ORIENTATION FRAMEWORK

EMERGENCY AID

Humanitarian Assistance for Victims of Natural Disasters and Conflicts
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Checklists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Do no harm in emergency aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Special needs of women in emergency aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Special needs of people with HIV&amp;Aids in emergency aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Criteria for partner organisations in emergency situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Checklist for rapid needs assessment (Emergency assessment checklist)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Section A: Initial assessment questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Section B: General &amp; planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Section C: Sectors of support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Food Security, Health, Water &amp; Sanitation, Shelter, Non-food Items, Education and other social needs)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Theory and tables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Definitions: emergency aid, rehabilitation and development cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Code of conduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Schematic representation of the contiguum concept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Population groups in emergency situations (vulnerable groups)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(women, children and youth, older people, people with HIV&amp;Aids, people with physical or mental handicaps, minorities)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Protection of target groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Make-up of a packet of household goods and hygiene articles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Options for emergency shelter and their assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>The UN-clusters and their coordination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Emergency aid financing tools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>The successful application of the LRRD approach in Mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Risk minimisation (Protection) by means of targeted programme planning based on the example of Sudan and Burundi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Welthungerhilfe's Food-for-Work Programme in Machakos, Kenya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Cooperation within the Alliance 2015 following the Java earthquake in 2006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Since 1962 Welthungerhilfe has been supporting people in developing countries in their fight against hunger and poverty. The principle of “help towards self-help” is the determining guiding theme of its work in this area. For only if at an early stage people are put in the position of being personally responsible for providing their livelihood can our help be of lasting effect and also contribute to the development of a country.

Welthungerhilfe is an “integrated” provider of aid. This means that the organisation is present during the emergency aid effort, and in the rehabilitation and development co-operation phases, in order to support people effectively.

In this context, emergency aid means rapid assistance in an acute emergency situation, for instance after a natural disaster, or following an armed conflict. The people affected are supplied with the bare essentials for ensuring their immediate survival. Generally, this is short-term aid lasting for a period of only a few months. However, in countries such as Sudan emergency aid has now been provided for several years, since there is no prospect of lasting political solutions between the parties to the conflict, and the stability required for rehabilitation and development cooperation is therefore still lacking.

Over the last two decades, natural disasters and conflicts, and with them the need for providing emergency aid, have increased noticeably across the world. As an aid agency, Welthungerhilfe today finds itself operating in an environment which is characterised by a growing demand for rapid and professional aid, but also by changed political framework conditions.

This Welthungerhilfe “Orientation framework: emergency aid“ is intended to provide support to our employees and our partner organisations in planning and implementing emergency operations in acute crisis and disaster situations. It portrays Welthungerhilfe's most important areas of activity in the field of emergency aid, and sets the framework for the principles and the quality standards which the organisation commits itself to upholding. In doing so, its contents and methods follow on from the “Orientation framework: rehabilitation in overseas co-operation”, and also from other Welthungerhilfe working papers. At the same time however, the orientation framework is directed at actors on the international stage, to inform them of the positioning and basic principles of Welthungerhilfe’s work in this area.

Mathias Mogge
Executive Director Programmes
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of abbreviations</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Explanation of terms and changed framework conditions</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Explanation of terms and delineation of emergency aid</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Changes in the framework conditions for emergency aid</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Overriding quality standards and principles of emergency aid</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Overriding quality standards</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1 The Code of conduct</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2 The Sphere standards</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Further Welthungerhilfe emergency aid principles</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1 Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development (LRRD)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 Conflict-sensitive action</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3 Help towards self-help and strengthening of civil society</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Population groups in emergency situations</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Women</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Children and youth</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Older people</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 People with HIV&amp;AIDS</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 People with physical or mental handicaps</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6 Minorities and marginalised groups</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Protection of target groups</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Institutional anchoring of emergency aid within Welthungerhilfe</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 The development of the emergency aid sector of support</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Principles of decision-making</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Partner focus in emergency aid</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 Emergency aid areas of activity and main sectors of support</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.1 Food aid</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.2 Water supply and sanitation</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.3 Household goods and sanitary articles (non-food items)</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.4 Temporary and semi-permanent accommodation</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5 The implementation of emergency aid programmes and projects</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.1 Cooperation and coordination</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2 Cooperation within the framework of Alliance2015</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.3 Emergency aid financing tools</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Challenges for the future</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1 Checklist: Do no harm in emergency aid</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2 Checklist for the consideration of the special needs of women in emergency aid</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3 Checklist for the consideration of the special needs of people with HIV&amp;AIDS in emergency aid</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4 Checklist for partner organisations in emergency situations</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5 Checklist for rapid needs assessment (Emergency Assessment Checklist)</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Selected references ........................................ 59

Selected websites on the subject .......................... 61

Previously published Welthungerhilfe working papers .... 62
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA  (German) Ministry of Foreign Affairs  
AIDS  Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome  
BMZ  (German) Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development  
CERF  Central Emergency Response Fund  
CRED  Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters  
DAC  Development Assistance Committee  
DRM  Disaster Risk Management  
ECHO  European Commission Humanitarian Aid Department  
EC  European Commission  
GTZ  German Agency for Technical Cooperation  
HIV  Human Immunodeficiency Virus  
HIVOS  (Dutch) Humanist Institute for Development Cooperation  
IASC  Inter-Agency Standing Committee  
ICRC  International Committee of the Red Cross  
IFRC  International Federation of the Red Cross  
IOM  International Organization for Migration  
LRRD  Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development  
NGO  Non-Governmental Organisation  
OCHA  Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs  
ODA  Official Development Assistance  
ODI  Overseas Development Institute  
OECD  Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development  
PIN  (Tzech) People in Need  
TEC  Tsunami Evaluation Coalition  
UN  United Nations  
UNHCR  United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees  
VENRO  Association of (German) Development-Oriented Non-Governmental Organisations  
WFP  World Food Programme  
WHO  World Health Organisation
EXPLANATION OF TERMS AND
CHANGED FRAMEWORK CONDITIONS

1.1 Explanation of terms and delineation of emergency aid

Emergency aid

Emergency aid is short-term immediate and survival aid for victims of natural disasters or violent conflicts. The primary focus is on the direct alleviation of the suffering of those affected. In contrast to more long-term development cooperation, emergency aid is bound by the principles of impartiality, independence and neutrality. It avoids any one-sided favouring of a group of persons and does not seek to resolve conflicts and/or to remedy their causes. This is intended to achieve the acceptance of the aid by all parties to the conflict - as is their duty under international humanitarian law (Geneva Convention).

Development-oriented emergency aid

Development-oriented emergency aid means measures that do not merely constitute survival aid, but are intended to create conditions for sustainability. They already show a structural effect, and they prepare the ground for more long-term programme approaches.

Institutionally speaking, in Germany humanitarian aid is anchored in the Foreign Ministry (AA), and development-oriented emergency aid lies in the remit of the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ).\(^1\)

Rehabilitation

The term rehabilitation encompasses measures for remedying various types of damage caused by a natural disaster or a violent conflict. Here, the term “Reconstruction” refers to the rectifying of the material damage, while rehabilitation measures serve the restoration of the physical and psychological well-being of the people affected, and of institutions ability to function. In Welthungerhilfe’s use of language, the term “Rehabilitation” has come to be used for this whole area of activity.

Development Co-operation

Development co-operation involves measures, mainly over a number of years, whose aim is a long-term and sustainable improvement in the economic, social, ecological and political living conditions of the people in the partner country. Development co-operation encompasses the following types of cooperation: financial (loans and grants on favourable terms); technical

\(^1\) cf. for details on this subject: BMZ: Konzept für Maßnahmen der Entwicklungsorientierten Not- und Übergangshilfe. Bonn, 2005 (Concept for development oriented emergency aid)
(advice, training and supply of work materials for local organisations and experts); and cooperation on the level of personnel (secondment of experts). It is based on inter-governmental agreements, and unlike emergency aid, it is tied to political conditions (e.g. “Good Governance” and sector-specific focuses).

### Table 1: Definitions: emergency aid, rehabilitation and development cooperation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Emergency aid</th>
<th>Rehabilitation</th>
<th>Development Co-operation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Precondition</strong></td>
<td>acute emergency situation due to natural disaster or armed conflict. Humanitarian principles: impartiality, independence, neutrality</td>
<td>improved framework conditions:</td>
<td>favourable development-political conditions:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>cease-fire</td>
<td>stable economic-political conditions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>security situation</td>
<td>rule of law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>political will for reconstruction</td>
<td>development-oriented government actions</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Timeframe</strong></td>
<td>Short-term</td>
<td>Medium-term</td>
<td>Long-term</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives</strong></td>
<td>ensuring survival, saving of human life</td>
<td>restoration of political and social stability, medium-term security of the livelihood of the population</td>
<td>sustainable development processes, structural changes, strengthening of capacity for selfhelp, long-term improvement of living conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measures</strong></td>
<td>Distribution of food, blankets and tents, provision of drinking water, medical provision, basic education and protection</td>
<td>reconstruction of the basic infrastructure, distribution of means of production (seeds, tools), building of institutional structures, repatriation of refugees and displaced persons, treatment of war traumas</td>
<td>advice, advanced training, supply of work materials, issuing of loans or grants, secondment of experts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Related terms</strong></td>
<td>Emergency relief aid, immediate aid, disaster response, survival aid, food aid</td>
<td>reconstruction</td>
<td>development aid, development-cooperation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following factors are of decisive importance in assessing whether and when a pure emergency aid measure should be carried forward into a rehabilitation measure:

- a positive assessment of the current situation (positive prospects);
- improved framework conditions, e.g. security situation, cease-fire;
- the expected durability of the planned rehabilitation measure;
- the readiness to help themselves of the affected population and of the institutions taking part.

Only when these criteria are met will the transition to reconstruction and rehabilitation with a medium-term and long-term focus will have a good prospect of success.

Emergency aid is provided in the context of disasters and crises. In a disaster, a society’s ability to function is undermined or destroyed by an often sudden and unexpected event that causes large human, material or ecological losses. The triggers for this may be natural factors as well as man-made causes.

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2 cf. on this subject: BMZ Glossary: www.bmz.de/de/service/glossar/e_h.html
However, extreme weather events or volcanic eruptions do not necessarily have to end in a disaster. A situation only becomes disastrous if the people affected do not succeed in coping with the consequences of these events. If this is not the case, then the term natural event is used.

The term crisis is used to describe an (insidious) escalation of societal conflicts which can no longer be overcome using existing resolution approaches. This may lead to armed conflicts within the countries concerned, or wars between states.

Whilst slowly developing emergency situations such as droughts and the loss of harvests can be foreseen with the help of early warning systems, and allow scope for the preparation of the appropriate intervention measures and structural measures, in the case of sudden disasters, or after during an armed conflict, urgent survival aid is necessary.

If a natural disaster occurs for instance in the context of a war, this situation is referred to as a so-called complex emergency, a complex humanitarian emergency situation. Often such situations are characterised by a multitude of actors exerting influence (e.g. neighbouring states), and/or they have cross-border repercussions on the population of neighbouring countries.

A protracted crisis on the other hand describes a long-lasting crisis which can lead to emergency aid having to be delivered not just on a strictly time-limited basis, but is stretching over many months or even years (e.g. Sudan and Somalia). Despite the continuing deprivation of the civilian population, these countries are often in danger of being forgotten.

1.2 Changes in the framework conditions for emergency aid

The framework conditions in which emergency aid is delivered have changed dramatically in recent years.

Due to the noticeable increase in weather-related natural disasters resulting from global climate change, the number of people whose medium-/long-term livelihood is destroyed by natural disasters is increasing every year. Due to unconstrained population growth, mankind’s susceptibility is increasing, above all in the poorer countries of the world, because in such countries poverty causes increased numbers of people to settle in areas at risk.

The number of armed conflicts has also increased over recent decades. In this regard we should above all mention intra-state conflicts which increasingly cause larger numbers of civilian casualties. Failed states with their often confused lines of conflict likewise present new challenges for the aid agencies. Here, competition for scarce resources is often the decisive motivation behind many long-lasting conflicts.

If humanitarian aid, which is actually intended to be provided independently and impartially according to need, is misused based on the political or military interests of a state, it runs the risk of losing its raison d’être i.e. its purely humanitarian character. For this reason non-governmental organisations take a critical view also of the increasing involvement of national and multinational armed forces in humanitarian aid work – in particular in the context of armed conflicts such as, for instance, in Afghanistan or the Balkans. As part of the guidelines for co-operation between Welthungerhilfe’s staff and military forces, the organisation has adopted the following position:

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4 ibid.
Figure 1: Number of natural disasters reported 1900 – 2007

Figure 2: Intra- and Interstate conflicts of high intensity 1945 – 2008


Quelle: Heidelberger Institut für Internationale Konfliktforschung e. V., Conflict Barometer 2008.
If projects are carried out in war and crisis zones, the principle which applies is that humanitarian work should preferably be carried out without direct co-operation with armed forces.

As a result of conflict situations becoming increasingly complex in some countries, and as a consequence of the often blurred distinction between the humanitarian mandate of an aid agency and the political/military objectives of the so-called international community, in recent years the staff of aid agencies have increasingly suffered from acts of violence targeted against them. Aid agencies can be picked out as a particularly exposed target, seen as representing international involvement as a whole. The aid agencies face the challenge of minimising the risks for their national and international staff, without at the same time losing access to the affected population. In this respect, acceptance, as a fundamental element of the security strategies of non-governmental organisations, is critically dependent on the degree to which the aid provided is seen as being independent, impartial and neutral.

