, consumption and utilization of foods with a high content and bioavailability of micronutrients in at-risk groups and populations. Unlike many other impediments to social and economic development, vitamin and mineral deficiencies can be reduced with relatively small investments in public health and agriculture - both investments in human resource development.



Responses to these challenges will necessarily vary widely by country and region within Africa, depending on social, political, economic and biophysical realities. A basic premise in the FAFS is that strategic priorities for reducing food insecurity are likely to be less divergent. Further, the FAFS proposes that the range of available scalable and replicable intervention options is likely to be fairly stable across countries and regions. This section of the FAFS presents these priorities and options.

It is useful to consider three types of responses under each of the three Pillar III action areas (increasing food supply, reducing hunger and malnutrition, and improving risk management): (1) *immediate* responses that yield impacts within 1-2 years (2) *medium term* responses that generate impacts within 3-5 years and (3) *long term* responses that produce impacts within 6-10 years.

3.1 Priorities and options for improving risk management

Africa has endured an average of 20 food emergencies per year since 1998 (ECOSOC, 2005). Effective food insecurity risk management ensures that the needs of the most vulnerable are addressed and protects developmental gains against shocks and disasters. Emergency prediction, preparedness and response management are crucial for mobilizing assistance to meet immediate and dire needs, often in remote and difficult circumstances.

Prevention measures are generally less expensive than relief and recovery measures. Given the poor state of financial affairs in African countries, investment in risk-reduction strategies and programmes is essential. The Hyogo Framework for Action on Disaster Reduction, to which many African countries are signatories, identifies the following strategic goals for disaster risk reduction (UNISDR, 2005):

- More effective integration of disaster risk considerations into sustainable development policies, planning and programming at all levels, with a special emphasis on disaster prevention, mitigation, preparedness and vulnerability reduction
- Development and strengthening of institutions, mechanisms and capacities at all levels, in particular at the community level, that can systematically contribute to

building resilience to hazards

- Systematic incorporation of risk reduction approaches into the design and implementation of emergency preparedness, response and recovery programmes in the reconstruction of affected communities.

The FAFS endorses these goals. Also endorsed are the Hyogo Framework's strategic priorities for action by governments:

- Ensure that disaster risk reduction is a national and a local priority with a strong institutional basis for implementation
- Identify, assess and monitor disaster risks and enhance early warning
- Use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels
- Carefully target social safety net and support programmes and direct transfers to the vulnerable with the specific aim of addressing basic rights, and help bring the vulnerable into the mainstream economy
- Reduce underlying risk factors
- Strengthen disaster preparedness for effective response at all levels.

International food assistance has constituted an important element of the national food security of several African countries over the past 30 years. But while food aid may sometimes be necessary to achieve food security, it is never sufficient. Too often, food aid is asked to do the wrong things, or too much is asked of food aid. Food aid is but one among many tools available for fighting food insecurity.

As the agricultural sector develops in many of those countries that in the past have been most reliant on food aid, the continuing value of food assistance for food security must be evaluated. Indeed, one potential indicator of a food secure Africa is that it does not require international food aid. However, a considered approach in reducing reliance on international food assistance is required. Food assistance is a potentially useful resource for consolidating social and economic development gains and for rendering considerably more sustainable gains. Such assistance is also useful in the short to medium term for maintaining food-for-education programmes, food-based nutrition interventions and public works programmes to improve local transport, markets



and social infrastructure, while providing needed employment. Moreover, by assisting the destitute and most vulnerable meet their food needs and strengthen livelihoods, food aid can be an important component of social protection programmes. However, as a long-term objective, African governments should seek to use local food resources for food assistance programmes, either through sales to the agencies that run them, or through the use of food vouchers that programme beneficiaries will redeem in local markets. Such mechanisms will serve to strengthen local agriculture and contribute to improved nutrition. The “Home Grown School Feeding” and “Purchase for Progress” programmes being piloted in a few African countries with support from NEPAD and RECs are excellent examples of the potential of such an approach. The FAFS strongly endorses such initiatives.

On-going efforts to reform the global Food Aid Convention (FAC) seek to enhance transparency, expand membership and forge links to broader food security and development objectives and architectures (FAC, 1999). Similar necessities underpin the FAFS’s perspective on the role of food aid in promoting African food security. The FAFS therefore endorses these intentions, and encourages the AU and NEPAD to engage with the FAC reform process. In addition, the FAFS proposes development of a *Pan-African Food Aid Charter* at the AU level as it is crucial to building consensus on the appropriate role and boundaries of food aid in Africa, and to setting priorities and principles for the use of food aid on the continent.

The depth and breadth of food insecurity in Africa suggests scope for expansion of social protection systems. These are institutionalized policies and programmes that protect against shocks and *promote* livelihoods and welfare of poor and vulnerable people, thereby building their resilience to such shocks via strengthened and expanded asset holdings and livelihood options. They include both *entitlement-based instruments* (such as unconditional cash and food transfers, employment guarantee programmes, nutrition programmes, and school feeding) and *incentive-based instruments* (such as conditional transfer programmes, drought insurance and targeted subsidies). The extent to which national budgets in Africa can accommodate large-scale social protection programmes is in question. But the FAFS endorses social protection interventions as critical components of effective food security architectures on the continent, and recognises that there is a role for cash transfers in the management of emergencies where market access to necessary products exists.

Risk management in countries should be mainstreamed to ensure cost-effective preparedness and capacity for rapid responses. All risk management strategies should reinforce the principles of other CAADP pillars and not undermine the development strategies of countries. Tables 1, 2 and 3 respectively, identify immediate, medium term and long term options with demonstrated efficacy in food security risk management in different contexts.

1 IMMEDIATE OPTIONS FOR IMPROVING RISK MANAGEMENT

Options for improving early warning systems and crisis prevention

- Comprehensive risk assessments at national, district and community levels followed by the formulation of risk-reduction strategies at all administrative levels
- Facilitation of peer learning among African policymakers through the CRTs, based on best practices in policy design and implementation
- Investment in village level livestock disease monitoring, reporting and prevention mechanisms

Options for improving emergency responses

- Unconditional transfers of food, cash and other items where appropriate
- Increased utilization of domestic and regional trade to stabilize food supplies (and prices) in affected markets

Options for strengthening risk management policies and institutions

- Immediate follow-up on country priority action areas in Hyogo Framework for Action.

2 MEDIUM TERM OPTIONS FOR IMPROVING RISK MANAGEMENT

Options for improving early warning systems and crisis prevention

- Strengthening of sectoral information-monitoring systems relevant to food and nutrition
- Institutionalization of food insecurity risk management systems at national, regional and continental levels

Options for improving emergency responses

- Development of broad-based logistics capacities, decentralizing functions where feasible
- Development of protocols to enhance coordination among government, civil society and international humanitarian actors
- Incorporation of food and nutrition security under special recovery plans and existing poverty reduction strategies and plans

Options for strengthening risk management policies and institutions

- Formulation of improved risk management policies, including proactive review and use of alternative instruments to deal with crises, e.g., food and financial reserves, weather-based insurance and futures options
- Incorporation of food and nutrition security under special recovery plans and existing poverty- reduction strategies and plans
- Establishment of objective criteria for selecting among resource transfer modalities, focusing on in-kind food and cash transfers
- Development of policies and institutions for improved management of food surpluses.

3 LONG TERM OPTIONS FOR IMPROVING RISK MANAGEMENT

Options for improving early warning systems and crisis prevention

- Establishment of national, regional and Pan-African emergency response mechanisms including trans-boundary animal disease control
- Integration of local capacities and coping strategies into national and regional crisis preparedness strategies

Options for improving emergency responses

- Strengthening of logistics capacities

Options for strengthening risk management policies and institutions

- Development of broad-based social protection systems
- Strengthening of food security platforms within social protection systems.

3.2 Priorities and options for increasing the supply of affordable commodities through increased production and improved market linkages

The market value of Africa's food staples amounts to \$50 billion per year, almost three-quarters of the value of all agricultural production (Diao et al, 2005). With growing urbanization and low but increasing incomes, Africa's marketed share of food staples promises to grow dramatically in coming decades. Production of food staples destined for consumption in rapidly expanding urban markets (both domestic and in neighboring countries) represents a dynamic growth opportunity available for millions of African farmers. African countries should therefore give priority to developing production and marketing potential in

such key staple sectors such as maize, sorghum, cassava and potatoes. Growth emanating in staple sub-sectors is especially growth-promoting and poverty-reducing. Many staples are so-called "non-tradables." Greater production of such commodities causes their prices to fall, leading to higher demand, and, crucially, to opportunities for consumers to reallocate income to other items. This reallocation, in turn, leads to supply responses from producers engaged in the production of other crops or commodities, which results in greater economy-wide effects.

