

ELIMINATING HUNGER:

**DFID FOOD SECURITY STRATEGY
AND PRIORITIES FOR ACTION**

Consultation Document
February 2002

This paper has been produced for public consultation. We intend to publish it in May 2002. We would therefore be grateful for your comments by 31st March 2002. These should be sent to:

Rachel Lambert
Food Security Adviser
Rural Livelihoods Department
Department for International Development
1 Palace Street
London
SW1E 5HE
Fax: +44 (0) 20 7023 0624

Or they can be emailed to: foodsecurity@dfid.gov.uk

This paper can also be found on the DFID website (www.dfid.gov.uk), under "News, Speeches and Consultations".

ELIMINATING HUNGER: DFID FOOD SECURITY STRATEGY AND PRIORITIES FOR ACTION

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	2
INTRODUCTION	4
UNDERSTANDING HUNGER	6
THE CHALLENGE OF HUNGER	7
Is there enough food in the world?	8
How can people gain access to sufficient food for a normal healthy life?	10
How are food security and nutrition related?	13
What about conflict, drought and other emergencies?	13
How do we measure and monitor hunger?	14
ELIMINATING HUNGER – WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE?	18
Reducing poverty and vulnerability	18
Ensuring trade reform strengthens food security of the poor	19
Agriculture	22
Addressing health, education and nutrition	23
Drought, conflict and emergencies	24
Better measurement of hunger	27
ORGANISATIONAL ISSUES AND LESSON LEARNING	30
DFID PRIORITIES FOR ACTION	32

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Millennium Development Summit has set a goal of reducing by half the proportion of hungry people in the world by 2015. However, progress in achieving this Millennium Development Goal (MDG) is slow. Some countries are moving away rather than towards the target. This paper looks at some of the reasons for this and identifies what needs to be done to achieve the target. It highlights the areas in which DFID will focus its energies.

The causes of hunger are several, and include poverty, ill health, exclusion, conflict and natural disasters. Food security focuses on people's ability to access food, rather than simply food production. Policies to address hunger need to be based on a clear understanding of who is hungry, and why. Understanding people's vulnerability, the impact of shocks, as well as the effects of trade policies, is critical in the design of appropriate policies to tackle hunger.

Poverty reduction is essential to eliminating hunger. However, a focus on food security within poverty reduction initiatives is critical, in order to ensure that such initiatives meet the needs of the hungry and that they address both the chronic and transitory aspects of food security.

The scale of the challenge is huge. FAO estimates that almost 800 million people in the world do not have enough to eat. In order to understand the challenge of ridding the world of hunger, we need to answer some key questions.

THE PROBLEM

Is there enough food in the world?

There is currently relative optimism about the capacity of the world to produce enough food to keep up with population growth, provided that appropriate policies and investment in research and inputs are maintained, and concerns about environmental sustainability are addressed. However, regional inequalities are likely to grow. The persistence of areas of chronic food insecurity illustrates the fact that global food availability does not, on its own, ensure sufficient access to food for all.

How do people access sufficient food?

People acquire food through a range of activities, including production, but also through exchange of goods and services in markets, and gifts and relief. Shocks, whether at the household level (death of family member, ill health) or at a regional or national level (drought, conflict etc) have a major impact on people's ability to secure enough to eat. Markets also play a key role. The impact of globalisation and trade on food security is complex but has very significant implications both at a household level, as well as a national level.

How are food security and nutrition related?

Malnutrition is not just an outcome of the amount of food consumed, but also of the local health and care environment. Chronic illnesses, and HIV/AIDS in particular, have an increasing impact on nutrition and food security. Quality of food, in terms of micro-nutrients and diversity of food sources are important. Access to food is further determined by age, sex and status within the household.

What about conflict and disasters? Conflict is a major cause of famine. Poor people are increasingly prone to drought and other natural disasters. Climate change introduces unknown risks and uncertainty. Those who are displaced are particularly vulnerable.

How do we measure and monitor hunger?

The multi-dimensional nature of food security means that there can be no single measure of hunger. The current FAO global “undernourishment” indicator provides a snapshot of the situation, but cannot identify the causes of hunger or look at policy impact. Different agencies at national levels operate various food security measurement systems. The quality of data collection is variable and collaboration between agencies is weak. Few are geared to identifying who is vulnerable, where, and why. The linkages between the information produced and its use in policy and planning need strengthening. There is a need for existing livelihoods methods adopted at sub-national levels, which identify who is vulnerable and why, to be scaled up to national levels.

WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE?

Hunger is inextricably linked to poverty and vulnerability. Measures to reduce poverty, empower people and create an environment within which markets can work fairly will help improve access to food.

However, if the hunger Millennium Development Goal (MDG) is to be achieved, there is a need for a specific focus on addressing food insecurity. This should aim at:

- *Improving access to food and effective demand through poverty reduction, and sustainable agricultural growth strategies that put an emphasis on jobs and incomes for the poorest. Support to agricultural research and investment is necessary but not sufficient on its own.*
- *Ensuring pro-poor trade reforms that strengthen the food security of the poor. Analysis of the impact of trade reform on the livelihoods of the poor must become more sophisticated.*
- *Interventions tackling malnutrition are required both in emergencies and developmental situations. A multi-sectoral approach is required to reduce malnutrition, including the promotion of health and education, efforts to tackle food insecurity and improving access to safe water.*
- *Food aid is a key tool for saving lives in humanitarian crises, but better mechanisms are needed for monitoring the impact and effectiveness of food aid. There is a need for a radical overhaul of the institutional arrangements for food aid.*
- *New approaches are required for the measurement of hunger at global and national levels, and for integrating livelihoods approaches which can identify who is hungry and why, into national policy and planning.*

INTRODUCTION

1. The persistence of hunger in a world of plenty is unacceptable. It is internationally recognised that food is a human right, and this is enshrined in international conventions¹. This places a strong moral obligation on us all to act to eradicate hunger wherever it occurs.

2. States should protect and promote the realisation of the right to food, by promoting the economic, social and institutional means by which all people will gain sustainable access to food.

3. In 1996, the World Food Summit strengthened international resolve to:

'Achieve food security for all and ongoing efforts to eradicate hunger in all countries, with an immediate view to reducing the number of undernourished people to half their present level no later than 2015'

At the Millennium Summit in 2000, 191 countries redefined this target as to:

'Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger'

4. In spite of an unprecedented period of economic growth and advances in technology and food surpluses in many countries, current progress against the food security target appears to be too slow. FAO estimate that nearly 800 million people, two-thirds of the world's absolute poor and mainly women and children, remain food insecure.