The increasing use of the media is also having a noticeable effect on the provision of emergency aid. Global reporting now brings the dramatic images of humanitarian disasters into people’s living rooms across the world in “real time”. This represents an opportunity, but equally a risk, for emergency aid work. On the one hand, people’s attention is drawn to the suffering of the people affected, and financial assistance (both public and private) is then usually provided immediately. On the other hand, we should ask ourselves to what extent the type and scale of aid provided is now often determined by the form the reporting takes, rather than by actual needs. An event often only receives the attention it deserves by being reported in the media. Many disasters which are either not taken up, or only briefly taken up, by the media risk not being noticed, or being quickly forgotten. This danger exists even within the donor organisations and aid agencies. Aid agencies are required to work with the media in a responsible and credible manner, and in their portrayal of the aid, to respect the dignity of the people concerned.

The interaction between the significant increase in conflicts and disasters and the increasing reporting by the media has in recent years also influenced the provision of financial resources for aid projects. The financial share of emergency aid within the so-called Official Development Assistance (ODA) has continually grown, from an average of 1.8% between 1983 and 1985 to 7.8% in 2002. In 2005, with over US$ 12 billion, the countries of the West provided the largest amount to date for emergency aid. Even if in 2005 the worldwide response to the tsunami overshadowed all previous aid operations, the upwards trend in emergency aid funding is a continuous phenomenon.

If one looks at the per-head distribution of emergency aid across the globe, a clear imbalance can be seen: whilst in 2005 an average of US$ 30 was spent per person (targeted beneficiary), after the tsunami the affected population benefited from more than US$ 1,000 per head. All the same, the aid which was provided in Sudan in the same year works out at an average of about US$ 400 per person concerned.

Investigations have now proved that there is a correlation between the percentage financial coverage of a UN Appeal (appeal for funding) for a country and the number of reports about

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7 cf. on this subject: the DAC database at: www.oecd.org
that country. Other causes must however also be cited: e.g. the selection of priorities for financing based on strategic and/or geographical considerations, or alternatively the fact that the consequences of chronic structural crises cannot easily be quantified.

The aid agencies are confronted by this imbalance on a daily basis. In the case of so-called “forgotten crises”, they are required to use targeted lobbying work to try to bring the financing of aid in line with actual needs. If however a disaster is given a lot of public exposure, the organisations not infrequently find themselves under considerable pressure to contribute towards the prompt flow of funds from national and international donor organisations. In the implementation of the aid measures these considerations should not however lead to quality standards and humanitarian principles being subordinated to the pressure from donors, the media and the public at large for a quick and visible flow of funds and for fundraising marketing to be focused on maximising volume.

9 idib. p. 17.
The planning and implementation of emergency relief aid projects are for the most part subject to considerable time pressures and logistical challenges. This does not however mean that any requirement for quality and efficiency can be subordinated to pragmatic considerations. The most important quality standards and principles, which largely determine how Welthungerhilfe implements emergency projects, are explained below.

Emergency projects must be measured against these standards and principles. Welthungerhilfe’s Evaluation Division has developed corresponding Terms of Reference for evaluating emergency projects in which these quality characteristics may be found as evaluation criteria.

2.1 Overriding quality standards

2.1.1 The Code of conduct

The Code of Conduct\textsuperscript{10} was initiated in 1994 by the Red Cross Movement and contains a catalogue of ten internationally recognised guiding principles, which define the basic stance of humanitarian action in disaster and crisis situations. A list of the signatories as well as further explanations can be viewed on the ICRC website.\textsuperscript{11}

Welthungerhilfe already signed this Code of Conduct in 1994, thereby pledging itself to uphold it. The means by which Welthungerhilfe implements the respective principles are shown in the explanations of the individual principles.

\textbf{Code of Conduct}

1. The Humanitarian imperative comes first:
   The right to humanitarian aid and the right to provide humanitarian aid is the basic humanitarian principle. As an aid agency with many years’ experience of emergency aid, Welthungerhilfe recognises that it is its duty to provide emergency aid whenever it is required - impartially and without making political value judgements. Here, the alleviation of the suffering of the people affected is the primary motivation (needs-focused).

\textsuperscript{10} The full title is: \textit{Code of Conduct for the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and NGO’s in Disaster Relief}. Alongside the ten basic principles, it also contains guidelines for the governments of the affected countries and the donor countries, as well as for supra-national organisations. To date however, these guidelines are scarcely known about.

\textsuperscript{11} Further information is available at: www.icrc.org
2. **Aid is given regardless of the race, creed or nationality of the recipients and without adverse distinction of any kind. Aid priorities are calculated on the basis of need alone:**

   The extent of need is the sole determinant of the nature and scope of the aid provided by Welthungerhilfe. Its aid programmes are based on the thorough assessment of the actual needs as well as of the local capacities available on the ground. Here, Welthungerhilfe is guided by the principle of proportionality. The aid must be organised in an appropriate and needs-focused manner.

3. **Aid will not be used to further a particular political or religious standpoint:**

   The provision of humanitarian aid is not subject to the making of any conditions.

4. **We shall endeavour not to act as instruments of government foreign policy:**

   As an NGO with a humanitarian remit, Welthungerhilfe fundamentally acts independently of governments. It formulates its own set of objectives and strategies instead of implementing the policies of a government. The financing of Welthungerhilfe’s emergency aid is not subject just to a single government donor. By differentiating between sources of finance (public and private), dependencies are avoided, and our independence as an organisation is strengthened.

5. **We shall respect culture and custom:**

   In planning and implementing aid programmes, Welthungerhilfe has regard to local customs and cultures. It incorporates local resolution approaches and preferences, e.g. in the selection of aid goods, into its considerations.

6. **We shall attempt to build disaster response on local capacities:**

   Even in an emergency situation, all people and societies possess potential which is necessary to use in emergency relief and survival aid. Welthungerhilfe endeavours to incorporate these local skills and capacities into the implementation of aid programmes. Furthermore, by employing local staff or by purchasing local products (e.g. food), local potential is strengthened. As far as possible, Welthungerhilfe collaborates with local partner organisations when planning and implementing its programmes.

7. **Ways shall be found to involve programme beneficiaries in the management of relief aid:**

   The involvement of the people affected in the planning and implementation of aid assistance is for Welthungerhilfe not only an expression of their human dignity, but at the same time it makes an important contribution to the efficiency and effectiveness of an emergency aid programme.

8. **Relief aid must strive to reduce future vulnerabilities to disaster as well as meeting basic needs:**

   Even emergency aid which is delivered in the short-term has an effect on the development prospects of the affected target groups. These effects can be positive, but they may also be negative. Therefore, even emergency aid measures should be planned in such a way that they actively reduce the target group’s vulnerability to future disasters, and make an early contribution to creating a safeguarded means of livelihood. Where it is provided without regard for economic and cultural framework conditions, emergency relief can however lead to target dependence upon aid supplies..
9. We do not hold ourselves accountable only to the funding organisations and donors, but also to the target groups:

Regular monitoring and analysis of effectiveness is ensured by Welthungerhilfe. In order to ensure transparency vis à vis the target group, Welthungerhilfe communicates, for instance, its selection criteria for the distribution of aid goods, and punishes any attempted corruption or misuse by its staff. The use of funds is checked and clearly disclosed to funding organisations and donors on a regular basis.

10. In our information, publicity and advertising activities, we shall recognize disaster victims as dignified humans, not hopeless objects.

It is important to Welthungerhilfe to protect the human dignity of the people affected in emergency situations, and to convey an objective picture of the emergency situation. Press and public relations work is used responsibly in order to create public awareness of the situation of the people affected. However, the nature and scope of the emergency aid to be provided should not be made dependent on criteria of effectiveness in terms of publicity, nor should spectacular pictures be used to compete against other aid agencies.

2.1.2 The Sphere standards

The Sphere standards are the result of an international consultation process on the part of humanitarian institutions and Red Cross Movement, which was started in 1997 with the aim of developing uniform qualitative minimum standards for humanitarian aid. The standards are based on the basic assumption that, even in a disaster situation, each individual has the right to life with dignity, and this is expressed in the form of a minimum basic level of provision.

The Sphere handbook contains as its core components (a) the Humanitarian Charter which outlines five fundamental principles of international humanitarian law and of protection for refugees, as well as the right to live in dignity (b) eight inter-sectoral minimum standards, (c) technical standards in the four emergency relief aid sectors, and also (d) the Code of Conduct.

The eight cross-cutting minimum standards are process-related:

1. Participation by the affected population;
2. Setting objectives for a needs assessment;
3. Criteria for the necessity of a humanitarian measure;
4. Criteria for the selection of a target group;
5. Impact-monitoring;
6. Evaluation;
7. Professional expertise and responsibilities of the aid personnel;
8. Personnel management.

12 The term Sphere (or globe) refers to the universal applicability of the standards.
Technical minimum standards are defined for the four emergency aid sectors:
1. Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion;
2. Food Security, Nutrition and Food Aid;
3. Shelter, Settlement and Non-Food Items,

The importance of Sphere is seen above all in the clear qualitative standards and indicators. In addition, there are detailed explanations for each standard, as well as practical check lists for assessing needs. Meanwhile, donor institutions such as ECHO now require the Sphere standards to be taken into account when making an application.

One must qualify this by pointing out that the standards cannot always be implemented at the beginning of an emergency project, and in some areas differing quantitative standards are also required by various institutions (UNHCR, WFP), and these standards may then be equally decisive for the project implementation. For the WFP, therefore, its own internal rations apply for the distribution of food.

Therefore, for Welthungerhilfe, its commitment to the Sphere standards means that these important targets are demonstrably taken into account in project planning. However, the validity and appropriateness of the standards must be checked anew for each context. The fact that Sphere standards cannot be fully achieved in a particular context cannot be used as a reason for not responding to a requirement that exists for aid to be provided.

2.2 Further Welthungerhilfe emergency aid principles

As well as the inter-organisational quality standards described, further important principles are regarded as crucial by Welthungerhilfe in emergency aid:

2.2.1 Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development (LRRD)

Numerous long-drawn-out conflict situations have shown that the textbook straight-line chronological progression from emergency aid to development cooperation (continuum) does not correspond to reality in many situations. In practice, the three phases often co-exist with differing emphasis depending on the time, place and the target group. So, life continues during violent conflicts and people still try to till their fields, or they undertake trading activities. A target group may also be thrown back to an earlier state of existence by the renewed outbreak of a conflict or by the occurrence of another natural disaster, with the result that today one talks of a so-called contiguum (lat.: »bordering«, »adjacency«) to better describe the interaction of emergency, rehabilitation and development co-operation.

In order to respond appropriately to these complex humanitarian emergency situations, the possibilities for efficiently linking emergency, rehabilitation and development co-operation are discussed as an approach for resolving these multifaceted problem areas.
All three elements of this concept, which has found its way into the development politics debate as LRRD (Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development)\(^\text{14}\), cannot therefore be viewed in isolation from each other, since they follow different principles and objectives, and each has its own specific methodological and qualitative requirements which must be taken into account.

In order to comply with the LRRD requirement, programmes and projects in emergency relief should therefore fulfil the following criteria\(^\text{15}\):

- the measures contribute towards disaster prevention/risk minimisation (risk reduction);
- implementation of, and support for, the various project phases is not divided between various actors, but is undertaken by a single body. To the extent that this is not possible, coordination and co-operation is sought with other organisations working in a complementary manner;
- the target groups participate from the outset in the project planning measures;
- structures and capabilities for self-help are incorporated, reinforced and further developed in the emergency aid and rehabilitation activities;
- where possible, the aid is provided via local partner organisations, and the projects contribute towards building links between them;
- as a rule, no isolated single measures are supported. Rather, at an early stage an attempt is made to plan and implement integrated programmes whose aim is a comprehensive improvement in living conditions.

 Welthungerhilfe actively implements the LRRD approach by means of its «integrated aid» approach. As an organisation which wants to enable its target groups to provide for themselves independently, both now and in the future, the efficient meshing of emergency, rehabilitation and development cooperation measures is an important concern. In line with this approach, Welthungerhilfe always endeavours, even in the context of emergency aid, to incorporate –

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\(^{15}\) idib. p. 6.
right in the early stages - approaches which promote structures for carrying over short-term emergency relief into the following rehabilitation phase and the more long-term development co-operation. This implies that the decision to initiate an emergency project in a region often means the organisation must also decide on a medium- to long-term commitment to the population affected, in so far as this is required and made possible by local needs and the local situation. However, in countries with a high risk of sudden humanitarian disasters and limited capacities for providing for the people affected, a time-limited project may also make sense if local organisations and other cooperation partners can again take over the care for and the support of the population once the immediate suffering has been alleviated.

In practice, the consistent implementing of LRRD often proves to be difficult, and presents the implementing organisations with a variety of challenges:

a) finances for subsequent phases must be available at an early stage in order to provide planning certainty;

b) our own employees as well as the staff of the partner organisations must have a command of the various contiguum methods and approaches, or

c) experts deployed on a short-term basis for emergency aid must be supplemented at an early stage and seamlessly by experts in rehabilitation and rural development programmes, and

d) a so-called exit strategy must be incorporated in the planning at an early stage.

However, if there is a conflict between acting quickly and acting sustainably, in the case of doubt a decision should always be made for rapid aid, since saving life remains the primary aim of emergency aid.

The successful application of the LRRD approach in the integration of returnees from the Ivory Coast in their home country of Mali

Together with five national NGOs, Welthungerhilfe started up a programme in Mali which particularly addressed the economic hardship of the returnees, and which combined emergency aid with rehabilitation and development projects. The funds required were provided by BMZ/GTZ, Welthungerhilfe, WFP, FAO and UNICEF.

