

# School Feeding in an Emergency Situation

## Guidelines

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Guidelines



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## **Acknowledgements**

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The preparation of these guidelines commenced with a review of documents from WFP and other agencies involved in relief operations, for example the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). This was followed by consultations with United Nations colleagues, from New York, Geneva and WFP Headquarters with experience in humanitarian emergency relief operations. Information was also sought from WFP field offices. In November 2002, a two-day workshop was held in Rome and attended by personnel with recent experience of school feeding (SF) in an emergency setting from five country programmes – Afghanistan, Kenya, the Russian Federation, the Sudan and Tajikistan. The workshop provided valuable time for reflection, discussion and the sharing of experiences and best practices.

## **Preface**

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These guidelines have been prepared in recognition of the widespread use of SF in WFP's emergency relief and rehabilitation operations. They are designed to guide WFP country offices in deciding whether or not to utilize SF in an emergency setting and, if so, how best to design and implement such a programme. The guidelines have been prepared in response to country offices' requests for practical guidance on preparing the SF component of emergency operations (EMOPs) and protracted relief and recovery operations (PRROs), as well as to persistent and increasing calls from other agencies involved in relief operations. The guidelines help WFP to collaborate its efforts in the education sector with other related activities. In some ways, there is little difference between an SF programme in an emergency setting and one in a non-emergency setting. However, guidelines aim to highlight a number of constraints and imperatives that might face those planning an operation in an emergency setting. The need for these guidelines is indisputable, but there is a limit to how specific and prescriptive they can be. Every emergency situation is unique, so every humanitarian programme responding to an emergency situation is also unique. These guidelines are therefore based on a range of past experiences. The design and implementation of a new programme will have to assess, analyse and address the unique circumstances of the situation at hand. It is hoped that these guidelines will assist that process.

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## I. Introduction and background

An emergency setting is by its very nature unstable, whether it be the sudden onset of natural disasters and political conflict or the more gradual tribulations brought on by drought, famine or malnutrition. The conditions surrounding an emergency, and the actions taken in response to those conditions, are as diverse and unique as the settings in which emergencies take place.

Every emergency situation is unique. Therefore, every humanitarian response to an emergency situation will also be unique. The nature and circumstances of the emergency dictate the sorts of humanitarian assistance programmes that are necessary and prudent. However, the goals in an emergency situation remain the same: save lives, promote recovery, and empower and reinforce the self-sufficiency of the people and communities affected.<sup>1</sup>

Different humanitarian relief organizations have different ways of identifying and responding to emergency situations. The role of WFP assistance in an emergency situation is to:

- ensure the basic food needs of those made vulnerable by the emergency;
- rehabilitate cases of acute malnutrition;
- restore livelihoods;
- ensure **long-term** national and household food security.

WFP assessment of an emergency involves addressing three basic issues: whether or not external food aid is necessary and appropriate; whether or not food aid can be delivered safely; and what aid programmes can most successfully provide relief and promote recovery.

WFP identifies six programme areas in which food aid can be used in EMOPs and PRROs:<sup>2</sup>

- general food distribution;
- supplementary feeding;
- therapeutic feeding;
- food for work or food for recovery;
- market intervention;
- child care, education, health and other social service support.

It is a common view that humanitarian responses to *emergency situations* do not typically focus on education, and even perhaps that they should not focus on education. However, the preservation, restoration and/or support of education systems are critical elements in efforts to restore livelihoods, ensure long-term success and security, and promote recovery and self-sufficiency.

All the commitments of humanitarian response include a pledge to meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability. All

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<sup>1</sup> WFP. 2002. *Emergency field operations pocketbook*. Rome.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.



programmes are committed to ensuring education that will promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance.<sup>3</sup> The United Nations agencies such as UNHCR, UNICEF and WFP that play a role in emergency humanitarian responses recognize increasingly that education is a critical element of any relief operation. Education is a priority that follows closely behind the meeting of physical needs (food, water, shelter and health).

The school feeding (SF) programme focuses directly on children in the emergency situation, giving them access to resources they would not otherwise have access to and restoring continuity and a sense of normality in an unstable situation. Resuming or maintaining education services in an emergency setting provides a structured environment and at least basic numeracy and literacy training. Schooling, or any sort of structured educational activity, potentially provides psychosocial support and is particularly valuable to children whose lives have been disrupted or who are vulnerable because of the nature of the emergency that has affected them. The availability of structured educational activities in the midst of an emergency is a signal of normality and stability, not only for children themselves, but also for their families and communities in general. It can provide relief to adults struggling to maintain or rebuild livelihoods and, perhaps most important, it provides protection to and investment in the next generation and their skills and capacities to rebuild and cope as national development continues.

The term “emergency education” is used at the inter-agency level to refer to education in situations where children lack access to their national education system, owing to human-made or natural disasters.<sup>4</sup> Where national systems continue to operate, support may still be needed to ensure the effectiveness of the education system.

In UNHCR, the term “emergency response” technically refers to a matter of months, essentially the time required to get the organization’s normal systems in place and operational. However, UNHCR’s *Handbook for emergencies*<sup>5</sup> recognizes that activities in the education sector take longer than this, and that mass repatriation can create an emergency-like situation requiring emergency-like support.<sup>6</sup> For the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), an educational emergency is a crisis situation created by conflicts or disasters that have destabilized, disorganized or destroyed the education system, and that require an integrated process of crisis and post-crisis response. For UNICEF, “emergencies include natural disasters such as floods and earthquakes, and human-made crises such as civil strife and war”, as well as silent emergencies such as HIV/AIDS and children living in the streets.

The purpose and principles of WFP concerning “support to child care, education, health and other social services”, aim to achieve “the healthy development and continuing education of children during an emergency to the extent possible and afterwards”. Such support “should be in collaboration with UNICEF, UNHCR (for refugees) and NGOs with relevant expertise”.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> UNESCO. 2000. *The Dakar Framework for Action: Education for All – Meeting our Collective Commitments*. Paris.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

<sup>5</sup> UNHCR. 1999.