5. This paper considers some of the reasons behind slow progress. It suggests that greater progress will be achieved by a more systematic and comprehensive approach that integrates food into poverty reduction and other development strategies. This will require better tools to identify who the hungry are, why they are hungry and what options are there for reducing their risk of hunger and more effective systems for assessing progress towards the elimination of hunger.

¹ International Declaration on Human Rights (Art 25); International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Art 11); Convention on the Rights of the Child (Art 24.2c).

Box 1

Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals of *reducing by half the proportion of hungry people in the world by 2015*

This target aims to reduce the number of people “undernourished” from approximately 800 million in 2001 to 400 million in 2015 (FAO data). Looking at progress during the 1990s, some countries have clearly made better progress than others. China, India, Thailand and Indonesia have all seen a decrease in the hungry in that period. However, although Nigeria and Ghana have seen some improvements, many countries of Sub-Saharan Africa as well as DR of Korea, Bangladesh, Afghanistan and Nepal have all seen deteriorations in the numbers of hungry.

Why have some countries moved towards the targets and some countries moved away?

Analysis has shown that shocks are playing a crucial role in knocking countries off the path towards the hunger targets². These shocks include economic factors, HIV/AIDS, conflict and issues of weak governance. Agricultural productivity growth is also associated with a decline in the numbers of undernourished.

There is a need to refine the indicator used. The “undernourishment” indicator is limited in that it measures food production, modified by distribution data. It needs to be used in conjunction with other information. For example, in some countries improvements in this indicator run counter to deteriorations in child nutrition. More work is needed to refine the data.

² “Deepening the Analysis of the Factors Behind Progress Towards WFS Targets”, Lawrence Haddad, IFPRI, 2001, DFID Funded Technical Support Facility to FAO’s Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information and Mapping System (FIVIMS)

UNDERSTANDING HUNGER

6. **The causes of hunger are many.** They include poverty, ill health, social and economic exclusion, conflict and natural disaster. Actions aimed at reducing hunger should be based on a clear understanding of who and where are the hungry, why they are food insecure and what are the realistic opportunities for improving their access to food.

7. **Food security** analysis is a framework which enables us to look at the “who, where, how many and why” questions of hunger. It focuses on people’s ability to access food, rather than just food production or supply. This helps us to understand why, regardless of food supply, some people get enough to eat and others do not.

Box 2: Some key terms used in this paper

Food security

A situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. It can be chronic (on a continuing basis), transitory (in times of crisis) as well as seasonal.

Malnutrition

An individual’s nutritional status is determined by the quantity and quality of food consumed in relation to individual physiological requirements for nutrients and ability to utilise them. Malnutrition is an abnormal physiological condition caused by deficiencies, excesses or imbalances in energy, protein and/or other nutrients. Manifestations include wasting, stunting or underweight, reduced cognitive ability, poor health status and low productivity.

Hunger

Uneasy or painful sensation caused by a lack of food, which, if it persists, can lead to malnutrition. In this paper, “hunger” is often used interchangeably with the term “food insecurity”.

Vulnerability

The presence of factors that place people at risk of becoming food insecure or malnourished, including those that affect their ability to cope.

8. **Hunger is central to poor people’s experience³** and definitions of poverty and ill being. Hunger is a symptom of extreme poverty. Insecure access to food emerges as a powerful physical and psychological influence on poor people’s lives. Poor people spend a considerable amount of time and effort on finding sufficient food every day.

9. There are **many dimensions to hunger**. As well as regional, national and household level variations, there are differences in the incidence of hunger between seasons, within countries and within households. Many

³ “Voices of Hunger: A desk review of issues arising from participatory analysis of poverty and food insecurity”, Kay Sharp, 2001, commissioned by DFID.

people go hungry during certain seasons of the year, or during shocks such as drought – they suffer from transitory food insecurity. Others struggle to find enough to eat on a daily basis – they are chronically food insecure. Inequality of access to food can manifest itself at many different levels. For example, women, children (especially girls) and the elderly are the most likely to be hungry.

10. **People’s vulnerability to shocks is a key in understanding why some people go hungry and others do not.** Shocks commonly include crop failure following drought, food price increases, drop in employment opportunities or conflict. Some households are better able to withstand shocks than others. People’s assets and social networks are a key to their capacity to cope. For example, people living in arid areas have developed strategies for coping with drought based on livestock sales, wild foods, migration, support from family members and savings. Coping strategies often involve common property resources, such as rangelands, which can be degraded if droughts are prolonged. All assets - natural, physical, human, social and financial – are likely to be depleted during such crises.

11. **Hunger compromises people’s ability to improve their lives.** Inadequate access to food is a major contributor to malnutrition. Malnutrition reduces people’s abilities, options and opportunities to secure a decent livelihood. It is a major factor in deaths of children under the age of 5 in developing countries. Children who are malnourished are prone to illness, as well as to absenteeism, poor performance and early drop out from education. Adults who are hungry and malnourished may not be able work effectively. Hunger undermines the dignity of the poor.

12. There is a growing consensus that **poverty is the principal cause of hunger**. Put simply, poor people cannot find the means of getting enough food either through growing it or by buying it. Reducing poverty should, therefore, go a long way towards reducing hunger (see Box 3). But this is not the entire story. There is a need for a more explicit focus on food security within poverty reduction programmes, to ensure that the benefits reach the poorest groups who are also the food insecure.

THE CHALLENGE OF HUNGER

13. FAO estimated in 1996 that 840 million people in the world did not have enough to eat⁴. Many more millions are exposed to the risk of food shortage or to specific micro nutrient deficiencies. The greatest numbers of hungry people are living in south Asia. However the highest proportion of national populations experiencing hunger is in the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa, where, between 1980 and 1997, despite apparent progress in West Africa, the numbers of people described as ‘food insecure’ rose by 50 percent from 125 million to 186 million, because of growing ‘under nutrition’ in East, Central and Southern Africa⁵.

⁴ This figure is disputed by some (eg. Svedberg, “Undernutrition Overestimated”, Stockholm University Seminar Paper, 2001).

⁵ FAO (2000), The State of Food Insecurity in the World

14. Failure to understand food insecurity as a problem of access to food, rather than just production, has contributed to slow progress in reducing the numbers of hungry in the world. We need a better understanding of the answers to the following key questions, in order to deepen our understanding of food insecurity.

- Is there enough food in the world?
- How can people gain access to sufficient food for a normal healthy life?
- How are food security and nutrition related?
- What is the effect of conflict, natural disaster and other emergencies in food insecurity?
- How should we be measuring hunger and why has progress been so poor?

Is there enough food in the world?

15. This question has generated heated debate with important implications for national food security and agricultural policies. Optimists highlight the past successes of new technologies and the fact that global food supply has kept pace with population growth and rising demand. Pessimists point to future problems of sustainability in agricultural production and its ability to keep up with rapid population growth.