As part of the emergency aid, the women and men received food aid when they arrived in Mali. Alongside this, vegetable gardens were supported with Food-for-Work measures, and income-generating projects were initiated. Part of the transition to rehabilitation was the construction and extension of schools. Additional income-oriented activities on the part of the women, such as the selling of fabrics or small articles, were supported by solidarity funds of the women’s associations. The members were provided with small-scale loans which went hand in hand with training measures. Finally, training in managing the sustainable implementation of the initiatives marked the start of development projects. This package of measures facilitated the taking up of independent income-earning activities for the returnees. The integration of the women into the village community was secured, as was funding for their children to attend school.
2.2.2 Conflict-sensitive action

Emergency relief is usually required after disasters or in the context of violent conflicts. This carries the danger of unintentionally contributing to the outbreak or intensification of conflicts - whether the emergency aid indirectly benefits the parties to the conflict or, e.g. due to an actual or perceived one-sided provision of aid, distribution conflicts are stirred up between the various population groups.

In practical project terms, conflict-sensitive action plays an ever more important role for Welthungerhilfe, and today it is anchored within numerous projects as an inter-disciplinary subject. An Orientation Framework for Conflict-Sensitive Action in Overseas Co-operation describes approaches and support measures, including for emergency aid, in the context of crisis prevention, conflict management and the promotion of peace. Due to the short-term nature and immediacy of emergency aid measures, the comprehensive set of tools for conflict analysis cannot always be borne in mind from the outset. However, even in emergency projects, care must be taken that conflicts are not unintentionally intensified, and that self-help approaches and potential are not destroyed on a lasting basis. This is not only a criterion for the success of the emergency aid project, but in terms of LRRD it is also an important pre-condition for subsequent construction and development measures.

In particular, the periodic carrying out of a Do No Harm analysis can reduce the potential danger, and focus emergency projects more on sensitivity to conflict. A methodical support tool is provided by the checklist, which contains the most important questions, in appendix 7.1 (Checklist: Do not harm in emergency aid).

2.2.3 Help towards self-help and strengthening of civil society

The self-help concept plays a central role in emergency aid, even if in many situations there initially appears to be only limited scope for help towards self-help. In most cases however, the people affected first of all help themselves, frequently using existing local networks. It is necessary to use these structures in a targeted manner in the context of an emergency aid project. The inclusion of civil society at the start of an emergency aid measure can promote acceptance of the necessary measures, and at the same time create a basis for the sustainability and continuation of activities initiated. This concerns in particular the planning of suitable measures, the recording of the level of need and the organisational support of emergency relief in the local context. In concrete terms this means:

- A check is made of which self-help structures are in existence and can be used. Often there are traditional mutual support groups such as family or neighbourhood associations which provide mutual support in the event of crises. Under no circumstances should emergency aid destroy or override these structures.
- Traditional survival strategies in emergency situations are identified and used. In many countries, there are frequently-recurring natural disasters such as floods as periods of drought. In these cases, the population has often developed specific survival strategies (e.g. maintaining stocks, or taking up non-agricultural work). These strategies can be further developed, and in certain circumstances they can also be used as a prevention strategy.

18 For a detailed description of the individual tools, see ibid.
The projects are set up in such a way that if the situation subsequently stabilises, the foundations for longer-term development have already been laid (LRRD). As well as the principles referred to above, this includes endeavouring to plan aid as soon as possible in such a way that the people affected can regain their means of existence.
In acute emergency situations, the aid measures - above all food aid, medical services and the provision of drinking water, as well as the provision of emergency shelters - are focussed towards the population which is directly affected. It is a principle of emergency aid that those people who are particularly vulnerable and at risk (vulnerable groups) are to be identified and supported. According to the Sphere handbook, these include: women, children, older people, people with disabilities (physical and mental), people with HIV&AIDS, and also ethnic minorities and socially marginalised groups. However, these people do not only have special needs, they also possess specific self-help potential which must be strengthened.

3.1 Women

In emergency situations the questions arises as to the gender-specific consequences for the people affected as well as to their needs. In numerous countries women are already structurally disadvantaged (legal discrimination, under-representation in decision-making bodies etc.), and following a disaster or violent conflict they are particularly affected by the consequences.

If one looks at emergency aid from the perspective of gender, the following should be borne in mind:

- Due to the absence of many men, women often have to ensure the survival of the family, which leads to a dramatic rise in the number of female heads of households, and to women being overburdened. In the domestic environment and in waged labour they take over tasks that were previously allotted to men.
- The particular needs of women for gender-specific aid measures, e.g. as regards their reproductive health (sanitary articles, care of pregnant and lactating women, contraceptives) or in regard to cultural factors, such as clothing adapted for women.
- The particular degree to which women are affected by the use of force (sexual violence, violence connected with war and domestic violence), which automatically result in a great need for security and protection (distance to distribution locations for aid measures, sanitary facilities etc).
- The structural disadvantaging of women in many societies which is characterised by low economic and social status, inadequate rights (less access to resources), restricted mobility, high work loads, less education and provision of advice, and consequently fewer opportunities to participate in the society.

20 cf. for details on this subject: Sphere handbook, p. 9 ff. www.sphere-project.org
Welthungerhilfe has anchored the theme of gender as an inter-disciplinary subject in its project work. A checklist with the most important key questions on the subject of gender in emergency relief has been drawn up by Welthungerhilfe for analysing in a consistent manner the level to which women are affected, their needs, and the opportunities for supporting them in emergency situations (see appendix 7.2: Checklist for the Consideration of the Special Needs of Women in Emergency Aid Activities).

3.2 Children and youth

Children and youth are regarded as being particularly vulnerable to the negative consequences of armed conflicts and natural disasters. They are physically weaker, which influences their vulnerability to illnesses and their self-help capacities, but they are also particularly at risk of being exploited or sexually abused. Child prostitution and enforced conscription are frequently observed phenomena in this context. Due to the absence of parents or older siblings, often very young children take over caring for their younger siblings, or also for sick and older relatives.

Children and youth therefore require special support, which goes beyond the provision of material goods:

- In particular, in long-drawn-out conflicts children and young people must be given the opportunity to receive schooling, so that after the war they have the basis for providing for themselves and their families. Since children are often separated from their families during a war, some organisations provide special programmes for finding and reuniting family members.
- In their important formative years child soldiers have often experienced violence and abuse against themselves and against others. Often they must therefore initially receive psycho-social care. Trauma work combined with targeted integration programmes and educational modules can help them to rebuild their prospects for the future.
- If social control mechanisms fail and families break up, there is the danger of children being abducted for forced conscription or prostitution. Their situation should therefore be closely monitored. In the emergency situation, the following questions should be answered: Who represents the concerns and interests of children? Are they accompanied by a person to whom they relate? Are they recorded somewhere by name, and do they benefit from the aid offered? Have they been informed of the special programmes for children and young people?

Organisations which particularly look after the interests of children are for instance UNICEF, Save the Children Fund (SCF), or the German organisation Kindernothilfe [Children’s Emergency Aid]. The UNHCR and the ICRC become involved in the case of child protection and reuniting children with their families. As a partner within Alliance2015, the Danish organisation, Ibis, has specialised in educational programmes in the context of wars and disasters.
3.3 Older people

To date, little attention has been given to the subject of »Older People and Emergency Relief«. Even in needs assessments carried out on a participative basis, older people are frequently not taken into account, either in terms of their special needs or of their potential. A reason for this is that older people are often »not visible«. After loosing their families e.g. following an armed conflict, they not infrequently live largely unheeded on the margins of a society in which social structures and networks for the care of marginalised groups no longer function.

Reasons for the special level of need of older people in emergency situations are:

- The loss of care systems (e.g. families), with consequent isolation and marginalisation;
- a general scarcity of resources which reduces the necessary capacities of a society to provide care;
- physical and mental disabilities and restricted mobility, which reduces access to aid provision;
- the lack of opportunities for alternative generation of income e.g. through Cash-for-Work programmes or loan programmes;
- difficulties in adapting to a new situation or in understanding it;
- physical limitations on carrying out self-development tasks;
- violence to which they have fallen victim.

Emergency aid must have regard not only to the level of need of older people, but also their potential and their tasks within society. Older people often take over caring for surviving family members and orphans. They play an important role in disaster prevention by passing on traditional knowledge and life experience (knowledge of specific threat scenarios). In addition, depending on their social status, older people have a recognised authority, which can be used in the event of local conflicts.

3.4 People with HIV&AIDS

An HIV infection or an AIDS illness weakens the immune system of those affected and changes their everyday life, and that of the entire family. Due to the high rates of prevalence of HIV infections in many countries where Welthungerhilfe operates, often almost every family within a project is directly or indirectly confronted with this problem.

The disintegration of social structures, such as may occur following natural disasters or an armed conflict, favours the spread of the HI-virus. The following aspects contribute to an increased risk of infection:

- The loss of income-earning opportunities, and of shelter, food and drinking water, often goes hand in hand with a loss of autonomy and independence (loss of power).
- Due to the precarious ability to provide for themselves, women and girls are forced into prostitution in order to secure the survival of their families - or in extreme cases - access to relief goods.
- Sexual abuse and rape increasingly occurs, or are even systematically used as a method of waging war on the civilian population.
Children are the victims of sexual abuse particularly frequently following a disaster or during a conflict because the societal mechanisms of protection are often overridden (break-down of families).

The promiscuous behaviour of international staff in international aid agencies and of other «foreign» actors such as, for instance, lorry drivers and day labourers.

Preventive measures are frequently not considered to be a priority in an emergency situation, and often only insufficient quantities of condoms are available.

People who are already infected with HIV or suffering from AIDS are additionally particularly vulnerable following a disaster or in war and crisis situations. The poor state of food and drinking water supplies, the break-down of the family unit due to death and forced displacement, and the break-down of the health and social systems, contribute significantly to this.

Welthungerhilfe has anchored the subject of HIV&AIDS as an inter-disciplinary topic in order to systematically take account of the special needs of those affected and their families, particularly in regions with a high prevalence of HIV\(^\text{22}\), in the planning and implementation of projects. The checklist in appendix 7.3 provides practical notes on taking into account the special needs of those affected by HIV&AIDS in emergency relief activities.

### 3.5 People with physical or mental handicaps

There are always people with disabilities in every society. In countries where an armed conflict has taken place, it must be assumed that the number of people with physical or mental disabilities (e.g. due to being traumatised) will be many percentage points higher.

The following central questions are of help for taking the specific needs of people with disabilities into account during the emergency aid phase\(^\text{23}\):

- Has the situation of people with disabilities been recorded in the needs assessment? Are these people recorded in, for instance, the official communal registers?
- Are early warning systems and evacuation plans designed in such a way that even people with the most varied disabilities can use them?
- Are latrines, water supply systems and emergency shelters of barrier-free construction, and are the necessary ramps, handrails etc provided? Are the doors wide enough, and are pathways passable?
- How can it be ensured that the aid goods distributed reach the people? Does the supply system operate via the family structures, or must the people be reached by other mechanisms?
- Is there a particular need for appliances (e.g. prostheses), or for medical or psycho-social care?

Cooperation with specialised organisations such as for instance Handicap International is useful for recording and catering for the special needs of people with disabilities. Local groups lobbying on behalf of people with disabilities and partner organisations can also provide important information, and assist in the planning and implementation of measures which cater for the needs of the disabled.

\(^{22}\) Country-specific data on the spread of the HI-Virus is provided by UNAIDS at [www.unaids.org](http://www.unaids.org).

3.6 Minorities and marginalised groups

People may be seen to be marginalised and deliberately excluded from external support in many countries based on their origin, their religion, their social status or their political views. In the event of a disaster or a conflict, these people are particularly hard hit because of their limited self-help potential. They have rarely built up the organisations necessary for getting their views heard or for exercising influence in society. A typical example of this is the special situation of the so-called casteless in some Asian countries.

Even if in an emergency situation initially organisational and logistical necessities are to the fore, when recording those in need, enquiries should also be made regarding marginalised groups:

- Are there minorities or groups of people who are socially excluded in the project area?
- What special support do these groups require?
- Can the position in society of this marginalised group be improved as part of the measure undertaken? What long-term positive or negative consequences may the singling out of this grouping by an aid measure have?

It is often difficult for outsiders without a sound knowledge of the country to recognise the exclusion of population groups, and marginalisation is a subject which is also not always easy to bring up. In this regard, the involvement of local actors or partner organisations which specialise in working with these groups can be very helpful.
In principle, responsibility for the protection of the civilian population in armed conflicts rests with the respective state. This is laid down in the Geneva Convention amongst others. Beyond this, there are organisations which likewise have been given a special mandate in the context of international humanitarian law for the protection of individual groups of people: the ICRC, UNICEF and also the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

The increase in targeted attacks on the civilian population in conflict regions has however raised the question as to what extent aid agencies active there can contribute in general terms to protecting their target groups from the use of violence (Protection). The central concept and starting point of the discussion is the requirement that humanitarian aid should provide more than the mere securing of survival through the provision of material basic goods.

Here, the term «protection» is given a broader definition. Protection consequently does not only mean the protection from the direct use of violence. It also includes, for instance, protection from forced displacement, discrimination, exclusion, forced conscription and forced prostitution, as well as from the breaching of political and social rights\(^\text{24}\).

A recognised model (egg model of protection activity) divides the options for action – based on a threat factor – into three levels/spheres:


Figure 4: Egg model of protection activity\(^\text{25}\)
Responsive Action – describes the immediate response to a threat factor. This involves all the activities directly undertaken in order to protect the target group by stopping or preventing the threat or mitigating its consequences (e.g. through child protection programmes, psycho-social activities, and protection measures for women who have become the victims of rape etc.).