Increased supply of these staples is best attained through raising productive capacity, harnessing trade opportunities and effective management of natural resources. In response to these recognized needs, the African leaders attending the Abuja Summit on Food Security in Africa (December 2006) committed to the following agenda:

- Member states and RECs will promote and protect rice, legumes, maize, cotton, oil palm, beef, dairy, poultry and fisheries products as strategic commodities at the

continental level, and cassava, sorghum and millet at the sub-regional level, without prejudice to focused attention being given also to products of particular national importance;

- AUC and NEPAD will facilitate the attainment of continental self-reliance by 2015 for the following: rice, maize, sorghum/millet and cassava, oil palm, beef, poultry, aquaculture (tilapia/cat fish); and to process 50 percent of cotton produced in Africa by 2015, while also making efforts to rapidly increase the share of local processing for other commodities;
- Member States and RECs will take the following urgent measures to accelerate the development of the strategic commodities:
 - o Fast-track the implementation of trade arrangements adopted in the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) through lowering tariff barriers and the elimination of non-tariff barriers, both technical and non-technical, by 2010, and take account of these measures during global negotiations in the Doha Round and Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA)

- o Ratify and implement harmonized standards and grades, including sanitary and phytosanitary standards, within and across RECs by 2010
- o Construct and maintain critical infrastructure to facilitate the movement of strategic agricultural products across national boundaries at minimal cost
- o Request the AUC, in collaboration with the RECs and development partners, to develop continental and regional market information systems, and to support the development of the same at national level by 2008.

These commitments and priorities are fully endorsed by the FAFS.

While recognizing that principal responsibility for expanding technology development, strengthening markets, and improving natural resource management in Africa resides with Pillars I, II, and IV, Table 4, 5 and 6 offer a range of immediate, medium term and long term options with demonstrated efficacy in meeting these goals in different contexts. Analysis, deliberation and decisions during CAADP Country Round Tables will yield country portfolios of food supply-enhancing policies and programmes.

4 IMMEDIATE OPTIONS FOR INCREASING FOOD SUPPLY

Options for raising productive capacities

- Preserve and enhance the productivity of key staples and commodities while accelerating the distribution of new varieties of food staples, particularly drought-resistant, long-duration crops such as cassava, sweet potatoes and which underutilized improved varieties have been developed but are not yet fully distributed, while simultaneously recognizing the importance of promoting and protecting the inherent coping strategies and traditional wisdom of small holders (eg in the practice of inter-cropping, rotational cropping and mixed cropping)
- Promotion of crop-livestock integration
- Where appropriate and efficient, targeted subsidies as temporary measures to promote technology and raise productive capacity
- Accelerate the transfer and adoption of technologies that overcome livestock constraints such as feed quality and availability
- Technical support to farmers in the setting up and management of small animal production enterprises
- In pastoralist areas, reducing losses due to endemic livestock diseases through scaling-up community-based approaches to veterinary care

Options for harnessing trade

- Accelerate the production of strategic commodities
- Removal of policy uncertainties to private trade in food staples
- Fast-track implementation of trade arrangements already adopted by the RECS by lowering tariff barriers and eliminating non-tariff barriers
- Immediate attention to commodity-based approaches to trade in livestock products

Options for improving natural resource management

- Scaling up of successful integrated natural resource management technologies.

2 Strategic commodities are defined by the Abuja Food Security Summit Action Plan as those that:

- carry an important weight in the African food basket
- have an important role in the trade balance in a region though their contribution to foreign exchange earnings, or are imported in large quantities to make up the gap between Africa's production and demand, and
- have considerable unexploited production potential in Africa, owing mostly to internal supply side constraints and external impediments such as agricultural subsidies and support measures used by Africa's trading partners (African Union, 2008).

Options for raising productive capacities

- Increased investment in research and extension on key food staples and quality nutritious foods
- Investment in small- and large-scale irrigation infrastructure
- Conservation and improvement of indigenous animal genetic resources
- Development of farmer capacity (knowledge and planning skills) to align and manage animal production systems with the natural cycle of resource availability
- In pastoralist areas, further policy and legislative support to privatized community-based veterinary services under government supervision
- Development of technologies that overcome key livestock constraints such as feed quality and availability, incidences and occurrence of diseases
- Development of policies that facilitate the delivery of animal health services
- Develop post-harvest technologies (at all levels including community and household level technologies) to increase the shelf life of commodities including livestock products
- Promotion of low-cost and sustainable production technologies for quality and nutritious foods among the poor and vulnerable, including through the application of emerging technologies and scientific methods
- Promotion of low-cost and sustainable processing technologies for quality and nutritious foods among the poor and vulnerable, including through the application of emerging technologies and scientific methods
- Harmonization of sound phytosanitary and animal health legislations across countries in each sub-region
- Establishment of seed regulatory frameworks in each sub-region
- Creation of bio-safety regulatory frameworks in each sub-region

Options for harnessing trade

- Investment in critical regional infrastructure, both hard and soft
- Promotion of low-cost and sustainable marketing and processing technologies for quality and nutritious foods favored by the poor and vulnerable
- Investment to improve market infrastructure for food staples
- Investment to strengthen norms and standards in food markets
- Removal of policy uncertainties to private trade in food staples
- Develop policies to promote and exploit commodities and resources with competitive advantages
- Creation of customs unions to increase trade within the member countries
- Promoting intra-regional trade in livestock commodities by facilitating linkages between countries with growing demand for livestock products, and major livestock-producing countries

Options for improving natural resource management

- Increased support for community-based efforts to conserve and improve soil and water resources
- Increased support for tree-planting in fragile areas
- Investment to explore scope for utilizing carbon credits to support natural resource conservation in poor areas.





Options for raising productive capacities

- Capacity development in biotechnology and other modern methods to increase agricultural productivity and combat pests and diseases in food staples and other nutritionally important foods
- Development of productive animal-based production and marketing systems that are sensitive to the environment, belief systems and to the socio-economic circumstances of livestock farmers
- Development and enforcement of policies related to the use of exotic animal genetic resources
- Improve and enforce land tenure arrangements
- Investment to strengthen organizational capacities of farmers to access technologies, markets and training
- Investment to strengthen national phytosanitary legislations and improve the national seed systems

Options for harnessing trade

- Reduce barriers and constraints to promote domestic and intra-regional trade, especially in staple foods
- Harmonize customs procedures and standards, especially as regards sanitary and phytosanitary measures, across national borders
- Scaling up of investment in infrastructure, including efficient feeder road systems and market facilities in rural areas, ensuring trade links among sectors and communities

Options for improving natural resource management

- Development of management systems that are accessible to the poor to enhance their food and nutrition security
- Investment in improved watershed and landuse management
- Investment in strengthened capacity for natural resource management programme design and implementation in public agencies.

3.3 Priorities and options for increasing the incomes of the vulnerable

Vulnerability is determined by a cumulative chain of events through time. What happened in the past is reflected in the present status, and what happens in the present influences future status (LØvendal and Knowles, 2007). This makes measurement of vulnerability to food security difficult. However, understanding the present conditions and household consumption behavior is vital in determining the threats to food security and how they can be effectively managed. Mwaniki (undated) explained that although food insecurity in Africa is directly correlated to poverty, development programmes should not only aim at alleviating poverty but also at creating wealth for targeted populations. Improving poor people's access to income earning opportunities, assets and safety nets increases their access to food and reduces vulnerability to shocks and stresses. (Staatz 2000). Interventions should therefore seek to promote employment, diversify income sources and boost access to productive assets, among others (Comunidad Andina 2004).

Factors that influence food security differ between the urban and rural environments. As a result, programme planners and policy makers need to recognize these differences when designing

programmes to meet the needs of the poor (Kennedy 2003). Empowering communities for local planning, problem solving and the coordination of local authorities is essential to address agricultural and income related needs of the vulnerable (Bishay 2003). Lessons from successful agricultural and nutrition-related policies and programmes in other regions can be useful in highlighting best practices (Kennedy 2003).

Successful food security and poverty-oriented programmes not only assist poor rural populations to produce more and diversified food products, but also assist in producing surpluses that can be marketed. The income generated may be used to improve quality of life through improved diet and nutrition, and investment in agricultural and non-agricultural enterprises. (Rivera & Qamar 2003). For example, social protection programmes have been successful in reducing vulnerability in countries where they have been implemented. Beneficiaries of the Kalomo cash transfer scheme in Zambia have, on average, invested almost 30 per cent of the unconditional cash they have received by purchasing, for example, goats for breeding, oxen to help with ploughing, and seeds for planting (DFID, 2005). In Swaziland, one in four recipients of cash transfers invested in farming (Devereux and Jere, 2008). According to Farrington et al (2004), the Malawi Targeted Inputs Programme sought to compensate for the higher price of inputs following the closure of parastatals under liberalisation, and thereby stimulate production of the staple food crop and reduce vulnerability among low income populations. In Namibia,



beneficiaries of social pensions have been able to use their cash to invest in agriculture and livestock for their families (DFID, 2005). Because most poor people rely on agriculture for their survival, investing in social protection for farming households could raise the productivity of their labour and farmland, thereby reducing poverty and promoting growth. The benefits of social protection

in agriculture are diverse in that they not only promote agricultural growth, but also protect farmers from shocks and stresses, making them better able to cope with the risks associated with agricultural production. Increasing the provision of and access to income is a catalyst in the poverty eradication and development process. Tables 7, 8 and 9 present possible options for increasing the incomes of the vulnerable.