16. Production has doubled in the past 40 years, as has production per capita. Food prices have fallen by 50 per cent and are at an all-time low (although this is partly explained by US and European subsidies). Long-term forecasts indicate that prices are likely to remain low at least in the medium term.

17. But there are concerns that past increases in production are slowing down and that they are not sustainable. There are marked regional inequalities, indications of high environmental cost and concern about future technological change.

18. Recent food production trends have been characterised by overproduction in many developed countries and production shortfalls, especially in *per capita* terms, in Africa. Abundant food supplies in developed countries do not help the poor in developing countries, particularly if they cannot afford to buy them. Furthermore these stocks undermine world prices and incentives for developing country producers.

19. There are concerns over the sustainability of increasing food production, which relate to:

- Predictions of rising demand for meat, that will further increase demand for grain for livestock feed.

- Many increases in production have been through expansion of land under cultivation, often into environmentally fragile areas.
- Desertification, increased competition for water and loss of biodiversity will erode the productive capacity of large areas.
- Global fish supplies are likely to decline over the medium to long-term due to overexploitation.
- Despite recent international agreements, substantial climate change is inevitable. Projections indicate that it is the poorer parts of the world that will be most adversely affected – and least able to cope.

20. New technologies have played a vital role in increasing production and productivity and will undoubtedly continue to do so. But they must be used safely and in ways that will bring benefits to poor people.

21. Projections of food availability are highly sensitive to different assumptions and need to be reviewed constantly. Even with adequate global food availability, large numbers of children will remain malnourished, because food availability on its own does not ensure that people can acquire enough food. Whilst there will be some declines, particularly in south Asia and China, the numbers of malnourished children are likely to increase in Sub-Saharan Africa. Sub-Saharan Africa will remain a “hotspot” of hunger and malnutrition for some years to come (Box 3).

22. In summary, although agricultural production will grow more slowly than in the past, global food availability is likely to be sufficient to meet demand in the medium term, provided that appropriate policies and investment levels are adopted with regard to research, input availability and infrastructure and conditions for environmental sustainability are met. However, there will continue to be significant regional inequalities. Food shortages at local, regional or national level as a result of natural shocks, drought and conflict will continue to occur.

Box 3

Food Security Prospects in Sub-Saharan Africa

Sub-Saharan Africa: the hunger “hotspot”

Poverty and hunger are getting worse in Africa. Nearly half the population of Sub-Saharan Africa is living below the international poverty line. During the 1990s, the proportion living in poverty remained unchanged, whilst the absolute numbers grew as populations grew. Child malnutrition too has grown, from 22 million in 1980 to 38 million children in 2000. Two countries, Nigeria and Ethiopia, accounted for about half of all the stunted children in Africa in 1995. Amongst the most food insecure are the refugees and displaced who are dependent on the international relief system for their needs.

The changing nature of the fight against hunger

Today most of the poor in Africa are smallholders with capacity to produce some of their own food. However, increasing numbers of the rural poor are landless. Some of the poorest now live in urban areas. Conflict, climate change and drought are likely to increase these trends. Improving food security will increasingly become a matter for employment strategies, social security policy, and food related policies relating to international trade, food marketing and subsidy programmes and relief. Whilst agriculture will remain a core sector for food security, policies to tackle hunger will need to become increasingly multi-sectoral.

How can people gain access to sufficient food for a normal healthy life?

23. There is more to tackling hunger than producing more food. People obtain their food from many sources: own production, purchase, exchange of household production or labour, and as gifts or relief (Box 4). Food security is concerned with improving the ability of people to acquire food, through whichever means is most appropriate.

24. A food secure household can manage its income and assets to cope with shocks. Personal or family crises, such as illness or loss of a ‘breadwinner’, can have a major impact on individual or household food security. Anything that reduces the ability of people to participate in trade, employment and social exchanges constrains access to food. A key asset in reducing vulnerability is the ability of individuals to call on kin and the wider community to provide support and resources in times of emergency.

25. Nutritional status can also in turn influence food security by affecting health status and productive capacity.

Box 4

Rural livelihood diversification

Although still of key importance, farming on its own is increasingly unable to provide a sufficient means of survival in rural areas. In Sub-Saharan Africa, 50% reliance on non-farm income sources is common. In south Asia the figure rises to 60%, although this varies widely between landless households and those with access to farmland. In Sub-Saharan Africa, in general, the better off the household the more diverse the income portfolio. The causes of rural diversification are well understood and include risk spreading and coping with shocks and seasonal food insecurity. However, rural policy implications are often less well understood. For example, helping the poor to gain better access to employment opportunities may be a more effective way of achieving poverty reduction than supporting a specific sector of the rural economy.

Lack of cash is one of the most important factors preventing the poor from obtaining sufficient and diverse food for an adequate diet. Even when poor rural families are helped to produce a greater variety of foods on their household plots, they will often sell these items rather than consume them because of their high market value. Thus an increase in income is a necessary condition for improvements in food security.

26. Very few people, regions or nations produce most or all of their food needs. Even communities living in isolated rural areas are tied into the market economy in one way or another.

27. Poor people who do not have access to credit or some cash income are therefore unable to obtain all they need to eat. Regional disparities in purchasing power mean that many of the poorest people in the world are unable to purchase enough food to meet their needs, even though they spend 70% or more of their disposable income on food. Markets play a key role in enabling poor people to obtain the food they need.

28. Globalisation, (i.e. the interdependence of people and states) offers diverse opportunities, ranging from the development of new industries in developing countries to meet developed country demands, to the export of traditional agriculture products to meet other developing country demands.

29. However there are risks posed by trade liberalisation to poverty alleviation and food security initiatives. There are particular concerns about market access and future terms under which food supplies will be traded. These could expose small households and poor people to greater price volatility and therefore risk. The ability of poor households to cope with shocks in international markets, including food markets, will depend not simply on productivity and efficiency gains at local level, but also the trade and other policies pursued by national and foreign governments.

30. In addition, trade and non-trade barriers may compromise the opportunities for developing country producers to move out of basic commodity production for local use into higher value products for export. Efforts must therefore be concentrated on ensuring that we do not allow trade and non-trade barriers to constrain the growth of developing countries.

31. Trade within and between developing countries is also central to achieving food security. However, many developing countries suffer from isolation and poor infrastructure that can restrict the movement of food and the development of markets. Poor access to transport and energy services restrict physical access to food, often by those who need it most. Again, the need for appropriate domestic policies to support the opportunities for internal trade development is clear.

32. The major changes in the international trade environment with implications for food security are:

- Improvements in market access;
- Reductions of all forms of export subsidies;
- Substantial reductions in trade-distorting domestic support;
- The use of special and differential treatment in all elements of negotiation;
- Erosion of trade preferences for certain developing countries

As trade policies continue to change, it is vital that we understand the implications of these changes for food security.