Remedial Action – is the restoration (»healing«) of human dignity, e.g. through the creation of a reasonable standard of living. This area includes measures such as searching for missing family members, or compensation, as well as the renovation of infrastructure, and health or education (longer-term measures).

Environment-building – creates the structural pre-conditions for preventing future threat scenarios. This may occur through improvements to the legal system, the training of police forces, or support for state institutions, but also through the strengthening of the forces of civil society, or through conflict management.

In the context of emergency aid projects, as a rule only the responsive action level is addressed. This primarily involves recognising and minimising existing risks and their consequences on the target group:

1. In the planning of an emergency aid project, a targeted search for the ways of minimising risks can be made through a systematic analysis of the risk potential of individual population groups (women, children, older people etc.). This analysis supplements the Do-no-harm analysis by directing attention away from the examination of the context and to the individual, and by raising the question of to what extent the planned measure (e.g. the distribution) represents a contribution to reducing risks or hazards.

2. The targeted incorporation and support of protection mechanisms available in society (e.g. family structures and village structures) within the target group.

3. The protection of the target group from sexual abuse of dependents in project work by means of establishing a Code of Conduct which all local employees and partner organisations must sign, and which provides for legal (disciplinary) sanctions in the event of it being breached. Welthungerhilfe has approved such a code of conduct, which is a component of the employment contracts for all employees of Welthungerhilfe and its partner organisations.26 This code of conduct applies not only to emergency aid, but to all Welthungerhilfe’s work.

4. The presence of an international aid agency locally may in some cases represent a certain level of protection for the target group. This applies particularly if the aid agency has good contacts to the parties to the conflict by virtue of its long-standing work locally, and uses these in order, for instance, to negotiate secure access to its target groups.

In addition, aid agencies can campaign for compliance with international humanitarian law through their press and public relations work, since the aim is the protection of the civilian population in the context of armed conflicts.

CHAPTER 4

Risk minimisation (Protection) by means of targeted programme planning based on the example of Sudan and Burundi

The following examples show how opportunities for minimising risk can be incorporated in a targeted manner in programme planning through the analysis of the specific risk potential of individual population groups:

In the Darfur (Sudan) crisis region, women who were searching for firewood outside the camps repeatedly fell victim to sexual violence. As a result of this, some aid agencies arranged for the women to be regularly accompanied by AMIS (African Union Mission in Sudan) soldiers when searching for firewood. Also, ovens with more efficient combustion were provided in order to reduce the overall consumption of firewood. This enabled the women to reduce the frequency of the journeys they undertook on foot. At the same time, it slowed the deforestation, which also had a positive effect on the distances to be covered in the search for firewood.27

In Bujumbura, Burundi, an aid agency had set up feeding stations, which led to an increased settlement of internally displaced people around these stations. These settlements were then repeatedly attacked by government troops because they feared infiltration by the rebels in this region. Young men in particular were targeted in these attacks, with the result that it was no longer safe for them to remain in the vicinity of these feeding centres. In order to reduce the risk for this population group, the aid programme was redesigned so that the target group was enabled to collect rations for these men. Originally, pre-prepared food was distributed, exclusively.28

28 Quoted based on: IASC: Growing the Sheltering Tree, p. 175
5.1 The development of the emergency aid sector of support

Based on the concept of Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development, Welthungerhilfe is involved in emergency relief, in medium-term rehabilitation, and also in longer-term development cooperation. If an organisation is involved in both emergency and rehabilitation as well as longer-term development cooperation work, it is described as an organisation with a »dual mandate«.

The relative importance of the emergency aid sector has remained comparatively constant within Welthungerhilfe, and it averages approx. 30% of the total turnover of all project approvals, although the extreme year 2005 (tsunami and earthquake in Pakistan) represents a statistical exception.

![Figure 5](image-url)

**Figure 5:** Development of project funds for emergency relief projects as a share of the total turnover of all projects

5.2 Principles of decision-making

As one of the large German aid agencies with many years of professional experience in emergency aid, Welthungerhilfe recognises that it has a duty to provide humanitarian aid in a rapid, efficient and needs-focused manner, whenever it is required (humanitarian
But limited financial and personnel resources are pitted against the increasing number of people worldwide who are affected by the consequences of armed conflicts and natural disasters. This makes it necessary to weigh up in which situations the organisation can provide appropriate, qualified and efficient aid.

**Fundamental conditions for implementation are:**

- **A large-scale crisis or disaster:** A considerable number of people are severely affected by a crisis or disaster. They are no longer in the position of being independently able to guarantee the provision of their basic needs.
- **Requirement for aid:** The provision of supplies to the people affected cannot be guaranteed to an adequate extent by the structures which exist locally (e.g. by the national government).
- **Necessary security:** The local security situation makes it possible to implement an aid project with Welthungerhilfe staff or with the staff of partner organisations.
- **Available expertise:** Welthungerhilfe is active in the required sectors of support, and is in the position to respond to the necessary aid requirement quickly and appropriately, and is qualified to do so.

If these conditions are met, an emergency aid project is considered in principle.

In doing so, further important issues must be considered:

- **Access:** Is there a means of direct access to the affected target group, and can it be ensured that the aid reaches the affected target group?
- **Resources:** Does Welthungerhilfe have the necessary financial and personnel resources to carry out an aid measure? Or, alternatively, is there a real chance that the financial resources can be acquired elsewhere, and that qualified staff can be recruited at the same time?
- **Perspective:** What should the time perspective of the aid measure be? How long can Welthungerhilfe’s commitment locally be expected to be required? In the longer term, will Welthungerhilfe involve itself in the area of rehabilitation also?
- **Cooperation with partners:** Does Welthungerhilfe have available qualified local partner organisations in the area with whom a project can be carried out, and/or is there the possibility of cooperating with an Alliance2015 partner?
- **Consequences:** What consequence will an involvement in the context of a crisis or disaster have on Welthungerhilfe’s country programme?

The final decision as to whether or not, and to what extent, Welthungerhilfe provides emergency relief is fundamentally based on the results of a needs assessment which is carried out locally either by our own staff or the staff of a partner organisation.

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29 Strategic thrust of Welthungerhilfe’s overseas programmes. Strategie der Welthungerhilfe 2007–2011, p. 30
30 Precise quantification is not practicable in this regard. As a rule, several thousand people must be affected in order to justify initiating an emergency relief aid measure outside existing project regions
5.3 Partner focus in emergency aid

Partner focus is an important principle in carrying out Welthungerhilfe projects and programmes, and is dealt with in detail in the orientation framework »Partnership for Development«.\(^{31}\)

Cooperation with partner organisations has the following advantages for the implementation of an emergency aid project:

- Partner organisations have close contacts to the target group, and a very good knowledge of the region and of the institutions which are active there;
- Partner organisations have a network of contacts to important institutions;
- Partner organisations have a logistics infrastructure;
- Partner organisations are the first to be present on the ground, and if they have the appropriate experience, they can initiate aid measures immediately;
- Partner organisations often take measures more quickly in order to create the conditions for the transition to the rehabilitation or development phases.

However, the experience of recent years has shown that the planning and implementation of emergency aid projects with local partner organisations also has its limitations:

- Partner organisations often have little experience in the field of relief operations, and this applies both in respect of standards and methods as well as in respect of administering co-financing tools and their rules and regulations.
- Partner organisations are still frequently excluded from international coordination mechanisms.
- Partner organisations are often not geared towards the implementation of emergency operations in logistical and personnel terms. Therefore the capacities available must be properly analysed, and supported as necessary.
- In their work, partner organisations are frequently geared towards a specific target group and/or a specific sector (e.g. agriculture). This does not necessarily accord with the actual needs following the disaster.
- Efficient, large partner organisations find themselves subjected to considerable pressure following a disaster, and they are not infrequently involved by several international organisations in carrying out emergency aid measures.
- In certain circumstances, local partner organisations may not always act in a neutral manner in political conflicts, or may not be perceived locally as neutral actors.

In order to be able to provide appropriate emergency aid, partner organisations must fulfil certain conditions as regards Welthungerhilfe quality standards and principles in this area. This includes the availability of administrative capacities and managerial skills. The selected partner organisations must be in the position to provide aid in a needs-focused, non-partisan, neutral and independent manner.

The minimum requirements which partner organisations must fulfil in emergency aid are summarised in a Checklist with criteria for partner organisations (see appendix 7.4).

Since measures for carrying out a qualifying process for partners can often only be carried out to a very limited extent during the implementation of an emergency project, in countries with a high propensity to disasters, potential partners for implementing relief projects must

be identified and their qualifications checked at an early stage. Enabling them to provide aid for the affected population quickly and with the maximum autonomy possible in the event of a disaster is an important component of disaster risk management.

5.4 Emergency aid areas of activity and main sectors of support

The areas of activity for an emergency project are to be defined depending on the situation analysis, and their focus may vary over the course of the project implementation. The nature and scope of the emergency funding are determined by our own needs assessments locally, or by secondary data from other institutions. In relief work one talks of so-called **basic needs**, i.e. fundamental needs which must be met in order to ensure survival. These include adequate medical provision, food, clean drinking water, sanitation systems, emergency shelters, and also the provision of household goods, sanitary articles and clothing.

Welthungerhilfe’s main sectors of support in emergency aid are outlined in brief below.

5.4.1 Food aid

In most emergency situations the basic provision of food and drinking water is no longer ensured. The rapid supply of food is the most immediate tool for safeguarding the survival of the population affected. In the case of refugees and displaced persons, this situation is obvious, and the need can be established on a per person basis. Frequently however, part of the needs can still be produced or raised by the people themselves, so that a more precise needs assessment is required for planning and implementing the project. In this respect, it is necessary in particular to have regard to the risk of external aid destroying local and regional markets. In most cases it is difficult to calculate the degree of autonomous provision and the need for food aid. Suitable **rapid assessment tools for emergencies** can provide important initial information for estimating the requirement for food aid.³² The calculation of a food ration is also included in the Sphere handbook.

A fundamental distinction is made between (1) the **free distribution** of food rations, and (2) **project-linked food aid**. Whilst in the case of free distribution the rations are distributed free of charge or other obligation to those in need of aid (refugees, children, widows, orphans, the sick, and the victims of war etc), the project-linked food supplies attempt to tie the distribution with, for instance, productive reconstruction measures within the framework of Food-for-Work or Cash-for-Work, so as to involve the people who are capable of working in infra-structural measures.

The issuing of cash payments in the context of a **Cash-for-Work** measure makes sense above all if sufficient food at an adequate price is available for sale in the region. This is the case for instance after a good harvest. If at this point additional food was brought into the region from outside, this would destroy the local markets and would deprive many people of their income-earning opportunities. In addition, making cash payments to the target group has the advantage that they make autonomous decisions regarding their needs.

The distribution of **vouchers** for goods to the target group represents a further alternative to food aid. The vouchers or tokens can be exchanged for goods at retailers or distribution centres. In return, the retailer is then paid the corresponding cash amounts by the banks, or directly by the implementing organisations. To date, vouchers have been used primarily

for seeds and other investments in the agricultural sphere, but this method is also being used increasingly for the supply of food and basic goods.

**Welthungerhilfe’s Food-for-Work Programme in Machakos, Kenya**

Since 2004, rainfall in the semi-arid and arid regions of Kenya has been inadequate, and in 2006 this led to a dramatic worsening of the food situation for the rural population, also in the Machakos region. With funding from the WFP, and over several project phases, Welthungerhilfe provided food during a period of an average of six months to a total of 330,000 people in need belonging to 55,000 households.

Only 30% of the food allowed for was provided via free distributions to those in need and incapable of working. On the other hand, as part of a Food-for-Work Programme, 38,000 people took part in the renovation of selected elements of community infrastructure. In return for their labour, they received food rations to provide for their families.

The Food-for-Work measures were concentrated on labour-intensive activities, as far as possible without the need for large quantities of construction materials. The activities benefit the communities concerned as a whole, and to a lesser extent the individual households. In this way, amongst other things, new irrigation dams were built, or already existing dams were rebuilt, rural roads giving access to markets were improved, drinking water points were fenced in, or erosion prevention measures and water-preserving structures were renovated (e.g. terracing).

Even if the tools described such as Food-for-Work or Cash-for-Work already form part of the rehabilitation, a check should already be made in the emergency aid phase as to how far the population can be involved in these structure-promoting initiatives. After short-term food supply bottlenecks caused by an acute disaster situation or a crisis have been bridged, the question then quickly arises as to what extent there should be a follow-up with medium-term food security or other rehabilitation measures. Therefore, a pragmatic assessment of the food situation in terms of the components of availability, and access to, or use of, food in the respective relief context, may already provide pointers in respect of the goal of food security. Welthungerhilfe working papers are available for the rehabilitation and food security approaches respectively.

33 On this subject: Harvey, Paul: Cash and Vouchers in Emergencies. HPG Discussion Paper. London, February 2005


5.4.2 Water supply and provision of sanitation

As well as shortage of food, the inadequate provision of water and sanitation in the event of a crisis or disaster is frequently a serious problem. In addition, illnesses are increasingly transmitted due to contaminated water, lack of hygiene or an inadequate sanitation system.

The specific context in each case determines the selection of the most efficient method for supplying drinking water rapidly. Decisive factors are above all: a) the size of the target group, b) the way shelter is provided for the target group (centralised or decentralised), c) the condition of the nearest water source (quantity and quality), d) the distance to the nearest water source, as well as e) the course of the emergency situation in terms of time (acute or chronic).
There are various possibilities for providing water, depending on the scenario. The most important opportunities for intervention are:

- Immediate measures without technical input (protection of existing water resources);
- Decentralised at the household level (e.g. supply of chlorine compounds);
- Delivery of untreated water/drinking water;
- The central purification of untreated water on site (e.g. drinking water purification plants, sedimentation basins);
- The rehabilitation of existing supply systems or wells;
- The construction of new drinking water facilities which can be used in the medium- and long-term.