7 IMMEDIATE OPTIONS FOR INCREASING THE INCOMES OF THE VULNERABLE

Options for increasing incomes of the vulnerable

- Promote agricultural crop and livestock production programmes to improve the quality and quantity of agricultural output
- Provision of subsidized agricultural inputs
- Public works programmes
- Cash-for-work programmes
- Enhance access to credit, especially in the rural areas
- Extensive subsidies of basic food items and health care in the most vulnerable households
- Create opportunities for employment and income generating activities
- Promote acquisition of productive assets – may be through direct transfers
- Direct assistance through either conditional or unconditional cash transfers
- Promote production of high value crops for sale
- Improve access to remote areas to enhance transportation of agricultural produce and acquisition of agricultural inputs
- Enhance market access and affordable food outlets in the locality.

8 MEDIUM TERM OPTIONS FOR INCREASING THE INCOMES OF THE VULNERABLE

Options for increasing incomes of the vulnerable

- Training and capacity building to improve business skills
- Enhance access to land and other natural resources
- Promote savings and credit schemes
- Introduce private investments in production of high value crops
- Provide micro-grants and business tool kits
- Provide information on household budgets, business management and savings to decrease spending
- Elaboration and publication of leaflets, handbooks on creation of income-generating activities
- Encourage and support collective action businesses such as cooperatives
- Improve rural infrastructure such as roads, electricity, communications and education
- Promote diversified livelihood activities.

Options for increasing incomes of the vulnerable

- Promote flexible employment policies and legislative protection
- Training and capacity building to improve production, marketing and business skills
- Promote savings and credit schemes, especially micro-grants
- Induce private investment in high value crops
- Invest in basic education and health
- Promote better and regular poverty-monitoring mechanisms like budget surveys
- Sustainable access to markets for goods and services, increasing coordinated urban and rural efforts
- Promote public/private partnerships in the provision of food markets
- Link informal lenders (credit groups) with formal financial systems (cooperatives and banks)
- Public support for building rural financial institutions
- Advance macro policies affecting input costs and output prices (interest rates, taxes)
- Develop and implement pro-agricultural policies.

3.4 Priorities and options for improving the quality of diets through diversification of food among the target groups

As detailed in Figure 2, food insecurity is complex and multi-dimensional. Not only must adequate and nutritious food be availed and accessed, but sanitary environments, adequate health services and informed care are also required to ensure that individuals and households can utilize food properly. There are simple and low cost strategies to address micronutrient malnutrition. For instance, regular consumption of low-cost foods, such as green leafy vegetables and certain yellow fruits and vegetables which are rich in provitamin A, could prevent VAD. Similarly, increased consumption of meat and fish (which are rich in bioavailable iron), consumption of vitamin C rich foods (which improve the absorption of iron from plant sources), as well as fortification of commonly eaten foods with iron, can help to prevent anemia.

Actions to enhance food security must be taken by agencies drawn from several sectors, often in partnership for greatest impact. Poverty reduction is not synonymous with cutting hunger and malnutrition. Economic growth has played an important role in improvements in many countries, but the income-malnutrition relationship is often modest (NEPAD, 2008). In many developing countries where incomes have increased substantially, malnutrition has not declined correspondingly. Other specific interventions are needed in order to obtain better results. In countries with stagnant economies, undernutrition can be reduced through a range of direct interventions aimed at improving nutrition especially for children.

Commitments made at the 2006 Abuja Summit on Food Security in Africa, recognize these imperatives. For instance, member states committed to invest in technologies and industries for the production of nutritionally adequate foods. They also committed to increase capacity to diversify and add value to agricultural

products through, inter-alia, public private partnerships to enhance competitiveness of these products and derive sustainable incomes from them. The Summit's commitments aimed at ensuring the systematic integration of nutrition considerations into agricultural and food security interventions are especially relevant. These commitments read as follows:

- AUC (African Union Commissions) and NEPAD, in collaboration with development partners, will initiate the implementation of the African Regional Nutrition Strategy, the NEPAD African Nutrition Initiative within CAADP, and the NEPAD 10-year strategy for combating Vitamin and Mineral Deficiency by 2008, with a focus on long-term household food security and ending child hunger and under nutrition
- Member states and development partners will protect and promote the nutritional well-being, food security and productivity of people living with and affected by HIV/AIDS in the near and longer terms
- Member states will adopt and/or strengthen a holistic and multi-sectoral approach in agricultural development to better address the multi-dimensional nature of food and nutrition security
- Member states will promote home gardening and small animal husbandry as important contributions to household food security and dietary diversity

These commitments and priorities are fully endorsed by the FAFS.

Tables 10, 11 and 12 respectively, identify immediate, medium term and long term options with demonstrated efficacy for improving food access and food utilization. Again, country-specific portfolios will be agreed upon during CAADP Country Round Tables. None of these suggestions should be seen as a single dimensional solution to the complexities of hunger and malnutrition, but should rather be seen as options with a complete package of interventions to address hunger and malnutrition within and complementary to the agricultural growth agenda.

10 IMMEDIATE OPTIONS FOR REDUCING HUNGER & IMPROVING DIETARY QUALITY & DIVERSIFICATION

Options for improving food access

- Conditional and unconditional direct transfers of food, cash, agricultural inputs, or other goods to vulnerable populations
- Food-based public works programmes
- School feeding programmes
- Maternal and child health programmes
- Targeted food supplementation
- Investment to improve market infrastructure, especially in staple food value chains
- Investment to provide incentives for local processing and the marketing of nutritionally-rich foods
- Where appropriate, public procurement programmes to enhance market demand for nutritious foods

Options for improving food utilization

- Micronutrient supplementation
- Food fortification
- Prenatal and neonatal health, nutrition, and care programmes
- Rationalization of food price policies to improve incentives for production, processing and marketing of food favored by vulnerable populations

Options for improving dietary quality and diversification

- Micronutrient supplementation (vitamins and minerals)
- Food fortification.

11 MEDIUM TERM OPTIONS FOR REDUCING HUNGER & IMPROVING DIETARY QUALITY & DIVERSIFICATION

Options for improving food access

- Investment to increase opportunities for employment and income generation, especially for women
- Expansion of school meals programmes to cover all children in hunger spots by using locally produced foods
- Development and testing of livelihoods diversification options in pastoralist areas
- Unconditional transfers of food, cash, and other items where appropriate
- Conditional transfers of food, cash and other items

Options for improving food utilization

- Investment to improve maternal and adolescent girl nutrition
- Integration of nutrition in child health promotion programmes
- Promotion of technologies for production and processing of nutrient-rich crops
- Fiscal policy measures to promote health outcomes
- Training initiatives in household dietary diversification
- Investment in post-harvest management programmes
- Establishment of objective criteria for selecting among resource transfer modalities, focusing on in-kind food and cash transfers
- Promotion of public/private partnerships in the provision of efficient services for delivery of electricity, water and sanitation services

Options for improving dietary quality

- Community or home vegetable and fruit gardens
- Production of fish, poultry, and small animals (rabbits, goats, and guinea pigs).
- Reduction of post-harvest losses of the nutritional value of micronutrient-rich foods, such as fruits and vegetables.
- Improving food storage and preservation
- Implement school-based gardening programmes
- Improving food safety.



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Options for improving food access

- Investment to improve water and sanitation infrastructure
- Investment to enhance girls' education
- Investment to improve women's status and employment opportunities

Options for improving food utilization

- Investment in women's education, behavior change and social marketing
- Investment to expand access to safe water, sanitation and proper housing
- Promotion of production and consumption of traditional indigenous crops
- Development of communication and education tools to promote healthy and diversified diets, with particular attention to the most vulnerable
- Promotion of the generation, development and packaging of nutrition information for the general public
- Investment in increased capacities for increasing micronutrient content of basic staples
- Promotion of indigenous food practices, focusing on storage, preservation and preparation practices that retain the quality of food

Options for improving dietary quality and diversification

- Implementation of large-scale commercial vegetable and fruit production
- Reduction of post-harvest losses of the nutritional value of micronutrient-rich foods, such as fruits and vegetables
- Improvement of micronutrient levels in soils and plants, which will improve the composition of plant foods and enhance yields.



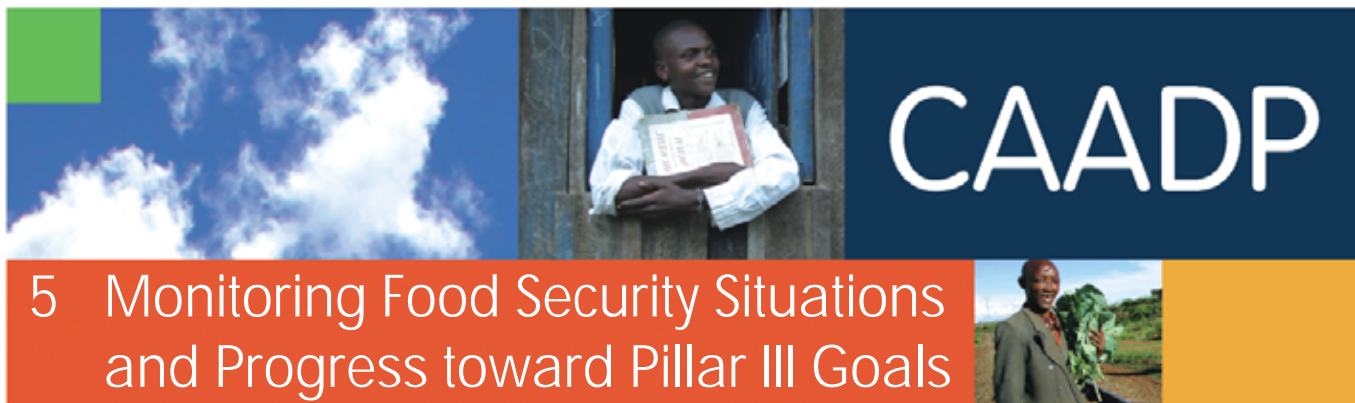
The FAFS is intended to provide sound guidance on the overall direction in which all policy, strategies and programmes might best address food insecurity, bring vulnerable groups into mainstream agricultural growth and complement the priorities of the other CAADP Pillars. The FAFS is intended to provide an easy reference resource (see Appendix for Country Implementation Guide) for countries and regions to be able to apply principles and priorities to ongoing and future interventions and investments and ensure the simultaneous achievement of agricultural growth and reduction in food insecurity. The FAFS is also intended as an advocacy tool that can offer leaders increased access to political, technical, methodological and financial support for their food security-related policies, plans and institutions.