<sup>6</sup> See footnote 3.

<sup>7</sup> WFP. 2002. *Emergency field operations pocketbook*. Rome.

The following guidelines are based on a range of past experiences. The design and implementation of a new programme needs to be considered in the context of an emergency situation. The guidelines aim to highlight a number of issues and account for the operating constraints and imperatives that might face those planning an operation in an emergency setting. It is hoped that these guidelines will assist that process.

## **II. How to use the guidelines – An outline**

The following guidelines are structured around checklists (see section IV) designed to guide the programme officer or/and manager through the issues and questions that have been identified as critical to planning SF intervention. As cautioned in the introduction, these checklists are not definitive but are designed to highlight the main factors that require consideration.

The planning and implementation of an SF programme in an emergency setting is extensively explained in **section III**, which highlights constraints and opportunities in the analysis, design and implementation of a programme.

The following references should be used in conjunction with them:

- WFP's *Emergency field operations pocketbook* (2002);
- WFP/UNESCO/WHO's *School feeding handbook* (1999);
- WFP's *Food and nutrition handbook* (2001).

### **III. School feeding programmes in an emergency setting**

When WFP encounters an emergency that appears to require and justify the use of food aid, it considers a range of programming options as part of a coordinated humanitarian response. When considering whether or not SF is a suitable mechanism, a number of questions need to be considered in relation to the nature of the emergency and the people affected.

The following subsections A to C aim to guide programme officers and managers through the process of SF programme design and implementation. Section A outlines the background and planning that precedes design and implementation. Sections B and C guide the actions and implementation of the programme.

## **A. Planning for SF in an emergency setting – Situation analysis**

A strong understanding of the background and rationale for SF implementation is important for obtaining both partner support and the cooperative involvement of key stakeholders. The nature of the emergency and those affected determines the role of WFP and its partners (UNICEF, UNHCR, the International Committee of the Red Cross [ICRC] and other potential implementing partners and donors) in responding to the emergency situation.

### **1. Baseline assessment**

WFP's School Feeding Service has developed a standard protocol for collecting data prior to the selection of schools for an SF intervention and prior to the commencement of an SF operation. These data are not only used for determining the situation at a school and whether it is appropriate for inclusion within an SF programme, but they also provide a valuable record for future analysis of progress. The baseline assessment is also important for establishing the conditions at the outset of the programme so that subsequent developments can be measured.

Baseline surveys are designed to produce reliable and useful information to meet two objectives: (i) effective monitoring and information management that contribute to improving project quality; and (ii) comprehensive information collection for improved reporting of project outcomes to donors.

As the survey form will be applied across a range of different SF projects in many countries, it cannot possibly take *full* account of the range of objectives, including nutrition and dietary outcomes, addressed by each project. The database has therefore been constructed to allow future incorporation of additional questions or groups of questions concerning indicators and other aspects and activities – development, PRRO and EMOP – related to individual projects. The database has the capacity to generate survey forms tailored to include selected questions and indicators that are appropriate to individual projects.<sup>8</sup>

### **2. Nature of the emergency**

An emergency can be defined as a “situation that surpasses the capacity of a society, group or organization to cope with, and requires that extraordinary action be taken and resources be applied in order to deal with the situation”.<sup>9</sup> There are generally two broad categories of emergencies:

- 1) **sudden onset:** including both natural hazards such as earthquakes, hurricanes or floods, and human-made hazards such as sudden conflict arising from political circumstances;

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<sup>8</sup> WFP. 2002. *Report on the methodology used in the baseline surveys (September–October 2001) for WFP's School Feeding Campaign, 2002*, pp. 3 (2.3 objectives) and 4 (2.4 procedures: template and database). Rome.

<sup>9</sup> WFP. 2002. *Contingency planning guidelines*. Rome.

- 2) **slow onset:** hazards whose effects over an extended period of time produce an emergency situation, such as severe drought, malnutrition or famine.<sup>10</sup>

The nature of the emergency varies from situation to situation. When formulating a strategy, it is important to consider the urgency and scale of needs, the seasonal conditions and the long-term effects on local food production, prices and national development strategies.

### **3. Stability of the situation**

It is important that programme planners and implementers remain flexible and alert to changing circumstances. The stability of the situation often contributes to a programme's successes and failures, and foreseeable contingencies such as a new emergency situation or a major change in an ongoing emergency situation should be planned for.<sup>11</sup> A complete assessment of the emergency includes these potential contingencies and overall stability. Is the situation stable or still evolving? The factors that influence the situation and that could result in a sudden and/or significant change must be determined. A well-planned programme can adapt to anticipated changes.

### **4. The current education system and how the emergency has affected it**

#### The education system

In order to determine the need for an SF programme in an emergency situation, it is necessary to carry out a comprehensive assessment of the current condition of the education system and the affect that the crisis has had on it. Is there a functioning system? Are there more than one functioning systems?

There is typically a strong political connection, so the education system or systems within the target population can be a source of conflict in the area. This can affect security and WFP's ability to implement an SF programme effectively. It can also put children and aid workers at the centre of political disputes.

Other concerns are the current state of enrolment, gender and/or ethnic discrepancies in enrolment, and the level of hunger and/or malnutrition affecting the children while they are at school.

#### Curriculum and instruction

The curriculum and language of instruction can be very sensitive subjects for communities and governments, particularly in emergency situations that have evolved from civil conflict based on ethnic, regional or religious organization. The provision of aid to an education system can itself be a source of conflict or tension, as it can be seen as an endorsement of a particular institution or system.