In emergency situations it is necessary to weigh up whether an adequate quantity of water must be provided rapidly - which is necessarily technically demanding and expensive - or whether a local solution should be considered in preference for the target group. The quality of the available drinking water should always be regularly tested for germs.

Immediate measures can be implemented after the occurrence of a disaster situation without using technical equipment. These include above all the protection of existing water resources, hygiene information measures, and also self-organisation relating to local water usage. These measures can constitute a contribution to maintaining the stability of conditions of hygiene. They are not however suited to improving the quantity of water and water quality. Frequently however, these measures constitute important supporting activities for the supply of drinking water.

Whilst the necessity of supplying drinking water to the population which has fallen into hardship is usually obvious, often too little attention is paid in relief activities to the disposal of effluent, faeces and rubbish. However, these areas are just as crucial for maintaining the overall health of the target group as the provision of food and drinking water. The increased occurrence of diarrhoea, in particular amongst children, may indicate that the quality of the drinking water, or alternatively of the disposal systems for effluent, faeces or rubbish, is inadequate.

5.4.3 Household goods and sanitary articles (non-food items)

Following disasters and conflicts, the people affected do not only need food and drinking water, but also items or equipment essential to daily life which they have lost. Therefore household goods and sanitary articles must also be included in the needs assessment and in the distribution operation. Depending on the context, these can include:

- Kitchen- and tableware;
- Ovens;
- Sanitary articles;
- Blankets and sleeping mats;
- Clothing;
- Impregnated mosquito nets;
- Tool sets and cleaning implements;
- Seeds and small agricultural implements or fishing nets.

This basic equipment is a component of survival aid, which is distributed to the population according to need and without charge. In putting together the packages, equal attention must be paid to special cultural requirements as to the climatic framework conditions. The special requirements of women and children must also be taken into account.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Household goods (per family)</strong></th>
<th><strong>Sanitary articles (per person/month)</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 large and 1 medium-sized cooking pot with lid</td>
<td>75 ml/100 g toothpaste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 ladles</td>
<td>250 ml shampoo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 knife</td>
<td>250 g bath soap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 wash-bowl</td>
<td>200 g washing powder for clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–20 litre water container with lid</td>
<td>as well as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>additional water containers</td>
<td>1 razor blade (per family)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 plate (per person)</td>
<td>sanitary towels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 spoon (per person)</td>
<td>cloth nappies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 drinking mug (per person)</td>
<td>1 comb/brush</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These objects include important basic needs and goods required for everyday life. If, as part of emergency provision, seeds or fishing nets are also distributed, then it is already even possible to focus on results which go beyond the immediate effect (e.g. income-generating measures by means of seed reproduction or additional income through the sale of fish at local markets). However, not every public donor is prepared to fund, for instance, the distribution of seeds and small agricultural implements as immediate aid, since these items are already included in the area of rehabilitation. (For a precise overview of the financing mechanisms in the field of emergency aid, see Sect. 5.5.3)

### 5.4.4 Temporary and semi-permanent shelter

Following a crisis or disaster, several factors determine the type of shelters provided for the people affected: (1) the type of emergency situation (flight, forced displacement), (2) the climatic conditions, and (3) the length of time the people affected stay in the emergency shelters.

There are numerous possible options here which may be appropriate to various scenarios:

- Provisional reconstruction of the previous accommodation;
- Tents;
- Accommodation in host families or host communities;
- Communal accommodation in existing public buildings such as, for instance, schools.

If not controlled by government departments, the choice of shelter should always include the possibility of a speedy return of the people affected to their previous place of residence. Experience has shown that this is also the most important concern of the population. In this case, renewed exposure to risk must be excluded. As a rule, the return of those affected necessitates repairs to the previous accommodation. In this phase, the population’s own initiatives can be supported in a targeted manner through the distribution of building materials, tarpaulins and tools. Parallel Food-for-Work measures can allow the families to concentrate exclusively on the restoration of their houses, instead of migrating to other regions.

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36 Sphere handbook, p. 233 ff.
as day labourers in order to procure food. At the same time, families could show solidarity with each other and support vulnerable groups in the renovation of the infrastructure. In certain situations the use of tents is necessary in order to provide emergency shelters rapidly, as a short-term bridging measure until the original living space is reinstated.

The delivery of tents often involves great logistical effort, e.g. if tents have to be procured from other countries and brought to the affected region by airfreight. However, they can be used very flexibly on the ground locally (either in a centralised or decentralised way). They can be easily transported and erected. However, they are of a uniform size, which cannot be extended. They must be adapted to the climatic conditions, but due to wear and tear they represent only a short-term solution. They are often poorly ventilated and cannot be heated. The use of ovens inside is not without problems. Due to their suitability for storage, stocks of tents are often kept by aid agencies for use in the event of disasters.

**Accommodation in host families or host communities** occurs for the most part through the affected population’s own initiative and that of the neighbouring communities. An undisputed advantage of this option is that the people remain tied into their social and cultural environment, and can give each other mutual support. Nonetheless, the respective extent of the additional burden for the host families should be taken into consideration when planning the aid measures. This burden relates both to the welfare of the host families as well as to the available provision of social services and necessary resources (health centres, schools, water and sewage). Potential social tensions which can arise as a result of this imbalance should be avoided where both groups benefit from the aid measures.

In the case of **centralised accommodation** of the target group (refugee camps and communal shelters), attention should be drawn to the potential for conflict between the people affected and the indigenous population. The inclusion of the local population within the framework of the aid measures has therefore proved to be helpful. However, the refugee camps also hold the danger of the people increasingly getting into a relationship of dependence, and of their ability to live autonomously being consequently undermined by the constant provision of supplies.

In principle, in the choice of possible options for emergency shelter, the step of rebuilding living space or building new living space should be taken as early as possible. In doing so, options for disaster prevention should be considered at an early stage, and use should be made of the self-help capacities of the population affected. In this area, **resource management** issues must definitely also be included in the planning.

The **Sphere** handbook gives a comprehensive overview of the most important criteria and issues on the subject of Shelter (Section 4).
### Table 3: Options for emergency shelter and their assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of shelter</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tents</strong></td>
<td>- Can be used flexibly&lt;br&gt;- Quick to set up&lt;br&gt;- Easy to transport (light and compact per item)&lt;br&gt;- Can be stored&lt;br&gt;- Can be used in a centralised way (camps) or in a decentralised way (e.g. on individual pieces of land)</td>
<td>- Only a very short-term solution&lt;br&gt;- Rarely available in the region, therefore high transportation costs&lt;br&gt;- Use quickly leads to loss of quality (e.g. due to tears)&lt;br&gt;- Often poorly ventilated/cannot be heated.&lt;br&gt;- No flexibility as regards size&lt;br&gt;- Not suitable for animals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Distribution of building materials and tools</strong></td>
<td>- Promotes «help towards self-help»&lt;br&gt;- May strengthen local markets&lt;br&gt;- Use of Food for Work or Cash for Work is possible&lt;br&gt;- Actively involves the target group in the reconstruction of their own facilities&lt;br&gt;- The individual design is adapted to the actual needs of the family</td>
<td>- Increased demand for labour and materials can lead to market distortions&lt;br&gt;- Training measures may be needed at an early stage (disaster prevention)&lt;br&gt;- Separate support for those in particular need&lt;br&gt;- Risk of using up local resources (resource protection)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accommodation in host families or host communities</strong></td>
<td>- Often family members help each other so that the target group remains tied into its social and cultural environment.</td>
<td>- Lack of consideration for the provision of goods to people who are accommodated with host families.&lt;br&gt;- Additional burden may lead to tensions in the host communities.&lt;br&gt;- The increase in population density also burdens the available social infrastructure of the communities (health centres, schools etc).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Centralised communal shelters</strong></td>
<td>- Setting them up can provide increased protection against attacks&lt;br&gt;- They quickly enable large communities to be supplied with water/food&lt;br&gt;- Already existing premises can be used (schools), and are therefore readily available as accommodation.</td>
<td>- Setting them up can also lead to a security risk, both due to attacks from outside as well as due to the use of violence within the target group.&lt;br&gt;- The loss of personal space and privacy, and lack of opportunities to provide for oneself.&lt;br&gt;- If schools are used, they are no longer available for educational purposes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.5 The implementation of emergency aid programmes and projects

#### 5.5.1 Cooperation and coordination

In emergency situations the number of actors is generally unclear. In addition, as a rule they are provided with the most varied mandates, which makes the imperative coordination of international aid difficult.

In practice, direction is frequently provided by the large foreign donors. Often national or regional organisations do not have the necessary resources to provide efficient coordination.

37 Detailed information on the subject of emergency shelters available at: http://www.shelterproject.org<br>www.sheltercenter.org
of the aid\textsuperscript{38}. The involvement of local non-governmental organisations frequently already founders due to the fact that the coordination mechanisms are not provided in the local language. This makes it difficult for local actors who are not involved with the UN or EU systems on a daily basis to find their way amongst the complex structures.

The detailed evaluation by the Tsunami Evaluation Coalition (TEC)\textsuperscript{39} has in addition shown that, as the NGOs’ own resources increase, they become noticeably less prepared to coordinate their work with other parties. There is often an enormous pressure to provide donors with results that can be quickly seen. In most cases there is no lack of conviction that aid measures must be coordinated. The necessity for many NGOs of obtaining public funds increases their participation in joint activities. However, uncoordinated individual projects repeatedly come into competition with each other. In the best case, it is still possible, if a large effort expended on coordination, to smoothly link the individual measures.

The so-called Humanitarian Response Review (2005) identified the unclear and non-binding allocation of responsibilities for individual sectors as a significant weakness of the existing coordination system for international emergency aid. A new coordination mechanism was then introduced by the United Nations (cluster approach), with the aim of delegating these responsibilities in a way which was comprehensible and uniform for all disasters. It was almost exclusively UN organisations which were entrusted with Cluster Lead duties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Global Cluster Coordination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Camp Coordination and Camp Management</td>
<td>UNHCR *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IOM **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Recovery</td>
<td>UNDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency Shelter</td>
<td>UNHCR*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IFRC **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency Telecommunication</td>
<td>WFP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Security</td>
<td>FAO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>WHO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics</td>
<td>WFP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutrition</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection</td>
<td>UNHCR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water, Sanitation, Hygiene</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{*}Conflict induced IDP \hspace{1cm} \textsuperscript{**} Natural disaster induced IDP

In the response to a crisis or disaster, the Cluster Lead organisation locally must ensure that the needs identified in the specific sector are met quickly and in full. The respective organisation is responsible for all the relevant actors providing their aid in a coordinated and complementary manner, and in accordance with the defined priorities.

This new coordination mechanism was initially used in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Liberia and Uganda (December 2005). At the same time, the approach was tried out for the first time in the context of an acute relief effort following the earthquake in Pakistan in

\textsuperscript{38} cf. for detail on this subject: Tsunami Evaluation Coalition Coordination of international humanitarian assistance in tsunami-affected countries. London, July 2006. (www.tsunami-evaluation.org) p. 8ff.

\textsuperscript{39} Tsunami Evaluation Coalition. Coordination of international humanitarian assistance in tsunami-affected countries. London, July 2006. (www.tsunami-evaluation.org/)
October 2005. Since 2006, the approach has been implemented in all acute emergency situations, and has also been introduced gradually in other countries with chronic crises and disasters.

The organisation responsible for a **cluster** is responsible to the so-called **Humanitarian Coordinator (HC)**. With the support of OCHA, he bears the overall responsibility locally for the provision of aid on behalf of the United Nations.

With the Cluster Approach the UN anchors the requirement that efficient coordination of emergency aid must mean more than the collecting and disseminating of information and vague promises. Strategic partnerships with large NGOs, other UN organisations and the Red Cross Societies are sought and consolidated with this approach. At the same time, this approach lays claim to a certain level of »UN coordination sovereignty«, not only in emergency aid work. This is criticised by many actors in civil society. The evaluation of the approach following the earthquake in Pakistan has in addition shown that so far this system also lacks a clear plan for involving national and local organisations.

As regards Welthungerhilfe’s overseas cooperation, it is the case that all opportunities for efficient and effective coordination and cooperation with other governmental, non-governmental and private organisations in the project region should be fully exploited. Cooperation between actors with competencies and focuses which complement each other are to be recommended, so as to provide the broadest possible coverage of existing needs. Welthungerhilfe always participates in the existing coordination mechanisms, such as for example the Cluster Approach, and it informs relevant local and national structures of its planned measures.

### 5.5.2 Cooperation within the framework of Alliance2015

It is one of Alliance2015’s declared goals to make use of synergies, to intensify efficiencies, and to increase the ability to respond, even in the event of an acute disaster or crisis, by means of working in close cooperation with other parties. To this end, a **response mechanism for acute disasters** was established with the aim of institutionalising the rapid exchange of information and consultation about opportunities for cooperation in the event of acute disasters.

The cooperation during the disaster or crisis may take a whole variety of forms. This depends on the type and scale of the disaster, as it does equally on the presence of the organisations locally. The following models have so far proved their worth in practice:

- Following a disaster, several Alliance2015 partners start operating locally with their individual measures. They coordinate their measures locally as far as possible and **keep each other constantly informed** (for example in the case of the tsunami in Sri Lanka).
- Following a disaster, an Alliance2015 partner, with the help of a national partner organisation of another Alliance2015 partner, implements an emergency aid project.