National agricultural productivity institutions that are committed to developing their own policies, institutions and related strategies and plans in the directions suggested by FAFS, will be able to attract political support, technical co-operation and financial

support from their governments, RECs, NEPAD and donors. Such commitment on the part of each country would be expected to be signalled in the context of government's Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) and sectoral strategies concerned with agricultural productivity. This could be signalled through an MoU between the government and donor groups, pledging joint support for the strategy, related institutional strengthening (including reform where appropriate) and activities.

At a regional level, RECs will be able to seek support from member countries, NEPAD, RECs and donors for political, technical, methodological and financial support to programmes that are developed along the lines advocated by the FAFS and its principles. Each REC would be expected to prepare and adopt a long-term strategy and a medium-term operational plan for enhancing its food security programme. Donors would be expected to align and co-ordinate their support for these national, sub-regional and regional interventions in the manner suggested above.





Progress toward Pillar III's objectives must be objectively monitored and evaluated. Not only is it important to co-ordinate monitoring and evaluation across regions and countries to provide comparative measures and know where the hunger hot-spots are, such exercises are also crucial to the realization of CAADP's peer review elements.

Progress made through Pillar III will contribute directly to the overall CAADP objective of achieving a growth rate sufficient to reach the MDG goals of reducing poverty and hunger by half by 2015. Progress will be measured through:

- Improvement in food security and nutrition indicators
- Improvement in the household asset and/or income levels of targeted vulnerable populations.

Once vulnerable populations targeted under Pillar are identified and quantified, establishing the levels and rates of change in these indicators required to contribute to CAADP and MDG goals is a critical component of the implementation of Pillar III/FAFS at the country level.

Where possible, Pillar III measuring systems should use existing data systems. While many data sets and systems are in use, they are not always consistent, comparable and available for public analysis or for integration across sectors. Too few information systems are able to identify who is vulnerable, where they are and why they are vulnerable (DFID, 2002). This implies the need for special attention to indicators that provide early warning of impending vulnerability.

Indicators of some outputs, outcomes and impacts may require that data be collected using surveys or special studies, including those that use participatory methods. Where it is possible, it is almost always better to piggyback regular surveys onto existing nationally- or internationally-supported surveys (such as rural household surveys, livelihood surveys or agricultural censuses) than to create a new data collection facility. Special studies may be

managed by the mandated institution directly, or subcontracted to a private entity.

Collection of some indicators, particularly outcome and impact indicators (such as crop production, trade and income) may depend on the existence and quality of national census or survey systems. Many output indicators are derived from records kept by the participating agencies, often at project field sites. For this reason, for the purposes of monitoring and evaluation design (including indicator selection), project planners should examine the implementing agency's record-keeping and reporting procedures to assess the agency's capacity to generate data.

The essential points are that data should be collected and used close to the source and that data collection is cost-effective, reliable and comparable. It is important not to create a separate measurement bureaucracy. Having a common (harmonized) methodology would provide more comparative information. However, having a bureaucratic home for data production is not usually cost-effective and presents the risk that those responsible for producing the data may have little contact with those responsible for using it. The data should measure results, not just processes, and measure vulnerability needs beyond food balance sheet approaches, focusing on livelihoods approaches, household level analysis and market and trade information. The performance measured by the data should focus on what Pillar III is trying to accomplish, especially in terms of its impact on people. The point is not only to know what Pillar III is achieving, but also whether these impacts are doing any good. Performance analysis should be limited to the few areas that are directly relevant to Pillar III's strategic objectives. Capacity to meet these requirements must be built at the country level, where significant gaps exist.

The next section outlines the co-ordination system recommended for monitoring, evaluation and peer review of achievements under Pillar III, within the broader CAADP agenda.



6 Co-ordination for Implementation, Monitoring, Evaluation and Peer Review

As noted, the socio-economic and political environment is an important determinant of whether sufficient food is available in a society, the degree to which individuals, households and communities can gain access and effectively utilize that food, and the level of vulnerability to food insecurity. As such, there is a range of particular challenges to effectively addressing food insecurity and undernutrition at multiple levels. A key challenge regarding co-ordination of FAFS and Pillar III activities is the lack of policy frameworks and poor definition of mandates and responsibilities for the various sectors and agencies in the public sector that have a role to play in enhancing food security and nutrition. Food security, and especially nutrition, do not fit easily into the bureaucratic organization of government sectors and agencies. Fragmentation and limited communication across these agencies and the programmes that they are implementing further limits the impact. The hierarchical and sector-specific organization of government structures contribute to limited communication and, more importantly, limited sharing of experiences and new technologies in addressing food insecurity and malnutrition within a country or region. Attaining food security objectives requires a range of actions that is not neatly circumscribed within a single sector. High-level political directives and pressures have often been shown to be needed for effective action to be mounted by the various sectors and agencies concerned to improve food security sustainably and to combat malnutrition effectively.

Capacity and organizational constraints are equally important. Only a small number of food security and nutrition professionals exist in most African countries. The shortage of trained professionals in nutrition is especially acute at local levels. In the absence of national bodies mandated to provide leadership for FAFS activities, agencies working on such activities tend to define their own intervention packages. Technical oversight, supervision, and co-ordination during implementation are often insufficient. Without clear coordination mechanisms to harmonize and integrate approaches and interventions, synergies between activities implemented by different agencies have often proven difficult to realize.

Food security and nutrition are seldom integrated into national development agendas. Responsibilities for these issues within

the public sector are typically unclear. Resources for programmes to improve food security and overcome malnutrition are often insufficient. Budget constraints result in shortfalls in material supplies, trained workers, training and supervision, and in monitoring and evaluation. Moreover, there is little co-ordination of action and use of resources among agencies. With no clear responsibilities established on food security and, especially, nutrition issues, conflict rather than co-operation is likely to characterize the relationships between agencies and sectors of government.

Coordination of food security activities is therefore crucial for both implementation of Pillar III policies and programmes, and for monitoring and evaluation of outcomes. Achieving food security for all requires well coordinated systems that assemble, analyze and disseminate information on who the food insecure are, where they are located, why they are food insecure and how vulnerable they are. They need to advocate for resources and monitor implementation. Coordination and management of information systems and emergency responses requires collaboration and facilitation at the country, regional and continental levels.

In taking action to improve food security and reduce malnutrition, there is a pressing need to address some of the institutional barriers in the public sector that often make such efforts far less effective than they otherwise might be. There are multiple reasons why policies related to food and nutrition security fail to reach their objectives. A model for coordinating Pillar III policies and programmes that are designed, implemented, monitored and evaluated based on the FAFS is presented below. This model is based on experience and principles drawn from a range of relevant coordination mechanisms in African agriculture (ASARECA, 2008; CILSS, 2008; COMESA, 2008; SETSAN, 2008; SADC-RVAC, 2008).

6.1 Coordination Model for FAFS Implementation

The FAFS aims to provide principles, recommended actions, coordination, peer review and tools to guide national and regional policies, strategies, investments, donor contributions and advisory efforts to overcome these challenges, leading to



increased food supply, reduced hunger and malnutrition, and improved food security risk management (Figure 1). The FAFS guides Pillar III implementation at the national level, with strong links to regional and continental policy platforms and processes.

The country-level CAADP implementation process is primarily one of aligning national agricultural sector policies, strategies and investment programmes with the CAADP principles and targets, in particular the 6 percent growth rate and 10 percent public expenditure share for the sector. The CAADP process is supposed to build on ongoing country efforts and be led by national governments and other stakeholders, with the necessary support from the RECs and the NEPAD Secretariat. In line with the NEPAD principles of ownership and accountability, the country CAADP process is initiated on a demand-driven basis, through consultation between RECs and their member countries. Country Round Tables (CRTs) and Regional Round Tables are the loci for these consultations. Resulting from these CRTs and RRTs are National Compacts comprising high-level agreements between governments, regional representatives and development partners for a focused implementation of CAADP within the respective country. CRTs are meant to detail programmes and projects that address national priorities, and that the various partners can support. National Compacts are to include defined actions, commitments, partnerships and alliances, and guide country policy and investment responses, planning of development assistance, public-private partnerships, and business-to-business alliances, to raise and sustain the necessary investments (NEPAD Secretariat, 2005).