It is important to identify the curriculum and the language or languages of instruction. Are teachers, teaching aids and learning aids available? If so, is there a need for

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<sup>10</sup> See footnote 9.

<sup>11</sup> WFP. 2002. *Emergency field operations pocketbook*, p. 98. Rome.

teacher training/re-training? There may also be a need for informal education and skills training programmes for certain groups such as demobilized (child) soldiers, out-of-school children or particular disadvantaged groups.

## **5. Key stakeholders**

Addressing the issues of an emergency situation requires the cooperation and participation of key stakeholders from international organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), national and local government, schools, communities and families, as well as individuals. When assessing the situation, it is necessary to identify these key stakeholders and all potential implementing partners. As described in the following subsection, certain constraints may be connected with these “partnerships”, particularly in situations of conflict. Political, cultural, religious, economic and social constructs can limit access and opportunities for particular ethnic groups or genders. Discriminatory attitudes or inadequate knowledge exist in the families and communities where SF programmes are run, and it is necessary to identify these potential constraints and the key stakeholders in order to ensure the design of a successful SF programme.

## **6. Available resources**

A comprehensive assessment of potential resources, the quantity and quality of existing resources and the way that resources are controlled will provide a conceptual model of the ways in which an SF programme can be implemented, as well as helping to identify possible constraints. Political, cultural, religious, economic and social constructs can limit the utilization of potential resources, and inadequate or inappropriate knowledge or discriminatory attitudes can limit access to existing ones.<sup>12</sup>

### For education

The resources available for education in the current situation need to be assessed. These include safe learning spaces, school buildings, classrooms, sanitation facilities and potable water, or the lack thereof. Any damage to or destruction of these facilities should also be noted. It is also necessary to determine whether or not there are sufficient numbers of teachers and school staff to carry out the day-to-day running of the education system. Is there a clear choice of curriculum to be used? Is a school calendar agreed by the host government? Are teaching and learning aids available?

### For food aid

It is important to ascertain the urgency of starting food distributions. The personnel available to prepare the food, as well as the facilities for preparation, should be noted. What commodities are available? Where and how quickly can they be acquired and delivered to food distribution points?

What infrastructure is in place for food preparation, or how feasible would it be to put facilities in place? (\*It is not usually recommended to commit resources to the

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<sup>12</sup> WFP. 2002. *Emergency field operations handbook*, p. 25. Rome.

building of new kitchens or other significant food preparation infrastructure in an EMOP setting but, under certain circumstances, such investments may be warranted. Where such infrastructure is already in place, however, it is certainly recommended that resources, if available, be committed to carrying out any necessary repairs and rehabilitation.)

The available resources for ensuring the safety of the food, including storage and preparation facilities and handling, should be identified. In some circumstances, it may be necessary to invest in secure food storage facilities before a programme can begin. Any institutionalized food contamination needs to be corrected. The risk of contamination usually lies not in the food commodity itself but in the food storage or preparation process.

Ascertain the availability of cooking fuel. Where wood is the only available fuel, it can often only be acquired at great cost to the local environment, even in non-emergency situations. It can be expected that the cost and value of such wood will increase in times of emergency, regardless of the nature of the emergency. It may therefore be necessary to include the provision of fuel-efficient stoves as part of programme design.

The availability and safety of water must also be considered. If there are available resources such as fuel, time and training to ensure that water is decontaminated before distribution, risks can be minimized.

Finally, any potential implementation partners need to be identified.

## **7. Current and potential constraints**

Emergencies present a diverse, and often extreme, range of situations. Physical infrastructure can be destroyed or non-existent, basic conditions of shelter and water may be lacking or insecure, and the physical security of people, both those affected and aid workers, may be uncertain or at risk. In relation to education, school systems may be dysfunctional because the physical infrastructure such as schools and transport has been destroyed or is unusable, or because teachers have not been paid or are not available. It is important to identify not only the current constraints, but also any potential constraints that may arise as the situation continues, particularly in an unstable situation.

### Security

A safe and secure space for learning is prerequisite to the initiation of an SF programme. Possible risks, such as landmines, armed attacks, unstable structures or disease need to be identified. It is important to ensure that planned activities will not present additional risks to children and adults involved in the programme.

WFP needs to ensure that by facilitating and supporting structured learning activities or formal education systems that bring children from their homes, they are not placing these children at any additional risk. The risks that children face include those that arise while they are travelling to the place of learning, particularly regarding the personal security of girls, and those that arise from the assembly of groups in a single



place. The security of the place must be assured – both from attack and from already present dangers such as landmines. The safety of structures and of the environment must also be considered.

#### Gender and/or ethnic constraints

Quite often an emergency situation will affect different genders and different ethnic groups in different ways. As already stated, political, cultural, religious, economic and social constructs can limit the utilization of potential resources, and inadequate or inappropriate knowledge or discriminatory attitudes can limit access to resources and opportunities.

In conflict situations, men are often the primary casualties, and women are left to sustain their families' livelihoods.<sup>13</sup> Natural emergencies can also frequently lead to women being left while men travel to other regions to seek employment, food or other resources. When left to cope with sustaining their families' livelihoods, women are often displaced and/or unable to care or provide adequately for children and themselves.

Emergency scenarios related to conflict can make boys especially vulnerable to recruitment as child soldiers. In such situations, schools have been identified as a potentially protective place for boys. At the end of extended conflicts, during the rehabilitation phases, boys or young men of varying ages might be released from their armed duties' and find themselves needing or wanting access to the education that they have missed.

Whatever the circumstances of the emergency, the programme planner must look for and consider pre-existing or newly emerging issues that affect one gender or ethnic group in particular. When considering an SF programme, the identification of such issues affects both the arguments for SF, where food can be used to attract a vulnerable gender group to education or retain it in education, and the planning of the SF programme itself.