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40 ActionAid international: The Evolving UN Cluster Approach in the Aftermath of the Pakistan Earthquake: an NGO perspective, p. 6 ff.
41 Alliance2015 currently comprises: Concern Worldwide (Ireland), HIVOS (Netherlands), IBIS (Denmark), CESVI (Italy), People in Need (Czech Republic), ACTED (France), and also Welthungerhilfe.
Two or more Alliance2015 partners respond to a disaster with a joint programme and a joint financing application (a consortia programme application). So far, this type of cooperation has been seen more often in the case of longer-term measures, but in principle it is conceivable also in the case of disasters (e.g. the tsunami in India).

Following a disaster, the needs assessment is carried out jointly by two or several Alliance2015 partners (e.g. the Bam earthquake).

The Alliance2015 partners locally provide logistical support, e.g. by providing office premises or vehicles.

Following a disaster, an Alliance2015 partner decides to initiate projects locally. The other organisations declare that they are prepared to appeal for donations in their countries to finance this project (e.g. food aid in Niger).

Because emergency aid is anchored in differing degrees in the mandates of the Alliance2015 partners, normally only a few of the organisations directly carry out aid projects locally. As well as the Irish NGO Concern Worldwide or Welthungerhilfe, People in Need (PIN) is also becoming increasingly active. HIVOS has not so far seen itself as an »initial response organisation« in the case of acute disasters, but it has a large network of local partner organisations which may be useful for implementing projects (cf. on this subject also the practical example). HIVOS increasingly contributes to the financing of the emergency aid measures of other Alliance2015 partners.

Cooperation within Alliance2015 following the Java earthquake in 2006

A few hours after the earthquake on Java on 27th May 2006, members of Alliance2015’s Emergency Working Group had already contacted each other and exchanged an initial assessment of the situation. HIVOS informed the partners that it was working in the region together with a local partner organisation. The Alliance2015 partner, Concern, is operating in Aceh with a large aid programme, and immediately after the earthquake it sent two employees from Aceh to Java in order to undertake a needs assessment there. These employees got in touch locally with HIVOS’s local partner organisation. The Concern team’s reports, as well as reports from the HIVOS regional office in Jakarta and from the local partner organisations, were made available to the other Alliance2015 partners. It was quickly decided that HIVOS would carry out aid projects locally together with the local partner organisation (distribution of food as well as hygiene sets etc).

All the other Alliance2015 partners appealed for donations for the aid measures on their websites. Necessary information for press and public relations work, as well as contact information of the respective contact persons were exchanged. In addition, Welthungerhilfe seconded a member of its emergency team to support the HIVOS partner organisation.

5.5.3 Emergency aid financing tools

In recent years, Welthungerhilfe has increased its efforts to build up its cooperation with various donor organisations; this is not least due also to the increasing complexity of emergency aid situations, where a combination of the various financing tools of the public donors is called for.

The most important partners and financing tools, as well as the main focuses of the support, are listed in the following table.
### Table 5: Overview of the most important emergency aid financing tools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Period/Type</th>
<th>Budget Line</th>
<th>What is funded?</th>
<th>Application for funding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Ministry</td>
<td>1–6 months</td>
<td>Humanitarian aid measures abroad other than development cooperation</td>
<td>Urgent life-saving measures; As distinct from the BMZ, as a rule no funding is provided for structure-building measures (repair of infrastructure) and food (except for special and supplementary food for particular target groups), or for seeds/animal feed.</td>
<td>AA VN 05, following prior consultation by phone. The local German embassy has limited funds for smaller measures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMZ</td>
<td>1–3 years</td>
<td>Development-oriented emergency and transitional aid</td>
<td>Bridging measures for the transition from acute emergency aid phase to the development cooperation phase, e.g. by means of: Food aid, provision of seeds, basic infrastructure; construction measures, medium-term food security, repatriation and reintegration of refugees and displaced persons</td>
<td>As a rule by means of a project proposal and annual planning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU – ECHO</td>
<td>Period depends on the financing decision</td>
<td>Primary Emergency (3 months), Emergency (6 months), World-Wide-Decision DIPECHO (both max. 12 months)</td>
<td>Measures for ensuring survival, in particular through the provision of food aid, water, hygiene articles, shelter and health services. World-wide-decision with Humanitarian Implementation Plans</td>
<td>Application is made following prior consultation with ECHO locally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID/OFDA</td>
<td>Office for US Foreign Disaster Assistance</td>
<td>Measures for ensuring survival as well as rehabilitation and reconstruction measures and food security.</td>
<td>Application is made following prior consultation with USAID/OFDA locally.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme Food aid</td>
<td>Provision of food (in kind), and cash instruments for food assistance</td>
<td>Joint projects are agreed on locally between WFP and Welthungerhilfe.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In connection with the introduction of the Cluster system in 2005, the United Nations also set up a new financing tool, the so-called CERF (Central Emergency Response Fund). This is a fund with an aimed-for budget of 450 M US $, to be replenished annually, predominantly by the national governments. In addition, the UN's relief coordinator can call upon a rotating fund with a value of 50 M US $.

CERF is intended to be used for:

- making good initial funding shortfalls in the event of acute disasters, and
- improved financing for so-called »forgotten disasters«.

Neither the NGOs nor the Red Cross Movement have direct access to this financing tool. The funds are distributed to the respective UN organisations, which in turn agree the implementation of a project, e.g. with private aid agencies.

It is feared that national donors will increasingly invest larger sums in CERF, and that consequently fewer funds will be available for other financing tools in future. The NGOs also predominantly take a critical view of CERF because they receive no direct access to the aid funds, even though they implement a large share of the emergency aid projects.
The altered framework conditions in the field of relief will confront Welthungerhilfe with new challenges in the future also. Currently, the following themes govern our internal discussions, but also the discussions with our co-operation or coordination partners in the field of emergency aid:

- Today, the **consequences of worldwide climate change** can already no longer be overlooked. According to the Centre for Research on the Epidemology of Disasters (CRED), the number of natural disasters and so-called »technogenic« disasters in the period from 1990–2000 rose by a total of 80%42. For an increasing number of people in the developing countries, the self-reliant securing of their livelihood in the coming decades will become ever more difficult, due for instance to continuous droughts or severe floods. The importance of emergency aid will therefore continue to increase. Also, in our programmes and projects we will increasingly have to look into the opportunities for enabling the people affected to **adapt** to the consequences of climate change (disaster risk management). We have to prepare ourselves, but also our partners, institutionally, professionally and methodically in order to cope with the consequences of natural disasters. Therefore, Welthungerhilfe developed the climate proofing method to be applied by its staff during the project cycle.

- The current discussion about a **coherent international aid approach** in failing and failed states confronts the aid agencies with new challenges. The United Nations’ current attempts at reform are based on the recognition that for successful reconstruction in a country such as, for instance, Afghanistan, it is necessary to align military, political and humanitarian objectives into a common agenda. Or put in other terms: there can be no sustainable development without political stability; without an improvement of living conditions and respect for human rights there can be no political stability. Within the European Union, too, concepts are currently being discussed which would ultimately make emergency aid a tool of foreign and security policy. The aid agencies are faced with a dilemma: on the one hand many of them, such as Welthungerhilfe, have development-focused objectives, and demand the upholding of human rights and the protection of their target group. On the other hand, Welthungerhilfe today increasingly works in the context of structural and permanent crisis situations which are characterised by an increasing involvement of national and multinational military forces. But the aim of this involvement in the era of the **war on terrorism** is more than questionable. Traditionally, emergency aid lays no claim to the remedying of causes. We must ask ourselves to what extent the tendency of the so-called **new humanitarians**43, who want to combat these causes with a view to making a long-lasting improvement in the life circumstances of those

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42 cf. on this subject: www.cred.de
43 A good account of the current discussion can be found in: Caritas Switzerland/Luxembourg. Hilfe in Not. Politische Spannungsfelder der humanitären Hilfe. Luzern/Luxembourg November 2005, p. 77 (Help in need. Political areas of conflict in humanitarian aid)
affected, can be reconciled with the principles of neutrality, non-partisanship and independence.

Against the background of increasing emergency aid budgets within the entire field of development-cooperation, and a growing willingness to make donations, criticisms are increasingly being voiced by donors and the public at large, and the efficiency and effectiveness of the aid measures are being questioned. Impact-oriented evaluation is therefore also part of the current discussions within Welthungerhilfe regarding the emergency aid. However, how can the impact of emergency interventions be measured if by definition there is no requirement for sustainability and the emergency aid is limited to a few weeks or months? The tools for evaluating emergency aid cannot be equated with those for evaluating development cooperation. To date, evaluation in terms of emergency aid has almost exclusively been carried out ex post, i.e. when the projects and programmes have been completed and the structures dissolved. Often the target group can then only be located with great effort. New tools, such as for instance real time evaluation, evaluation during the relief effort, are therefore currently being discussed with regard to their applicability and usefulness.

Welthungerhilfe will face up to these challenges, because the number of people who will be affected by armed conflicts or natural disasters will continue to grow. In the future too, these people will continue to have to rely on non-governmental organisations having the necessary expertise and institutional qualifications to provide aid quickly, efficiently and in a needs-focused manner.
7.1 Checklist: Do no harm in emergency aid

Systematic analyses of emergency and disaster aid have shown that aid is frequently misused and can, directly or indirectly, contribute to a conflict by securing advantages solely for one party to the conflict, and, therefore, intensify or prolong conflicts. Irrespective of whether projects take place following a natural disaster or during violent man made conflicts, the risks for the abuse of aid measures resemble each other, and carry with them the danger of unintentionally contributing to the creation and aggravation of conflicts. Therefore it is important that even short-term aid measures are planned and implemented in a conflict-sensitive manner. The potential for risks can be analysed in advance by the use of key questions, and the knowledge gained from this can consequently already be taken into account in the project planning.

The following basic conditions are characteristic for emergency aid measures, no matter whether they are implemented after man made or natural disasters:

- They take place in a difficult and/or conflicted environment.
- The target group is often traumatised.
- The available resources, like land, water and woodland are limited, which increases the danger of conflicts over resources.
- Emergency aid measures bring extensive external resources (money and/or relief items) into the country or region, whereby decisions are often made without taking existing material and resources already in situ into consideration.
- The actors (decision makers, heads of projects) often come into the country from abroad and are therefore, ‘outsiders’. Local decision makers often encounter mistrust (competence, corruption).
- Asymmetrical relationships between outsiders and insiders, which often lead to the (well-intentioned) help from outside being construed as ‘forced’.
- There is a time constraint and a pressure to act.

These basic conditions carry with them the danger of projects and programmes exacerbating existing tensions or conflicts and, in the worst case, even sowing the seeds for new tensions and conflicts. Here, the projects and programmes would have an unintended negative impact and they would (also) cause unintended harm. The risk of this happening should be reduced and a potentially negative impact anticipated and therefore avoided wherever possible (do no harm). Moreover, emergency aid measures often do not take appropriate local ownership into account and there is the danger of creating lasting dependencies. Therefore, it is essential, despite prevailing time pressures, to analyse the following areas carefully and to examine the pivotal questions together with insiders self-critically and look for answers:
### Do no harm in emergency aid

#### Target groups / beneficiaries:
- Are the beneficiaries merely seen as recipients of aid (objects) or also as important stakeholders (subjects)?
- What resources do the recipients of aid have available to them (knowledge, structure)?

#### Target group selection:
- Are particular (ethnic) groups favoured during the selection, therefore laying the groundwork for future conflicts?
- Are the criteria for the selection of the target groups communicated transparently and do the target groups actually have the opportunity to lodge a complaint (a complaint mechanism)?
- While supporting refugees, is adequate consideration also given to the ‘host families’ and/or ‘host communities’ receiving them?
- While supporting returnees, is there also an intention to involve those who have remained?
- Are internally available strengths and skills mobilised, that is to say, e.g., are available networks/structures integrated into the distribution measures or rather discarded?
- What are the criteria for decisions (e.g. full supply for fewer or part supply for all, are the distribution guidelines realistic) and who decides them?
- Are marginalised groups such as minorities, ethnic groups and disabled people being taken into account?

#### Asymmetrical power/power imbalance between international and local actors and organisations respectively:
- Who decides what form of emergency and immediate aid is provided?
- Who makes the decision about which people represent the local community in dealings with the external actors? Do they belong to the connectors or the dividers?

#### Appropriateness of aid:
- Is the aid based on the needs expressed by the target groups or the perceptions and requirements of the decision maker (and consequently in many cases the outsiders)?
- Is the method of aid (distribution of relief items, cash-for-work, food-for-work etc.) appropriate for the current local market situation and is this regularly re-evaluated during the implementation of the project?
- Is the aim of emergency aid to support the recipients of aid with food or to strengthen and further develop local self-help bodies? In other words: are the emergency aid measures the means (vehicle) or the end?

#### Infrastructure:
- Do technical solutions take existing traditional knowledge into consideration?
- Are infrastructure measures adapted to the local surroundings and culture (values, standards, customs)?
- Is it guaranteed that infrastructure measures do not constitute a strategic advantage for one of the conflict parties?
Resources/resource transfer:

- Is consideration being given to potential conflicts over natural resources such as water, land, woodland and energy sources (oil) and how one could react to them?
- Is it being taken into consideration that the distribution of relief items can have various effects locally, in particular distribution, market, substitution and misuse effects, and, should the situation arise, parties to a conflict could also profit from it?

Distribution effects
- Is only one group or sector of society being supported?
- How does influence the distribution of resources the potential sources of violence (dividers) respectively (future) potential for peace (connectors)?

Market effects
- How does the transfer of resources influence local markets?
- Have branches of trade been destroyed by the transfer of relief items?
- Have groups of society been made redundant by the provision of services?
- Is support being offered to an economy of violence or an economy of peace?