The FAFS proposes the following Pillar III-specific coordination mechanisms (Figure 4):

- To ensure that FAFS policies and strategies have the necessary political authority to facilitate interactive action, coordinating bodies are required at national, regional and continental levels
- To ensure this authority, National Coordinating Platforms (NCPs) should be created and located in a non-line Ministry with enough authority to move the Pillar III agenda forward. Ministries of Finance and Development, and Offices of the President or Prime Minister are possibilities. However, the choice of the government units within which NCPs will be located is left to countries
- This national platform will be made up of various Ministries (Agriculture, Health, Welfare, Social Services, Trade, Foreign Affairs, etc.), Parastatals, Technical Agencies, Civil Society, Development Partners and Private Sector representation. Its main aim will be to provide strategic national leadership and coordination for the monitoring, evaluation, planning, implementation and reporting of policy and interventions around FAFS priorities. The NCP could be replicated at different levels of government, down to the local levels, as appropriate and feasible
- One of the main functions of the NCPs is to gather relevant reports and information in order to influence and shape decision-making. It is suggested that the following reports be gathered and then submitted to higher-level platforms quarterly and annually. The goals should be based on the key performance indicators outlined in section 7 above (Monitoring and Evaluation)
- National and Regional Platforms will report to various levels of government including Heads of State, Governments, Ministers and other international, regional and national bodies and inter-ministerial and inter-state bodies
- National Technical Working Groups and other similar committees should provide the information required by the NCP, using existing data (Census, Demographic and Health Surveys etc) and information systems where appropriate
- Regional Coordinating Platforms (RCPs) should be created and situated in RECs, reporting to the AU/NEPAD Secretariat. RCPs should provide the same analysis, evaluation, monitoring, planning and reporting elements as do the NCPs, but at regional level. This structure includes representatives from countries, technical agencies, civil society, development partners and the private sector. The RCP plays an additional role in reporting and advocating for Pillar III related activities and policies in various other forums, such as the REC Parliamentary Forums and the Pan African Parliament
- Both the NCPs and RCPs will be required to meet regularly and prepare quarterly and annual progress reports. The timing of the submission of these reports is crucial and should ensure that critical decision making data and policy recommendations are available at all times
- At the Continental level, the AU/NEPAD will play an advisory, monitoring and coordination role to RECs. AU/NEPAD will encourage regular consultation and harmonization of the actions on food security (monitoring, evaluation and analysis) and promote the improvement and testing of tools together with the associated Centers of Excellence (currently ACFS and CILSS have been identified to play this role)
- Various AU Agencies (eg IBAR) will provide support to RECs and countries
- The Regional Strategy Analysis and Knowledge Support Systems (ReSAKSS), will work with the regional and national agencies to facilitate access by the RECs and their member states to policy-relevant analyses of the highest quality in order to generate the necessary knowledge to improve policy making, track progress, document success and derive lessons that can feed into the review and learning processes associated with the implementation of the CAADP agenda. They operate under co-ordination and governance structures chaired by the RECs. NEPAD will encourage RCPs, NCPs and local coordinating platforms to draw upon ReSAKSS for

information management support, data analysis and dissemination that could strengthen coordination and planning of activities, budgets and reporting

- Lead institutions (Centers of Excellence) will play a coordinating and facilitatory role in the provision of technical support, will research evidence and capacity development through networks of institutions located within each REC to ensure local capacity development and identification and involvement of local experts who are well grounded in the policy, cultural, economic and production context, and establish/expand networks of practitioners who can be drawn on to support the long term implementation of CAADP

The FAFS also proposes six principles to guide coordination activities. These are listed in Box 3.

3 FAFS COORDINATING PRINCIPLES

1. Pillar III activities should link with and enable simultaneous attainment of related government priorities such as PRSPs, Medium-Term Plans (MTPs) and MDG goals.
2. Where appropriate, existing institutions could be strengthened or restructured to provide the required coordination.
3. The NCPs and RCPs should promote trust and collaboration between local and international technical agencies.
4. Monitoring and evaluation of Pillar III activities should draw on and influence existing national data collection systems rather than creating new mechanisms.
5. Reporting should not focus only on filling short term food gaps. Rather reporting and actions should relate to longer term development and short term emergency elements.
6. Advocacy for addressing hunger and malnutrition is required at all levels.

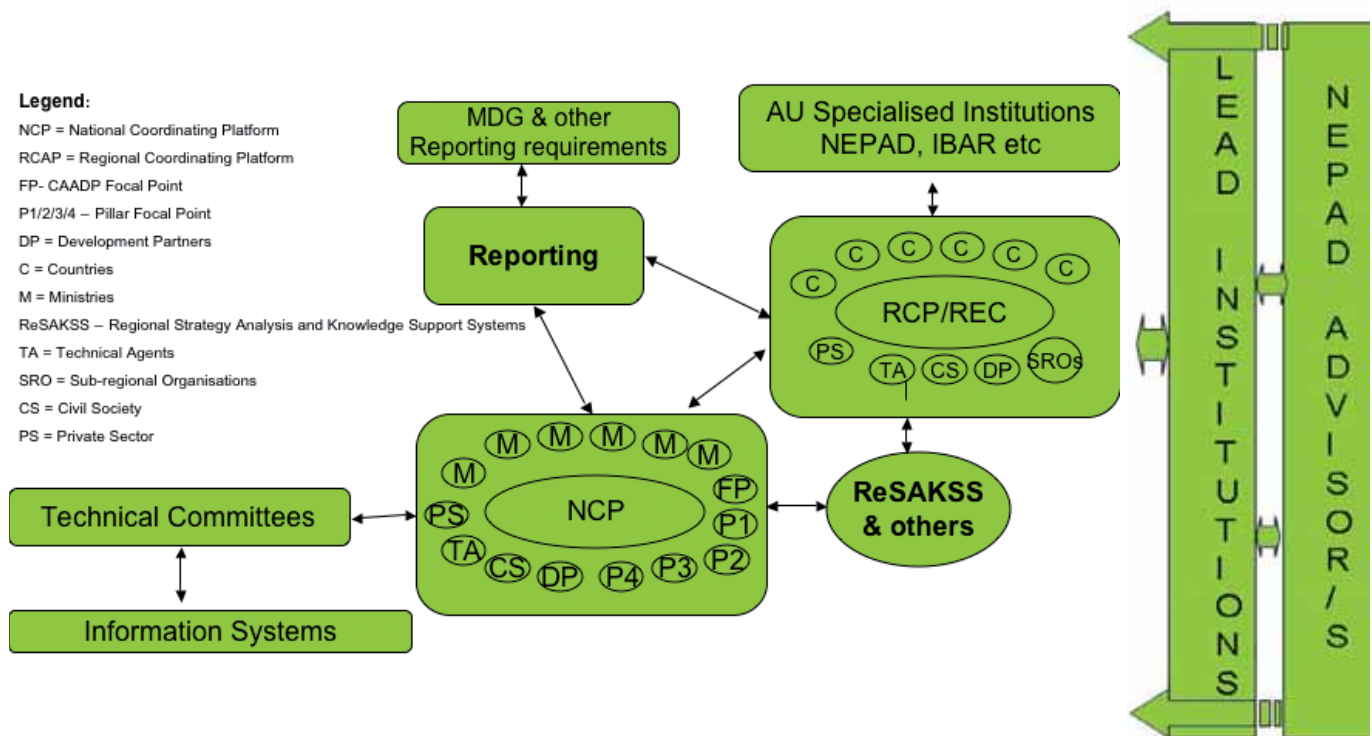


Figure 4: Proposed coordination structure for Pillar III implementation under the FAFS

6.2 Peer Review

The CAADP Pillar IV Framework for African Agricultural Productivity (FAAP) has shown that progress and success are greatly increased if close attention is paid to regularly measuring impacts and learning from past experiences. The milestones in Appendix 1 (Monitoring and Evaluation Matrix) will be used for monitoring and evaluating the progress towards goals. A Peer Review mechanism will be created at all levels in order to provide this regular assessment of overall impact of the FAFS process. The modalities for such peer review are still to be finalized. One suggestion is to have National Coordination Platform (NCP) teams to evaluate the NCP performance of another country.

Peer review should include regular (annual and 5-yearly) reviews of performance on this pillar at continental, regional and national level. Reviews should address, but not be limited to, areas such as:

- Why goals, objectives and targets were or were not achieved
- How programmes are performing, and if they should be scaled up
- Analysis of programme beneficiaries and their characteristics, including gender, age and income level
- Positive and negative unintended results of the programme
- Effectiveness of programme activities and whether results can be attributed to Pillar III interventions
- Lessons learned that can be applied to other projects of a similar nature
- Impact on economic growth, poverty reduction, and the income of Pillar III beneficiaries against the Pillar III Principles, and
- Long-term sustainability of impacts.



7 Scaling up Food Security Investments in Africa

It is clear that implementation and monitoring of the Pillar III principles and activities will require political will, investment and co-ordination. Through the Abuja Summit (Dec 2006), Africa's leaders committed to:

- Alignment of national and regional policies and programmes with CAADP policies and strategies including the Pillar Frameworks
- Establishment by AUC and NEPAD of a technical assistance programme for agriculture and food security based on African resources and expertise in collaboration with development partners, and develop regional Centers of Excellence
- Establishment by AUC of funding mechanisms or adaptation of existing ones to mobilize additional resources in consultation with the African Development Bank (ADB) and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) and for purposes of up-scaling agricultural successes within and across countries in Africa, and
- Establishment by AUC, NEPAD and RECs of criteria for identifying African successes that rely wholly or largely on Africa's own resources and promote measures for their replication, adaptation and up-scaling.