WFP has a commitment to ensuring that 50 percent of its resources dedicated to education activities benefit girls. The objective of increasing girls' enrolment and attendance may not need to be a priority if there is already equal and full participation of girls in schooling and/or if the emergency has not particularly affected girls' participation. It is necessary to determine these elements.

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and WFP have produced two documents that are useful for extending programme planners' analysis of the gender issues related to SF: *Socio-economic and gender analysis (SEAGA) guidelines for emergency programmes*, and *Passport to mainstreaming a gender perspective in emergency programmes: key analytical questions for designing gender-sensitive humanitarian interventions*. Both should be referred to.

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<sup>13</sup> FAO and WFP. 2002. *Passport to mainstreaming a gender perspective in emergency programmes: key analytical questions for designing gender-sensitive humanitarian interventions*. Rome.

## Legitimacy

In order to ensure that the education system within which WFP is supporting an SF programme is legitimate in the eyes of authorities and the community it is necessary to facilitate government cooperation and participation in the SF activities. Legitimacy is also important for ensuring that the investment made in and by the children who attend school and receive SP support is valuable in the long term.

In some emergencies, such as those related to civil or international conflict, there may be no clear government partner for planning and implementing SF activities. This may be the case in refugee populations, which – by definition – are nationals of one country displaced to another, or where there has been internal conflict leading to dysfunctional or disputed national government structures. In such cases, WFP should seek to identify some authority that is recognized by the target population and has some assumed responsibility for education services. This may be an interim government or administration, a subnational or regional authority or some sort of leadership structure recognized by the displaced population as representing its interests.

## **B. Designing the programme**

### **8. Developing the programme objectives**

The general objectives of SF are to contribute to improved scholastic performance, reduce short-term hunger and nutritional deficiencies, improve attendance and enrolment, improve concentration, and/or reduce gender or geographical disparities.

In an emergency setting, the objectives of SF remain much the same, but take on an extra dimension given the traumatic and/or disrupted conditions that children find themselves in. The hope is that SF programmes will protect children from risks and/or disruptions to their education, enhance their psychosocial development and alleviate strain on the family food supply.

When developing the objectives for an SF programme in an emergency situation, it is important to answer the question, Why school feeding?. It is necessary to understand the programme's focus in order to ensure that it is planned, monitored and evaluated effectively. A clear picture of the goals and objectives of the SF programme will also be necessary to justify and invite interest from partners, donors and government officials.

### **9. Target population**

Every programme involves some amount of targeting, whether it is broad – to all of those affected by the emergency in a specified region or country – or to a group affected by the emergency such as schoolchildren, pregnant women and infants. The extent to which targeting is necessary depends on the objectives of the programme and on the available resources. Clearly, in order to achieve objectives for particular

groups in the population, the programme for distributing food aid must target those groups.

Food security status, literacy statistics, enrolment and attendance data and/or environmental or economic measures of the emergency might be used to determine those schools or regions most affected or most in need of assistance. \*In establishing selection criteria, WFP should be cautious and aware of its mandate to provide for the hungriest and poorest. For example, schools should not be excluded from SF activities because they lack cooking facilities or are difficult to reach. If a school targeted for SF lacks cooking facilities or a water source, and WFP and/or the national government is likely to support an ongoing programme, WFP can consider working with its partners to build a kitchen or other food preparation infrastructure.

Targeting schools within a region where schools are located close to each other is generally not advisable, and targeting children within schools is certainly not advisable. While it may appear possible to distinguish between those children who need, or will benefit from, food – those most affected by the emergency or by poverty in general – and those who do not, treating children differently within the school setting is not socially desirable. A programme must plan to feed all children within a school, regardless of their individual circumstances.

## **10. Capacity building**

Facilities and operational capacity must be adequately reinforced in order to proceed with the SF programme. This includes effective procurement and contracting systems, including for transportation. Physical facilities must also be adequate. Arrangements and scheduling for the establishment of offices, warehouses and transport bases must be fixed. Telecommunications for offices, individuals, vehicles and convoys must be established and/or expanded. Vehicles, routes and travel time for office, staff and commodity transport, and the maintenance thereof, must be provided for.

## **11. Selection of commodities and nutritional considerations**

What are the cultural food preferences and tastes of the schoolchildren? What do they like and what do they eat? Food that is not eaten has no nutritional value.

A child aged 6 to 14 years requires 2,000 kcal. For general populations, the daily energy requirement is 2,100 kcal. Physical activity levels and climate should also be accounted for in making exact energy need calculations. The food provided to children through an SF programme is not always intended to be a significant part of each child's daily energy needs. As a food supplement programme in food-deficit areas, it is intended to be an "added extra" to the child's home diet, which – it is hoped – is provided regularly and is nutritionally adequate. In practice, however, SF is often provided to children who have not had a morning meal before attending school and/or who come from households where there is insufficient food, especially in emergency settings. Where there is inadequate food, families often adjust household food distribution patterns to take account of the SF programme, and less food is provided to children participating in the programme.

The amount of food provided through an SF programme needs to be sufficient to account for these possibilities. The amount provided is therefore intended to provide approximately a third of the child's daily energy requirements, i.e. 550 to 700 kcal. Where there is additional, reliable and timely information on the child's/family's food intake, however, the ration size may be adjusted accordingly.

If food is being provided to children in boarding schools or hostels, the WFP ration must be 100 percent of the daily need, unless there is another, highly reliable source of food factored into the programme plan.

In addition to ensuring that adequate energy needs are met, the SF ration should also aim to provide a significant proportion of the child's daily micronutrient needs such as minerals and vitamins such as iron, iodine and vitamin A through the use of fortified commodities. Salt, oil and blended foods can all be fortified, and wherever they are used as part of an SF ration they should be fortified. Dried skim milk (DSM) and pulses may need particular attention when the food basket for emergency SF is being designed.