Box 5

HIV/AIDS and food security

HIV/AIDS has a major impact on household food security and nutrition. Chronic illnesses such as TB and malaria also seriously compromise the ability of households and governments to eradicate hunger.

Ill-health and death as a result of AIDS impact on livelihoods, depleting human capital, disrupting social support networks, institutions and organisations. This results in undermining livelihood opportunities, productivity and social support mechanisms. Livelihood strategies are altered fundamentally. Families hit with HIV/AIDS are more likely to resort to asset stripping (natural and financial as well as other assets) to survive, or to cover the costs of medical treatment. Gender relations and strategies are altered. Sexual exchange for cash or goods is often an important survival strategy for women. Widows and orphans often lose their only means of subsistence through lack of rights to inherit land.

At an individual level, the nutrition/HIV cycle has disastrous implications. People infected with HIV (as with other diseases) have higher nutrition requirements than others, and when malnourished, they are more susceptible to AIDS-related illness, which in turn reduces nutritional intake and erodes the immune system.

Food security and rural development policies need to take into account the impact of HIV/AIDS (for example, labour loss, changes in livelihoods strategies, and weakness in institutions). Interventions aimed at HIV prevention and promoting food security will be most effective when linked to strategies which address the underlying causes of vulnerability - poverty, access to resources, marginalisation and gender inequalities.

How are food security and nutrition related?

33. There are instances when adequate food is available and households have the means to acquire it, but malnutrition persists. In order to understand why, we need to understand the causes of malnutrition.

34. Malnutrition is caused by inadequate dietary intake and disease, either alone or in combination. These in turn are caused by three interrelated factors: insufficient access to food, sub-optimal health services and environment, and inadequate care practices. Food security, health and care are each necessary, but none sufficient on its own, for adequate nutritional status. Nutritional status can also in turn influence food security by affecting health status and productive capacity.

35. Intra-household distribution of food is a key factor in nutritional status. Gender and age relations are often critical determinants. It is common to find the men given priority over women, boys given more than girls, and the old and those unable to work getting the lowest shares of household food. So even where there is apparently enough food available to a household, individual members might not have access to sufficient food to meet their needs.

36. Food quality is also an important component of food security. Micronutrient malnutrition can result from diets deficient in vital nutrients, such as vitamins and minerals.

37. Illness can depress appetite and reduce the capacity to absorb nutrients. Thus illness, especially in children, can result in malnutrition even if food is available within the household.

38. Care practices that affect nutritional status include breastfeeding, weaning and women's workloads during pregnancy. These are influenced by cultural norms as well as by education and knowledge.

39. At the same time it is important to be aware that households facing periodic food insecurity have developed a complex range of response strategies. As the severity of food insecurity increases, household responses become more serious and threatening to livelihoods. One of the first responses of poor households is often to reduce food intake, in order to preserve future livelihood prospects. For example, families may reduce the number of meals eaten, in order to avoid selling off their assets. The stark - but arguably rational - choice to preserve threatened livelihoods at the cost of short-term hunger should be seen as a reflection of food insecurity.

What about conflict, drought and other emergencies?

40. Conflict is now a major cause of hunger and famine. It disrupts lives and livelihoods, destroys societies and economies and reduces people's access to basic services. It often leads to large-scale population displacement and abuse of human rights, and can leave a legacy of social and ethnic division, which may last for generations.

41. Most wars now take place in the poorest countries – and within states rather than between them. Most of their victims are poor people, and most of those killed, hurt or disabled are civilians. A reduction in the incidence, duration and destructiveness of conflict is therefore an essential precondition for the achievement of the targets of international sustainable development including the reduction of hunger.

42. People's livelihoods and the wider availability of assets are fundamentally affected by shocks, whether caused by natural disasters or conflict related causes. Climate change could exacerbate the frequency, duration and severity of natural disasters. The inherent fragility of people's livelihoods makes them unable to cope with stresses. Those who are displaced from their homes are particularly vulnerable. Where livelihoods break down catastrophically, special emergency interventions are often essential to save lives.

How do we measure and monitor hunger?

43. Food security is a dynamic and complex concept, and changes both in time and space. It is difficult to know how many people suffer from hunger, because of the complexities of defining and measuring the problem. This is compounded by inadequate or poor quality data. Those who are food insecure are particularly difficult to count and monitor when they are at their most vulnerable – in the case of natural disaster or conflict, for example.

44. Given the multidimensional nature of food security, there can be no single measure of hunger. Measuring food security at different levels – from international to the household and even intra-household levels – requires different approaches and methodologies.

45. At an international level, the main indicator for measuring progress towards the hunger target is the 'undernourishment' indicator currently employed by FAO/FIVIMS (Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information Mapping System). This is a supply-side measure derived from national estimates of production, commercial imports and food aid. The measure is essentially one of food availability rather than access to food. Data collection methods need improvement. Despite the drawbacks, there is no agreed alternative indicator.

46. At a national level, systems that aim to monitor food insecurity and malnutrition are needed to inform poverty reduction and food security policies. They require a spread of indicators that can assess food availability, access and utilisation, and which can identify vulnerable groups.

47. Existing systems at this level are variable in the quality and timeliness of information produced, and in the linkages between the information produced and its use. Each organisation produces information geared to its own objectives, and so measures slightly different things.

48. Nutritional indicators derived from anthropometric measures are particularly useful in helping to identify and locate disadvantaged. However,

it must be remembered that nutritional status is influenced by other factors including disease, feeding practices, and intra-household food distribution.

49. At sub-national levels, there is a range of qualitative, livelihood-based approaches to monitoring food security. Most have been developed at a local level, using participatory methods. The challenge is to scale these up to the national level. Such methods can help improve the understanding of the coping strategies used by the poor in times of stress as well as in 'normal' times. They are particularly useful in disaggregating and understanding the vulnerability of poor people to 'shocks' and how these impact on food insecurity. Box 6 highlights one such approach.

Box 6

The Household Economy Approach

The household economy approach (HEA) was developed by Save the Children (UK) as a means for analysing the impact of crop failure and other shocks on household food security⁶. HEA is based on a quantitative description of the normal sources of income and assets of households in defined wealth groups and populations, and the relationship of the population to the wider market and non-market economy. This information is used to estimate the effect of a 'shock' on household income and food supply, and the ability of the household to compensate for this by implementing various coping strategies. The approach provides a way of estimating access to food and non-food goods at household level, using standardised field assessment and analytic tools, and can be applied at either a local or national scale.