Substitution effects
- What effects do subsidies have? Have they been intended?
- Does external financing free up local resources which could be used to promote violence?
- What impact do these substitution effects have on the dividers and connectors?

Effects of misuse
- Could resources be stolen, directly or indirectly misused, diverted off or used for purposes other than those intended? Through which measures can this be possibly avoided?
- What effects does the misuse of resources have on the dividers and connectors?

Perpetuation of violence
- Does external aid actually induce a continuation of violence or armed conflicts due to the benefit that can be won from it?

- Aid deliveries and in particular the redistribution or reassignment of resources, as for example in relation to the repatriation of refugees or after the tsunami, could exacerbate misunderstandings between differing groups and fuel conflicts.

IMPORTANT

- Do no harm means to be aware of, understand and further develop the existing local resources and strengths in an emergency situation, including, as the case may be, if it conflicts with donors.
- Emergency aid should also include measures which exceed immediate lifesaving. Also, in order to come to a mutual understanding in terms of the harmonisation of aid with the donors, it is necessary to conduct a dialogue in cooperation with other organisations (cluster discussion).
- Local staff from international organisations play an important role as ‘bridge builders’ between the outsiders and those directly affected by the emergency situation (insiders). Whether they can take on this mediating role and support and strengthen local ownership depends to a considerable extent on how they are chosen and integrated into decision making processes and which responsibilities they are assigned.
 Checklist for the consideration of the special needs of women in emergency aid

In every society men and women have different roles, though women tend generally to be disadvantaged in terms of power. This is one of the reasons why men and women are affected differently by disasters, and why it is important to take the following key questions into account when analysing, planning and implementing emergency projects.

### Special needs of women in emergency aid

#### General questions
- How are women and men, girls and boys affected differently by the disaster?
- Are there special problems which arise from the disaster for women, children and men (security, protection)?
- What implications does this have for the aid measures (in relation to their needs, access to aid, and their contribution to reconstruction)?
- Is information gathered on gender-specific violence during the project deployment?
- What services are offered for the surviving victims of sexual and other types of violence e.g. support in dealing with trauma and medical care?
- Do women have the same access to resources, or is it restricted by their lower level of mobility, poorer educational status, heavy workload etc?
- How do women participate in social, economic, religious and political structures?
- Are women and their associations consulted in the planning/implementation of emergency aid measures, and included in decisions?
- Is the male target group been treated as a single group, or been differentiated according to their differing needs?

#### Specific questions relating to the situation of women
- Are the needs of women arising in relation to their reproductive health been considered? (contraceptives, sanitary articles)?
- Is culturally appropriate clothing provided for women, so that they can take part in public life (headdress)?
- Is information and advice about illnesses and First Aid provided for women who are responsible for the care of the sick?
- Do women and children face increased and hidden risks on the way to collect water and to the toilets?
- Are the needs of pregnant and breastfeeding women, single mothers, and old or handicapped women been considered?

#### Questions regarding staff deployment
- Are awareness training sessions provided on gender-specific violence and on dealing with trauma before the start of the deployment?
- Is there a Code of Conduct for project staff, which discusses and penalises sexual violence?

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7.3 Checklist for the consideration of the special needs of people with HIV&AIDS in emergency aid

HIV infection and AIDS illness weaken the immune system of the persons affected completely altering not only their everyday lives but also those of their entire families. The special living situation of these people must be taken into consideration during the planning of emergency aid projects. Those affected by HIV&AIDS should not be favoured over others as such prioritising can lead to envy and heighten their exclusion or even create conflict.

In emergency aid the issues surrounding HIV&AIDS should in particular be considered as to the following three areas:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Emergency shelters (refugee camps, communal shelters)</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓ Women and unaccompanied children should be accommodated in emergency shelters in such a way that they are protected from violent sexual attack.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Women should be actively included in the planning of shelters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ The HIV&amp;AIDS problem should be addressed as part of information and advice campaigns.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Food aid</strong></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓ The calorie requirement should be increased by 10% and enriched foods (fortified blended food) should be distributed, since people with HIV&amp;AIDS need more calories, vitamins and minerals due to their weakened immune system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Account should be taken of the limited availability, in terms of time and physical demands, of ill family members for participating in Food for Work or Cash for Work measures, for example.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ The distance from the shelters to the distribution points for relief goods should not be too great.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Rations should be of adequate dimensioning, so that children or older people can carry them without help.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Installation of drinking water/sanitation facilities</strong></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓ Latrines and water distribution points should be easily accessible, even in darkness, since people with HIV&amp;AIDS are more susceptible to diarrhoea and infectious diseases. In addition, they often are not strong enough to wait for long periods or to carry large volumes of water. Often they are denied access due to discrimination and stigmatisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Since those infected with HIV and those suffering from Aids have an increased need of water and sanitary facilities, the number of latrines must be adjusted accordingly, the provision of water be increased, and the water systems be made manageable (hand pumps for children).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By means of coordination and cooperation with other aid agencies it is possible to ensure that the subject is addressed in a multi-sectoral way, and that consequently widespread understanding is also created of the needs of the people affected, who are often marginalised and who must struggle to make their voice heard.
A detailed description of the means for taking account of HIV&AIDS can be found in, amongst other sources, the »Guidelines for HIV&AIDS interventions in emergency settings« (IASC)\footnote{IASC: Revised Guidelines for HIV&AIDS Interventions in Emergency Settings, Geneva, undated (www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc …)}.

### 7.4 Criteria for partner organisations in emergency situations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>★★★CHECKLIST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mission and objective</strong></td>
<td>✓ Name, contact, address (telephone, fax, email etc.)&lt;br&gt; ✓ Registered since....&lt;br&gt; ✓ Legal status of the organisation (statuts)&lt;br&gt; ✓ Declaration of mission, objective, working principles; contents of these areas and compatibility with Welthungerhilfe’s mission, objective, and working principles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Capacities and skills</strong></td>
<td>✓ Relevant sectoral and specific know-how – key staff&lt;br&gt; ✓ Expertise is credible&lt;br&gt; ✓ Office is maintained, EDP available&lt;br&gt; ✓ Experience with other cooperation partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participation and target group representation</strong></td>
<td>✓ Campaiging in a motivated and dedicated manner for target groups and necessary changes in social conditions&lt;br&gt; ✓ Needs of target groups are regularly surveyed; target group participates in review of mission and objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management</strong></td>
<td>✓ Organisational structure/organisational chart – clearly defined responsibilities, authorities and lines of communication&lt;br&gt; ✓ The organisation has internal control mechanisms (monitoring plan)&lt;br&gt; ✓ The organisation has external control mechanisms (evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Planning and implementation</strong></td>
<td>✓ Participation of staff, members and target groups (men and women) in planning and implementation is ensured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staff</strong></td>
<td>✓ Sufficient and qualified staff exists and is available for the planned project, and can be adequately supported?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Financial administration (ideal scenario)

- Financial planning in place – existing balances and stocks considered
- Different project funds are treated separately, separate bank accounts and separate books
- Authorisation procedures for making payments
- Carrying out of monthly bank reconciliations
- Receipts (income and expenditure) are on hand, are serially numbered, and show project numbers and budget items
- Budgets are on hand
- Registration, entry in accounts, tracing of demands/liabilities
- Separate accounting for the project
- Accounting documents retained
- Annual balance sheets
- Auditing of accounts and finance checks - internally, externally, periodicity
- Observance of applicable laws for income/payroll taxes and social security contributions

7.5 Checklist for rapid needs assessment (Emergency assessment checklist)

Introduction

This Checklist has been compiled by the Alliance2015 Emergency Working Group and is intended to facilitate rapid, multi-sectored assessments. It is not exhaustive and could be used in conjunction with other reference material such as Sphere or INEE (for education).

The checklist is divided into sections, each with information that should be collected as thoroughly as possible although you may not be able to find answers to every question. Unless otherwise indicated, the methodologies to be used are secondary data collection, observation, and key informant interviews with other agencies already on the ground (UNHCR, WFP, MSF, local NGOs, etc.), government ministries/officials at the national and local level, IDP/refugee camp leaders/managers, UN security missions, and village leaders (including host and IDP/refugee communities).

Notes for the user:

- Especially in the first 48 hours speed is more important than completeness. Do not wait to send in the assessment until you have found an answer to every single question. Immediately after the disaster it is important to share available information as fast as possible. You may update, complete and revise the assessment later on in the first week.
- Do always cover the questions of section A and B (answering as many questions as you can).
- Answer the questions of Section C for different sectors (like health or shelter) as detailed as possible for the sector in which you think you can become active. Please provide as much information as available for other sectors as well.
- Follow the sequence of this checklist when preparing the assessment by including all subheaders (a1, a2 etc). Also include subheaders you have not used marking them as not applicable, or no information available as appropriate. You do not need to replicate every individual question – these are meant to help you structure your response for each of the subheaders.
If it is not possible to adequately address or consult all sectors or groups within the population, it should be clearly stated which groups have been omitted, and efforts should be made to return to them at the first opportunity.

**EMERGENCY ASSESSMENT CHECKLIST**

**SECTION A: INITIAL ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS**

**A1. GENERAL**
- What happened, type of disaster?
- In case of a natural disaster: Time of occurrence?
- Centre of the disaster? (Province, District…)
- Are major towns and villages affected? If so, to what degree?
- What kind of development is expected for the next days?
- Description of geographical/topographical conditions.
- What are the main sources of income in the affected area?
- What type of housing is commonly used in the area?
- What type of water supply is commonly used in the area?
- What type of sanitation is commonly used within the area?
- Is the area accessible? By what (trucks, 4 by 4, mules, foot)? Consider infrastructure, transport, travel permits, security, potential movement
- How is the security situation in the affected area?
- Are local weather conditions affecting people and/or the implementation of the operation?
- Are climate changes expected in the next months? (heavy rains etc.)

**A2. DESCRIPTION OF AFFECTED POPULATION**
- How is the community organized? (Describe stakeholders, structures, leadership, groups, local government, etc.)
- What was the social economic situation of the area before the disaster happened?
- What is the average family size?
- Describe the situation of vulnerable groups (children, elderly, women, minorities)
- Where is the affected population (longitude and latitude, maps, photos)?
- Who is affected (language, ethnic group, gender, age, religion, livelihood group)?
- How many people are assumed to be directly affected, how many indirectly?
- What percentage of the overall population is affected in the area?
- What is the ration of men/women and adults/children in the affected population?
- Which social groups are most affected and why?
- How many people are assumed dead?
- How many people are assumed injured?
- How many people are assumed missing?
### A3. DISPLACEMENT AND CAUSES (IF APPLICABLE)
- If there has been displacement, what caused it (context)?
- Is displacement (or further displacement) likely?
- To / From where?
- Why?
- How many people are likely to remain in the original location and/or on route?
- What is the rate of arrival and what is expected?
- Where are the arrival points?
- Is there any social structure within the arriving groups? (groups, individuals, villages, clans)?
- How are the displaced travelling / arriving?
- Is the displaced population involved in aid delivery?
- Have registration and reunification procedures been established for the displaced population?
- Have evacuations / refugee movements taken place? If yes, obtain information on:
  - Number of people
  - Location kind and suitability of accommodation
  - Availability of food
  - Availability of drinking water / sanitation

### A4. OTHER IMPACTS
*Please describe briefly direct effects of the disaster on infrastructure and environment:*
- Roads, railways, communication
- Food reserves, food supplies, livestock, fodder
- Water supply and sanitation
- Health infrastructure
- Educational infrastructure
- Housing (number of housing units destroyed or too badly damaged)
- Other important impacts on environment or infrastructure

### A5. CURRENT RESPONSE / OTHER ACTORS
- What type of resources did the refugees bring with them?
- What arrangements have they made to take care of their needs?
- What assistance is being provided and by whom (people, UN, ICRC, NGOs, government, local government, army).
- Who is the coordinating body? (UNOCHA, National Government, Line Ministry) Are there regular meetings? Has a humanitarian information centre been established? Cluster Lead Organisation?
- Who is already working in the area – in which sectors and where?
- What emergency assessments or humanitarian profile reports are available from other organisations?
- Are non-state actors involved? Are they recognized by the government?
- What is the government’s position on the current situation and refugee location?
- What is the host government’s attitude towards international intervention?


A6. PROTECTION

- Are there reports or evidence of civilians being killed, deliberately targeted or caught in the crossfire?
- Are there reports or evidence of separated or unaccompanied children?
- Are there reported cases of Gender Based Violence (rape and sexual abuse)?
- Are there reports or evidence of traumatized women and/or children?
- Is there anybody in the affected community who is monitoring and responding to these protection issues?
- Are there any agencies taking a lead on collating data in relation to GBV (e.g. an OCHA database)?
- Is there any evidence of women and/or children being abducted?
- Are people threatened because of their gender or ethnic, political, religious or national identity?
- Are there reports or knowledge of landmines in the affected area?
- Are there landmine victims? How many? Of what age?

A7. HIV&AIDS

- Are there reported cases of rape and sexual abuse?
- What are the normal patterns of behaviour in the community relating to HIV&AIDS affected and infected groups, and is there any sign of stigma and discrimination?
- What is the HIV-prevalence rate in the area or among the affected group?
- Is HIV prevalence particularly high within certain population groups affected by the emergency?
- Are minimum universal precautions available (safe blood supply, sterilization or disposal of sharps, gloves, condoms, etc.)?
- Are there groups such as impoverished or displaced people, illegal migrants, children and women (especially unaccompanied) or people depending on food aid or the distribution of other items that are at particularly high risk of sexual exploitation or violence because of the situation?