#### DSM

Over the next few years, WFP expects to have access to a large quantity of DSM. Country offices will subsequently be encouraged to use this commodity in operations, where possible and appropriate. WFP Headquarters' nutrition section has prepared a policy guidance note on the use of DSM, which will be distributed to country offices. This should be referred to when planning food baskets. In general, the use of DSM is appropriate when it can be mixed with a cereal commodity and cooked. Indeed, in such instances it can add significant nutritional value in the form of protein and calcium. However, DSM can pose significant risks to children if it is used as a beverage because of the need to mix it with water, which is often contaminated, and because it can be overly diluted and of little nutritional value.

#### Pulses

The use of pulses as a protein source in the SF food basket should be well thought out and communicated to donors during the project design phase. To save on fuelwood, which is used regularly in SF programmes, yellow split peas or dried green peas are recommended because they are easier to cook and highly nutritious, and do not require long cooking hours. Other types, such as pinto or kidney beans, should be avoided as much as possible.

#### Take-home rations

With very few exceptions, take-home rations are used solely as an economic incentive to get children, usually girls, into school. The value of the ration is designed to match or exceed that of the child's labour or other economic value to the family, so that the decision is made to send the child to school rather than have her/him carry out other activities. Determining the ration size and composition should take account of market wage rates if those are the competition for the child's time and attendance at school.

The mechanism of take-home rations should not be used if children are already attending school. The take-home ration is only provided to children who meet minimum attendance requirements, but provision should be made for extenuating

circumstances such as illness that prevent a child from meeting these requirements. A risk with the attendance requirement is that a child will be forced to attend school when ill in order to ensure that the ration requirements are met.

A take-home ration is not expected to have a direct nutritional impact on the child because it is quite possible that it will be sold or dispersed widely among other family members.

The impact of take-home ration programmes should be monitored closely, especially in emergency settings where circumstances change over time. WFP should aim to phase out such programmes as soon as possible, in order to minimize the risk that community attitudes to education change or become dependent on a payment system to ensure children's participation in schooling.

Take-home rations are increasingly used as a mechanism for addressing the barriers to schooling for children affected by HIV, who may be orphaned, providing care to sick family members or earning to support younger family members. Preliminary research has shown that while a standard take-home ration such as a can of oil or bag of wheat may not be enough to make a big difference to children in such circumstances, at home or at school, the incentive created still goes a long way in encouraging families to enrol and retain children in school during the entire school period, particularly in emergency situations.

## **12. Addressing food safety and hygiene**

WFP's primary concern for food safety lies in the secure delivery and storage of food commodities and their safe preparation. Some investment in secure on-site food storage facilities may be needed before a programme is started. In non-emergency settings, this is often a component that partner governments, NGOs or communities can be asked to contribute to or be responsible for, but in emergency settings it must be expected that a partner's capacity to do this may be reduced.

Any institutionalized food production process must be acutely aware of the risks of food contamination. The risk of contamination often lies not in the food commodity itself but in the food preparation process, for example through handling or the use of contaminated water.

The programme's design should include training and provide materials to educate and empower food handlers. See WFP's *Food and nutrition handbook* and *School feeding handbook* for further information.

Water carries the greatest risk of contamination, and any use of it in food preparation must allow for handling procedures and cooking times and temperatures that ensure decontamination. In some SF operations there will be calls for children to have a drink with the food. This is reasonable, but safety issues must be considered. Contaminated water from a single source that is provided to all the children at a school can leave all children ill, with WFP viewed as the culprit. If there are available resources in terms of fuel, time and training to prepare water before distribution, this risk can be minimized. Alternatively, if each child is provided with a container and asked to bring

his/her own water or other beverage from home, the risk is dispersed through multiple sources of water and not directly associated with WFP's programme.

#### Hygiene and sanitation

The availability of potable water and operational sanitation facilities at schools must also be arranged. Food can be used as a resource to accomplish any work necessary to ensure this through food for work (FFW), and the development or rehabilitation of such facilities provides a good opportunity for involving the local community. The programme design should also account for these considerations.

#### Deworming

In many settings in which WFP works, children are at great risk of worm infection. Indeed, it is increasingly understood that school-age children are at high risk of worm infection. The provision of regular deworming treatments for children is increasingly recognized and accepted as a necessary part of a minimum package linked to SF interventions. The nutritional and educational value of an SF programme will be significantly reduced if children remain heavily infected. Treatments today are cheap and readily available, and the implementation of a feeding intervention provides an ideal mechanism for their effective and timely delivery.

### **13. HIV/AIDS**

All WFP programmes are expected to account for and address HIV-related concerns, wherever possible and appropriate. This is particularly relevant to SF because it is increasingly recognized that prevention education must start by the primary years at the latest in order to reduce infection rates effectively.

### **14. Time lines**

Development of a tentative time line for the SF programme should be part of the design process. The period during which assistance may be required should be noted, the time frame of expected actions calculated and possible contingencies planned for.

### **15. Donors**

The initial draft of a programme proposal for donors should be comprehensive and detailed about the ideal programme scenario. It should include all the assessed ration needs and, more important, the non-food items that will make programme implementation successful. These needs can range from funds for repairing or building kitchens and food storerooms to funds for the purchase of fuel-efficient stoves. Training needs, for example on food hygiene standards, and materials should also be considered. While donor(s) might not ultimately provide all such resources, it is beholden on WFP to provide an honest and complete assessment of what is needed for a successful programme. Subsequent decisions, cutbacks or outcomes can be explained relative to that assessment. Alternative funding or donor sources can be sought more readily if the full picture and needs are documented from the start.

## **C. Implementation**

### **16. Working with implementing partners**

There is no complete definition of an implementing partner (IP), and the role of an IP varies enormously depending on its resources and capacity. The IP often serves simply as a body contracted to implement a WFP programme. Usually, however, the IP also brings some resources to the programme. An example is in Chechnya, where a small NGO from the Czech Republic is working with WFP to implement school construction activities – the NGO provides materials and management, while WFP provides food for payment of workers.