The World Food Programme, the USAID's Famine Early Warning System, Operation Lifeline Sudan and other agencies now routinely use the approach. An example of its application was a survey in Northern Tanzania in 1999 to assess the effect of drought. It was found that even if nothing were done virtually all households would be able to survive by selling assets. However most people would have been unable to maintain their expenditure on salt, soap and other basic necessities and would be unable to meet school fees and health charges.

50. In summary, even if progress is being made in the reduction of hunger, the current systems for measuring hunger are in need of improvement. The 'under-nourishment' indicator whilst flawed, is the best available indicator for global monitoring. Other measures that allow monitoring across regions and countries need to be developed. A large number of methodologies exist at a national level, but these are not geared systematically to the development of policies and programmes aimed at reducing hunger. Collaboration at this level is often weak. Few are geared to the identification of vulnerable groups and understanding why they are food insecure. Linkages between information available at local and national policy levels, are often weak.

⁶ "The Household Economy Approach: a resource manual for practitioners", 2000, Save the Children Development Manual No 6

ELIMINATING HUNGER – WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE?

51. This section identifies the efforts required by the international community, national governments and civil society, to ensure that the Millennium Development Hunger goal is met.

52. The identification of policy options for food security and livelihood protection must start with a grasp of the complex realities of vulnerability, assets and capabilities of different groups. Measures aimed at reducing poverty, empowering people and creation of an environment within which markets can work fairly will help to reduce vulnerability and improve access to food.

Reducing Poverty and Vulnerability

53. **As hunger is closely interrelated with poverty, poverty reduction strategies should enhance many aspects of food security.** Poor rural and urban people need secure and sustainable livelihoods, with adequate incomes and buffers against shocks. Poor nations need buoyant economies, in order to provide jobs, acquire agricultural inputs and purchase food where necessary. Supporting rural livelihood diversity is a key element to this. It will include development of human capital, infrastructure and markets, micro-finance, insurance and asset building (Box 7).

Box 7

Tackling hunger through addressing the causes of poverty

The Eastern India Rainfed Farming Project uses participatory methods of seed variety selection and plant breeding to enhance the livelihoods of poor rural people in the states of West Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. The programme shows how a multi-sectoral 'livelihoods' approach to poverty reduction can have dramatic impact on food security.

Farmer groups, involving the poorest, have contributed local knowledge and practical experience to crop improvement processes. There have been consistent yield increases of 50%. Yet this alone has not guaranteed food security. Greater food production has not addressed the problem of the 'hungry period'; as it has not tackled the fundamental causes of vulnerability and restricted access such as security of land tenure, food storage etc.

However, within farmer groups, increased dialogue and better access to financial services have supported diversification of livelihood strategies, resulting in people being better able to survive the 'hungry months'. Fewer are forced to migrate to look for seasonal work during lean periods.

54. **There is a need to include hunger issues in PRSPs.** Poverty reduction strategy processes are establishing frameworks within which poverty analysis can be linked to public policies and actions. However, they often involve a rather narrow definition of poverty, based on income/consumption measures, which ignore the wider dimensions of vulnerability, assets, livelihoods and nutrition. There needs to be a focus on ensuring that vulnerable households have secure access to food, rather than

ensuring national food self-sufficiency. Practical guidance on how to include food security issues within PRS processes is needed.

55. Key policy areas should be reviewed in order to analyse their impact on food security. Most of the current programmes aimed at reducing poverty will play a facilitating role in improving food security, but none of them are explicitly designed or are targeted to make a more direct impact on hunger. These policy areas include:

- Macroeconomic policies and liberalisation reforms
- Policies aimed at improving agricultural productivity
- Policies supporting asset endowments
- Policies aimed at reducing production risks
- Safety nets and public transfers
- Public health and nutrition

56. Build capacity of policy makers and civil society in analysing poverty, food insecurity and nutrition, particularly in analysing the above policy areas and their role in reducing hunger. There is a role for specific pieces of research on the food security impact of alternative policies and public spending patterns.

Ensuring trade reforms strengthen food security of the poor

57. More effective trade strategies are needed for reducing poverty and empowering poor people. Trade strategies and negotiating positions need to be informed by a clear understanding of the relative strengths for domestic production and export in the medium and long as well as the short term.

58. Better tools are needed to trace the impact of any changes in international trade on the livelihoods of the poor. Impact assessments must be grounded in an understanding of livelihood systems and a disaggregated analysis of who is affected. Existing quantitative models remain largely inadequate partly because of the practical challenges of acquiring disaggregated data. New tools are needed, which draw on both qualitative and quantitative sources, and an understanding of vulnerability. Such impact assessments need to be a central activity, both in reviewing past trade agreements and in designing new ones.

59. Markets that operate more efficiently and effectively at local, national, and international level. Trade needs to be conducted within the context of an appropriate legal and regulatory framework that serves the interests of all market participants at all levels. Transparent, rules-based systems are therefore required with built-in capacity to monitor adherence and systems for enforcement.

60. **Improved market access and continued reform of the multilateral trading system under the auspices of the WTO.** The host of trade barriers to external markets that developing countries face have compromised their ability to develop their export sectors. It is important that developing country access to OECD country markets is significantly improved (Box 8).

Box 8

The impact of trade barriers on developing country access to markets

The host of trade barriers to external markets that developing countries face have compromised their ability to develop their export sectors. These include applied tariffs frequently higher than 100% for agricultural goods, as well as non-tariff barriers such as unjustifiably high health and safety standards. It is therefore important that developing country access to OECD country markets is significantly improved.

Areas of particular importance to developing countries are agriculture and labour intensive manufacturing such as textiles and clothing. For agriculture, the very high tariff rates need to be substantially reduced, together with much stronger constraints on the use of agriculture support in developed countries. For example, agriculture support for OECD rice production, a key developing country product, covers 80% of farm receipts, effectively excluding developing country exports. For labour intensive manufactures, tariff peaks and escalation need to be addressed, in order to provide developing countries with the necessary market access.

To illustrate the importance of tariff cuts alone, **the World Bank estimate that developing country gains from a 50% cut in tariffs, by both developed and developing countries, would be in the order of \$150 billion** – around three times what they receive in aid. In addition, it is important that developing countries recognise the potential of trade between themselves for encouraging export growth, and therefore to reduce their tariff barriers. South-South trade has increased from around 20% of all agricultural exports to approximately one third today.

61. **Increased capacity of poor people to cope with price shocks and action to protect vulnerable countries from particular problems associated with transition to a system of liberalised trade.** Price 'spikes' have occurred in global cereal markets and these are likely to reoccur in the future. Attempts to mitigate the impact of such shocks within the framework of the WTO have not been successful (Box 9).