Identifying scalable food security-enhancing interventions for an area as large and diverse as Africa is extremely challenging. Judicious simplification is required. One approach to such simplification involves gaining a quantitative appreciation of patterns of food insecurity across the continent. Such patterns likely derive partly from climatic factors, partly from underlying biophysical conditions in agricultural sectors, and partly from policy and institutional factors. Visualizing similarities and differences in agriculture across the region is a powerful first step toward focusing attention on areas and issues that cross national borders. The ReSAKSS is ideally suited to serve such a purpose.

Two basic analytical challenges must be met. First, the spatial extent, distribution and intensity of food insecurity across Africa must be illustrated, juxtaposed with some key resource and infrastructure features. Second, Africa must be disaggregated into geographical units (possibly termed "food security domains") in which similar food security problems or opportunities are likely to occur. From a national and regional policy perspective, food

security domains might be used to represent areas of broadly similar strategic importance. From a household or development agency perspective, food security domains offer a way of identifying and scaling up viable sets of livelihood options.

A key goal is to use a single set of domain criteria and to apply them consistently across the continent. Only with such a consistent approach can the true similarity or dissimilarity of conditions existing in, say, the highlands of Tigray in Ethiopia, be properly compared and contrasted with those in Kenya and Tanzania. And only then can food security-enhancing interventions and practices found to be effective in one part of one country be credibly argued to have relevance in other parts of Africa.

Such "food security domains" would permit consideration of the following issues: Where are those geographic areas within and across African countries in which food security problems and opportunities are likely to be most similar? Where will specific types of food security policies, investments and livelihood options likely be most effective? Given successful food security-enhancement in one location, where else do similar conditions obtain? What is the potential for targeted replication (scaling up) of successes to these similar areas?

Beyond mapping food security domains, additional empirical evidence is needed to explore which specific strategies are both feasible and advantageous in each domain. Such evidence provides the basis for assessing the degree to which successful interventions (best practices) from one domain are relevant in others. It also provides a basis for development of a compendium of success stories in African food security.

The ReSAKSS will work with the Centers of Excellence to build national capacities to undertake the analysis required to develop and analyse food security domains. The CRTs and RRTs will provide forums for discussion and resource mobilization based on recommendations emerging from ReSAKSS analysis of prospects for up-scaling successes and best practices.

The ReSAKSS will work with appointed lead institutions or Centers of Excellence to build national capacities to undertake the analysis required to identify and characterise food security domains. The



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CRTs and RRTs will provide forums for discussion and resource mobilization based on recommendations emerging from ReSAKSS analysis of prospects for up-scaling successes and best practices. Additional regional academic, SROs and NARS institutions will be

identified per REC to broaden the network of institutions available to support the CRTs and RRTs by providing technical support, research and evidence building and capacity development within their respective regions and associated countries.





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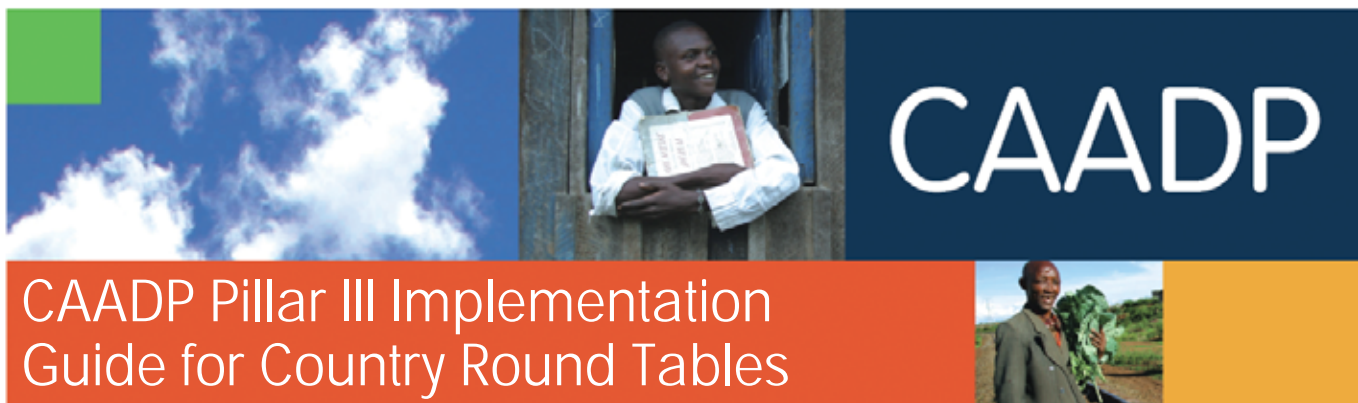
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The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)

The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) has been endorsed by African Heads of State and Governments as a vision for the restoration of agricultural growth, food security, and rural development in Africa. A specific goal of CAADP is to attain an average annual growth rate of 6 percent in agriculture. To achieve this goal, CAADP aims to stimulate *agriculture-led development that eliminates hunger and reduces poverty and food insecurity*. More specifically, the NEPAD vision for Africa holds that, by 2015, Africa should:

- Attain food security
- Improve agricultural productivity to attain a 6 percent annual growth rate
- Develop dynamic regional and sub-regional agricultural markets, and
- Integrate farmers into a market economy; and
- Achieve a more equitable distribution of wealth.

CAADP is a strategic framework to guide country development efforts and partnerships in the agricultural sector⁴. CAADP directs investment to four mutually reinforcing and interlinked pillars:

- *Pillar I:* Extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems;
- *Pillar II:* Improving rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for market access;
- *Pillar III:* Increasing food supply, reducing hunger and improving responses to food emergency crises; and
- *Pillar IV:* Improving agriculture research, technology dissemination and adoption.

CAADP Pillar III's Framework for African Food Security

Despite the gains that have been made in agriculture, health care, and education across the continent, more than 40% of the

population in sub-Saharan Africa lives on less than a dollar a day. Included in this group are three quarters of the world's poorest people – those who live on less than 50 US cents a day. Although urban populations are growing, most of Africa's poor live in rural areas and depend on agriculture for food and livelihoods. The fact that the number of people affected by poverty and hunger in Africa is increasing means that agriculture is not meeting its potential as a driver for economic growth, and more and more people are “falling out” of the growth process.

Pillar III focuses on the challenge of ensuring that vulnerable populations have the opportunity to both contribute to, and benefit from, agricultural growth – a focus that operationalizes CAADP's commitment to broad-based agricultural growth as the best way of achieving sustainable food security in Africa. CAADP Pillar III also recognizes the need to reduce the vulnerability⁵ of poor households to economic and climatic shocks, because of the clear linkages between repeated exposure to shocks, the erosion of household assets and coping mechanisms, and deepening poverty. Finally, Pillar III highlights the linkages between poverty, hunger, and malnutrition – and the enormous threat posed by chronic hunger and malnutrition to the current and future productivity of Africa.

The framework for the implementation of activities under CAADP Pillar III is the *Framework for African Food Security (Pillar III/FAFS)*. This framework sets out ***Pillar III's vision to increase resilience by decreasing food insecurity and linking vulnerable people into opportunities for agricultural growth***, its relationship to the overall CAADP agenda and suggests actions at regional and country level. ***Pillar III therefore seeks to increase the resilience vulnerable populations in Africa by reducing risks of food insecurity and creating linkages for participation in agricultural growth.***

Food insecurity in Africa is a systemic problem. It is not acceptable that the occurrence of a single flood or drought creates a crisis in African food security. Nor is it acceptable that predictable year-on-year food assistance is required to fill the consumption gap of populations in Africa. African governments must have a plan of

⁴ 'Agriculture' refers here to the entire value chain and includes crop staples, vegetables, fruits, fish, legumes and livestock products. Agricultural growth includes agricultural activities and the up and down stream activities that support growth, including non-farm activities and related services.

⁵ Vulnerability to food insecurity refers to an inability to cope with shocks, stresses and threats that affect availability, access and/or utilisation of food. Vulnerability to food insecurity implies a probability of necessary adjustments to consumption as households or individuals struggle to meet adequate consumption requirements.

action to build resilience in order to address chronic food insecurity and mobilize community and national systems to deal with crises. Resilience is the ability for households, communities and countries to anticipate and mitigate risk by providing buffers and insurances to draw on and action plans to respond efficiently and quickly to shocks and crises in order to ensure rapid recovery post shock or crisis.

Pillar III/FAFS Target Groups: Although a number of issues addressed under Pillar III may overlap with the objectives and activities reflected in other CAADP pillars, a key difference is that activities carried out under Pillar III are targeted directly to vulnerable populations in order to both accelerate access to the benefits and impacts of agricultural growth, and to accelerate ability to contribute to that growth. It is important to note that Pillar III does not attempt to address all sources and types of vulnerability and food insecurity; rather, Pillar III activities target vulnerable populations most likely to be able to contribute to and directly benefit from increased agricultural growth.