In emergency settings, particularly after long periods of civil conflict or where there are displaced populations, the choice of IP may be limited. It is necessary to develop criteria for IP selection. In some cases, it may be appropriate to invest in the development of IP capacity. This may include inventory expansion, the creation of a database on IP performance, and/or information exchange and shared experience.

WFP should have a letter of understanding with each IP. Where the IP is the frontline agency for contact with school and education systems, there should also be a letter of understanding with each of the bodies in these school and education systems.

### **17. Working with government counterparts**

Where appropriate and possible, WFP's primary partner in an SF activity should always be the relevant national government. After establishing a partnership with the national government, local authorities should join the partnership according to the guidance and leadership of the national authorities. In many SF operations, the Ministry of Education is the relevant national counterpart for WFP, but this can vary according to the preferences and administrative structures of the government concerned. The circumstances of an emergency might also alter the pattern of such partnerships, as governments may establish an emergency-specific administrative structure that assumes leadership in coordinating all humanitarian relief-related activities.

### **18. Coordination among agencies and partners**

It is the responsibility of all agencies to make significant efforts to coordinate programmes, share information and, in particular, work collaboratively with whatever national government bodies exist to plan and implement programmes.

In the case of SF, if this is the first time that WFP has provided assistance to the education sector in the country, some effort should be made to identify and establish relations with those local or international organizations that have worked in the sector.

The aim of such contacts is to develop WFP's understanding of the sector and ensure the effective coordination of a new SF programme with existing education programmes. If WFP has already established an association with the education sector, but is switching or expanding to an emergency mode of operations, it may be necessary to coordinate with additional partners and stakeholders.

The Consolidated Appeal Process (CAP), whereby all United Nations agencies and many NGOs submit their programme proposals to donors in a single appeal document, is used in complex emergency settings, and facilitates coordination to some degree. In so far as all proposed programmes are represented in the CAP document, it is clear where there are overlaps in proposals, where there are gaps – assuming needs assessments have been done – and ultimately which programmes are funded and which are not. This is coordination at one level only and does not necessarily carry over to the implementation level, but it is a starting point from which relationships and information sharing can be developed. It is also a valuable tool for ensuring that donors, all agencies and the recipient government(s) have a record of what was proposed, what was funded and, ultimately, what was delivered.

## **19. Workshops and training sessions**

Workshops and training sessions with potential IPs, school staff, aid workers and members of the community may need to be arranged. The objective of these workshops and training sessions may be to explain the mechanisms of the programme, or simply to develop interest and garner support. Whatever the objectives of the workshops, the cooperation, coordination and training of all key stakeholders is necessary in order to ensure the success of the project.

## **20. Infrastructure**

Infrastructure for the storage, transportation, food preparation and sanitation necessary to implement the SF programme must be in place at all levels before delivery, food preparation and SF can begin. The safety of the structures and of the environment must also be considered.

## **21. Security and supervision**

Ensuring the safety and security of the learning environment is one of the most consequential tasks for SF in an emergency situation. From repairing structures and ensuring proper sanitation to providing guard or transportation services, creating a safe haven and refuge is critical to the success of the programme.

Security and supervision can also be an excellent opportunity for involving the community. The active participation of adults in such activities can bring structure and purpose to their days, as well as providing additional support to children in unstable or disrupted environments.



## 22. Monitoring and reporting

### Monitoring

The objectives of monitoring are to ensure that operations proceed as planned, resources are properly used and food is reaching the target beneficiaries, and changes in the situation that might call for the adjustment of the objectives, plans or procedures are detected.<sup>14</sup>

Checklists and guidelines that are adapted to local circumstances should be prepared and utilized immediately the programme is initiated and throughout the implementation process.

If a standard baseline assessment has been applied at the start of an SF operation, subsequent monitoring exercises should use tools derived from that assessment in order to collect data for tracking progress. The tools used in the baseline assessment can be used to develop a monitoring protocol that enables indicators in SF operations to be tracked over time.

Data should be collected on a regular basis and used to adjust the objectives, plans or procedures of the programme, as required.

### Reporting

Coordination among the key stakeholders for the purposes of reporting must be properly organized:

- WFP country office → WFP Headquarters;
- WFP country office → partner government;
- WFP → other United Nations and international aid agencies;
- WFP → donors;
- IPs → WFP.

## 23. Mitigation strategy

### Ration adjustments

Breaks or changes in the commodity pipeline can occur. Any subsequent adjustments to the SF ration must account for the impact on the overall energy value of the ration, its micronutrient value and any consequences for food storage and preparation procedures, for example greater storage capacity or more cooking time and hence the need for more fuel. The *Food and nutrition handbook* provides advice on ration substitutions that preserve nutritional value.

### Cutbacks

The programme response to reductions in resources for SF programmes should be carefully considered. In general, it is preferable for the country office to attempt to continue the programme with reduced rations. However, it should be noted that recent research has suggested that it might be more harmful to children to reduce a ration than to stop it all together. This is because the schoolchild's family may have adjusted

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<sup>14</sup> WFP. 2002. *Emergency field operations pocketbook*, p. 124. Rome.

its daily food distribution patterns to exclude a meal for that child because it is assumed that he/she gets it at school. If the amount of food a child gets at school is reduced, the likelihood of the family reintroducing that meal or part of it to the child is minimal. However, if the SF is stopped altogether, there is a greater chance of the family's food distribution patterns adjusting to account for this.

## **24. Media**

As the representatives of a high-profile aid organization that is often in the front-line of emergency responses, WFP officers have to be prepared to work with and utilize the media. The media cannot and should not be shut out unless exceptional circumstances jeopardize safety, security or basic operations. Potential collaboration or involvement with the media should be seen as an opportunity for visibility and recognition, which can lead to the improvement of WFP operations.