62. **Effort needs to be directed at strengthening international disciplines guiding the provision of food aid, particularly those in the Agreement on Agriculture (URAA).** A more robust WTO classification of Net Food Importing Developing Countries (NFIDCs) derived from the development of more objective and observable criteria would assist this process. This is made complex by the very diverse nature of the NFIDC group. Due recognition must also be given to the importance of tariff revenues to developing countries and the requirement for due restraint in setting up any

tariff reducing regimes. It is also worth exploring the use of financial derivatives to reduce food price shocks⁷.

63. Better understanding of the implications of UK and European policy. Aside from the far-reaching implications of the Common Agricultural Policy on food production in developing countries, we must be aware of how the mainstreaming of food safety concerns in the UK and Europe into food policy affects the capacity of producers in poor countries to participate in international markets. Trends in developed-country food consumption also feeds into the vulnerability of agricultural sectors elsewhere; reduced sugar consumption in the UK weakens the trade positions of some countries and increased fish consumption on health grounds depletes fish stocks. Coordinated policy responses to such trends is imperative

64. Strengthen the capacity of relevant local, national and international institutions. In particular there is a requirement to:

- Maintain Codex Alimentarius Commission (Codex) as the most credible international mechanism for addressing consumer health and food safety issues. Encourage all countries to adopt Codex food standards and norms as the basis for domestic regulation and international trade.
- Ensure greater coherence, and more effective implementation of international agreements relating to the use of natural resources (eg. fisheries, forestry). Enhance capacity at all levels to monitor the implementation of trade agreements, particularly where they relate to the exploitation of common property resources on which poor people largely depend for both food and income.
- Strengthen the trade negotiating capacity of developing countries with respect to trade and to codes and standards about food quality, safety, and ethical and environmental concerns.

⁷ For example, the World Bank/IFC initiative “Commodity Risk Price Management in Developing Countries” is examining the use of options to reduce short-term commodity price fluctuations.

Box 9

The Marrakech Agreement

The Marrakech Agreement (1994) emerged after concerns were expressed about possible negative effects of the Uruguay Round Agreement on Agriculture (URAA) on the least advanced and net food importing countries (NFIDCs). It was feared that liberalisation of agricultural trade would lead to a rise in world food prices, and subsequent increases in food import bills. Broadly, signatories agreed to:

- Review levels of food aid, to ensure that they would be sufficient to meet needs during the transition period
- Ensure that an increasing proportion of basic foodstuffs goes to NFIDC's and LDC's in fully grant form or appropriate concessionary terms

However, the agreement was weak on operational measures, and was not implemented. In practice, cereal prices have fallen to historical lows, although this is partly explained by continued US and European subsidies. The impact of full trade liberalisation on food prices is still of concern.

Following the launch of a new trade round at Doha, the Marrakech Agreement is now being re-examined by an inter-agency panel of financial and commodity experts. This will look at ways to improve the access of least developed and WTO net food importing countries to funds that aim to assist with short-term problems in financing basic food imports. The panel will report back to the WTO by 30 June 2002.

Agriculture

65. Agriculture contributes directly and indirectly to poverty reduction and food insecurity. Most importantly it supports *access* by providing poor people with income and employment opportunities. But it also contributes to *supply* through production of food, raw materials and other environmental, social and cultural goods and services. It promotes and supports economic growth, creates jobs and ensures that there is enough food at a global level. Where there is a geographical mismatch between demand and supply, agriculture productivity can play a critical role in reducing the vulnerability of the poor, through its impact on food availability and prices. We need a better understanding of the specific role of sustainable agricultural development in poverty reduction and pro-poor growth in different circumstances.

66. But increasing food production on its own will not reduce hunger and poverty. It is important not to equate food security with food production or to conclude that hunger will be solved simply through increased investments in agriculture. In some areas and for some vulnerable groups, for example subsistence farmers in areas with few other opportunities, farming is a direct contributor to food security. But for many poor consumers such as the urban poor, the rural landless and the destitute, agriculture contributes only indirectly. There may be significant linkages with the agricultural sector, and agricultural productivity does play a role in keeping food prices down is important. But it is important to know who produces the food, who has the technology and knowledge to produce it, and who has the power to purchase it.

67. **Within agriculture, primary emphasis should be on generating jobs and incomes for the poorest.** Labour intensive approaches should be favoured where appropriate. For some groups such as women headed households, other factors such as access to land and finance may be more important.

68. **New technologies must be harnessed in ways that will bring benefits to poor people.** Continued investment is required in developing appropriate technologies that can help reduce the impact of shocks and support livelihood strategies. Greater use should be made of local knowledge to develop new breeds and varieties and more sustainable farming practices. Genetic modification technologies are powerful tools that have the potential to provide significant benefits for poor farmers if applied safely and to the crops they rely on. Developing countries themselves need to be in a position to manage the safe development and use of genetically modified organisms (GMOs)⁸.

69. **Sustainability of growth will be critical to the vulnerability and livelihoods of the poor.** Agricultural systems that allow intensification using mainly local resources have an important place, and are more likely to be accessible to the poor. But sustainability is important in all systems – including those where production is the main objective.

70. **We need to revisit the roles and responsibilities of the state, private sector and civil society in promoting and shaping this agenda.** There is a need for continuing public and private sector investment in research, technology and knowledge, and a strong case for public/private partnerships to ensure a supply of new technologies, other factors of production and access to markets for small-scale producers.

Addressing health, education and nutrition

71. A broad range of policy areas impact on nutrition and contribute to poverty reduction, including food security, health, education and child and maternal care.

72. **Action to promote and to protect health, and to reduce maternal and child mortality, including improving access to safe water and essential drugs, will help reduce malnutrition and poverty.**

73. **Cost-effective interventions to prevent micronutrient deficiencies** of importance amongst the poor are needed. Approaches will vary from one

⁸ The UK is pressing for the early entry into force of the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety to the Convention on Biological Diversity, which lays down international rules covering the safe transboundary movement of GMOs. The Protocol aims to ensure that developed and developing countries alike can take informed decisions about the import of GMOs and any possible adverse effects. It also provides channels for financial and technical assistance to help build capacity for bio safety in developing countries.

setting to another, but will often include iodisation of salt and periodic provision of Vitamin A supplements to children.

74. **Channelling of appropriate health and nutrition interventions and key health and nutrition education messages through schools** can assist in changing skills and behaviour, where the methodologies are appropriate. Efforts need to be made to demonstrate their impact on behaviour change.

75. **Policies need to take into account the growing impact of HIV/AIDS on food security, livelihoods and nutrition.** Multi-sectoral action is needed to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS.

Drought, Conflict and Other Emergencies

76. Conflict, drought and other disasters can cause livelihoods to suffer catastrophic failure. Disasters destroy lives and livelihoods, and affect the poorest disproportionately. Short-term response is not only justified but also essential to preserve lives. Emergency situations by definition create severe problems - assistance needs to be provided in whatever manner possible, even though this may not help, and can even in the short term undermine, long term livelihoods solutions.