SECTION B: GENERAL & PLANNING

B1. ACCESS, SECURITY AND THREATS

- Have other agencies established security levels, procedures, coordination, etc.
- Is there year-round access to the affected population?
- If not, what is preventing access?
- What are the security threats for the affected population and humanitarian actors?
- Is there continued fighting? Are there landmines, banditry, blockades, rioting, natural risks, etc.?
- Has movement been restricted by the government or by non-state actors?
B2. LOGISTICS

- Identify the major logistical needs and constraints of the relief operation (procurement, travel permits, access, delivery time, security, storage)?
- Total transport capacities available (commercial vehicles, international agencies and local national authorities)? Are necessary fuel supplies secured?
- Possibility of local procurement (consider NFI, medicines, construction material)
- Is storage of relief items needed and if so are there possibilities for storage. (Warehouses etc.)

B3. COORDINATION AND COLLABORATION

- Is there an identified beneficiaries/refugee leadership that can be utilized?
- Potential for collaboration (UN Agencies, INGOs, NNGOs)?
- Potential for working with national partner organisations? – What is their experience?
  - How well are the local partners equipped to handle larger amounts of relief funds?
  - Do local partners possess the man power and technical skills to cope with the demands of this disaster? If the answer is no, please indicate type of assistance needed.

SECTION C: SECTORS OF SUPPORT

Note for the user:
Below you will find detailed questions for a number of different aspects (sectors of support) of a humanitarian crisis. It is essential that you try to be as complete as possible for the sector in which you or your partners foresee to engage but also provide information for other sectors to the extent possible.

List of sectors of support included:

1. Food Security
2. Health
3. Water & Sanitation
4. Shelter
5. Non-food items
6. Education and other social needs
C1. FOOD SECURITY

Short-term access to food

✓ Are any groups without food?
✓ If so, is this because food is unavailable (e.g. not in the market, being hoarded) or because the people lack purchasing power?
✓ Are households able to prepare food – do they have cooking pots, fuel, grinding tools, etc.?
✓ How many meals a day are people eating and has this changed?
✓ What are people eating and has this changed?
✓ What do they usually eat?
✓ Do pregnant and lactating women eat differently than others? How?
✓ Where is the food coming from (stocks, market, family, friends, etc)?
✓ How are people earning money to buy food?

Medium-term food security

✓ What are the expectations for the harvest?
✓ How much food do people have in their houses?
✓ How much food is in village granaries or government stores?
✓ Do people have animals? How many? Have they sold any recently?
✓ What are market prices like for grain/animals?
✓ How do these prices compare for the year (in the hunger gap, the cost of grain usually goes up and that of animals down)
✓ What is the availability of essential goods from the local land or markets (price, volume, transportability)?
✓ How much were people spending on food (household, individual) per day/week in normal situation?
✓ Are market prices inflated as a result of the refugee presence?

Livelihoods

✓ What were the affected communities’ livelihoods before the emergency?
✓ Do people have seeds with them? (or for example have they eaten them or were they burned in village raids)
✓ If agriculturalists, is it possible to plant in their new location – will the host community allow it?
✓ If people have animals, how are they feeding them, what is their plan for livestock?
✓ How accessible are wage labour opportunities? Is the market saturated?
✓ Will some/certain family members migrate to specific locations for other work opportunities?
✓ What stage are the people at in their agricultural/pastoral calendar?
✓ Is there any expectation of a harvest? (e.g. will people be able to access their crops in time to cultivate/harvest?)
Coping strategies

- What coping strategies (e.g. different livelihood activities) are people using now to access food and other needs?
- How do these differ from their normal livelihoods?
- How durable are these strategies?
- What are the potential hazards of those coping strategies (e.g. overgrazing, collection of firewood, going to unsafe areas), and how can they be mitigated?
- What are people’s overall thoughts/feelings about the current situation in terms of their food security?
- What do they think will happen over the next six months?
- How does it compare to other years? What year is it most like and why?
- Do people feel that there is a need for external assistance?
- If so, what should that assistance be and who should provide it?

Care Practices (best in a women’s focus group discussions, if possible)

- Have infant feeding practices been affected by the disaster?
- If yes, how? Description of practices (use of colostrum, weaning, complementary foods, use of formula) in typical years.
- What % of mothers of children under two years are breastfeeding?
- How has the emergency changed this from their normal breastfeeding practices?
- How were most people feeding their infants under six months before the emergency (breast milk, infant formula, something else)?
- How has the emergency changed feeding for <6 months?
- What are children above 6 months being fed? (Are mothers relying on breast milk only due to food shortages? What complementary foods are being used? How are they being prepared?)
- Is infant formula available and being used? If so, how is it being prepared?

Please describe current response and existing plans for interventions in this sector:
**C2. HEALTH**

- What are the immediate and obvious health problems (wounds, respiratory infections, gastrointestinal diseases and parasites, malaria, measles)?
- Has the disease pattern changed and/or which have increased since the emergency?
- What does the community feel is the cause and how are they treating it?
- Are health facilities functioning?
- Where are the health centres and hospitals?
- Are there adequate health workers for the facilities?
- Who is staffing the health facilities and the numbers/capacity adequate? (hours of operation, average number of days open/week)
- Are medicines available? Are any medicines free?
- If people must pay for drugs are they at least available in the government or private pharmacy?
- Is regular vaccination going on – which vaccines and are there coverage estimates for the host populations? At the clinic only or is there an outreach campaign?
- Can the vaccination campaign for the 5 major childhood diseases (measles, whooping cough, tetanus, polio, diphtheria) be expanded to cover the population? What is needed?
- Have there been disruptions in supply of medicines, medical equipment or in the cold chain? Of what magnitude?
- Is there a high number of deaths occurring (calculate crude mortality rate – should be at or below, less than twice the baseline rate prior to disaster, calculate under five mortality rate – U5MR)?
- Cause of mortality.
- Causes of morbidity.
- Which agencies are targeting this area?
- Drug list is created by lead agency?
- Dead bodies are disposed of in a dignified and safe manner?
- Parallel or alternate health facilities are established (e.g. Field Hospital)?
- Coordination systems are established including information collection and dissemination (a Health Information System – HIS- is established)?
- Primary health care is provided at the appropriate level (household, community, peripheral facilities, central facilities and referral hospitals)?
- Referral system is established?
- Communicable disease outbreak preparedness measures taken?
- AIDS prevention measures are in place?
- Reproductive health?

*Please describe current response and existing plans for interventions in this sector:*
C3. WATER AND SANITATION

- Do people have access to water? From where? What are traditional water sources? Are they damaged or polluted?
- What alternative water sources exist?
- How much water is available? (indicator of daily consumption/availability)
- Is the available water sufficient for all beneficiaries?
- Is the available water safe for drinking?
- Is water treatment necessary (possible and type of treatment needed)?
- Do people have adequate containers to safely store and transport water?
- Where are the water points? Who collects it? How long does it take to collect the water? Are there security/protection issues related to the collection?
- Is water tankering an option to consider?
- Resources needed for construction of traditional drinking water supply systems. Availability and prices of such resources (material, equipment, HR)
- What are the key hygiene issues related to the water supply?
- Are hygienic items (soap, sanitary protection, etc) available in sufficient quantity?
- What sanitation facilities are people, especially women, using?
- Are there bathing facilities and latrines? Are they segregated (by gender or households)?
- How are people disposing of excreta?
- Defecation practices (open, latrine, designated and secure area)?
- Existing facilities (sufficient, operating)?
- Beliefs and practices (cultural and gender specific)?
- Is defecation area or practice a threat to existing water supplies?
- Are local materials available for toilet construction and will the population use them?
- How are corps, carrions and debris removed?
- What are the vector-borne disease risks? What are traditional beliefs related to vector-borne illnesses?
- What changes in the area or system can reduce vector-borne diseases (drainage, scrub clearance, refuse disposal)? Is chemical control of vectors necessary?
- What information and safety precautions need to be given to households?

Please describe current response and existing plans for interventions in this sector:
C4. SHELTER

- Do people have shelter?
- What shelter solutions have been implemented to date (materials, construction practices – who builds them and how are they build, are there security issues)?
- Where are shelters located and why?
- What form? Is it adequate? Can it be upgraded?
- Who does not have access? Proportion of survivors with access to emergency shelter?
- Is building material locally available?
- What is the immediate risk to life because of lack of or inadequate shelter (who, how many, safety and security risks, health risks)?
- How many people comprise a typical household?
- How are households organized (family, groups, clan, unaccompanied children)?
- What household and livelihood support activities take place within shelters and outside?
- What existing resources are there locally to use for shelter provision?
- Are the beneficiaries able to build the shelters themselves? Are there groups of people who need assistance (elderly, women-headed households, sick etc.)
- What tools do households have to build and maintain a shelter?
- What are the opportunities and constraints regarding land availability, land usage and ownership? Is land prone to flooding?
- What are the opportunities and constraints of host population accommodating refugees?
- What are the opportunities and constraints of using existing buildings and structures?
- What are the opportunities and constraints regarding construction of shelters, availability and prices of the material and transportation?
- What is the expected environmental impact the temporary settlement will have?
- What are the most pressing issues of concern for the host community?

*Please describe current response and existing plans for interventions in this sector:*
C5. NON-FOOD ITEMS

Clothing and Bedding
✓ What is the immediate risk to life because of inadequate clothing, blankets and bedding?
✓ Who and how many have inadequate clothing, blankets, or bedding to protect against climate and to maintain health and dignity?
✓ What is the customary provision of clothing, blankets and bedding among the affected population?
✓ Can clothing and bedding be procured locally?

Personal Hygiene
✓ What essential items are customary/acceptable and needed to address personal hygiene (particular needs of women, children, aged, disabled)?
✓ What additional items will improve the health and dignity of individuals?

Cooking and Eating
✓ How many households do not have adequate cooking and eating utensils (what are the gaps)?
✓ What cooking and eating utensils did they have before the disaster?
✓ How many households do not have access to a stove and an adequate supply of fuel?
✓ What kind of stove and fuel did they use before the disaster?
✓ What are the opportunities and constraints (environmental, local sourcing, sustainability, tools they have) of securing fuel supplies?

Please describe current response and existing plans for interventions in this sector:

C6. EDUCATION AND SOCIAL NEEDS

✓ How great are the disruptions of social structures (personal, family, community, society)?
✓ How has the disaster affected the provision of education (children’s experiences and traumas, school infrastructure, staffing, classroom content etc.)?
✓ What educational structures existed prior to the crisis?
✓ How many children are presently out of school? Is number increased due to emergency?
✓ Have any educational activities been initiated within the affected population?
✓ What learning spaces and school facilities are available?
✓ Are there sufficient numbers of teachers and school staff available?
✓ Are relevant recreational items, textbooks, curriculum and supplies available?
✓ What are the constraints concerning security, access & coordination with local, national and international stakeholders?
✓ Are there particular constraints/issues related to gender and different groups (ethnic, geographic)?

Please describe current response and existing plans for interventions in this sector:
SELECTED REFERENCES


IASC: Guidelines for HIV&AIDS Interventions in Emergency Settings, Geneva, undated


VENRO: Nachhaltigkeit in der Humanitären Hilfe. Bonn, 1999. (Sustainability of humanitarian aid)


WHO: Gender Considerations in Disaster Assessment. Geneva, 2005
Both Reliefweb and Alertnet provide, amongst other things, current daily situation reports on humanitarian disasters, cartographical material, and background analyses. Reliefweb is a UN facility; Alertnet is run by the Reuters news agency.

http://ochaonline.un.org
Homepage of UN OCHA including current information on the process of reform of the UN humanitarian aid system (CERF, Cluster Approach)

www.oneresponse.info
Internet site with information on the cluster system, as well as technical guidelines and handbooks on the areas of activity.

http://ec.europa.eu/echo/index_en.htm
ECHO internet site with information on current humanitarian disasters, as well as on ECHO’s financing practice.

www.odi.org.uk/hpg/index.htm
Internet site of the Humanitarian Policy Group (ODI), a British research institute with good analyses of current humanitarian topics, and methodical approaches.

www.alnap.org/index.htm
Internet site of ALNAP, a network consisting of, amongst others, UN organisations, NGO’s, and also national donors, which is devoted to the subject of evaluation and knowledge management in the field of humanitarian aid.

www.sphereproject.org
Internet site containing the Sphere handbook (also available in French, Russian, Spanish, Arabic and Portuguese), as well as training documents relating to the standards.
For many years the DZI (German Institute for Social Issues) has certified the efficient and careful use of donations entrusted to Welthungerhilfe with its seal of approval.

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Concept papers/orientation frameworks/guidelines

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- Concept Paper: Food security. Guidelines for the Promotion and implementation of Deutsche Welthungerhilfe Food Security Projects, Bonn, May 2004 (available in German, English, French, Portuguese and Spanish)
- Orientation Framework: Partnership for Development. Deutsche Welthungerhilfe and its Partners in Overseas Cooperation, Bonn, June 2005 (available in German, English, French and Spanish)
- Orientation Framework for Activities in the area of HIV&AIDS in the project work of Deutsche Welthungerhilfe, Bonn, 3rd edition July 2005 (available in German, English, French and Spanish)
- Orientation Framework: Conflict-Sensitive Approach in Overseas Co-operation, Bonn, June 2007 (available in German, English, French and Spanish)
- Orientation Framework: Gender in Development Cooperation, Bonn, November 2007 (available in German, English, French and Spanish)
- Guidelines: Impact Orientation in Welthungerhilfe’s Projects and Programmes. Part III: Tools and Methods (CD-Rom), Bonn, October 2008 (available in German, English and French)
- Orientation Framework: Emergency Aid, Bonn, March 2009 (available in German and English)
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