Where possible, it may be beneficial to designate a media liaison person, and possibly an associate liaison person for further support to the media. All approaches from the media to any WFP staff should be directed to these designated staff members.

Support to the media, as directed by the media liaison, should be a priority of all members of the WFP team, and should include:

- responding promptly and comprehensively to requests for information;
- proactively providing the media liaison with information that may generate media interest.

SF programmes can and should be positive success stories for WFP, particularly for communities in the midst of, or emerging from, emergency situations. Country offices should look for opportunities to share important information with local and international media. Media visits to schools or places of learning that are facilitated by WFP must, however, be cleared with the relevant authorities and, where necessary or appropriate, with parents whose children are asked to participate.

## **IV. Checklists**

**Checklist A: Planning for SF in an emergency setting - Situation analysis**

**Checklist B: Designing the programme**

**Checklist C: Implementation**

## **A. Planning for SF in an emergency setting – Situation analysis**

The factors, issues, people and institutions you need to know and understand in order to plan and implement the programme

### **1. Baseline assessment**

- What data are required for the baseline study?
- What data do you need to plan implementation compared with the data that are available, e.g. school locations (numbers, sites); expected student numbers; teacher numbers?
- Is there an opportunity to collect baseline data before you start the programme?

### **2. The nature of the situation**

- What is the nature of the situation (slow-onset or sudden)?
- Are some groups (cultural, age, gender) particularly vulnerable or affected by the emergency?

### **3. The stability of the situation**

- Is the situation stable (in the short/medium term), or still evolving?
- Are there other foreseeable contingencies (a new emergency or a major change to the existing emergency)?
- What factors can be identified that are likely to result in sudden and/or significant changes?

### **4. The current education system**

#### **The education system:**

- Is there a functioning education system?
- Are there more than one functioning systems within the target population?
- How has the current emergency affected the present education system(s)?
- Are school buildings and infrastructure lacking or destroyed (kitchens, sanitation facilities, storage)?
- What is the current condition of the learning environment (space, materials, classrooms, staff)?
- Is the situation the same for boys as for girls, or for the children of different geographic/ethnic backgrounds?
- Are children enrolled in and regularly attending school? If not, why not?
- Are children affected by hunger while they are at school (no breakfast, long distance to school, general malnutrition)?
- Are children affected by specific micronutrient deficiencies? Which ones?

**Curriculum and instruction:**

- Is there a common curriculum?**
- Is there a common language or languages of instruction?**
- Are there teachers, teaching aids and/or learning aids?**
- Is there a need for teacher training/re-training?**
- Is there a need for informal education and skills training programmes (for demobilized [child] soldiers, out of school children and/or other particularly disadvantaged groups)?**

**5. Key stakeholders**

Identify key stakeholders:

- Who is doing what?**
- Who is responsible for what?**
- Who is planning what?**
- Who is responsible for what resources?**
- Who is responsible for what decisions?**
- Other international organizations (e.g. UNICEF, UNESCO, ICRC).**
- NGOs, international and local.**
- Government:**
  - **What is the current status of the national and local government (legitimacy, interim)?**
  - **Who administers education?**
- Schools (teachers, principals, parent-teacher associations [PTAs])**
- Community (leaders, elders, religions, women's associations, health workers, other community groups).**
- Family:**
  - **What is the predominant structure?**
  - **Has the emergency affected the family structure?**
  - **Who makes decisions about children's (in particular girls') participation in education?**

**6. Available resources**

**For education** (See also: 4. The current education system):

- Are there safe learning spaces?**
- Are the available school facilities fully functioning?**
- Are there sufficient numbers of teachers and school staff to carry out the day-to-day running of the school?**

**For food-aid:**

- How urgent is it to start the food distributions?**
- What personnel are available to prepare the food?**
- What facilities are in place for the preparation of the food (school kitchens, storerooms, cooking/eating utensils, cooking fuel, water source)?**
- Is it feasible to put facilities in place? (\*see note on page 15)**
- Is there transportation/delivery/storage infrastructure?**
- What food commodities are going to be available?**

- Are there any school health programmes to complement/build on?
- Where and how quickly can commodities be acquired and delivered to food distribution points?
- Are there any current donor commitments?
- Are there any potential IPs?

## 7. Current and potential constraints

### **Security:**

- Are there safe learning spaces?
- Is there safe access to the learning spaces for children, teachers and aid workers?
- Is there a safe place for the preparation and/or distribution of food?
- Is the transport and delivery of food secure?
- Is the food stored securely?

### **Gender and/or ethnic constraints:**

- Are there particular constraints/issues for one gender or another?
- Are there particular constraints/issues related to specific groups (ethnic, geographic)?

### **Legitimacy:**

- Is there a clear government partner for the planning and implementation of SF activities?
- Does the creation and support of educational activities have the support of political/local leadership powers? If not, why not?
- Are there risks in proceeding without this support?
- Can proceeding without this support be justified?
- Can the partnership be developed?
- Can the programme be designed to develop and/or attract support?

## B. Designing the programme

Creating a clear picture of the objectives and design of the programme in order to ensure the programme is planned effectively

### 8. Programme objectives

- Why is an SF programme appropriate in the present situation?
- What are the objectives of this SF programme?
- Which of these objectives are specific to the emergency situation?
- Do you have the necessary data to justify the need to address these objectives (nutrition status, enrolment and attendance statistics)?

### 9. Target population

- Who are the target beneficiaries of the SF programme?
- Are you going to target particular groups within the population?  
(\*see note on page 18)
- Do you have the necessary data to determine those schools or regions most affected or most in need of assistance (food security status, literacy statistics, enrolment)?