77. DFID's policy for humanitarian assistance is to:

- Save lives and relieve suffering
- Speed recovery and protect and rebuild livelihoods and communities
- Reduce risks to future food crises

We need to **understand better the impact of climate change** on the frequency, duration and intensity of natural disasters, such as drought and floods. We also need **improved mechanisms for predicting and managing disasters.**

78. **There is an overwhelming need for peace and physical security, given that war is currently the single greatest cause of famine.** Conflict reduction strategies, like poverty and hunger reduction strategies, need to be integrated into wider development activities. Good governance, human rights, accessible justice and personal security are essential. The underlying causes of conflict – social inequality and poverty must be tackled.

79. **Conflict reduction strategies need to be integrated into country, regional and global programmes.** This needs to be supplemented by a whole range of tools for reducing the incidence and impact of conflict on the poor. Some of these must address short-term humanitarian crises, and involve the distribution of food. The majority involve work in strengthening

civil society, security sector reform, improving international dispute settling mechanisms, and promoting human rights.

80. **Emergency food aid is a legitimate and valuable activity in crisis response situations.** It is an essential tool for providing immediate sustenance to vulnerable people in rapid onset emergencies. The objective of food aid in emergencies should be to prevent unnecessary suffering.

81. **However, each emergency needs to be examined on a case-by-case basis.** Aid agencies need to consider whether resource transfers are the most appropriate response to the crisis, and if they are, whether they are most appropriately provided in the form of cash, food or other support. Care must be taken to ensure that local production and marketing capacities are not undermined, and that food aid is appropriate and targeted.

82. **Food aid use in conflict situations is highly sensitive,** and if misused can have a direct effect on the dynamics of violence. Systems must be in place to minimise the diversion of food aid. Internationally agreed humanitarian principles that provide a framework for making measured responses in such situations, must be adhered to.

83. **Outside acute emergency situations, very careful consideration needs to be given to the provision of food aid.** In such cases, food aid is very much a second best option and needs to be supported with other complementary forms of assistance, in order to achieve lasting reduction in hunger. Where food is provided in a timely and targeted fashion, it can contribute to the protection of livelihoods by reducing the need to resort to strategies such as asset stripping, and by preventing malnutrition. But food aid can never be a substitute for tackling the real causes of hunger and chronic poverty. Alternative transfer and protection initiatives are needed for the chronically vulnerable. Prolonged and regular food aid to countries suffering persistent poverty or conflict will not solve the underlying causes of vulnerability, and may even increase it.

84. **Food aid programming must be based on a rigorous assessment of humanitarian need and must be delinked from the availability of domestic agricultural surpluses in developed countries.** Since a dramatic reduction in global food aid deliveries during the early 1990s, quantities have risen since 1996 in parallel with falling market prices. The programming of food aid associated with surplus disposal is an inappropriate and sometimes counter-productive use of resources. The untying of food aid by all donors will encourage more appropriate use of food aid. Food aid should be purchased locally wherever possible, as a means of strengthening local production, whilst ensuring that local markets are not undermined.

85. **Better integration of developmental and emergency issues is required in policy and programming.** In emergency response, we must take account of developmental considerations where possible. This should include reducing vulnerability, developing capacities and promoting participation. Equally we need to ensure that development strategies such as PRSPs take better account of vulnerability to emergencies.

86. **Better mechanisms are needed for monitoring the impact and effectiveness of food aid.** Despite the role that food aid can play in saving lives and limiting nutritional stress in crises, impact monitoring is often weak. Late and inflexible relief can hamper the recovery of local economies affected by disaster. Better methods are needed both for needs assessment and impact monitoring.

87. **There is a need to review and reform the institutional arrangements for providing food aid.** Most of the arrangements reflect an earlier period when food aid was a major element of development co-operation. A review is needed of the global institutional arrangements for food aid, in order to ensure that they are more effective in addressing global humanitarian needs. Potential reforms include:

- Strengthen donor cooperation and coherence in donor food aid policies
- Lobby to end the disposal of agricultural surpluses as food aid
- Replace Food Aid Committee (FAC) quantitative commitments by qualitative commitments to ensuring food security
- Integrate food import issues (such as those treated at Marrakech) with more general trade liberalisation issues. Food security should be treated as part of the wider social dimension of pro-poor growth and not as a separate food import problem.
- Merge food aid into the mainstream of EC's development cooperation programme
- Strengthen the World Food Programme's institutional capacity in the delivery of humanitarian assistance.

88. **Food aid can never be a substitute for tackling the real causes of hunger and chronic poverty.** Alternative transfer and protection initiatives are urgently needed for the chronically vulnerable. Prolonged and regular food aid to countries suffering persistent poverty or conflict will not solve the underlying causes of vulnerability, and may even increase it.

Better Measurement of Hunger

89. **Measurement of hunger must reflect the multidimensional nature of food security.** Different indicators and methods will be appropriate at different levels, depending on the purpose for which the information is required. There is no single indicator or standard that can be applied at all levels or in all situations. Action is required at an international level to refine existing indicators, as well as at a national level to develop systems that contribute to policy to reduce hunger. Finally, action is required to integrate micro level livelihoods based approaches and national level policymaking.

90. **Baseline information is often lacking on who the hungry are, how many there are, where they live, and why they are food insecure.** This information is key to appropriate policy responses. As the only current international standard available for assessing progress towards the Millennium Development Goal hunger target, further work should be carried out to refine the FAO/FIVIMS measure of food deprivation.

91. **Greater use should be made of nutritional indicators to complement the hunger Millennium Development Goal indicator.** Nutrition is an outcome indicator and reflects the broader problems of multi-sectoral development, of which food insecurity is a key aspect. Work is needed to examine ways of improving coverage of nutritional information at a national level and feeding that into analysis of trends in hunger.

92. **Greater emphasis is needed on capturing the complexity of hunger and reflecting the knowledge of poor people.** Accurate assessment approaches will include measures of access, availability, as well as nutritional indicators. The disaggregation of data by livelihood or socio-economic group and gender will enhance the value of the information in policy and programming.

93. **Food security monitoring is a means to an end and not an end in itself.** Greater emphasis needs to be placed on how the information is used for policy and programming. There should be increased emphasis on strengthening national and sub-national capacity for information collection, analysis and response. Food security methodologies must be designed with participation of end users of the information to ensure that the information is used for decision-making. Specific efforts are needed to support early warning systems and disaster preparedness measures. Efforts are needed to encourage greater sharing of methodologies and information.

94. **Improved methodologies for monitoring trends in hunger and nutrition are needed in order to monitor the impact of Poverty Reduction Strategy processes.** Initiatives need to be developed to ensure the mainstreaming of food issues and measurement into PRSPs. Efforts are needed to coordinate national poverty and food security monitoring systems under the Paris21 initiative.