Framework Objectives: The framework identifies 4 key objectives that contribute to the goal of increasing resilience in vulnerable populations:

- **Improved risk management:** at the household, community, national and regional levels to inform decisions that ultimately impact the building and protection of assets and investments and to strengthen national, regional, and community responses to climatic and economic shocks that risk and undermine the coping mechanisms of vulnerable populations
- **Increased supply of affordable commodities through increased production and improved market linkages:** Increasing the supply of food through increased production and improved market linkages will increase the food available to households and communities. Strategies to increase the production of staple commodities are also more likely to impact poor small farm holders, increasing their incomes and extending the geographic reach of markets to underserved areas
- **Increased economic opportunities for the vulnerable:** Identifying potential opportunities for diversification of livelihoods – particularly in support of adding value to agricultural production (through local processing, handling, transport, etc.) will both build resiliency and contribute to rural growth. Close coordination with strategies undertaken under other pillars will improve outcomes under this objective, as will pro-active attempts to link safety-net interventions to access to agricultural inputs, credit, training and other interventions capable of providing opportunities for the poor to accumulate, diversify and invest in assets, and
- **Increased quality of diets through diversification of food among the target groups.** While investment in increasing the production of staple foods will have an immediate, significant

impact on the poor, increasing the ability of the poor to access sufficient protein and micronutrients through varied, nutritious diets is necessary to ensure sustainable gains in the battle against poverty, hunger and malnutrition.

Linking results to the overall goals of CAADP and MDGs for poverty and hunger

Progress made through Pillar III will contribute directly to the overall CAADP objective of achieving a growth rate sufficient to reach the MDG goals of reducing poverty and hunger by half by 2015. Progress will be measured through:

- Improvement in food security and nutrition indicators
- Improvement in the household asset and/or income levels of targeted vulnerable populations.

Once vulnerable populations targeted under Pillar are identified and quantified, establishing the levels and rates of change in these indicators required to contribute to CAADP and MDG goals is a critical component of the implementation of Pillar III/FAFS at the country level.

Developing an Operational Plan for Pillar III

Developing a regional or country-level Pillar III strategy entails the following 6 steps:

1. Identify the chronically food insecure and those vulnerable to chronic food insecurity, characterize the vulnerable and the causes of food insecurity;
2. Estimate the magnitude of change required to achieve the Pillar III vision and objectives of CAADP;
3. Create an inventory and identify options to achieve the objectives of the vision;
4. Prioritize interventions and costing options to focus on the best returns for an investment plan and addressing the necessary conditions to meet objectives;
5. Review of implementation options, roles, responsibilities and coordination;
6. Finalise and package an integrated programme that includes an investment and operational plan and arrangements.

Step 1. Identify the chronically food insecure and those vulnerable to chronic food insecurity, characterize the vulnerable and the causes of food insecurity.

- Who are the chronically food insecure populations?
- How many people are chronically food insecure or vulnerable to food insecurity?
- What are their characteristics and location?
- Why are they vulnerable? What are the sources and types of vulnerability?



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- Who of these target groups are more likely to participate in or benefit directly from agricultural growth?

Step 2: Estimate the magnitude of change required to achieve the Pillar III vision and objectives of CAADP?

This will require estimation of the rate and level of change (in these target groups) required to meet the overall CAADP objective of achieving a growth rate sufficient to achieve the MDG goal of reducing hunger and poverty by half by 2015⁶.

Step 3: Create an inventory and identify options to achieve the objectives of the vision

For each the four objectives identified in Pillar III (improved risk management; increased supply through increased production and improved market linkages; increased economic opportunities for the vulnerable; and increased quality of diets through diversification of food among the target groups).

- For each of the above, explain how it contributes to the Pillar vision/objectives;
- What type of change is expected?
- How does it help the vulnerable?
- Who could be engaged/participate in implementation?

Stocktaking at various levels is necessary. This will include an inventory of programmes, policies and institutions; implementers; stakeholders; and partners related to Pillar III. Stocktaking will also include establishing a baseline to assist in identifying and evaluating the impact of various options to achieve the objectives above. Stocktaking will require answering the following questions relating to the 4 key objectives of FAFS in consultation with stakeholders, including the target groups themselves.

Improved risk management

- Do you have an operational Early Warning System (EWS⁷) that allows you to measure, monitor and track groups who are vulnerable to food insecurity and shocks (e.g. droughts, floods, market and other shocks), their characteristics and where they live?
- Do you have a sufficiently resourced and functioning programme (including time-bound targets and indicators of progress) to reduce vulnerability to droughts, floods, market and other shocks and are you making progress towards the targets?
- Do you have a crisis response system in place including mechanisms, triggers, teams/actors and emergency resources at national and community levels?
- Do the Government and Development Partners have a framework and commitment that are supportive of the risk management items outlined above?
- Are there constraints to achieving this objective that must be addressed through another CAADP Pillar?

⁶ Specific tools are being developed for use at county level to assist with this step.

⁷ EWS include indicators related to production, exchange, and consumption at national, regional and community levels for the analysis, monitoring, prediction of potential food crises and estimation of emergency food requirements.

Increased food supply through improved production and market linkages

- What are the primary sources of food for the chronically food insecure or those vulnerable to chronic food insecurity? ie. Are they net purchasers of food?
- What is their current production and consumption (amount and types of foods)?
- What are appropriate and sustainable options for increasing production of food?
- Do they have access to the services that will allow them to exploit their food production potential?
- What are the options to improve market access and operations in the areas where the vulnerable are located to improve food availability?
- What are the policy constraints to increasing production and improving markets for the target groups?
- Are there constraints which must be addressed under other CAADP pillars?

Increased economic opportunities for the vulnerable

- Are the current sources and levels of incomes and assets of these targeted groups increasing sufficiently to sustainably achieve/improve their food security status?
- Do other opportunities exist to improve their food security status, resilience and contribution to growth beyond what is possible under their current activities?
- Do environmental, institutional and policy constraints prevent them from effectively protecting, using and expanding their assets, incomes and livelihood opportunities to sustainably improve their food security status?
- Are these constraints addressed through interventions undertaken under another pillar? If not, how will they be addressed?

Increased quality of diets through diversification of food

- What are the levels of micro-nutrient deficiencies among the vulnerable groups (e.g. iron, vitamin A, iodine)?
- What are the viable options and actions to increase the access by vulnerable groups to diversified food production and supply to improve micro-nutrient intake?
- To what extent are bio-fortification, fortification, food-processing and safety technologies being applied at all levels of the food chain to improve dietary quality of the target groups?
- What are the environmental, institutional and policy constraints to food fortification?

- Do mechanisms exist to address these constraints under CAADP? If not, what is the appropriate forum to raise these issues?

Step 4: Prioritizing and costing options to focus on the best returns for an investment plan and addressing the necessary conditions to meet objectives.

In consultation with various stakeholders, the options identified need to be prioritized in terms of what the best way is to increase assets and incomes and improve food security and nutrition against the following criteria. Does the action:

- Build resilience to food insecurity of the target groups
- Reduce food insecurity AND build assets for the target group
- Help achieve the rate and level of growth required to meet MDG goal 1
- Have a direct impact on agricultural growth;
- Have a scale that leads to a significant and widespread impacts on the targeted groups
- Build and/or strengthen Africa's capacity for sustainability of development actions, and
- Provide a cost-effective investment to achieve the objective.

Step 5: Review of implementation options, roles, responsibilities and coordination.

In implementation, there are various roles of different players. Implementation recognizes there are key players including government, private sector, development partners, technical agencies, NGOs, CBOs, research institutions, producers and organizations, civil society that are involved in implementation. Leadership and coordination is required to ensure all activities contribute to a common agenda, there is accountability, progress is measured and lessons shared. At regional and country levels, the leadership and coordination structure will vary depending on existing capacities and established roles. Once the components of a Pillar III/FAFS strategy or action plan is agreed to, regional or country-level stakeholders will review options for governance, and identify issues and responsibilities for implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the prioritized Pillar III activities as follows:

- What is going on now?
- Are there mechanisms to facilitate coordination and communication?
- Are there systems for inter-ministerial actions?
- Who are the best implementing agencies?
- What are the existing/appropriate institutions for implementation, monitoring, and evaluation?
- Who are the best partners/implementers in terms of synergies and complementarities?

The implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes for Pillar

III (as well as the other pillars) should be clearly defined as part of the regional or country-level CAADP Compact that is being established.

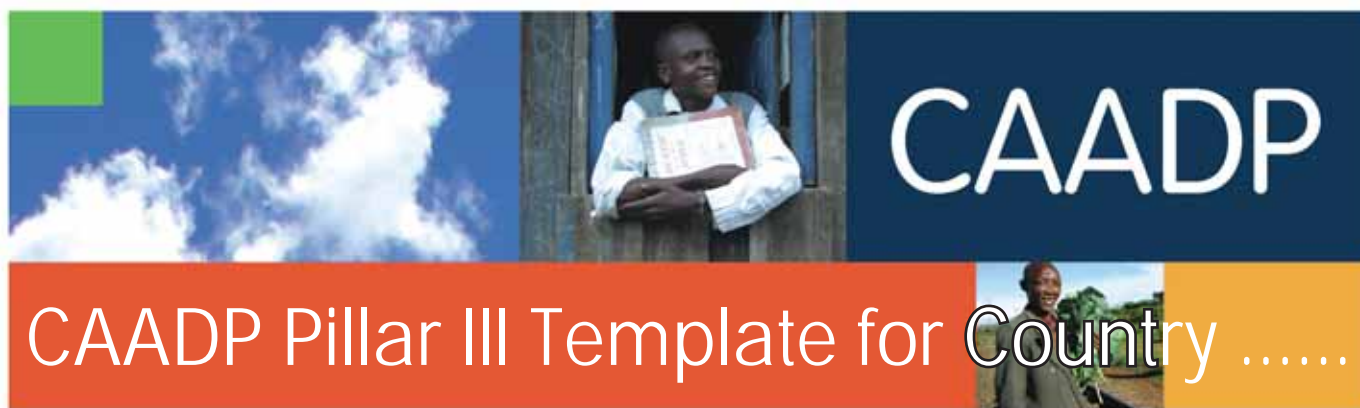
Step 6: Finalizing a Pillar III strategy and action plan for inclusion in a CAADP Country or Regional Compact.