### 10. Capacity building

- What capacity building activities are necessary before the start of the programme?
- What infrastructure has to be in place before food delivery can begin?
- What infrastructure has to be in place before food preparation and feeding of children can begin?
- What needs maintenance work?
- What procurement and contracting systems need to be arranged?
- What arrangements need to be made for the establishment of offices, warehouses and transport bases? Telecommunications? Vehicles and routes?

### 11. Selection of commodities and nutritional considerations

- What food are you going to provide?
- What food commodities are available?
- Are there particular problems of disease, malnutrition or infestation among the schoolchildren?
- Can micronutrient deficiencies be addressed through the selection of commodities or fortification?
- What are the cultural food preferences and tastes of the schoolchildren?

#### **DSM:**

- Is the use of DSM possible and/or appropriate?
- Will there be a risk of contamination or overdilution when mixed with water?
- Can DSM be mixed with a cereal commodity and cooked?

**Pulses:**

- Is the use of pulses (especially yellow split peas or dried green peas) possible and/or appropriate?

**Take-home rations** (see page 19):

- Will the programme include take-home rations?
- How will the programme be monitored?

**12. Addressing food safety and hygiene**

**Hygiene and sanitation:**

- Are sanitation facilities and potable water available at the schools?
- How can the programme design incorporate training to educate and empower food handlers?
- How can the risk of contamination be mitigated?

**Deworming:**

- Is there a problem of infestation with intestinal helminths among the schoolchildren?
- Will provision of regular deworming treatments be a necessary part of the SF intervention?

**13. HIV/AIDS**

- Are HIV/AIDS preventive education programmes currently available for schoolchildren?
- How can HIV/AIDS preventive education be incorporated into the design of the SF programme?
- What contingency plan will there be for when teachers succumb to HIV/AIDS?

**14. Time lines**

- What is the likely duration of the assistance operation?
- What are your time lines?
- What data are available for each phase of the operation (initial assessment, baseline study, monitoring)?
- What capacity building activities will there be prior to the start of the programme, and what is the likely starting date of SF?
- When will donor resources be available?
- When will food be available?
- How will relief (and later recovery) assistance be phased out, and how will the smooth transition to a subsequent development phase be achieved, where appropriate?



## **15. Donors**

- Who are the potential donors?**
- Has the initial programme proposal been drafted? (An initial comprehensive and detailed programme proposal about the ideal programme scenario should be drafted for the donors.)**
- Are there donors or other organizations currently working to address the same issues?**

## C. Implementation

Facilitation of a successful programme, coordination of key stakeholders, and continual evaluation and monitoring

### 16. Working with implementing partners (IPs)

- Meetings should be arranged with IPs.
- You may need to have workshops or briefing sessions with potential IPs to explain the mechanisms for the programme and develop interest and/or support.
- There should be a letter of understanding between WFP and each of the schools, education systems and IPs.

### 17. Working with government counterparts

- Meetings with government counterparts should be arranged.
- If endorsement by the government counterpart has not already been received, follow-up to encourage and attract this support must be carried out.
- Has the government established an emergency-specific administrative structure to coordinate humanitarian relief activities?
- With whom in the government is the partnership established? (Is there a liaison?)
- How is the structure of the government counterpart arranged?

### 18. Coordination among agencies and partners

- Who are the key stakeholders and IPs involved, and who is responsible for what?
- Is there a coordination mechanism for the education sector?
- How will information be shared?
- Has contact been made with every level of all the related organizations that have worked in the sector before?
- What are the expectations of donors?
- What are the expectations of partner governments and officials?
- What are the expectations of each of the key stakeholders?
- How do these targets and expectations match with your time lines?
- Is there a need for the Consolidated Appeal Process (CAP)? (see page 23)

### 19. Workshops and training sessions

- What workshops and training sessions need to be arranged, and which stakeholders will be involved (IPs, school staff, aid workers, members of the community)?
- What will the objectives of these sessions be?

## 20. Infrastructure

- Is the necessary infrastructure in place?
- Maintenance of the infrastructure must be monitored and sustained throughout the project.

## 21. Security and supervision

- How can the community be involved in security and supervision?
- What repairs, guard services or transportation services will be necessary to ensure the safety of all those involved?

## 22. Monitoring and reporting

### Monitoring:

- Are the objectives proceeding as planned?
- Are the resources being properly utilized?
- Is the food reaching the target beneficiaries?
- Are there any changes to the situation that call for adjustments of the objectives, plans or procedures?
- Are the checklists and guidelines properly adapted to the local circumstances?
- Are all indicators consistently being tracked over time?
- Is the collection of data sufficient for tracking progress?

### Reporting:

- How is coordination among the key stakeholders for the purposes of reporting organized?
  - WFP country office → WFP Headquarters;
  - WFP country office → partner government;
  - WFP → other United Nations and international aid agencies;
  - WFP → donors;
  - IPs → WFP.

## 23. Mitigation strategy

- How does your implementation strategy mitigate and/or account for the risks identified?

### Ration adjustment:

- In case of breaks or changes in the commodity pipeline, how will the subsequent adjustments account for the impact on the overall energy value of the ration, its micronutrient value, food storage and preparation procedures?

### Cutbacks:

- In case of reductions in available resources, how will the programme continue?
- What proactive measures or adjustments can be made to maintain the project?

## **24. Media**

- How will you work with and utilize the media?**
- What role do you want the media to play?**
- What role is the media likely to play?**
- What issues are the media most likely to focus on?**
- Who will be the media liaison person?**
- Who will be the associate media liaison person?**
- What measures are being taken to keep the liaison up to date and informed about implementation of the programme?**
- Is everyone proactively providing the media liaison with information that may generate media interest?**
- How can media coverage be utilized for visibility and recognition?**
- Are requests for information being responded to promptly and comprehensively?**
- Are media visits to schools or places of learning cleared with the relevant authorities and parents (when necessary)?**

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