95. **The integration of Sustainable Livelihoods Approaches into national food and nutrition monitoring systems will help ensure a focus on vulnerability, participation,** multi-sectoral linkages and feeding up of household level analysis to decision making at the national level. This will also assist in understanding and disaggregating the overriding role of 'shocks' (climatic, HIV/AIDS, conflict etc.) on food insecurity, particularly of vulnerable groups.

96. **Support is needed for the development and testing of these qualitative approaches based on livelihoods frameworks** in assessing who is vulnerable, where and why. Ways need to be developed to integrate such information into national level policy and planning processes.

ORGANISATIONAL ISSUES AND LESSON LEARNING

97. The challenge of hunger is huge. It will require governments, the private sector, the development community and civil society to work together more coherently and effectively. **Better collaboration is required across sectors, disciplines and institutions.**

98. Changes in the institutional architecture relating to food aid and the WTO have already been highlighted. Further changes are needed within the key UN institutions concerned with food, particularly the FAO, which has responsibility to provide information and policy advice on food, agriculture and nutrition⁹, and to set commonly agreed standards.

99. **FAO needs to strengthen its support in providing appropriate information and policy advice on food security matters at a national and international level.** It needs to strengthen its efforts to measure and monitor progress towards the MDG, and to be more proactive in focusing international organisations on what is required to achieve the goal.

100. **Coordination of international efforts will require a shared analysis of the problems and commitment to speeding up progress towards achieving the hunger goal.** Some progress has already been made in 'untying' aid and promoting donor coherence within nationally lead development processes. Further efforts are needed to support such change.

101. **Public action has a significant role to play**, particularly when levels of vulnerability and hunger fall below certain minimum standards. The international community needs to work together to assist national governments to develop and implement effective and coherent policies that meet the needs of those at risk of food insecurity.

102. **Civil society needs to develop innovative ways to address food insecurity, and to promote the rights of the poor to adequate food and nutrition.** They have a key role to play in assisting the international community to ensure that the voices of the poor and hungry are heard more clearly at all levels. Communities need to be given a greater role wherever possible in the planning, implementation and monitoring of food security programmes.

103. **New approaches are needed in order to tackle food insecurity and speed up the progress towards meeting the hunger and poverty goals.** There is a need for greater attention to the political dimension of food insecurity. International efforts in conflict prevention, peace building and post-conflict rehabilitation are a major priority. Good governance, accountable national leadership and a well-developed civil society all play a role in initiatives to tackle hunger.

⁹ Within the UN system FAO provides policy advice on food and agriculture, and contributes with WHO, UNICEF and others, under the aegis of the UN Sub-Committee on Nutrition to the development of inter-agency thinking on human nutrition.

104. There is a need to **bring together experience at national and international level on what works and what has not worked**. The division of responsibilities and institutional mandates make information exchange and lesson learning more difficult. This is of course not restricted to food issues, but current attempts to promote lesson learning should include food issues.

DFID PRIORITIES FOR ACTION

105. This section describes the key actions that DFID will take to contribute to achieving the hunger target by 2015, in conjunction with its partners. Some of the actions are new, whilst others are already underway. In all areas DFID will need to promote a more coordinated response amongst governments, development agencies and civil society.

106. Promote a shared analysis of the causes of hunger and malnutrition and of progress towards the hunger Millennium Development Goal

- Support research into the causes of chronic food insecurity, malnutrition and vulnerability, and appropriate policy solutions.
- Demonstrate the effectiveness of policies that tackle access to food in achieving food security.
- Work with other international organisations and developing country governments to clarify the role of agriculture in achieving food security, the type and scale of agricultural investment needed for poverty reduction; and the policies and actions needed to obtain that level of investment.
- Work to integrate an understanding of the impact of HIV/AIDS into analysis of and solutions to food insecurity and malnutrition.
- Support international capacity to monitor progress towards the Millennium Development Goals on poverty and hunger. Stimulate debate on what works and what does not, in order to give impetus to efforts to meet these goals by 2015.

107. Better integration of food security into poverty reduction efforts

- Work with national governments to incorporate an analysis of vulnerability, assets, livelihoods and nutrition in PRSP processes where appropriate, in order to ensure that the poverty agenda is inclusive of food security.
- Support research on the impact of key policies and public spending on poverty and food security, particularly on the poorest groups
- Produce guidance for DFID Country Programmes, setting out relevant policy areas and their impact on food security. Draw good practice examples from selected countries, offer guidance on methods for monitoring food security and work with the World Bank and others to support PRSP indicators.

108. Promote the development of human capital

- Implement DFID's health, education and water strategies, as outlined in the Target Strategy Papers.
- Work to implement cost-effective interventions to prevent micro-nutrient deficiencies of public health importance amongst the poor.
- Work to identify effective school and community based education approaches that have a demonstrable impact on health and nutrition.
- Build understanding of the importance of the changing nature of food safety issues and their implications for food security, nutrition and health of the poor.

109. Promote trade reforms that strengthen the food security of the poor

- Work to achieve the following measures to support food security and rural development in developing countries in the next WTO trade round:
 - Significant improvements in market access and liberalisation by all members
 - Substantial cuts in trade distorting agricultural support in developed countries
 - Appropriate measures to support food security and rural development in developing countries
- Strengthen the trade negotiating capacity of developing countries with respect to trade and to food safety standards.
- Encourage FAO, as the main institutional player for food and agriculture, to play a more active role in ensuring that WTO negotiations take into account the need to protect vulnerable countries from particular problems associated with trade reform.
- Support research assessing the impact of trade reforms on the livelihoods of the poor.

110. Better response to drought, conflict and emergencies

- Support the integration of conflict reduction measures into national, regional and global strategies and programmes.
- Support action-research programmes on the appropriateness of food aid versus non-food items in emergency situations.

- Promote the de-linking of food aid programmes from domestic agricultural surpluses within the EU and under the Food Aid Convention.
- Help strengthen the World Food Programme's institutional capacity and improve its systems and operations, particularly in the delivery of humanitarian assistance.
- Support initiatives to improve needs assessment and impact monitoring of food aid and their incorporation as a routine requirement.
- Work with other donors and national governments to review the institutional architecture governing food aid and make the necessary changes for a more effective system.
- Update internal guidance on food aid objectives and programming

111. Better systems to identify who is hungry, where and why

- Support the Inter-Agency Working Group on FIVIMS to refine the "undernourishment" indicator and to develop complementary indicators and tools.
- Explore the potential for integrating livelihoods approaches into national level food information systems
- Promote the coordination of national and international hunger and poverty monitoring systems under PRSP and Paris21 initiatives.