After prioritizing actions, developing a resourcing plan, identifying the policy and institutional arrangements, roles and responsibilities of stakeholders, and highlighting actions to be undertaken under other pillars, Pillar III stakeholders will present and advocate Pillar III actions through the CAADP Round Table discussions for inclusion in the final design of the regional or country-level CAADP Compact.

To summarize, elements to be captured in the integrated package include the following:

- Identification of the vulnerable populations targeted for assistance through Pillar III
- Identification of the levels and rates of change in key food security, nutrition, and asset/income indicators required to contribute to country/region specific CAADP and MDG goals
- Actions to be taken at local, national, regional and continental level, with justification for their selection as priority actions
- The clearly defined roles and responsibilities of various players and partners and mechanisms for coordination and accountability
- Governance and institutional arrangements required for implementation and sustainability of the actions. Attention should be given to the inter-ministerial coordination requirements
- The investment plan indicating who can finance what elements, the level of investment and time frames
- Policy alignment or change required to implement the plan of action or areas. It needs to be recognised that, in some areas, wider policy and investment debate is required that falls beyond Pillar III (for example land ownership issues) and needs to be undertaken in the wider CAADP Round Table discussions.
- Establishment or re-alignment of monitoring and evaluation systems to monitor progress, report on progress and prepare for peer review related to achievement of the objectives of the Pillar vision
- Identified additional capacities and capabilities are required for implementation and how will these be secured or developed.
- What assistance is required in implementation, including support from the REC, CAADP lead institutions and their networks
- At this stage too, countries must identify value-adding action at regional level that will support the country efforts.





Step 1. Identify the chronically food insecure and those vulnerable to chronic food insecurity, characterize the vulnerable and the causes of food insecurity

Who are the chronically food insecure populations?	
How many people are chronically food insecure or vulnerable to food insecurity?	
What are their characteristics and location	
Why are they vulnerable? What are the sources and types of vulnerability?	
Who of these target groups are more likely to participate in or benefit directly from agricultural growth?	

Step 2: Estimate the magnitude of change required to achieve the Pillar III vision and objectives of CAADP

What rate and level of change (in these target groups) is required to meet the overall CAADP objective of achieving a growth rate sufficient to achieve the MDG goal of reducing hunger and poverty by half by 2015?	Indicator	Current level	Change required
	Food insecurity (as dietary diversity)		
	Malnutrition (stunting)		
	Income per capita (dollar per capita per day)		
	Household asset levels		

Step 3: Create an inventory and identify options to achieve the objectives of the vision

Stocktaking at various levels is necessary. This will include an inventory of programmes, policies and institutions; implementers; stakeholders and partners related to Pillar III. Stocktaking will also include establishing a baseline to assist in identifying and

evaluating the impact of various options to achieve the objectives above. Stocktaking will require answering the following questions relating to the 4 key objectives of FAFS in consultation with stakeholders, including the target groups themselves.

STOCKTAKING INVENTORY			
Improved risk management	Yes	No	Comments
Do you have an operational Early Warning System (EWS) that allows you to measure, monitor and track groups who are vulnerable to food insecurity and shocks (e.g. droughts, floods, market and other shocks), their characteristics and where they live?			
Do you have a sufficiently resourced and functioning programme (including time-bound targets and indicators of progress) to reduce vulnerability to droughts, floods, market and other shocks, and are you making progress towards the targets?			
Do you have a crisis response system in place including mechanisms, triggers, teams/actors and emergency resources at national and community levels?			
Do the Government and Development Partners have a framework and commitment that are supportive of the risk management items outlined above?			
Are there constraints to achieving this objective that must be addressed through another CAADP Pillar?			
Increased food supply through improved production and market linkages			
What are the primary sources of food for the chronically food insecure or those vulnerable to chronic food insecurity? ie. Are they net purchasers of food?			
What is their current production and consumption (amount and types of foods)?			
What are appropriate and sustainable options for increasing production of food?			
Do they have access to the services that will allow them to exploit their food production potential?			
What are the options to improve market access and operations in the areas where the vulnerable are located to improve food availability?			
What are the policy constraints to increasing production and improving markets for the target groups?			
Are there constraints that must be addressed under other CAADP pillars?			
Increased economic opportunities for the vulnerable			
Are the current sources and levels of incomes and assets of these targeted groups increasing sufficiently to sustainably achieve/improve their food security status?			
Do other opportunities exist to improve their food Security status, resilience and contribution to growth beyond what is possible under their current activities?			
Do environmental, institutional and policy constraints prevent them from effectively protecting, using and expanding their assets, incomes and livelihood opportunities to sustainably improve their food security status?			
Are these constraints addressed through interventions undertaken under another pillar? If not, how will they be addressed?			
Increased quality of diets through diversification of food			
What are the levels of micro-nutrient deficiencies among the vulnerable groups (e.g. iron, vitamin A, iodine)?			
What are the viable options and actions to increase the access by vulnerable groups to diversified food production and supply to improve micro-nutrient intake?			
To what extent are bio-fortification, fortification, food processing and safety technologies being applied at all levels of the food chain to improve dietary quality of the target groups?			
What are the environmental, institutional and policy constraints to food fortification?			
Do mechanisms exist to address these constraints under CAADP? If not, what is the appropriate forum to raise these issues?			

Identify the possible actions to address Pillar 3 objectives. For each the four objectives identified in Pillar III (improved risk management; increased supply through increased production and improved market linkages; increased economic opportunities for the vulnerable; and increased quality of diets through

diversification of food among the target groups). For action, explain how it contributes to the Pillar vision/objectives

- What type of change is expected
- How it helps the vulnerable, and
- Who could be engaged/participate in implementation.



Step 5: Review of implementation options, roles, responsibilities and coordination

In implementation the different players have a variety of roles of. Implementation recognizes there are key players including government, private sector, development partners, technical agencies, NGOs, CBOs, research institutions, producers and organizations, civil society that are involved in implementation. Leadership and coordination is required to ensure all activities

contribute to a common agenda, there is accountability, progress is measured and lessons shared. At regional and country levels, the leadership and coordination structure will vary, depending on existing capacities and established roles. Once the components of a Pillar III/FAFS strategy or action plan is agreed to, regional or country-level stakeholders will review options for governance, and identify issues and responsibilities for implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the prioritized Pillar III activities as follows:

Question	Reflection	Action required
What is going on now?		
Are there mechanisms to facilitate coordination and communication?		
Are there systems for inter-ministerial actions?		
Who are the best implementing agencies?		
What are the existing/appropriate institutions for implementation, monitoring, and evaluation?		
Who are the best partners/implementers in terms of synergies and complementarities?		
Implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes		



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Step 6: Finalizing a Pillar III strategy and action plan for inclusion in a CAADP Country or Regional Compact.

After prioritizing actions, developing a resourcing plan, identifying the policy and institutional arrangements, roles and

responsibilities of stakeholders, and highlighting actions to be undertaken under other pillars, Pillar III stakeholders will present and advocate Pillar III actions through the CAADP Round Table discussions for inclusion in the final design of the regional or country-level CAADP Compact.

FINAL CHECKLIST FOR COUNTRY PILLAR 3 ACTION PLANS	
Does the plan ...	Tick if yes
Identify the vulnerable populations targeted for assistance through Pillar III?	
Identify of the levels and rates of change in key food security, nutrition and asset/income indicators required to contribute to country/region specific CAADP and MDG goals?	
Specify the actions to be taken at local, national, regional and continental level, with justification for their selection as priority actions?	
Define the roles and responsibilities of various players and partners and mechanisms for coordination and accountability?	
Set out the governance and institutional arrangements required for implementation and sustainability of the actions. Attention should be given to the inter-ministerial coordination requirements?	
Does the investment plan indicate who can finance what elements, the level of investment and time frames?	
Identify the policy alignment or change required to implement the plan of action or areas. It needs to be recognised that in some areas, wider policy and investment debate is required that falls beyond Pillar III (for example land ownership issues) and needs to be undertaken in the wider CAADP Round Table discussions?	
Establishment or re-alignment of monitoring and evaluation systems to monitor progress, report on progress and prepare for peer review related to achievement of the objectives of the Pillar vision?	
Identify additional capacities and capabilities are required for implementation and how will these be secured or developed?	
Identify what assistance is required in implementation including support from the REC, CAADP lead institutions and their networks?	
Identify value-adding action at regional level that will support the country efforts?	



CAADP

Notes



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